

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS

SABA RESNIK

**THE IMPACT OF MINDFULNESS ON SUSTAINABLE
CONSUMPTION AND CONSUMER WELL-BEING IN APPAREL
CONSUMPTION**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

Ljubljana, 2024

AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

The undersigned Saba Resnik, a student at the University of Ljubljana, School of Economics and Business, (hereafter: SEB LU), author of this written final work of studies with the title The impact of mindfulness on sustainable consumption and consumer well-being in apparel consumption, prepared under supervision of Associate Professor Mateja Kos Koklič

DECLARE

1. this doctoral dissertation to be based on the results of my own research;
2. the printed form of this doctoral dissertation to be identical to its electronic form;
3. the text of this doctoral dissertation to be language-edited and technically in adherence with the SEB LU's Technical Guidelines for Written Works, which means that I cited and / or quoted works and opinions of other authors in this written final work of studies in accordance with the SEB LU's Technical Guidelines for Written Works;
4. to be aware of the fact that plagiarism (in written or graphical form) is a criminal offence and can be prosecuted in accordance with the Criminal Code of the Republic of Slovenia;
5. to be aware of the consequences a proven plagiarism charge based on this doctoral dissertation could have for my status at the SEB LU in accordance with the relevant SEB LU Rules;
6. to have obtained all the necessary permits to use the data and works of other authors which are (in written or graphical form) referred to in this doctoral dissertation and to have clearly marked them;
7. to have acted in accordance with ethical principles during the preparation of this doctoral dissertation and to have, where necessary, obtained permission of the Ethics Committee;
8. my consent to use the electronic form of this doctoral dissertation for the detection of content similarity with other written works, using similarity detection software that is connected with the SEB LU Study Information System;
9. to transfer to the University of Ljubljana free of charge, non-exclusively, geographically and time-wise unlimited the right of saving this doctoral dissertation in the electronic form, the right of its reproduction, as well as the right of making this doctoral dissertation available to the public on the World Wide Web via the Repository of the University of Ljubljana;
10. my consent to publication of my personal data that are included in this doctoral dissertation and in this declaration, when this doctoral dissertation is published;
11. that I have verified the authenticity of the information derived from the records using artificial intelligence tools.

Ljubljana, September 23rd, 2024

Author's signature: _____

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I am extremely grateful to my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Mateja Kos Koklič, for her vital advice, continuous support and patience during my doctoral studies. Above all, I would like to thank her for her swift and helpful responses to all my questions and concerns whether she was on holiday, on sick leave or extremely busy. In addition to her vast knowledge, her warmth and kindness encouraged me throughout my academic research and were crucial to my success. I would like to thank Assistant Professor Petar Gidaković for his technical support and the members of the Defence Committee, Prof. Dr. Elfriede Penz, Prof. Dr. Vesna Žabkar and Prof. Dr. Irena Vida. Their advice, comments and views on the subject and the methodologies have deepened my research.

I would like to thank my work colleagues and the management of XLAB for the patience and support I have received during the last years of my studies. Their support has helped me to complete this thesis.

Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to my partner and my children for their tremendous support, for believing in me, and for being compassionate and patient. I would also like to thank my parents, extended family and friends for all their encouragement over the last few years. Without the extensive support of my family and friends, it would have been impossible for me to complete my studies.

SUMMARY

This dissertation aims to explore how mindfulness can be used to promote pro-environmental and pro-social behaviour at the individual consumer level and to better understand how mindfulness and sustainable consumption promote consumer well-being and overall life satisfaction in relation to fashion apparel consumption. Furthermore, the aim was to explore how green warm glow influences sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and satisfaction with life.

By combining different perspectives and methodologies, this dissertation provides new insights into the topic under investigation and achieves the following research objectives: (i) Explore the relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption. (ii) Gain insight into the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being. (iii) Explore the relationship between mindfulness and consumer well-being. (iv) Provide insight into the impact of green warm glow on sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and life satisfaction. (v) Provide insight into the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction. (vi) Explore the relationship between consumer well-being and life satisfaction. Furthermore, this dissertation has achieved its aim of validating a conceptual model of the interplay of mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer well-being in addition to exploring the relationships between green warm glow, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and life satisfaction.

Following the introduction (Chapter 1), the second chapter »Sustainable consumption of fashion apparel – literature review« provides an overview of sustainable consumption and green warm glow, with the extensive literature review demonstrating the importance of sustainability in the fashion industry. This chapter also highlights the key antecedents and consequences of sustainable consumption and operationalises the constructs of sustainable consumption and green warm glow.

In the third chapter, a comprehensive literature review is conducted to show how mindfulness has been researched in the context of consumption and to conceptualise and operationalise the concept of mindfulness. This chapter concludes with a literature review that supports a positive relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption.

The fourth chapter is dedicated to defining and operationalising the constructs of consumer well-being and life satisfaction. In this chapter, it becomes clear that the terms consumer well-being and consumer happiness are often used as synonyms, and the main antecedents and outcomes of consumer well-being are discussed. This chapter concludes with a literature review that mostly supports a positive relationship between mindfulness and consumer well-being, a positive relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being, and a positive relationship between life satisfaction, mindfulness and consumer well-being.

The fifth chapter presents qualitative research on the relationship between sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and mindfulness. The study results indicate positive

relationships between sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and mindfulness in the concept of fashion apparel consumption. This study also yielded some unexpected findings, one of them showing a possibility of mindfulness having a negative effect on well-being.

The sixth chapter, »Hypotheses and conceptual model development« reveals the theories essential to this research that can help explain the relationship between sustainable consumption, mindfulness, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction and green warm glow - the Self-Determination theory, the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework, and Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory. This chapter also presents the theoretical model, the research questions and the development of hypotheses.

The quantitative research methodology is described in the seventh chapter, which presents the quantitative research objectives, research design and discusses the characteristics of the methodology used for the quantitative research. The eighth chapter »Analysis and results of empirical research« includes the presentation of the sample characteristics, the examination of the measurement model and the structural model. The quantitative study shows a significant positive relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption, between green warm glow, sustainable consumption and life satisfaction. Further, this study shows a significant positive relationship between mindfulness and consumer happiness and a significant positive relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction. This study also reveals some unexpected findings, showing that consumers who purchase more sustainable apparel options do not report higher levels of consumer happiness. In addition, the results of this study show that consumers who tend to consume more second-hand, vintage and rental apparel report lower consumer happiness.

The theoretical contribution of this research lies in the proposed theoretical framework for the relationships between consumer mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, life satisfaction and green warm glow. This research adds to the Self-Determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000) by proposing a framework that supports this theory and shows a positive relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being in the context of fashion apparel consumption. Additionally, this research adds to the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework (Geiger et al., 2018) by showing that mindfulness has a positive effect on the sustainable consumption purchasing behaviour of fashion apparel. Lastly, this research adds to the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory (Garland, 2015) by showing a positive relationship between the concepts of mindfulness and consumer well-being, between mindfulness and life satisfaction, and between consumer well-being and life satisfaction.

This research offers important practical implications for apparel brands and retailers offering sustainable apparel products. The extensive literature review on sustainable consumption and the results of the qualitative study show that sustainable consumers often choose apparel items that last a long time. Accordingly, apparel brands could manufacture products that focus on durability and longevity as well as classic or minimalist design. Both the qualitative and quantitative studies show a clear positive relationship between mindfulness and

sustainable consumption. Therefore, this research can offer specific implications for marketers and policymakers. Such as encouraging marketers and policymakers to promote mindfulness techniques, which can be a useful tactic to promote long-term sustainable behaviour (Kaur & Luchs, 2022).

Keywords: Sustainable consumption, fashion apparel consumption, sustainable fashion, mindfulness, consumer well-being, consumer happiness, life satisfaction, green warm glow, second-hand consumption

POVZETEK

Disertacija si prizadeva raziskati, kako se lahko čuječnost uporablja za spodbujanje okoljskega in družbeno koristnega vedenja na ravni posameznega porabnika, ter bolje razumeti, kako čuječnost in trajnostna potrošnja spodbujata porabnikovo dobrobit in splošno zadovoljstvo z življenjem v povezavi s potrošnjo modnih oblačil. Poleg tega je cilj raziskati, kako zelen topel sijaj vpliva na trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo dobrobit in zadovoljstvo z življenjem.

Z združevanjem različnih perspektiv in metodologij disertacija prinaša nove vpoglede v obravnavano temo in dosega naslednje raziskovalne cilje: (i) Raziskati odnos med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo. (ii) Pridobiti vpogled v odnos med trajnostno potrošnjo in porabnikovo dobrobitjo. (iii) Raziskati odnos med čuječnostjo in porabnikovo dobrobitjo. (iv) Zagotoviti pogled v vpliv zelenega toplega sijaja na trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo dobrobit in zadovoljstvo z življenjem. (v) Zagotoviti vpogled v odnos med čuječnostjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem. (vi) Raziskati odnos med porabnikovo dobrobitjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem. Nadalje je disertacija dosegla svoj cilj potrditve konceptualnega modela medsebojnega vpliva čuječnosti, trajnostne potrošnje in porabnikove dobrobiti, poleg raziskovanja odnosov med zelenim toplim sijajem, trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo dobrobitjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem.

Po uvodnem poglavju (poglavje 1), drugo poglavje »Trajnostna potrošnja modnih oblačil – pregled literature« nudi pregled trajnostne potrošnje in zelenega toplega sijaja, pri čemer obsežen pregled literature poudarja pomen trajnosti v modni industriji. To poglavje izpostavlja tudi ključne predhodnike in posledice trajnostne potrošnje ter operacionalizira konstrukta trajnostne potrošnje in zelenega toplega sijaja.

V tretjem poglavju je izveden obsežen pregled literature, ki prikazuje, kako je čuječnost raziskana v kontekstu potrošnje, in konceptualizira ter operacionalizira koncept čuječnosti. Poglavje se zaključi s pregledom literature, ki podpira pozitivno povezavo med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo.

Četrto poglavje je namenjeno opredelitvi in operacionalizaciji konstruktov porabnikove dobrobiti in zadovoljstva z življenjem. V tem poglavju se pokaže, da se izraza porabnikova dobrobit in porabnikova sreča pogosto uporabljata kot sinonima, razpravlja pa se tudi o glavnih predhodnikih in posledicah porabnikove dobrobiti. Poglavje se zaključi s pregledom literature, ki pretežno podpira pozitivno povezavo med čuječnostjo in porabnikovo dobrobitjo, pozitivno povezavo med trajnostno potrošnjo in porabnikovo dobrobitjo ter pozitivno povezavo med zadovoljstvom z življenjem, čuječnostjo in porabnikovo dobrobitjo.

Peto poglavje predstavlja kvalitativno raziskavo o odnosih med trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo dobrobitjo in čuječnostjo, ki pokaže pozitivne odnose med trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo dobrobitjo in čuječnostjo v kontekstu potrošnje modnih oblačil. Raziskava je

prinesla tudi nekaj nepričakovanih ugotovitev, ena od njih kaže na možnost negativnega vpliva čuječnost na dobrobit.

Šesto poglavje, »Hipoteze in razvoj konceptualnega modela«, razkriva teorije, ki so ključne za raziskavo in lahko pomagajo razložiti odnose med trajnostno potrošnjo, čuječnostjo, porabnikovo dobrobitjo, zadovoljstvom z življenjem in zelenim toplim sijajem - Teorija samodoločanja (Self-Determination theory), Okvir čuječnosti in trajnosti (Mindfulness-Sustainability framework) ter Teorija čuječnosti do smisla (Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory). V tem poglavju so predstavljeni tudi teoretični model, raziskovalna vprašanja in razvoj hipotez.

Metodologija kvantitativne raziskave je opisana v sedmem poglavju, kjer so predstavljeni kvantitativni raziskovalni cilj, raziskovalna zasnova in razprava o značilnostih metodologije, uporabljene pri kvantitativni raziskavi. Osmo poglavje »Analiza in rezultati empirične raziskave« vključuje predstavitev značilnosti vzorca ter preučitev merskega in strukturnega modela. Kvantitativna študija prikaže statistično značilno pozitivno povezavo med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo, med zelenim toplim sijajem, trajnostno potrošnjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem, ter statistično značilno pozitivno razmerje med čuječnostjo in porabnikovo dobrobitjo ter med čuječnostjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem. Raziskava razkriva tudi nekaj nepričakovanih ugotovitev, na primer, da potrošniki, ki kupujejo bolj trajnostna oblačila, ne poročajo o višjih stopnjah porabnikove dobrobiti. Poleg tega rezultati kažejo, da potrošniki, ki bolj pogosto kupujejo rabljena in vintage oblačila ter pogosteje uporabljajo storitve za izposajo oblačil, poročajo celo o nižji porabnikovi dobrobiti.

Teoretični prispevek raziskave leži v predlaganem teoretičnem modelu povezav med porabnikovo čuječnostjo, trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo dobrobitjo, zadovoljstvom z življenjem in zelenim toplim sijajem. Raziskava prispeva k Teoriji samodoločanja (Self-Determination theory) (Ryan in Deci, 2000) s predlogom modela, ki podpira to teorijo in prikazuje pozitiven odnos med trajnostno potrošnjo in dobrobitjo porabnika v kontekstu potrošnje modnih oblačil. Poleg tega raziskava prispeva k teoretičnemu okviru čuječnosti in trajnosti (Mindfulness-Sustainability framework) (Geiger in dr., 2018), tako da prikaže pozitiven vpliv čuječnost na nakupno vedenje trajnostne potrošnje modnih oblačil. Nazadnje, raziskava prispeva k Teoriji čuječnosti do smisla (Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory) (Garland, 2015), tako da prikaže pozitiven odnos med konceptoma čuječnosti in dobrobiti porabnika, med čuječnostjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem ter med dobrobitjo porabnika in zadovoljstvom z življenjem.

Raziskava ponuja tudi pomemben praktični prispevek, kot na primer, za blagovne znamke in trgovce, ki ponujajo trajnostne izdelke oblačil. Obsežen pregled literature o trajnostni potrošnji kot tudi rezultati kvalitativne raziskave kažejo, da trajnostni potrošniki pogosto izbirajo oblačila, ki so obstojna dlje časa. V skladu s tem bi se lahko blagovne znamke oblačil pri proizvodnji osredotočale na vzdržljivost in dolgo življenjsko dobo ter klasičen ali minimalističen dizajn. Poleg tega lahko raziskava ponudi specifične nasvete za tržnike in

oblikovalce politik. Tako kvalitativna kot kvantitativna raziskava kažeta jasno pozitivno razmerje med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo. S tem v mislih lahko tržniki in oblikovalci politik spodbujajo najrazličnejše tehnike čuječnosti, ki so lahko koristna taktika za spodbujanje dolgoročnega trajnostnega vedenja (Kaur & Luchs, 2022).

Ključne besede: Trajnostna potrošnja, potrošnja modnih oblačil, trajnostna moda, čuječnost, dobrobit porabnika, porabnikova sreča, zadovoljstvo z življenjem, zelen topli sijaj, potrošnja rabljenih oblačil, potrošnja oblačil iz druge rok

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	Purpose, aim and research objectives	2
1.2	Structure	6
2	SUSTAINABLE CONSUMPTION OF FASHION APPAREL - LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1	Sustainability in fashion industry	9
2.1.1	Fashion industry	9
2.1.2	Fast fashion industry.....	10
2.1.3	Fashion Industry and its environmental, social and economic Impact.....	12
2.2	Sustainable fashion and sustainable consumers	15
2.2.1	Defining the term “sustainable fashion”	16
2.2.2	Sustainable fashion consumers	16
2.2.3	Three stages of sustainable fashion practices	19
2.2.4	Second-hand and vintage clothing industry and second-hand apparel consumers.....	20
2.2.5	Fashion movements as a response to overconsumption	22
2.2.5.1	<i>Slow fashion</i>	22
2.2.5.2	<i>Minimalism</i>	23
2.2.5.3	<i>Voluntary simplicity and frugality</i>	24
2.2.6	Barriers to sustainable consumption of fashion apparel and behavioural gap .	24
2.2.7	Antecedents and outcomes of sustainable consumption.....	26
2.3	Operationalisation of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel.....	29
2.3.1	Operationalisation of sustainable consumption	29
2.3.2	Sustainable consumption scale and second-hand, vintage and rental scale	31
2.4	Warm glow	32
2.4.1	The concepts of green warm glow and altruistic warm glow: pro-environmental and pro-social behaviour	33
2.4.2	Warm glow as an antecedent and consequence.....	34
2.4.3	Measurement of warm glow and green warm glow	35
2.4.4	Warm glow and well-being	35

2.4.4.1	<i>Operationalisation of warm glow and green warm glow concepts</i>	36
3	MINDFULNESS - LITERATURE REVIEW	36
3.1	The concept of mindfulness	37
3.1.1	Eastern school of thought	38
3.1.2	Western school of thought	38
3.1.3	Similarities between Eastern and Western approaches	40
3.1.4	Constructs related/similar to mindfulness	40
3.1.5	Mindfulness theory	41
3.2	Mindfulness in consumer research	42
3.3	Mindfulness in the context of consumption	44
3.4	Operationalisation of mindfulness	45
3.5	Mindfulness in relationship with sustainable consumption	49
4	CONSUMER WELL-BEING AS A CONCEPT – LITERATURE REVIEW	50
4.1	Happiness and well-being	51
4.1.1	Eudaimonic and hedonic well-being	51
4.1.2	Objective, subjective, and psychological well-being	52
4.1.3	Existing models and theories of well-being	52
4.2	Defining the concept of consumer well-being	54
4.3	Research on consumer well-being and consumer happiness	56
4.3.1	Antecedents of consumer well-being	56
4.3.2	Outcomes of consumer well-being	57
4.4	Operationalisation and measurements of consumer well-being	58
4.4.1	Operationalisation of consumer well-being	58
4.4.2	The Consumer happiness measurement by van Boven and Gilovich	58
4.5	Consumer mindfulness in relation to consumer well-being	60
4.6	Sustainable consumption in relation with consumer well-being	62
4.7	Life satisfaction	63
4.7.1	The concept of satisfaction with life	63
4.7.2	Life satisfaction in consumer studies	64
4.7.3	Life satisfaction and mindfulness	65

4.7.4	Operationalisation of the concept of life satisfaction – The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)	66
5	PRELIMINARY QUALITATIVE RESEARCH	68
5.1	Introduction to the qualitative study	68
5.2	Qualitative study research questions	69
5.3	Methodology of the qualitative study	70
5.3.1	Data collection	70
5.3.2	Sample profile	71
5.3.3	Data analysis	73
5.4	Findings of the qualitative study	73
5.4.1	Emerging themes	73
5.4.2	Mindfulness	74
5.4.3	Mindful consumer behaviours	76
5.4.3.1	<i>Acquisitive consumption</i>	76
5.4.3.2	<i>Repetitive consumption</i>	77
5.4.3.3	<i>Aspirational consumption</i>	78
5.4.4	Sustainable consumption	79
5.4.4.1	<i>First thoughts about sustainable consumption in general</i>	79
5.4.4.2	<i>Characteristics of a sustainable fashion apparel consumer</i>	81
5.4.4.3	<i>Positive and negative consequences of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel</i>	83
5.4.4.4	<i>Sustainable fashion consumption of participants</i>	85
5.4.4.5	<i>Fast fashion and fashion industry consequences</i>	89
5.4.5	Well-being concept	92
5.4.5.1	<i>First thoughts about the concept of consumer well-being</i>	92
5.4.5.2	<i>Participants' own well-being in general</i>	93
5.4.5.3	<i>Negative fashion apparel consumer experiences</i>	94
5.4.5.4	<i>Positive fashion apparel consumer experiences</i>	96
5.5	Relationship between concepts of well-being, mindfulness and sustainable consumption	98
5.5.1	The relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption	98
5.5.2	The relationship between well-being and mindfulness	99

5.5.3	The relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being	101
5.6	Discussion and implications of the qualitative research.....	103
5.6.1	The concept of mindfulness and mindful consumer	103
5.6.2	Sustainable consumption and main characteristics of sustainable consumer.	104
5.6.3	The environmental and social impact of fast fashion.....	105
5.6.4	Consumer well-being or happiness	106
5.6.5	The relationship between mindfulness, consumer well-being and sustainable consumption	106
5.6.6	Unexpected findings.....	107
6	HYPOTHESES AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL DEVELOPMENT.....	108
6.1	Theoretical foundation for the quantitative study	109
6.2	Conceptual model and hypotheses development.....	112
6.2.1	Conceptual model.....	112
6.2.2	Hypotheses development.....	113
6.2.2.1	<i>Main hypotheses</i>	113
6.2.2.2	<i>Additional hypotheses</i>	115
6.3	Control relationships	118
7	QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	120
7.1	Research objectives and design.....	120
7.1.1	Research design.....	121
7.1.2	Research methods.....	122
7.1.3	Common method bias.....	122
7.2	Internet-based survey research.....	123
7.3	Maximising response rates	124
7.4	Construct operationalisation.....	125
7.4.1	Measuring sustainable consumption	126
7.4.1.1	<i>Sustainable consumption behaviour scale</i>	126
7.4.1.2	<i>Second-hand, vintage and rental scale</i>	127
7.4.2	Measuring consumer happiness.....	127
7.4.3	Measuring mindfulness: Langer mindfulness scale	128
7.4.4	Measuring additional constructs: green warm glow and life satisfaction	129

7.4.4.1	<i>Green warm glow</i>	129
7.4.4.2	<i>Life satisfaction</i>	130
7.5	Socio-demographic questions	130
8	ANALYSIS AND RESULTS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH	131
8.1	Sample characteristics	131
8.1.1	Final sample size and data collection	131
8.1.2	Respondents' characteristics.....	131
8.1.3	Descriptive statistics	133
8.2	Measurement model and structural model testing	134
8.2.1	Measurement model	134
8.2.1.1	<i>Assessment of the model fit</i>	134
8.2.1.2	<i>Assessment of the unidimensionality</i>	135
8.2.1.3	<i>Assessment of reliability and validity</i>	136
8.2.2	Structural model testing.....	140
8.2.3	Structural model testing with control variables	142
8.2.4	Mediation tests.....	145
8.3	Discussion	146
9	GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	151
9.1	Summary of the main findings	151
9.2	Implications and Contribution	156
9.2.1	Theoretical contributions	156
9.2.2	Practical implications	162
9.3	Study limitations and future research opportunities	165
	REFERENCE LIST	169
	APPENDICES	221

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Summary of similarities and differences between fast fashion companies and ultra-fast fashion companies	11
Table 2: The main characteristics of sustainable consumers.....	18
Table 3: Overview of studies describing antecedents of sustainable consumption.....	27

Table 4: Overview of studies describing outcomes of sustainable consumption.....	29
Table 5: SCB scale, the dimension of the acquisition phase.....	32
Table 6: Items of Langer mindfulness scale (LMS21).....	47
Table 7: An overview of research studies using the Langer Mindfulness Scale.....	48
Table 8: An overview of research studies using measurements modelled or adapted by Van Boven and Gilovich (2023).....	59
Table 9: Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS).....	66
Table 10: An overview of research studies using the Satisfaction with Life Scale	67
Table 11: Demographic data of the in-depth interview participants	72
Table 12: Respondents' main criteria when buying fashion apparel	78
Table 13: Characteristics of a sustainable consumer	81
Table 14: Sustainable consumer consumption habits	82
Table 15: Positive and negative consequences of sustainable consumption.....	84
Table 16: Sustainable fashion consumption of participants.....	86
Table 17: Sustainable consumption habits of the respondents.....	87
Table 18: General opinion about the fast fashion industry and products.....	90
Table 19: First thoughts on the concept of consumer well-being or happiness	93
Table 20: Negative experiences of fashion apparel consumers	95
Table 21: Positive experiences of fashion apparel consumers	97
Table 22: Connection between mindfulness and sustainable consumption	99
Table 23: The connection between concepts of mindfulness and well-being.....	100
Table 24: Connection between sustainable consumption and well-being.....	102
Table 25: Main research questions and findings.....	107
Table 26: Overview of the control variables used in the consumer behaviour studies.....	119
Table 27: Advantages and disadvantages of using an Internet questionnaire in comparison to a paper questionnaire	124
Table 28: The acquisition phase dimension of the SCB scale	126
Table 29: Secondhand, vintage and rental scale by Park and Lee (2021) and items about second-hand purchase behaviour from Geiger's SCB scale (2019)	127
Table 30: The level of happiness that clothes bring.....	128
Table 31: LMS14 scale items.....	129
Table 32: Green warm glow measurement	129
Table 33: Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS).....	130
Table 34: Demographic characteristics of respondents.....	132
Table 35: Model fit measures for measurement model (without control variables)	135
Table 36: Item and composite reliability.....	137
Table 37: Convergent validity and discriminant validity results	140
Table 38: Hypothesis overview of the initial model (without control variables) – standardized regression weights	141
Table 39: Model fit measures – final model with control variables.....	142
Table 40: Estimations of the final model with control variables (CFA results with standardized regression weights).....	144

Table 41: Direct, indirect and total effects of antecedents on consumer happiness and life satisfaction	145
---	-----

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Structure of the doctoral dissertation	7
Figure 2: Some of the negative impacts of fast fashion are classified by the three dimensions	13
Figure 3: Warm glow as applied to pro-environmental and pro-social behaviours	34
Figure 4: The proposed conceptual model	112
Figure 5: The conceptual model with all the proposed hypotheses.....	117
Figure 6: Empirical model with supported hypotheses	143
Figure 7: Summary of research main findings	152

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Daljši povzetek (Extended summary in Slovene language)	1
Appendix 2: Operationalisation of sustainable consumption.....	14
Appendix 3: Sustainable Consumption Scale.....	17
Appendix 4: Warm glow and green warm glow measurements.....	18
Appendix 5: Consumer happiness measurements	19
Appendix 6: Life Satisfaction (LS) scale	20
Appendix 7: Cover letter	21
Appendix 8: Content of the questionnaire.....	22
Appendix 9: Socio-demographic questions.....	25
Appendix 10: Demographic characteristics of respondents	28
Appendix 11: Demographic statistics comparison	29
Appendix 12: Descriptive Statistics	30
Appendix 13: Measurement Model	31
Appendix 14: Common method variance.....	32
Appendix 15: Model Fit Summary AMOS output	34
Appendix 16: Structural model	35
Appendix 17: Second-hand, vintage and rental consumption	36

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE – average variance extracted

CFA – confirmatory factor analysis

CFI – Comparative Fit Index

CH – Consumer happiness

CR – composite reliability

CWB – consumer well-being

SWL – satisfaction with life

SWLS – satisfaction with life scale

GWG – Green warm glow

LMS – Langer mindfulness scale

LMS (NP) – the novelty-producing factor of the mindfulness construct

LMS (NS) – the novelty-seeking factor of the mindfulness construct

M – Mindfulness

MMT – Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory

RMSEA – The root-mean-square error of approximation

SCB – Sustainable consumption purchase behaviour

SDT – Self-Determination theory

SRMR – Standardized root mean square residual

1 INTRODUCTION

The current ecological crisis requires new strategies to rapidly transform our society into a more sustainable one. Current consumption patterns are unsustainable and the consumption of goods and services, including textiles and clothing, has a significant impact on the environment and must be addressed as an immediate priority for environmental research. The product life cycle of apparel products (from fibre production to garments disposal) contributes towards the environmental degradation, and as long as the unsustainable consumption of apparel products persists, the environmental degradation will continue as well. Therefore, sustainability requires efforts by the textile industry to produce more sustainable products as well as more environmentally responsible clothing consumption behaviour among consumers (Connell & Kozar, 2014). Many researchers have found a weak relationship between attitudes and behaviours and attitudes and intentions in relation to sustainable consumption (Amel, Manning & Scott 2009; Prothero et al., 2011; Thøgersen, 1994; Young et al., 2010). However, it seems that while consumers are aware of the negative consequences of consumption for themselves, society, businesses and the environment (Quelch, 2007), they tend not to behave according to their intentions (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). One possible explanation is that consumers often make unconscious choices and run on autopilot in their daily consumption without much attention or awareness, which eventually leads to unsustainable consumption practices (Armstrong & Jackson, 2015; Bargh & Chartrand, 1999; Jackson, 2005; Shove & Warde, 1997).

Mindfulness allows individuals to align their behaviour more closely with their values and interests (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Ryan et al., 1997; Shapiro et al., 2006), consequently strengthening the weak association between attitude and behaviour. Thus, mindfulness may fill the gap between attitude and behaviour that has been identified as an obstacle in some unsustainable consumption contexts (Prothero et al., 2011; Thøgersen, 1994; Young et al., 2010). Lack of sufficient attention and awareness is sometimes attributed to consumers' mindlessness in their consumption decisions (Langer, 1992; Langer & Ngnoumen, 2002). Mindless consumption entails paying little attention to one's consumption options, lacking awareness of the consequences of one's decisions and possibly tending to rely on existing distinctions, such as social norms and convenience, to make consumption decisions (Subramaniam, 2016). It is therefore important to empower consumers to make conscious consumption choices that promote individual, social and environmental well-being (Mick, 2012). Research suggests that one way to achieve this is to foster mindfulness in consumers – a capacity that we all already possess (Langer, 1989; Rosenberg, 2004). Mindfulness is both a trait and a psychological construct that refers to the specific quality of being in the moment (Pagnini & Langer, 2015). When people are mindful, they may behave in ways that are more consistent with their values and interests (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Ryan et al., 1997; Shapiro et al., 2006), reinforcing the weak link between attitude and behaviour.

Consumers of fashion apparel being more mindful of their purchasing choices could contribute to less ecological degradation and better working conditions for fashion industry workers. This proves especially true since the fashion industry in general, more than any other industry, embraces obsolescence (Abrahamson, 2011) – it forms the basis for profits – which is at odds with the criteria of sustainability (Cimatti et al., 2017). The issue of sustainability is therefore crucial in the fashion industry and has attracted a lot of attention from consumers (Shen et al., 2014). Consequently, the fashion industry in general, and the fast fashion industry in particular, are key components in the debate about sustainable consumption. Environmental degradation, hazardous chemicals, low wages, violation of workers' rights, and child labour are all issues that plague the fashion industry (Fletcher, 2008). In addition, the advent of fast fashion – trendy, cheap, disposable products – has most likely accelerated the obsolescence of fashion. This raises ethical and environmental questions because it clearly embodies unsustainability (Bly et al., 2015; Cimatti et al., 2017).

People do not necessarily have to consume a large number of products, such as fashion apparel, in order to be happy. With the help of science, we as a society are beginning to challenge the misleading belief that consumption is at the core of well-being and recognise that happiness is not necessarily something that is achieved through more material wealth. Consumer well-being is defined as subjective well-being that results from consumers' experiences (Lee, Sirgy, Larsen, & Wright, 2002). It specifically focuses on the well-being of individuals as consumers and the notion that it is important to consider consumption-related aspects (Lee & Ahn, 2016). For the purposes of this dissertation, I will use the terms consumer happiness and consumer well-being as synonyms following the lead of other researchers (e.g., Chen & Li, 2018; Desmeules, 2002; Diener, 2000; Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002; Ivens, 2007; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Today, it is no longer possible to imagine a future where the pursuit of happiness is not somehow connected to sustainability, and more emphasis must be placed on the interaction between sustainability and well-being (Landes, Unger, Andsjerg, Frank & Wiking, 2015).

1.1 Purpose, aim and research objectives

The current ecological crisis requires new strategies to lead society in a more sustainable direction (Thiermann & Sheate, 2021). This study therefore addressed this issue by examining the role of mindfulness in sustainable fashion apparel consumption, consumer well-being and life satisfaction as well as the role of green warm glow as an antecedent of sustainable fashion apparel consumption, consumer well-being and life satisfaction. These constructs are the main focus of my research from the perspective of Slovenian fashion apparel consumers. Such research is needed to achieve an in-depth understanding of how mindfulness can influence sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction as well as the interrelationships between the concepts of green warm glow, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction. The purpose of this thesis is to validate a conceptual model of mindfulness, sustainable consumption, and

consumer well-being based on mindfulness contributing to sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction; as well as to examine the relationships between green warm glow, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction.

The aim of this dissertation was to shed light on how mindfulness can be used to promote environmentally friendly and pro-social behaviour at the individual consumer level, and to better understand how mindfulness and sustainable consumption promote consumer well-being and overall life satisfaction in relation to fashion apparel consumption. In addition, the aim was to incorporate the construct of green warm glow and explore how it influences sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and satisfaction with life.

According to Langer (1989), people who are mindful consider the uniqueness of a situation before deciding what to do, rather than relying on previous experiences. Because they are able to view situations from multiple perspectives, mindful people better understand how their actions affect others. Consequently, consumers with higher levels of mindfulness pay more attention to the choices they are presented with and are more aware of the consequences of their decisions for themselves, others, and the environment. Therefore, mindfulness may be necessary in order for consumers to adopt sustainable behaviours (Amel et al., 2009). The first objective of this dissertation is therefore:

To explore the relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption.

Many researchers have presented a clear connection between happiness and sustainable consumption behaviour (Brinkerhoff & Jeffrey, 1999; Iwata, 2001; Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007), such as Brown and Kasser (2005) who found that people who engaged in more environmentally responsible behaviours were happier and experienced a greater sense of well-being. Similarly, Kim et al. (2016) developed a framework of proposed relationships between sustainable consumption and happiness. Although several researchers have discussed the positive relationship between sustainable consumption and happiness, Venhoeven et al. (2013) reviewed the theoretical arguments and empirical evidence for why environmentally friendly behaviours can both decrease and increase consumer well-being. Understanding the relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being is of great importance since it can help identify entry points to support sustainable consumers and convince more people to adopt this lifestyle (Carrero, Valor, & Redondo, 2020). Accordingly, more studies are needed on the topic of sustainable consumption and consumer happiness, and thus I present the second objective of this dissertation:

To provide more insights into the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being.

Mindfulness is relevant to a vast array of consumer behaviour issues, such as consumer decision-making, marketing communication, and persuasion among others where it could transform consumer behaviour and lead to higher levels of well-being (Bahl et al., 2016; Brunel & Dong, 2006). Since mindfulness promotes subjective well-being by focusing on

the present moment (Ericson et al., 2014), it can also help consumers move toward more sustainable behaviours (Milne et al., 2020). The third objective of this dissertation is therefore:

To explore the relationship between mindfulness and consumer well-being.

Researchers have studied warm glow as an antecedent, consequence and mediator of pro-social and pro-environmental behaviour (Bazaraa et al., 2022; Hartmann et al., 2017; Ho et al., 2023). Acting pro-environmentally can be psychologically rewarding and green warm glow has been shown to motivate pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003), and pro-social behaviour (Chiengkul et al., 2023). Researchers have studied warm glow as an antecedent of a person's well-being, happiness, and emotional benefit as well as life satisfaction (Videras & Owen, 2006). The emerging construct of green warm glow is not well researched in the context of fashion apparel consumption and therefore the fourth objective of this dissertation is:

To provide more insights into the impact of green warm glow on sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and life satisfaction.

Research over the past several decades demonstrates that mindfulness is associated with a host of positive outcomes (e.g. Grossman et al., 2004; Pepping et al., 2013; Zvolensky et al., 2006) including life satisfaction (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kong et al., 2014; Stolarski et al., 2016). Increasing the level of mindfulness and life satisfaction can be considered vital for an individual (Aşık & Albayrak, 2022). Many recent studies support a positive relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction and focus on the different mediators and moderators that influence this relationship. In my dissertation, I will focus on this relationship in the context of Slovenian consumers of fashion apparel, as the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction is largely unexplored in this particular context. The fifth objective of this dissertation is therefore:

To provide more insights into the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction.

The construct of consumer happiness as a specific domain and the construct of satisfaction with life as a more general concept are closely related and may overlap. Limited research has assessed overall life satisfaction as an outcome of consumer well-being (Hsieh et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2002; McLean et al., 2023). Therefore, the sixth objective of this dissertation is:

To explore the relationship between consumer well-being and life satisfaction.

Despite the recent emergence of different theoretical proposals to link mindfulness and consumption, as well as increased efforts to empirically investigate this nexus, the connection between mindfulness and sustainable consumption remains a largely unresearched area (Fischer et al., 2017). My dissertation thus offers a comprehensive and

systematic overview of previous theoretical knowledge and empirical research by developing a conceptual model tested through empirical research, which addresses gaps in the existing literature. My research approach has been shaped by three underlying theories: the Self-determination theory, the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework and the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory. These theoretical perspectives are complementary to this research and help better explain the relationship between sustainable consumption, mindfulness, and consumer well-being as well as life satisfaction and green warm glow.

The conceptual model proposed in this dissertation is closely related to the Self-Determination theory and the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory, as I try to understand how mindfulness relates to sustainable consumption, and how it relates to life satisfaction in the context of fashion apparel consumption. In addition, I have drawn on the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework to better understand the mindfulness and sustainable consumption constructs on the premise that mindfulness will positively affect the sustainable consumption of fashion apparel.

The literature review in this dissertation consisted of providing an overview of the individual concepts and the relationships between them. As I aimed to explore several research areas and different disciplines, I chose a semi-systematic approach. This particular research methodology is often used in marketing research. It is often followed by qualitative research and allows to build on quantitative research (Snyder, 2019). The relationships between the constructs of mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer happiness, green warm glow and life satisfaction were primarily established based on the literature review. To avoid overlooking the essential literature, I utilised several academic databases such as Academic Search Complete, Biblos, Emerald Insight, JSTOR, SAGE Journals Online, ScienceDirect, SCOPUS, Springer, Wiley Online Library and Google Scholar. I also examined non-peer-reviewed literature, newspaper articles, documentary films and content published on blogs.

As a supporting tool, generative AI technology has been used when writing this dissertation. I have used AI-based editors Grammarly and Insta Text to polish texts with real-time corrections. I also used ChatGPT (Chat Generative Pretrained Transformer 3.5), a text-based large language model, to create an image and to help me translate the summary from English to Slovenian language. I also used the technologically advanced software Zotero to capture citations, organise and cite research resources.

The conceptual model is constructed by drawing from a synthesis of literature in the field of consumer behaviour studies, mindfulness and sustainability, and preliminary qualitative research where Self-determination theory, the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework and the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory are used as a theoretical tool. To test the hypotheses and conceptual model, I used a number of different statistical tools, starting with descriptive statistics and describing the sample characteristics of 474 respondents. I continued by assessing the measurement model, following the assessment of the structural model where the relationship between constructs of mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer

happiness, green warm glow and life satisfaction were established. I have used the partial least square technique for structural equation modelling which represents a collection of statistical techniques that allows us to explore the relationships between one or more independent variables.

1.2 Structure

This dissertation is essentially divided into three main parts, the first providing the theoretical background, the second the preliminary qualitative investigation and the third the empirical analysis. It begins with an introduction which is followed by eight chapters (see Figure 1): (2) Sustainable Consumption of Fashion Apparel – Literature review; (3) Mindfulness - Literature Review; (4) Consumer Well-being as a Concept – Literature Review; (5) Preliminary Qualitative Research; (6) Hypothesis and Conceptual Model Development; (7) Quantitative Research Methodology; (8) Analysis and Results of Empirical Research; (9) General Discussion and Conclusions. The contents of each chapter are briefly described in Figure 1.

At the beginning (Chapter 1) I provide an overview of the broader subject area, establish the purpose and research objectives, discuss the theoretical background, briefly touch on the methodology, and finally present the structure of the dissertation. The second chapter (Chapter 2) of the dissertation analyses the theoretical framework for the constructs of sustainable consumption and warm glow. This includes an overview of sustainability in the fashion industry and a description of sustainable fashion and sustainable consumers, followed by the operationalisation of the construct of sustainable consumption and finally the overview and operationalisation of the green warm glow construct. In the third chapter (Chapter 3), I provide an overview of the concept of mindfulness, including a deep dive into the different schools of thought on the matter, operationalise the term mindfulness, and finally illustrate the relationship between the constructs of mindfulness and sustainable consumption. In the fourth chapter (Chapter 4), the constructs of consumer happiness and life satisfaction are presented, starting with general well-being, consumer happiness and an overview of research on consumer happiness. Furthermore, the operationalisation of consumer well-being is presented, followed by a presentation of the relationship between mindfulness and consumer well-being as well as the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being. Finally, the concept of life satisfaction is characterised.

Figure 1: Structure of the doctoral dissertation

Doctoral Dissertation Structure	Chapter 1	Introduction
	Chapter 2	Sustainable Consumption of Fashion Apparel – Literature Review
	Chapter 3	Mindfulness - Literature Review
	Chapter 4	Consumer Well-Being as a Concept – Literature Review
	Chapter 5	Preliminary Qualitative Research
	Chapter 6	Hypothesis and Conceptual Model Development
	Chapter 7	Quantitative Research Methodology
	Chapter 8	Analysis and Results of Empirical Research
	Chapter 9	General Discussion and Conclusion

Source: Own work.

In the fifth chapter (Chapter 5) I comprehensively present the preliminary qualitative research study, including the methodology of the qualitative study, findings of the study, illumination of the relationships between the concepts of mindfulness, consumer well-being, and sustainable consumption; and finally, present the discussion and implications of the qualitative study. The next chapter (Chapter 6) provides the theoretical basis for the development of the conceptual model for this research, with an elaboration on the construct model and research questions, continuing with the further development of eight hypotheses and a presentation of control variables.

In the next chapter (Chapter 7) I present the quantitative research objectives and design, and discuss the characteristics of the methodology used for quantitative research. In addition, all the constructs are operationalised and socio-demographic questions are presented. This is followed by the eighth chapter (Chapter 8) where I analyse the empirical research, including the presentation of sample characteristics, the presentation of the results of the descriptive statistics, the examination of the measurement model and structural model, and finally a comprehensive discussion of the results. Lastly, the thesis concludes with Chapter 9 which explains the theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions. Finally, the limitations of this thesis and implications for future research are explored.

2 SUSTAINABLE CONSUMPTION OF FASHION APPAREL - LITERATURE REVIEW

Every decision about whether to consume (or not to consume) a product contributes to a more or less sustainable pattern of consumption (Young et al., 2010). Sustainable consumption as a term, was first introduced to international policy and research in the Agenda 21, an action plan for sustainable development adopted at the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (Bly et al., 2015). Two years later, the Oslo Symposium (Norwegian Ministry of the Environment, 1994) defined sustainable consumption as follows: “the use of services and related products, which respond to basic needs and bring a better quality of life while minimizing the use of natural resources and toxic materials as well as the emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle of the service or product so as not to jeopardize the needs of further generations”. Later definitions of sustainable consumption also include consistency (McDonough & Braungart, 2002) and the production of products with materials that can be fully reused, composted or recycled (Princen, 2005). Researchers often refer to sustainable consumption as a type of consumption that encompasses multiple dimensions, including environmental, economic, and social dimensions (Balderjahn et al., 2013; Geiger et al., 2018; Huang & Rust, 2011; Lim, 2017). Shmelev and Shmeleva (2018) define sustainability as the multidimensional ability to operate successfully simultaneously in the social, economic and environmental spheres. Thus, to achieve sustainability, all three aspects - society, economy and environment - need to be considered (Dickens et al., 2019). This is also in line with the triple bottom line approach, which emphasises the three core dimensions of sustainability — environmental quality (planet), social justice (people) and economic prosperity (profit) (Elkington, 2013), where the requirements of all three dimensions (planet, people and profit) should ideally be met simultaneously. The environmental dimension includes consumer preference for environmentally friendly and green products (Minton & Rose, 1997), recycling (Thøgersen, 1996), and energy and resource conservation (Roberts & Bacon, 1997). The social dimension includes socially responsible consumers who purchase, use and dispose of products to minimise harmful impacts and maximise long-term positive impacts on society (Mohr et al., 2001). For example, the purchase of fair-trade products (Khare, 2023). The economic dimension includes consumers who are concerned about their own long-term economic and personal well-being (Sheth et al., 2011). For example, by limiting their consumption and balancing their spending within their budget in a sustainable way to avoid overspending and debt (Quelch & Jocz, 2007). Anti or reduced consumption has also been studied within voluntary simplicity, limited consumption, downshifting and anti-materialism (Black & Cherrier, 2010; Cherrier, 2009). Closely related to anti-consumption is consumer refusal or consumption rejection, i.e. consumer movements aimed at bringing about changes in the market through boycotts or protests (Bly et al., 2015).

To reduce the complexity of sustainability issues and simplify the identification of relevant spheres of action many authors (e.g., Ivanova et al., 2016; W. Liu, Oosterveer, & Spaargaren,

2016; Tukker, Cohen, Hubacek, & Mont, 2010) focus on specific areas of consumption namely food, housing, mobility and clothing (Ivanova et al., 2016; Lorek & Spangenberg, 2001; Steen-Olsen & Hertwich, 2015). For the purpose of this dissertation, I focused on clothing due to its being an ecologically and socioeconomically relevant area of consumption because of its major impact on the natural environment and the living conditions of the workers involved in the production process.

In the second chapter of this dissertation, I will first tackle the issue of sustainability in the fashion industry, then I will define the term sustainable fashion and present the main characteristics of sustainable consumers. Further, I will operationalise sustainable consumption of fashion apparel and conclude this chapter with the presentation of the warm glow concept and its operationalisation.

2.1 Sustainability in fashion industry

2.1.1 Fashion industry

Fashion can be related to clothing and appearance as well as furniture, interior design, the food we eat, and even the novels we read (Welters & Lillethun, 2018). For the purposes of this thesis, I will use the term fashion in regard to apparel and clothing. Regardless of different views and definitions of fashion, the one feature that everyone agrees on is that fashion involves currency, implying change over time (Welters & Lillethun, 2018). Different definitions of fashion show that the term fashion implies ways of dressing confined to a moment in time and space, is both temporal and geographical and often associated with modernity (Welters & Lillethun, 2018). Bly et. al (2015) describe fashion as something more than clothing that serves the basic needs of coverage and modesty and in addition embodies symbolic meanings and shares some level of mutual social understanding (Bly et al., 2015).

Fashion became an industry in the late 18th century as a result of the industrial and commercial revolution with the expansion of global trade, advances in technology, and economic prosperity that led to the rapid growth of retail stores and made clothing more accessible and affordable (Sterlacci & Arbuckle, 2017). Today, the fashion industry is one of the largest industries in the world, generating \$2.5 trillion in annual revenue worldwide before the pandemic (Amed et al., 2022). While the fashion industry has experienced rapid growth, it has been slow to address issues such as climate change, fair trade, and sustainable fashion, becoming one of the most detrimental industries to the planet (Sterlacci & Arbuckle, 2017). In the early 1970s, environmental groups and conscious fashion companies brought corporate responsibility to the forefront, introducing new terms such as fair trade, sustainability, transparency, eco-fashion, slow fashion, zero waste, upcycling, recycling, and corporate responsibility (Sterlacci & Arbuckle, 2017). As technology advances, the fashion industry will continue to evolve, and wearable technologies, virtual reality devices, robotic sewing machines, and 3-D printing are likely to have a major impact on tomorrow's fashion

industry (Koo & Chae, 2022; Serrano et al., 2021; Sterlacchi & Arbuckle, 2017; Xiao & Kan, 2022).

The fashion industry is among the world's most polluting industries since it requires immense quantities of raw materials, creates substantial levels of pollution, leaves a significant carbon footprint, and generates tremendous levels of waste (Brewer, 2019). The United Nations declared the fashion industry an environmental and social emergency, as it produces nearly 20% of the world's waste and 10% of global carbon emissions (World Economic Forum, 2019). The fashion industry, more than any other industry, embraces obsolescence (Abrahamson, 2011) and is characterized by planned obsolescence that arguably has become even more acute with the advent of fast fashion (Bly et al., 2015). As a result, the pace of fashion obsolescence has accelerated, presumably to the detriment of long-term sustainability (Bly et al., 2015). It is estimated that it takes 20,000 litres of water to make just one T-shirt and one pair of jeans (World Economic Forum, 2019). Consequentially, the fashion industry is the key element of the sustainable consumption debate and faces a number of sustainability and social responsibility challenges. Notoriously, the fashion industry is also associated with numerous social problems, such as prohibitions on workers joining or forming unions, abuse, child labour, forced labour, low pay, and dangerous working conditions (Niebank, 2018; Walk Free Foundation, 2018). Environmental degradation, hazardous chemicals, low wages, violation of workers' rights and child labour are all issues that plague the fashion industry (Fletcher, 2008).

The fashion industry tempts people to constantly buy new clothes, which can lead to overconsumption. Highly fashion-oriented consumers tend to engage in material consumption. This can encourage overconsumption, as fashion trends tend to be short-lived and fashion adoption contributes to planned obsolescence (Gupta et al., 2019). Overconsumption is a large part of the unsustainable behaviour of fashion consumers, as the overconsumption of fast-fashion products puts a strain on the ecosystem (Perry, 2018). Overconsumption can lead to humanity exceeding the limits of the environment's carrying capacity by depleting resources and the sustaining environment, resulting in future generations being unable to sustain current levels of consumption (Pantelic et al., 2016), thus reducing overconsumption of fashion products can have a positive impact on the environment and society.

2.1.2 Fast fashion industry

It is very difficult to talk about the fashion industry without mentioning one of the biggest trends in this industry - fast fashion. Fast fashion processes are characterized by two crucial elements: a short time span for product development, manufacturing and distribution, and a huge selection of products that requires an integrated and efficient supply chain. The concept of fast fashion, as we know it today, originated in Europe and was adopted by well-known fashion retailers and brands such as H&M, Zara, Mango, and Benetton (Passariello, 2008).

Fast fashion is now a global trend where fashion companies respond quickly to rapidly changing fashion trends and consumer tastes while maintaining low prices and a very fast and responsive supply chain that can develop a new design and have it in retail stores within two weeks (Hall, 2018).

Table 1: Summary of similarities and differences between fast fashion companies and ultra-fast fashion companies

Strategic choices	Fast fashion	Ultra-fast fashion
Digital vs. physical stores	Physical stores Website (online) stores	Online stores (website and mobile app)
Originated	Europe	China
Entire product cycle completed very fast	Yes. In several weeks.	Yes. Less than a week.
Quick response	Yes. Local production and production in Asian and African countries. Cooperation with large factories.	Yes. Locally produced (e.g. in China). Cooperation with small and medium-sized companies.
Wide range	Approximately 500 new items per week.	Approximately 7000 new items per week.
Low prices	Yes.	Yes. Prices are up to 50% lower than competitors.
Responsible business	Some. Individual initiatives.	No. No transparency and no information.

Source: Adapted from Uchańska-Bieniusiewicz and Obloj (2023) and own elaboration based on Weinswig (2017) and Passariello (2008).

In recent years, a new trend has emerged in the fashion industry – ultra-fast fashion or online fast fashion. This term represents fast fashion companies and brands that mostly or exclusively sell their items in online stores. With the advent of Industry 4.0, new challenges and new opportunities have emerged in the fast fashion industry (dos Santos et al., 2021). Online fast fashion or ultra-fast fashion retailers are constantly introducing new products to meet consumer demand, often driven by social media interactions, and have an advantage over traditional fast fashion retailers because they are not constrained by the physical store environment and have faster lead times (Parker-Strak et al., 2020). As a result, they offer consumers a much wider range of products (Parker-Strak et al., 2020). While traditional fast-fashion retailers take between 5 weeks and 6 months to complete the entire product cycle, online-only retailers design and deliver a new product in less than a week (Weinswig, 2017). Conventional fast-fashion retailers that operate brick-and-mortar stores have introduced exclusive online collections and services such as expedited delivery for online purchases

(López et al., 2022). As a result, sales of the largest EU importer of apparel and footwear from online fashion sales increased from €2.81 billion in 2006 to €21.18 billion in 2020, representing 30 per cent of total sales in 2019 (Online Monitor, 2020). More recently, the trend toward online shopping was further accelerated by the temporary closure of physical stores during the Covid 19 pandemic (López et al., 2022). Some of the main differences between fast fashion and ultra-fast fashion are presented in Table 1, where similarities and differences between strategic choices that have been used by fast fashion companies and ultra-fast fashion are summarised.

2.1.3 Fashion industry and its environmental, social and economic impact

The fashion industry has been criticised for being socially irresponsible and environmentally unsustainable (Joy et al., 2012) therefore I will dedicate this part of the chapter to the environmental, social and economic impact of the fashion industry. The focus of this subchapter will be namely on negative impacts of fashion industry, with the summary presented in Figure 2.

As already mentioned, the fashion industry has a significant impact on the environment, such as carbon and fossil fuel emissions, deforestation, and large waste production to name a few. The fashion industry is also responsible for a significant amount of water consumption and water pollution (Reports, 2020; World Economic Forum, 2019), specifically textile production and dyeing processes since they require large quantities of water and generate wastewater that often contains toxic chemicals. Certain materials have a bigger environmental footprint than others, such as cotton and polyester (Paço et al., 2021). In the case of polyester, there is a significant waste of water, and polyester is not biodegradable (Koszevska, 2018) and contributes to higher carbon and fossil fuel emissions (Ganz, 2020). In the case of cotton, some sources estimate that it may take more than 19,000 l of water to produce a single T-shirt and a pair of jeans (Sweeny, 2015). On top of large water consumption and pollution, the production, transportation, usage, maintenance and disposal of clothing all contribute to the industry's excessive carbon emissions. For example, 90% of garments are shipped in container ships that use fossil fuels, increasing carbon emissions (Sweeny, 2015). The fashion industry also produces a large amount of toxic wastewater by-product, uses harmful chemicals (Bly et al., 2015; Harris et al., 2016) and burdens the ecosystem with toxic chemicals used in production that pollutes water and soil (Perry, 2018). Further, the low pricing strategy of the fast fashion industry leads consumers to buy products easily and more instinctively and consequentially more frequently throw away clothes because of their lower quality, abundance and low price (Joy et al., 2012; Sweeny, 2015). It has been estimated that more than half of garments produced by fast fashion brands are discarded by consumers after one year of purchase (Vilaça, 2022) and these clothes often end up in landfills, generating a tremendous amount of waste (Wei & Jung, 2021).

Figure 2: Some of the negative impacts of fast fashion are classified by the three dimensions

Fashion Industry	Dimensions	Negative impact
	Environmental	Water pollution Water waste Fuel emissions Waste pollution
	Social	Exploitation of workers Child labour Gender inequality
	Economic	Human, animal and Planet health Unsafe working conditions Overspending

Source: Own work.

Besides significant environmental degradation, there are also numerous social and economic concerns related to the fashion industry (Brewer, 2019), such as exploitation of workers, poor working conditions, child labour, gender inequality and negative impact on human health due to the use of chemicals during the manufacturing process. The fashion industry is known for its reliance on cheap labour, poor labour conditions and low wages (Bly et al., 2015; Harris et al., 2016), particularly in developing countries, which can have negative impacts on workers' rights and well-being. Factories in developing countries can have less strict restrictions and poorer regulations than those in developed nations and workers in the fashion industry during peak season are found to work intensively for lengthy periods (Mukherjee, 2015). Especially fast fashion products are manufactured in developing countries to keep costs low (Shen, 2014) which raises ethical issues such as poor working conditions and unfair trade practices (Bauck, 2017; Textile News, 2017).

To lower manufacturing costs, some fast fashion companies use sweatshop factories and child labour (Lundblad & Davies, 2016). Child labour as defined by the United Nations (UN) is "work for which the child is either too young – work done below the required minimum age – or work which, because of its detrimental nature or conditions, is altogether considered unacceptable for children and is prohibited" (Moulds, n.d.). Estimated by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) around 260 million children are employed around the world of which 170 million are engaged in child labour. Many of these child labourers work in the fashion supply chain, producing the textiles and garments that meet consumer demand in Europe, the U.S. and beyond (Moulds, n.d.). One of the goals of the International Labour Organization (ILO) is to eliminate child labour despite it being a big challenge in the clothing

and textile industry (Allwood et al., 2006) because of the complex supply chain for each garment where even brands that have strict guidelines in place for suppliers, work often gets sub-contracted to other factories that the buyer may not even know about (Moulds, n.d.). The labour market in the fashion industry is highly segmented, with women and children restricted to a specific set of jobs. The overwhelming number of women workers in factories and their relative powerlessness in terms of their absence from higher management positions and difficult socioeconomic backgrounds often make them vulnerable to exploitation and sexual abuse (Mukherjee, 2015).

The fashion industry is a multi-billion dollar industry with a large economic impact that benefits the economy because of the large number of jobs it creates and the amount of money it generates. The recent growth of the fashion industry is largely due to the rise of the fast fashion industry (Assoune, n.d.; Swatski, 2021), where the production of fast fashion products is mostly done in developing countries where people are willing to work for very low wages (Assoune, n.d.). Nevertheless, the downsides of this industry have become more apparent as the industry has negative impacts on human health, animals and the planet. Unsafe working conditions and high production demands, which often burden the workers, affect their health and promote illness and injury, negatively impacting the workforce of the global economy (Chaudhary, 2022). Despite its justified criticisms, the fast fashion industry is still a strong economic driver (Josephson, 2023).

In recent decades, the fashion industry has increasingly adopted unsustainable production techniques to keep up with demand and increase profit margins. However, in response to growing consumer interest in sustainability and ethics in fashion, some sectors of the fashion industry have begun to offer sustainable options in their product lines (McNeill & Moore, 2015) and implement various solutions such as new socially and ethically responsible collection lines, being more transparent, reducing waste, and incorporating the ideas of a circular economy. Some fashion companies adopted sustainable production practices, such as using eco-friendly materials (e.g. EcoRight, Mila.Vert), reducing waste and pollution (e.g. Bottega Veneta, People Tree, Patagonia), improving working conditions for employees (e.g. Monsoon Blooms, STANLEY/STELLA), and implementing circular economy model (e.g. MUD Jeans, A.BCH). Fashion brands, governments, and numerous organisations have begun to educate consumers about the impact of their consumption choices, providing information about the environmental and social impacts of various fabrics and production methods, and promoting more conscious purchasing behaviour. Another possible solution to the high production and consumption volumes would be to slow down the process by reducing the volume of clothes made and the number of collections made per season (Munasinghe et al., 2021).

In light of increasing social and environmental sensitivity among consumers, fast fashion brands have implemented changes in their business models and their entire value chain to behave more ethically (Henninger et al., 2016; Miotto & Youn, 2020). Leading fast fashion brands have established corporate social responsibility programs to improve their

environmental and social sustainability (Wei & Jung, 2021). Two such examples are ZARA and H&M. H&M launched its “H&M Conscious” collections in 2012, offering environment-friendly fashion products (‘Sustainability Reporting 2022’, n.d.) and ZARA introduced “Join Life” collection with designs made from sustainable materials (Ehlers, 2016).

Due to the above-mentioned characteristics, the fashion industry, specifically fast fashion, is considered one of the most polluting and socially irresponsible industries (Bly, 2015; Garcia-Torres, 2017; Karaosman, 2017; Shen et al., 2014). As mentioned previously, one of the solutions for this problem is sustainable fashion which I will discuss in more detail in the next chapter.

2.2 Sustainable fashion and sustainable consumers

Concern about environmentally friendly consumption has spread rapidly in recent decades in various circles, including the fashion world (Moon et al., 2015). Considering what I have written so far about the fashion industry it is hard to imagine that the terms fashion and sustainability can even coexist, which has been a struggle for other researchers as well (Lundblad & Davies, 2016). Some might even go as far as to say that sustainability and ethics in the context of the fashion industry is an oxymoron (Berger-Grabner, 2018; Bly et al., 2015; Rutter et al., 2017). Fashion can be defined by hedonism, overconsumption and short product life cycles (Ozdaman Ertekin & Atik, 2015), while the term sustainability implies ethics, durability and the reuse of products (Cervellon et al., 2010). Nevertheless, the overlap of these concepts is certainly not a new idea (Lundblad & Davies, 2016) with the first anti-fur campaigns in the 1980s, and numerous sweatshop scandals in the late 1990s (BSR, 2012). Sustainable consumption in the context of fashion apparel has evolved over time, and has been shaped by a range of social, environmental, and economic factors. In recent years, consumers are increasingly striving for a more sustainable lifestyle (Granskog et al., 2020) and particularly in the fashion industry, sustainability is becoming a big trend as consumers are starting to express environmental concerns (Rosmarin, 2020). With the increasing emphasis on ethics and sustainability around the world, many fashion designers have begun to change their clothing manufacturing practices and many fashion producers now use sustainable fibres (e.g., hemp, organic cotton, bamboo, recycled fabrics), promote second-hand clothing, and advocate for ethical working conditions (McNeill & Moore, 2015). Sustainable fashion consumption research is also following this trend and can be divided into the emergence period in 2010, the growth period from 2010 to 2015 and the expansion or maturity period from 2016 onwards with a number of studies on sustainable fashion growing exponentially and doubling each period (Dabas & Whang, 2022). Furthermore, the number of reported studies continued to grow in 2020 (Dabas & Whang, 2022). In the following subchapters, I will describe sustainable fashion, define sustainable fashion consumers, and describe several stages in which sustainable fashion practices can be applied, namely manufacturing, pre-purchase, purchase, use and disposal.

2.2.1 Defining the term “sustainable fashion”

With the advent of terms such as ethical fashion, eco-fashion, organic fashion and green fashion, the concept of sustainable fashion has expanded considerably (Dabas & Whang, 2022; Mukendi et al., 2020). A single definition of sustainable fashion is difficult to pinpoint as there are no strict industry standards (Lundblad & Davies, 2016). Sustainable fashion includes terms such as ecological, ethical, green, sustainable, recycled, slow, eco and organic fashion (Carey & Cervellon, 2014; Cervellon et al., 2010). Although these terms overlap to some degree, in practice each captures a particular aspect of sustainable fashion (Dabas & Whang, 2022). For example, ethical fashion is focused on a social aspect such as sweatshop-free working conditions (Barnes & Lea-Greenwood, 2006) while organic fashion emphasizes minimizing the use of harmful toxins and chemicals (Maloney et al., 2014). Further, eco-fashion focuses more on environmentally friendly processes such as the use of recycled, non-textile materials (Carey & Cervellon, 2014), while green fashion is usually considered a broader term - including social, environmental, and fair trade practices (Khare, 2023). Additionally, the field of sustainable fashion is not limited to material products but has expanded to include services, behaviours, and ideas as well (Dabas & Whang, 2022). Lundblad and Davies (2016) summarize various authors with a simple description of sustainable fashion that attempts to correct a variety of perceived ills in the fashion industry, including environmental damage, animal cruelty and worker exploitation. For the purpose of this dissertation, I define sustainable fashion as a part of the industry that incorporates one or more aspects of social and environmental sustainability while not harming the environment or workers (Chang & Watchravesringkan, 2018; Harris et al., 2016) and adherence to policies against animal cruelty, environmentally friendly materials, standards against worker exploitation, and environmentally sustainable supply chain practises (Lundblad & Davies, 2016).

2.2.2 Sustainable fashion consumers

When I talk about sustainable consumption in the fashion industry, it is of utmost importance to also talk about sustainable fashion consumers, who they are and what their characteristics are. I will discuss this topic in the next section.

Some consumers are more aware of sustainability and the social and environmental consequences of their purchases (Sudbury-Riley & Kohlbacher, 2016) and seek to tackle some of the negative impacts on the environment and society by consuming in sustainable ways (Meet the ‘Conscious Consumer’, 2019). Lately, we have witnessed a growing segment of consumers of sustainable products interested in knowing whether the product has been made by a producer that respects the environment and has ethical principles, and if the raw materials were acquired in a sustainable and socially acceptable way (Paço et al., 2021). As consumers are generally more aware of the consequences of their consumption, the same trend can be observed in the fashion industry. Consequently, demand for sustainable fashion

has grown around the world (Ellevat, n.d.), urging fashion houses and retailers to take an interest in sustainability and begin to offer more sustainable options in their product lines (Hill & Lee, 2012; Lundblad & Davies, 2016).

According to previous studies, there are several ways in which individuals consume sustainable fashion, such as purchasing sustainable brands with organic textiles that are produced without damaging the environment (Caniato et al., 2012; Kang et al., 2013), or buying second-hand clothing, renting or swapping fashion garments, or reusing/re-designing old clothes (Hedegård et al., 2020; Lang et al., 2019). Consumers of sustainable fashion are most likely driven by self-expression, aesthetic satisfaction and group conformity (Kim & Damhorst, 1998), as well as ethical obligations (Shaw et al., 2006) and/or avoiding feelings of guilt (Ha-Brookshire & Hodges, 2009). Pro-environmental consumer purchase is driven by personal, social, and cultural values (Miotto & Youn, 2020). Ethical consumers are motivated by individual and social values, ideas and ideologies (Miotto & Youn, 2020). Environmentally conscious fashion consumers no longer focus exclusively on the appearance of a product (Moon et al., 2015). They also pay attention to its green features, such as the use of environmentally friendly materials, production processes, and logistics, reduced carbon emissions, recyclability and biodegradability (Fletcher, 2008). Studies into purchasing behaviour have suggested that consumers have been showing increasing levels of ethical concern in the context of fashion consumption (Niinimäki, 2010). Dickson (2001) found that consumers were concerned about the social consequences of their purchases, especially when human rights in factories are violated. Sweatshop labour, in particular, has been identified as one of the most important ethical concerns when making clothing decisions (Tomolillo and Shaw, 2004; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008). Studies to date have shown that consumer knowledge of environmental and sustainability issues is positively related to sustainable fashion consumption (Bianchi & Gonzalez, 2021).

Studies also show that fashion consumers' attitudes toward sustainability in their fashion purchasing are determined by their general level of concern for social and environmental well-being, their preconceptions toward sustainable fashion and their prior behaviour in relation to ethical consumption actions (McNeill & Moore, 2015). In contrast, fashion consumers are not always concerned solely with sustainability and environmental issues, hedonistic motives and price are also important (Tascioglu et al., 2019). Consumers are not interested in ethical or sustainable purchasing if this means inconvenience, higher prices or discomfort (Niinimäki, 2010). I will talk about this in more detail in section 1.2.6 where I describe some of the barriers to sustainable consumption of fashion apparel.

Table 2: The main characteristics of sustainable consumers

Key concepts	Consumer characteristics	References
Purchasing behaviour	Buying second-hand clothing Renting or swapping fashion garments Reusing/re-designing old clothes Buying eco-friendly materials Buying organic textiles Buying clothes from environmentally friendly production processes Buying recyclable and biodegradable clothes)	Hedegård, Gustafsson, & Paras, 2020 Lang, Seo, & Liu, 2019 Fletcher, 2008 Caniato, Caridi, Crippa, & Moretto, 2012 Kang, Liu, & Kim, 2013
Motives	Self-expression Aesthetic satisfaction Group conformity Ethical obligations Avoiding feeling guilty Personal, social, and cultural values	Kim & Damhorst, 1998 Shaw et al., 2006 Ha-Brookshire & Hodges, 2009 Miotto & Youn, 2020
Concerns	Sweatshop labour is identified as one of the most important ethical concerns Hedonistic motives Price Fashionableness Fabric quality Functionality Comfort	Tomolillo & Shaw, 2004 Freestone & McGoldrick, 2008 Tascioglu, Eastman, Bock, Manrodt, & Shepherd, 2019 Fischer et al., 2017 Niinimäki, 2010
Sustainable consumer types	Sustainable consumer types are mostly based on: • sociodemographic variables (such as gender, age, and education); • personality traits (such as openness to change, self-transcendence, conservation and self-improvement); • domain-specific variables (such as concern and attitude toward the environment), and • behavioural variables (such as frequency of green purchase or consumption)	Verain et al., 2012

Source: Literature review.

Sustainable consumers have a preference for consuming sustainable fashion by purchasing sustainable brands or second-hand clothing and also engage in practices such as reusing, recycling, renting, or swapping fashion apparel (Henninger et al., 2019; Liang & Xu, 2018).

According to Verain et al. (2012), the literature distinguishes different sustainable consumer types based on sociodemographic variables (such as gender, age, and education), personality traits (such as openness to change, self-transcendence, conservation and self-improvement), domain-specific variables (such as concern and attitude toward the environment), and behavioural variables (such as frequency of green purchase or consumption). These variables have been used in several studies to distinguish different consumer segments, most often identifying a green consumer segment, a non-green segment, and sometimes one or two segments between green and non-green (e.g., potential greens) (Verain et al., 2012). The study by Chang, Taecharungroj, and Kapasuwana (2022) focuses on the segmentation of a specific type of sustainable consumer – sustainable luxury consumers.

The data revealed six consumer segments: Consumers, Perfectionists, Legacy Lovers, Zero-Waste Warriors, Transparency trackers, and Green operators. The results showed that all segments placed high value on different attributes. The customizers preferred uniqueness of jewelry. They look for jewellery that is unique and tailored to their tastes. The perfectionists prefer the highest quality of jewellery; they primarily look for the product with the highest quality. The legacy lovers put heritage first. Zero-waste warriors prefer sustainable materials. Transparency trackers placed great emphasis on supply chain transparency. Green operators preferred the sustainable process (Chang et al., 2022).

Studies, focused on sociodemographic variables, indicate that decisions to purchase fashion apparel among adolescents are motivated by low prices, fashionableness, fabric, and functionality, as opposed to factors of sustainability (Fischer et al., 2017). Additionally, studies found that young consumers are lacking in knowledge about how clothing is produced and how and where to dispose of it (Morgan & Birtwistle, 2009), which limits their ability to engage in sustainable fashion consumption behaviour (Williams & Hodges, 2022). When it comes to generation Gen Z, researchers and popular media mostly refer to Gen Z as people born from the mid-to-late 1990s to the early 2010s (Generation Z, n.d.). Research suggests Gen Z's purchase intention for recycled clothing is affected by various factors, including their willingness to pay, environmental concern, perceived value of recycled clothing and personal norms (Chaturvedi et al., 2020). To recap, some of the main characteristics of sustainable consumers are presented in Table 2.

2.2.3 Three stages of sustainable fashion practices

Sustainable fashion takes into account several stages in which sustainable practices must be applied: (1) the garment production chain (raw material, textile production, manufacturing, and distribution), (2) the way the garment is used (laundering and consumer reuse), and (3) life after use (disposal) (Bianchi & Gonzalez, 2021). Researchers have extensively explored the supply chain (Nagurney and Yu, 2012; Fletcher, 2013) and the retailing of garments (Ozdamar Ertekin & Atik, 2015) however, several aspects of consumption such as use, reuse

and disposal can have a substantial impact on the sustainability of a garment as well (Cervellon et al., 2010).

In the context of apparel consumption, practically everything from the manufacturing to the disposal of apparel contributes towards the degradation of the ecosystem. Because there are many stages of apparel consumption, including pre-purchase, purchase, use, care, and disposal of clothing, there are many opportunities for consumers to advocate for sustainable consumption of fashion apparel (Williams & Hodges, 2022). The components of sustainable fashion extend along the product's entire life cycle from the production stage to utilization and disposal (Moon et al., 2013). For example, at the first stage of the pre-consumption, a sustainable consumer may choose not to buy clothes. At the time of purchase, a consumer may choose to engage in collaborative fashion consumption, purchase second-hand fashion items (Iran & Schrader, 2017) or choose to purchase apparel from green, sustainable or ethical fashion brands. In the second stage, some consumers choose to purchase items that can be worn for a long period to be more sustainable (Hiller Connell, 2011). Furthermore, consumers are taking into account the fibre content, and choosing natural fibres or recycled fibres over synthetic fibres (Bly et al., 2015). In the use and maintenance stage, some consumers try to prolong their clothing's aesthetic and physical durability in the name of sustainability by repairing or re-fashioning clothes (Hiller Connell, 2011). Consumers may also limit the washing and drying of a garment (Laitala et al., 2011) and repairing it (Kozłowski et al., 2018). Finally, disposal is generally divided into four possible behaviours: throwing away clothing, giving or selling it to someone else or a second-hand shop, donating clothing to charity, or loaning it (Ha-Brookshire & Hodges, 2009), where donations to humanitarian organizations tend to be the most commonly used method for disposing of apparel (Paço et al., 2021).

Fashion garments are considered sustainable if they are made of organic, recyclable or naturally dyed fibres, and resources such as electricity and water are limited to a minimum (Goworek et al. 2020). In addition, reusability, reconditioning and reselling before disposal of the garment are important elements of sustainable fashion (Bianchi & Birtwistle, 2010; Hedegård et al., 2020).

2.2.4 Second-hand and vintage clothing industry and second-hand apparel consumers

The second-hand and vintage clothing industry's history began in the early 20th century when thrift stores, commission stores and charity shops emerged to provide affordable clothing options to those in need (Gwilt & Rissanen, 2011). In the early 2010s, the second-hand and vintage apparel industry significantly grew due to consumers' increased environmental awareness as well as other factors such as an increase in the number and popularity of online marketplaces like eBay and Etsy (Gwilt & Rissanen, 2011). McNeil and Moore (2015) define second-hand purchasing as buying previously owned clothing and

accessories from sources such as charity shops, vintage stores, or online auctions and swap sites.

Buying second-hand and vintage clothing is often considered a sustainable consumption behaviour in the fashion industry (Henninger et al., 2019; Liang & Xu, 2018; Machado et al., 2019). Consumer concerns about the environment have begun to increase consumers' tendency to buy second-hand products (Paço et al., 2021) which is also true for the fashion industry where consumers have been expressing their social consciousness through buying second-hand clothing (Paço et al., 2021). Second-hand and vintage clothing purchases can reduce the demand for new clothing production, which reduces the use of natural resources, energy, water, dye, and chemicals required for new clothing production. It also saves the garments from being discarded and thus extends the life of garments, reducing textile waste and greenhouse gas emissions associated with disposal (Ekström & Salomonson, 2014; Hedegård et al., 2020; Liang & Xu, 2018).

Because the manufacturing of clothes often demands high water usage, produces chemical pollutants and creates carbon emissions, pre-owned fashion may offer consumers a more sustainable alternative (World Economic Forum, 2020). Recycled polyester and natural fabrics may reduce carbon emissions but still use significant amounts of water and take significant time to decompose (Ro, 2020). Several designers and brands highlighted upcycled, recycled materials and/or vintage, pre-owned and/or circular apparel in their collections. For example: in 2020, denim brand Levi's launched a recommence site for previously worn Levi's jeans and denim jackets where most of the garments are sourced directly from Levi's customers (Nast, 2020a; Stella McCartney, n.d.). Fashion design house Valentino launched Valentino Sleeping Stock in 2022 promoting responsible use of leftover fabrics from Valentino's Haute Couture and Ready-to-Wear collection together with the Parisian fabric reseller Franck Lellouche (Nast, 2022). Fashion designer Stella McCartney collaborated with innovators to develop more sustainable materials and launched her first commercial fully circular garment that is 100 per cent recycled and recyclable made of totally regenerable material that can be repurposed into new yarns and redesigned, over and over again (Stella McCartney, n.d.). Researchers as well as industry commentators continue to associate second-hand fashion with sustainable fashion (Lam & Watkins, 2022).

The second-hand apparel market is expected to grow three times faster than the global apparel market overall (thredUP, 2023). One part of the second-hand market – resale, is gaining momentum in the last 5 years. From luxury heavyweights to fast-fashion giants, clothing brands are capitalising on the growth of the second-hand market. On the surface, reselling seems like an ethical move for any brand and combined with a shift in business model away from linear overconsumption, resale can help brands become more circular and emphasise degrowth principles. All while unlocking new revenue potential (Benson, 2022). Many brands, such as Ganni, Gucci, COS, Levi's, Nike, Adidas, Mara Hoffman, Another Tomorrow, Patagonia, EILEEN FISHER, tonlé Open Closet, Coclico Pre-Loved, Wolven Pre-Loved, are already utilising resale platforms and many have announced the launch of

resale platforms in 2022 and 2023, such as Pretty Little Thing (PLT), NastyGal, MissPap, boohooMAN, Warehouse, Debenhams, British brand Toast, and Ralph Lauren. There are also other resale and second-hand platforms that are not owned by brands and sell different apparel brands on their platforms: Depop, Vestiaire Collective, thredUP, The RealReal, HURR, RITES, LAMPOO, THE LUXURY CLOSET, COCOON REFRESH, BAGISTA, HEWI LONDON, Rebelle etc. In the Slovenian market, there are also some designer and fast fashion second-hand platforms such as Moja tvoja omara, Daja, 2nd-chance.si, Reinkarmika, Textile House Second Hand, OTROŠKI KOTIČEK, Lučka, and Mini raj. The fact that more and more global apparel brands are joining the second-hand market shows just how normalised second-hand has become which could lead to shifting consumer mindsets (Benson, 2022).

Clothing exchanges, rentals and subscription boxes were popular with Millennials (i.e. those born between 1980 and 1994) but lost popularity with Gen Z consumers (Insight, n.d.). In the early 2010 studies showed consumers did not enjoy purchasing their clothes in second-hand stores (Harris et al., 2016; Mcneill & Moore, 2015; Williams & Hodges, 2022). Lately, the consumers' interest in retro/vintage clothing has grown, especially due to young consumers who are more likely to shop for textiles at second-hand markets due to environmental reasons, lack of money (because most green products are high-priced) or seeking vintage fashion (Paço et al., 2021). Young consumers are often not very concerned about the “social stigma” associated with second-hand products (poverty, embarrassment, etc.)(Paço et al., 2021).

2.2.5 Fashion movements as a response to overconsumption

In recent decades, most fashion apparel consumers have consumed without realising the long-term consequences of their consumption (Baltaci, 2018). In order to leave a more sustainable world for the next generation, various alternative movements to fast fashion have emerged, one of which is slow fashion. Further, minimalism, voluntary simplicity and frugality are also seen as the answer to excessive consumption. Slow fashion, minimalism, voluntary simplicity and frugality are presented below.

2.2.5.1 *Slow fashion*

Slow fashion can be viewed as an alternative to the fast fashion industry (Brewer, 2019) since it seeks a timeless production of fashion apparel with durable pieces. It advocates for a more conscious consumption, giving priority to the higher quality of the garments and their long-term duration. Slow fashion can be characterized by the concern with the quality of the products and the impacts on the environment (Gomes de Oliveira et al., 2022).

The concept of slow fashion can be associated with high-quality and long-lasting apparel (Barrera-Verdugo & Villarroel-Villarroel, 2022). It implies a longer use of the apparel from

manufacture to disposal, and with that reducing the amount of new clothing that would be needed to be manufactured and distributed (Barrera-Verdugo & Villarroel-Villarroel, 2022). It also reduces the resources used (materials, transportation, infrastructure, etc.), affecting sustainability from an ecological perspective (Barrera-Verdugo & Villarroel-Villarroel, 2022). Slow fashion is also associated with locally manufactured clothes, with the idea of fair and sustainable trade, in which designers develop products from recycled fabrics (Ferreira de Araújo et al., 2022). Slow fashion encompasses three pillars. The first pillar emphasizes local design and production, encouraging diversified and innovative business models, under the ecological, social and cultural dimensions. The second pillar addresses the creation of transparent products, promoting the recognition of the needs for what is being created. And the third pillar is based on the production of sustainable, experiential and sensorial products, which are seen as a long term investment and not a disposable product (Ferreira de Araújo et al., 2022). The characteristics of slow fashion clothing are usually a combination of several or all of the following: (1) high quality and prizing craftsmanship (2) durable, sustainable materials, (3) timeless styles, (4) permanent (seasonless) collections produced in smaller quantities, and (5) locally produced, with ethical sourcing and production techniques with workers receiving higher wages (Brewer, 2019; M. Hill, 2023; Nast, 2020b).

2.2.5.2 Minimalism

Minimalism as it refers to eliminating excess from an individual's life, reducing unnecessary consumption and improving life quality by not indulging in consumerism (Shafqat et al., 2023) can be viewed as a response to overconsumption. Minimalism is not a new phenomenon, however, it has come to the forefront of mainstream consumer culture, with consumers embracing terms such as reduced consumption, sparse aesthetics, and decluttering (Wilson & Bellezza, 2022). Consumer minimalism can be defined by identifying three key dimensions of the construct, such as (1) the number of possessions a person owns which is the central dimension of consumer minimalism, (2) a sparse and decluttered aesthetic (e.g. minimalist spaces, collections, and objects typically consist of simple designs, clean lines, limited embellishments, and monochromatic colours), and (3) mindfully curated consumption, in which minimalists are very deliberate about what they acquire and keep, choosing specific products wisely and curating their collection of possessions (Wilson & Bellezza, 2022). Today, minimalistic fashion consumption can be expressed in various forms, such as monochromatic designs, wardrobe capsules, and decluttering. Many fashion brands are lately actively supporting minimalist aesthetics and values, offering a smaller selection of monochromatic items and encouraging consumers to buy less (Wilson & Bellezza, 2022).

2.2.5.3 *Voluntary simplicity and frugality*

Constructs such as voluntary simplicity and frugality are also alternatives to overconsumption. Defined by Leonard-Barton (1981) voluntary simplicity represents the extent to which individuals choose a lifestyle aimed at maximizing their control over daily activities and minimizing their consumption and is characterized by ecological awareness, attempts to be self-sufficient, and efforts to reduce personal consumption of goods. Moreover, voluntary simplicity typically involves behaviours that are viewed as self-sufficient, thrifty, and environmentally friendly (Wilson & Bellezza, 2022). Frugality is another construct related to minimalism, slow fashion, and voluntary simplicity. Frugality is defined by Lastovicka et al. (1999) as a unidimensional consumer lifestyle characterized by the extent to which consumers exercise restraint in both the acquisition and resourceful use of economic goods and services to achieve longer-term goals. As in the case of voluntary simplicity, minimalism and consumer frugality overlap in terms of minimizing the number of possessions and reducing new purchases, nevertheless, there are differences between these constructs (Wilson & Bellezza, 2022). Most notable is the difference, between frugality and minimalism where frugality is often driven by economic constraints and reducing consumption in order to save money (Wilson & Bellezza, 2022).

2.2.6 Barriers to sustainable consumption of fashion apparel and behavioural gap

Manufacturers' sustainability efforts in the fashion industry can only bring long-term benefits if consumers actively participate by choosing to buy sustainable fashion (McNeill & Moore, 2015). Many consumers exhibit attitudes inconsistent with behaviours towards sustainability (Han et al., 2017). Studies have shown that while many consumers are aware of the negative social and environmental impacts of clothing production, for many this has little to no impact on their purchasing decisions (Eckhardt et al., 2010; Han et al., 2017; Iwanow et al., 2005). There may also be cultural differences, such as ethical values related to sustainable fashion, that may affect sustainable consumption (Bianchi & Gonzalez, 2021). This frequently observed intention-behaviour gap between consumer intentions and actions may be due to a variety of barriers preventing consumers from engaging in sustainable consumption, including high prices, lack of availability of sustainable clothing, lack of fashion forward-thinking designs for sustainable clothing, cynicism, scepticism, and lack of knowledge (Brandão & Costa, 2021).

Perceived high price and willingness to pay. Many barriers prevent consumers from behaving more sustainably, one of the main reasons being perceived high prices (Eckhardt et al., 2010) with many consumers willing to trade ethics for cheaper prices (James & Montgomery, 2017) and unwilling to pay a higher price for sustainable products or logistics (Schleiden & Neiberger, 2020; Tascioglu et al., 2019). Consumers perceive buying from ethically produced apparel or one made from sustainable materials as not affordable for

everyone in a consistent basis (Hiller Connell, 2011) which is driving customers away from considering those options (Brandão & da Costa, 2021).

Lack of style. At the beginning of 2010, only a few fashion consumers really embraced sustainable fashion purchasing, because sustainable fashion was not deemed as fashionable and consumers in the end chose to be rather fashionable than ethical and sustainable (Mcneill & Moore, 2015). Furthermore, sustainable apparel is often perceived by consumers as being unfashionable and thus the inner motivation to be fashionable exceeds the necessity to behave responsibly towards society (Mcneill & Moore, 2015).

Lack of availability. Consumers perceive sustainable fashion consumption as highly inconvenient due to the limited availability and accessibility of sustainable and ethically produced garments, desired sizes and fit, second-hand stores and mending services (Crane, 2016; Diddi et al., 2019). The limited availability of sources or knowledge of where to find sustainable fashion is a major barrier to engaging in sustainable consumption (Moon et al., 2014) since consumers who have difficulty finding what they are looking for may go back to mainstream stores (Connell, 2010). Hence, the need for convenience and practicality constrain customers from engaging in sustainable behaviours (Eckhardt et al., 2010; Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002).

Lack of knowledge and awareness. One of the barriers consumers face is also a lack of knowledge and awareness about the environmental impact of apparel production (Brandão & da Costa, 2021) or how to consume fashion apparel sustainably (Harris et al., 2016; Mcneill & Moore, 2015). One example of this is the discrepancy between behaviours that consumers perceive as sustainable and those that researchers describe as sustainable (Hiller Connell, 2011). In the context of second-hand clothing, some studies also report that consumers' willingness to buy second-hand clothing depends on their knowledge about the issue of overconsumption and sustainability (Paço et al., 2021).

Cynicism. Beyond the physical attributes of clothing, there are also barriers related to the consumer perspective, including cynicism, as some consumers believe that their actions in support of sustainable clothing will not create enough change to make a difference (James & Montgomery, 2017). Even though fast fashion brands claim that they are trying to be more sustainable by marketing "eco-friendly" collections, the fact remains that most of their products are still made using the fast fashion model, which is neither environmentally nor socially sustainable (Wei & Jung, 2021). Overall, fast fashion has a reputation that runs counter to sustainability, making it very difficult for consumers to believe claims of environmental benefits from a fast fashion company (Park & Kim, 2016).

Scepticism. The complexity of sustainable apparel production makes it difficult to ensure compliance with ethical and sustainable standards along the supply chain (Fletcher, 2013). Nevertheless, companies still use social or environmental claims in their marketing communications (Chen & Chang, 2013). Dishonest and misleading advertising regarding

green attributes of products is also referred to as greenwashing (Delmas & Burbano, 2011) and there is no standardised regulation to prevent this when it comes to green labels and environmental claims (Young et al., 2010). As a result, customers are sceptical about the motivations behind manufacturers' environmental claims (Harris et al., 2016). Scepticism about the company's claims discourages consumers from choosing sustainable products (Bly et al., 2015; Hill & Lee, 2012).

2.2.7 Antecedents and outcomes of sustainable consumption

Several researchers address warm glow (more about the construct of warm glow in section 2.4) as an antecedent to the pro-environmental behaviour of consumers. Such as the study done by Hartmann (2017) that shows the role of warm glow as an antecedent of pro-environmental behaviour or research done by Ahn and Lee (2019) and Sun et al. (2020) which show that higher consumer's warm glow promotes the purchase of environmentally friendly products as well as the studies addressing warm glow and its ability to motivate pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003), and pro-social behaviour (Chiengkul et al., 2023). The findings of the study by Leonidou, Leonidou and Kvasova (2010) confirmed that the environmental attitudes of a consumer tend to be conducive to green purchasing behaviour. When consumers doubt or disbelieve that the company's claims are authentic and transparent, it evokes scepticism, which can prevent the purchase of organic products (Leonidou & Skarmeas, 2017). The study findings by Leonidou and Skarmeas (2017) reveal that green scepticism is negatively related to purchase intentions. A study by Barber and Deale (2014) demonstrates how mindfulness influences consumer's sustainable behaviour. Several studies demonstrate how mindfulness can increase sustainable consumption behaviour (Amel et al., 2009; Fischer, Böhme, et al., 2017). More recently, Hosta and Zabkar (2021) show that antecedents of both environmentally and socially responsible consumer behaviour as well as willingness to behave in environmentally/socially responsible ways are: concern for the environment/society, perceived behavioural control of the environmental/social behaviour, perceived consumer effectiveness of the environmental/social behaviour, social norms for the environmental/social behaviour, personal norms for the environmental/social behaviour, ethical ideologies/obligation. A study by Dimitrova, Ilieva and Angelova (2022) shows that environmental knowledge, materialism, environmental influences, the promotion of sustainable consumption, and sustainable consumption behaviour intention have a statistically significant impact on sustainable consumption behaviour. Qin and Song (2022) show that subjective norm, attitude and perceived behaviour control are antecedents of sustainable consumption behaviour and a study by Tran et al. (2022) shows that consumer satisfaction is an antecedent of purchase intention to eco-friendly fashion. The study by Dangelico et al. (2022) investigates which factors influence green consumer behavioural intention in the clothing industry, and shows that environmental concern, perceived value of the product, and consumer familiarity with the product are antecedents of consumer behavioural intention for sustainable clothing. Another study, done by researchers Lavuri et

al. (2023) shows that environmental concern, sustainability attitude, perceived behavioural control, and environmental knowledge all affect sustainable purchase behaviour. An overview of the studies describing antecedents is presented in Table 3 and an overview of outcomes is presented in Table 4.

Table 3: Overview of studies describing antecedents of sustainable consumption

Constructs	Antecedents	References
Pro-environmental consumer behaviour	Warm glow	Hartmann, 2017; Ahn & Lee, 2019; Sun et al., 2020
	Green warm glow	Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003; Hartmann, 2017
	Environmental attitude	Leonidou, Leonidou, & Kvasova, 2010
Sustainable consumption behaviour	Mindfulness	Barber & Deale, 2014; Amel, Manning, & Scott, 2009; Fischer, Stanszus, Geiger, Grossman, & Schrader, 2017 & Fischer 2017
	Materialism	Dimitrova, Ilieva, & Angelova, 2022
	Environmental influences	
	The promotion of sustainable consumption	
	Sustainable consumption behaviour intention	
	Environmental knowledge	
	Perceived behavioural control	Qin & Song, 2022
	Attitude	
	Sustainability Attitude	
	Subjective norm	
	Environmental knowledge	Lavuri et al., 2023
	Concern for the environment/society	
	Perceived behavioural control of the environmental/social behaviour	

To be continued

Table 3: Overview of studies describing antecedents of sustainable consumption (cont.)

Constructs	Antecedents	References
Environmentally & socially responsible consumer behaviour	Perceived consumer effectiveness of the environmental / social behaviour	Hosta & Zabkar, 2021
	Social norms for the environmental/social behaviour	
	Personal norms for the environmental/social behaviour	
	Ethical ideologies/obligation	
	Concern for the environment/society	
	Perceived behavioural control of the environmental/social behaviour	
	Warm glow	Chiengkul et al., 2023
Purchase intention to eco-friendly fashion	Consumer satisfaction	Tran et al., 2022
Purchase intention to green products	Perceived value of the product	Dangelico, Alvino, & Fraccascia, 2022
	Consumer familiarity with the product	
	Environmental concern	
	Green scepticism	Leonidou & Skarmas, 2017
	Word-of-mouth	

Source: Literature review.

Some additional consequences of Sustainable Consumption of Fashion Apparel may be consumer satisfaction, consumer happiness and satisfaction with life, which I will discuss in more detail in Chapter 4, as well as environmental impact, social impact, economic impact, psychological benefits, brand image, and consumer loyalty to name a few. An overview of studies describing outcomes of sustainable consumption are presented in Table 4.

Brown and Kasser (2005) found that environmentally responsible behaviours made consumers happier and elevated their well-being. Similarly, Gatersleben et al. (2008) found that consumers who reported more positive attitudes toward nature, greater environmental awareness and more environmentally responsible behaviours, experienced greater satisfaction with life. Studies done by Helm et al. (2019) and Greenglass and Fiksenbaum (2009) indicate that proactive behaviours increase well-being and lower depression. The findings of the study by Leonidou et al. (2010) confirmed that green purchasing behaviour leads to high product satisfaction and an outward environmental attitude facilitates the adoption of general environmental behaviour, which is responsible for greater satisfaction

with life (Leonidou et al., 2010). Furthermore, researcher Corral-Verdugo showed happiness and psychological well-being as consequences of sustainable behaviour (Corral Verdugo, 2012). Similarly, Minton et al. (2018) demonstrate that sustainable consumption practices positively influence consumer happiness and life satisfaction. Further, a study by Elhoushy and Lanzini (2020) presents repeat purchases, recommendations and word-of-mouth as Outcomes and consequences of sustainable consumer behaviour (Elhoushy & Lanzini, 2020).

Table 4: Overview of studies describing outcomes of sustainable consumption

Constructs	Outcomes	References
Environmentally responsible consumer behaviour	Happiness and/or greater well-being	Brown & Kasser, 2005; Helm et al. 2019; Greenglass, 2002
Proactive behaviours		Helm et al., 2019; Greenglass, 2002
Sustainable behaviour		Corral-Verdugo, 2012
Sustainable consumption practices		Minton, Xie, Gurel-Atay & Kahle, 2018
Sustainable consumer behaviour	Satisfaction with life	Gatersleben et al., 2008 Leonidou, Leonidou & Kvasova, 2010 Minton, Xie, Gurel-Atay & Kahle, 2018
	Repeat purchase	Elhoushy & Lanzini, 2020
Green purchasing behaviour	Product satisfaction	Leonidou, Leonidou & Kvasova, 2010
	Recommendation	Elhoushy & Lanzini, 2020
	Word-of-mouth	

Source: Literature review.

2.3 Operationalisation of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel

2.3.1 Operationalisation of sustainable consumption

This subchapter presents a brief overview of the operationalisation of the concept of sustainable consumption. To operationalise sustainable consumption, researchers have been measuring sustainable purchasing behaviour, sustainable clothing consumption, socially and environmentally responsible apparel-purchasing behaviour, eco-friendly buying behaviour, sustainable consumption of clothing products and intention for sustainable fashion consumption. All of which are presented in more detail below.

Butler and Francis (1997) focused on measuring purchasing behaviour relative to clothing and Brandão and Costa (2021) measured self-reported behaviour with items presented in Table 2.1 (Appendix 2). Niinimäki (2010) aimed to assess eco-fashion consumption and consumer purchase decisions by measuring purchasing behaviour, focusing on measuring what affects the clothing purchasing decision the most – fit, real need, quality, durability, price, sustainability of water washing, made locally, reparability, eco-materials, and more. Later, Gam (2011) aimed to capture sustainable clothing consumption with two constructs (environmental concerns for apparel production and purchase intention of environmentally friendly clothes) (Table 2.2, Appendix 2).

Kozar and Hiller Connell (2013) used an instrument that included measures regarding engagement in socially and environmentally responsible apparel-purchasing behaviours. Each measure included a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The sustainable apparel-purchasing behaviour scale developed by Hiller Connell and Kozar (2009, 2010) included eight statements which were further categorized into two sub-scales (four statements each): socially responsible apparel-purchasing behaviour and environmentally responsible apparel-purchasing behaviour. Socially responsible apparel-purchasing behaviour evaluated willingness to pay premium prices for socially responsible goods, experiences in boycotting firms because of labour abuses, and experiences in researching a company's policies on social responsibility prior to making purchasing decisions. Eco-conscious apparel-purchasing behaviour evaluated the willingness to pay premium prices for goods produced in an environmentally responsible manner, experiences boycotting firms because of environmental abuses, and experiences in researching a company's environmental practices prior to making purchasing decisions.

Further, Gwozdź, Nielsen and Muller's (2017) scale aims to measure sustainable purchasing behaviour with Environmental Apparel Consumption (EAC) construct measured by twelve items presented in Table 2.3 (Appendix 2). The 'General Sustainable Buying Behaviour' (Yoo et al., 2018) was composed of three items (Table 2.4, Appendix 2). Authors Prakash et al. (2019) developed a questionnaire based on several established measures to measure the eco-friendly buying behaviour of the customer which was later used by Kumar, Prakash, and Kumar (2021) to measure environmentally responsible purchase intentions with questionnaires for consumer attitude (Table 2.5, Appendix 2). Environmental consciousness and willingness to pay were measured by three items from Suki (2016) (Table 2.6, Appendix 2). Three items adapted from Wee et al. (2014) were used to measure green apparel purchase intention with The Environmentally Responsible Purchase Intention scale (Table 2.7, Appendix 2). Recently, researchers Penz and Drewes (2022) used a measurement combining three distinct scales to measure intention for sustainable fashion consumption which included six items presented in Table 2.8 (Appendix 2).

Park and Lee (2021) took a different approach to scale development, aiming at capturing a comprehensive overview with the development of the scale Sustainable Consumption of Clothing Products. The scale was developed to measure sustainable consumption of clothing

products (SCCP) from the perspective of general clothing consumers. The scale deals with the overall consumption stages of clothing including purchase, use and disposal stages, containing impact-oriented behaviours such as buying less or replacing new clothing merchandise and including previously neglected aspects, such as gender issues, animal rights and design ethics issues related to clothing products. It consists of a total of 52 items including 22 awareness items and 30 behaviour items. Items used in the Sustainable purchase behaviour of clothing products (SPB) part of the questionnaire were: I prefer to purchase a garment with “Green” or “fair trade” mark. I usually purchase a garment after checking information related to eco-friendly including organic cotton, eco-friendly dyeing and upcycling. I purchase a garment after checking information about social issues including labour, animal and intellectual property rights. I give priority to a company making efforts for eco-friendly/pro-social production and distribution of garments when buying. And items related to second-hand, vintage and rental were: I consider a second-hand clothing firstly when buying a garment. I often purchase an old or a vintage garment. I often use clothing rental services. This scale related to second-hand, vintage and rental purchasing behaviour was also used in our research measuring part of the sustainable consumption construct.

2.3.2 Sustainable consumption scale and second-hand, vintage and rental scale

Many researchers recognise several dimensions when operationalising sustainable consumption (e.g. Geiger et al., 2018; Leach et al., 2013). Following Geiger’s (2018) approach I recognise sustainable consumption as a bidimensional construct with (1) ecological and socio-economic dimension and (2) second-hand, vintage and rental dimension.

The general consumption model prevailing in consumer behaviour research focuses either solely on the purchase phase or comprises various phases. Often, the individual or all three main phases of consumption are distinguished (e.g. MacInnis & Folkes 2010; Geiger et al., 2018): (a) Acquisition which usually covers purchase but can also include swapping, sharing, renting etc., (b) usage which usually covers the actual consumption and (c) disposal which covers removal, bartering, giving away, selling etc. For the purposes of this dissertation, I decided to focus solely on the first stage in the consumption process – the acquisition of products which is an important form of sustainable consumption behaviour (Pilgrimienė et al., 2020) and has been investigated in several studies thus far (Kim et al., 2012; Lin & Huang, 2012; Peattie, 2010). To reduce the complexity of sustainability issues many authors focus on specific areas of consumption such as clothing (Geiger et al., 2018; KAS, 2015; Overeem, 2009; Pepper et al., 2009). For the purposes of this dissertation study, I have focused on one specific area of consumption – clothing. Clothing is an ecologically and socio-economically relevant consumption area, as its consumption has a great impact on the environment, such as water pollution, large water consumption, carbon and fossil fuel emissions, deforestation, and large waste production. Clothing also has a substantial socio-economic impact, such as exploitation of workers, poor working and living conditions of

workers, child labour, gender inequality and negative impact on human health due to the use of chemicals during the manufacturing process of clothes.

To measure sustainable consumption of fashion apparel, I use Geiger's (2019) SCB scale which is based on an earlier version of Geiger's SCB from 2017 where items were assessed on a 7-point frequency scale that had every second option labelled with never (0), sometimes (2), often (4), and always (7). The dimension of the acquisition phase of the SCB scale included 6 questions (Table 5) and the scale in full is presented in Appendix 3.

Table 5: SCB scale, the dimension of the acquisition phase

No.	Item
1	I buy fairly produced clothes.
2	Instead of buying a piece of wardrobe for special occasions, I borrow it.
3	I buy ecologically produced clothes from organic materials (e.g., organic cotton).
4	I buy second-hand clothes. I avoid clothes from countries with bad working conditions.
5	I buy clothes with labels that guarantee they are free from chemicals.
6	I buy high-quality, long-lasting clothes.

Source: Geiger (2019).

With the growing importance of the second-hand market and second-hand fashion retail identified as one of the major strategies in sustainable fashion (Weber & Weber, 2022), there has also been an increased interest in second-hand clothing research. Geiger (2017, 2019) has included questions about second-hand purchase behaviour in the SCB scale, and other researchers have been similarly operationalising second-hand apparel consumption (Lastovicka et al., 1999; Park & Lee, 2021, Lovelace & Brickman, 2013). In my research I have used the Sustainable Consumption of Clothing Products-Consumer Behavior – Secondhand, vintage and rental scale by Park & Lee (2021) that includes 3 items: I consider a secondhand clothing firstly when buying a garment. I often purchase an old or a vintage garment. I often use clothing rental services (Park & Lee, 2021).

2.4 Warm glow

Warm glow as a term was first introduced by Isen (1970) and later in the late 80s Andreoni used the term warm glow (Andreoni, 1989) continuing on Beck's work (Becker, 1974) with the premise that people may experience psychological benefits from prosocial behaviour (Andreoni, 1989, 1990). A feeling of warm glow is considered impure altruism (Winterich & Barone, 2011) whereas impure altruism assumes that people are motivated to do good deeds at least in part by the emotional benefits they receive and in this context, the benefit is often referred to as warm glow (Giebelhausen et al., 2016). Researchers define "warm glow" as an emotional concept that encompasses feelings of pleasure and fulfillment that result from the mental appraisal of contributing to societal well-being, especially

environmental preservation (Hartmann et al., 2017; Ho et al., 2023). In other words, people get a warm glow from the act of giving; they feel good about contributing (Kabderian Dreyer et al., 2023) or have a positive emotional response to contributing to causes associated with moral feelings (Chiengkul et al., 2023). Literature also suggests that people derive positive warm-glow from helping the environment in a similar sense to the way in which people experience warm-glow from helping other people (Jia & van der Linden, 2020). However we can distinguish between the underlying motivations, particularly to what extent “green” and “altruistic” warm-glow differentially guide conservation behaviour (Jia & van der Linden, 2020). The common economic assumption that an individual only considers his or her self-interest when making decisions often dominates conservation and environmental policy design (Jia & van der Linden, 2020). This implies that motivation for sustainable behaviour can only be achieved through expensive (and not necessarily effective) extrinsic incentives, such as monetary compensation, whereas green warm glow may provide a more cost-effective alternative for motivating sustainable behaviour (Jia & van der Linden, 2020).

2.4.1 The concepts of green warm glow and altruistic warm glow: pro-environmental and pro-social behaviour

The pursuit of pleasure and the pursuit of happiness can be important motives for pro-social and pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017). Although green or pro-environmental and altruistic or pro-social values are correlated, they are conceptually distinct value orientations (De Groot & Steg, 2008). We can distinguish between green warm glow and altruistic warm glow, as people's motives for acting green likely arise from a specific warm-glow about helping the planet as an entity in its own right (Jia & van der Linden, 2020). Based on Jia & van der Linden (2020) study, I will define this specific warm glow as green warm glow.

Warm glow theory has been applied to certain environmental behaviours related to climate change mitigation and greenhouse gas emissions reduction, such as saving energy, adopting green electricity, and purchasing products with a lower carbon footprint (Hartmann et al., 2017) among others. Consequentially, green warm glow significantly relates to pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017) and in recent years has received much more attention in the field of the environment (Ho et al., 2023) with research showing warm glow as the main driver of pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017). In the context of pro-environmental behaviour, the green warm glow describes the sense of contentment, happiness, or self-pride that people feel when acting in a way that helps the environment (Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003). This interpretation is supported by research suggesting that certain individuals purchase more expensive green power primarily to feel better about themselves, rather than out of concern for environmental impacts (Wüstenhagen & Bilharz, 2006). Research shows that the higher consumer's green warm glow is, the more likely they are to purchase environmentally friendly products (Ahn & Lee, 2019; P.C. Sun et al., 2020),

such as buying rooftop photovoltaic (PV) installation (Ho et al., 2023) or choosing to fly environmentally friendly airlines (Hwang & Kim, 2018).

In the context of pro-social behaviour, as far back as the beginning of 90's Andreoni (1989, 1990) showed that individuals may experience psychological benefits from prosocial behaviour called warm glow of giving (Hartmann et al., 2017) and until lately most research on warm glow has tended to focus on pro-social activities (Giebelhausen et al., 2016). Based on Jia & van der Linden (2020) study, this warm glow related to pro-social behaviour can be described as altruistic warm glow. According to Andreoni (1990) a desire for (altruistic) warm glow plays an important role in prosocial behaviour. Furthermore, research has shown that experiencing feelings of happiness increases an individual's likelihood of engaging in pro-social behaviours, such as donating to charity (Chiengkul et al., 2023; Giebelhausen et al., 2016), with factors that encourage individuals to repeatedly donate or participate caused by a warm glow (Chiengkul et al., 2023). A simple sketch of the concept of warm glow as green warm glow and altruistic warm glow is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Warm glow as applied to pro-environmental and pro-social behaviours



Source: Based on own literature review.

2.4.2 Warm glow as an antecedent and consequence

Researchers have studied warm glow as an antecedent, consequence and mediator of pro-social and pro-environmental behaviour (Bazaraa et al., 2022; Hartmann et al., 2017; Ho et al., 2023). Green warm glow has been proven to mediate several relationships: a relationship between awareness of consequences and intention to adopt eco-friendly vehicles (electric scooters) (Ho et al., 2023), a relationship between green program participation and service satisfaction (Bazaraa et al., 2022) and a relationship between previous green power decision and the intention to behave in an environmentally friendly way in the future (Hartmann et al., 2017).

Acting pro-environmentally can be psychologically rewarding and green warm glow has been shown to motivate pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman &

Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003), and pro-social behaviour, such as motivating individuals who wish to participate in socially beneficial activities (Chiengkul et al., 2023). Hartman (2017) showed that green warm glow can take both the role of behavioural antecedent and consequence, reinforcing pro-environmental behaviours (Hartmann et al., 2017). The experience of warm glow as a consequence of pro-environmental behaviour may induce learning effects that influence future behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017).

2.4.3 Measurement of warm glow and green warm glow

Earlier research on warm glow, used 3 items (Table 4.1, Appendix 4) to measure warm glow where responses used a five-point scale anchored by "never" and "frequently" (Taute & McQuitty, 2004). Additionally, Andrews et al. (2014) modelled their item after Taute and McQuitty, asking the respondents "I would feel good if I purchased this CM deal". Giebelhausen et al. (2016) measured warm glow with four nine-point semantic differential items asking customers the extent to which they felt (1) ashamed/proud, (2) in the wrong/ in the right, (3) wicked/virtuous, and (4) unethical/ethical regarding sorting their trash and leftovers in recycling bins in a restaurant. Furthermore, Hartman (2017) developed four measurement items for green warm glow construct where respondents rated their agreement or disagreement with statements on five-point Likert scale (strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree = 5) (Table 4.2, Appendix 4). Recently, the same items were also used by Bazaraa et al. (2022) to measure the warm glow construct examining the mediating role of warm glow in the relationship between voluntary green program participation and satisfaction. Furthermore, Sun et al. (2020) and Ho et al. (2023) (Table 4.3, Appendix 4) measured green warm glow using items adapted from Hartman (2017).

2.4.4 Warm glow and well-being

Researchers have studied warm glow as an antecedent of a person's well-being, happiness, and emotional benefits. Videras and Owen (2006) using a broad multi-country sample of approximately 35,000 individuals in 40 countries, found that individuals who contribute to the public good of environmental protection report higher levels of life satisfaction and happiness. They further provide several pieces of evidence that this positive relationship between contributions and well-being is due to a warm-glow motive (Videras & Owen, 2006). Aknin et al. (2012) find that before the age of two, toddlers exhibit greater happiness when giving treats to others than when receiving treats themselves. Further, they discover that children are happier after engaging in costly giving – forfeiting their own resources than when giving the same treat at no cost. By documenting the emotionally rewarding properties of costly prosocial behaviour among toddlers, their research provided initial support for the claim that experiencing positive emotions when giving to others is a proximate mechanism for human cooperation, and the warm glow could provide one such mechanism. Becchetti and Degli Antoni (2010) investigated whether individuals' self-declared happiness is influenced by the circumstances and/or outcomes of the investment game and assessed

whether warm glow, among other motivations or preference structures, can explain this effect. The results of the aforementioned study confirmed the consistency of the findings with different preference patterns, which include warm glow, and conclude that it might be considered that warm glow affects happiness (Becchetti & Degli Antoni, 2010).

2.4.4.1 Operationalisation of warm glow and green warm glow concepts

According to Giebelhausen et al. (2016) earlier direct measurements of general warm glow include items such as I am happy with myself whenever I give a financial contribution to national fundraising campaigns (Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003), and green warm glow items such as (1) Clients of Brand X can feel good because they help to protect the environment (Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibañez, 2012) and (1) I would feel good if I purchased this deal (Andrews et al., 2014). Lately, Chiengkul et al. (2023), used items modelled by Ahn and Lee (2020) and Nguyen et al. (2018) to measure warm glow, such as (1) I experience a warm glow feeling from participating in a charity run, and (2) I feel self-satisfied by participating in a charity run, and Jia and Van der Linden (2020) measuring green warm glow with on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) where participants were asked to estimate how much positive affect or warm-glow they anticipate to derive from acting green with 4 items: (1) Doing something good for the environment would make me feel positive about myself, (2) I expect to feel good when I behave environmentally friendly, (3) I anticipate that I would feel good when I do something to help the environment, and (4) I'd feel guilty if I did NOT behave environmentally friendly. Due to the scale showing good results, being in line with other warm glow scales, and fitting in with our model, I decided to measure the construct of green warm glow by implementing this scale.

3 MINDFULNESS - LITERATURE REVIEW

The overarching purpose of the dissertation is to examine the interaction between mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, green warm glow and life satisfaction. Hence, this chapter focuses on the concept of mindfulness. New strategies must be used to lead society in a more sustainable direction (Thiermann & Sheate, 2021). One of these strategies could be mindfulness since people who are mindful do not automatically rely on previous experiences but consider the uniqueness of a situation before deciding what to do. Consequently, consumers who are more mindful can pay more attention to products and services and consider the consequences of their decisions for themselves, others and the environment (Langer, 1998). Therefore, mindfulness may play an important role in people adopting more sustainable consumer behaviours (Amel et al., 2009).

The third chapter of this dissertation rigorously examines the concept of mindfulness. First, I define the concept of mindfulness as seen by the two main schools of thought. Next, I present a literature review on mindfulness in marketing research, followed by an exploration

of consumer mindfulness and the operationalisation of mindfulness. The chapter concludes with a discussion on how mindfulness relates to sustainable consumption.

3.1 The concept of mindfulness

The concept of mindfulness is rooted in Buddhist psychology, but it shares conceptual ideas with philosophical and psychological traditions, including ancient Greek philosophy, phenomenology, existentialism and naturalism of Western European thought (Brown et al., 2007). The term mindfulness derives from the Pali language, native to the Indian subcontinent, and can be interpreted as “to remember” but as a mode of consciousness it commonly signifies the presence of mind (Bodhi, 2003; Thera, 1973). Brown et al. (2007) describe several characteristics of mindfulness as presented in the literature of several major Buddhist traditions, such as clarity of awareness, nonconceptual, nondiscriminatory awareness, flexibility of awareness, flexibility of attention, empirical stance toward reality, present-oriented consciousness, stability or continuity of attention and stability or continuity of awareness, noting that the characteristics presented are overlapping and mutually supportive thus should not be regarded as distinct components. The core concepts that appear in the literature of several major Buddhist traditions portray mindfulness as a clear awareness of one's inner and outer worlds, including thoughts, emotions, sensations, actions, or surroundings as they exist at a given moment (Brown et al., 2007). Accordingly, mindfulness is referred to as "bare", "pure" or "lucid" awareness (Das, 1997; Gunaratana, 2002; Rāhula, 1974). The concept of mindfulness was introduced to modern science in the 1970s (Langer et al., 1978). The study and practice of mindfulness have mostly been categorised in two different approaches, The Eastern meditation-based approach derived from Buddhist traditions, and the Western socio-cognitive approach. Eastern mindfulness approach, derived from Buddhist traditions, interprets mindfulness as a form of present-moment awareness where an individual has been the focus of past research interest (Helm & Subramaniam, 2019). It requires long-term practice through different meditation practices that aim at clearing the mind and enabling the individual to live in the moment (Fischer, et al., 2017; Grossman, 2010). On the other hand, the Western approach to mindfulness originates from a cognitive information-processing framework (Bahl et al., 2016; Sauer et al., 2013) and interprets mindfulness as a mindset of novelty seeking, engagement, and flexibility (Haigh et al., 2011; Langer et al., 1978).

Different schools of thought emphasize certain characteristics of mindfulness more than others, nevertheless, these characteristics are overlapping and mutually supportive and thus not be regarded as distinct components (Brown et al., 2007). The Eastern approach to mindfulness focuses on present inner experience whereas the Western socio-cognitive approach usually includes the external, material, and social context of the individual (Kabat-Zinn, 1994; Pirson et al., 2012). In the following section, I will first describe Eastern followed by Western school of thought.

3.1.1 Eastern school of thought

In Eastern philosophical, spiritual, and therapeutic contexts, the definition of mindfulness includes not only attention and awareness, but also meditative states, general peace of mind, and even transcendent experiences (Amel et al., 2009). Kabat-Zinn (1994) views mindfulness as a nonjudgmental presence toward both internal stimuli (thoughts, emotions, and bodily sensations) and external stimuli. Kabat-Zinn's definition of mindfulness as intentional, non-judgmental awareness is consistent with the Eastern approach to mindfulness, which recognizes non-discriminative or non-discursive awareness as central to mindfulness, but it also includes an act of will use to cultivate such awareness, namely intention, and, depending on interpretation, may also reflect a particular attitude toward current events and experiences (non-judgment or acceptance) (Brown et al., 2007).

The Eastern mindfulness approach is often used in mindfulness-based stress reduction and mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (Helm & Subramaniam, 2019). Since mindfulness was introduced as an object of study, it has been closely associated with clinical practice and research, with some authors suggesting that mindfulness as a personality trait can be strengthened and developed through systematic practice (Helm & Subramaniam, 2019). For example, studies have shown that mindfulness can be enhanced through non contemplative interventions such as creative mental tasks and activities designed to interrupt thoughtless cognitive automaticity (Langer, 1989).

Clinical researchers understandably study mindfulness by focusing on practices relevant to mindfulness and the skills that can be developed through mindfulness training programs (Brown et al., 2007), such as therapeutic interventions incorporating mindfulness training (Hayes et al., 1999; Kabat-Zinn, 1990) to encourage acceptance toward uncomfortable realities or experiences (Brown et al., 2007). Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy is considered one of the therapies most clearly rooted in Eastern philosophy and psychology because it emphasizes the importance of experiential, meditative practice as the primary means for personal development and transformation (Brown et al., 2007).

3.1.2 Western school of thought

Western school of thought on the other hand is closely associated with the work of Ellen Langer. The foundation of Langer's work on mindfulness was established in the early seventies when together with Robert Abelson first introduced the concept of scripted behaviour in social interactions (Langer, 1992). In the years that followed, Abelson has continued the work of documenting behavioural scripts in social interaction and Langer (1992) has primarily focused on the consequences of the absence of conscious awareness. Langer (1992) initiated research on contextual elements that could potentially move conscious awareness from minimal structural cues to a more comprehensive awareness of available information.

The earliest Western research on mindfulness was focused on three major categories: health, business, and education (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). Studies in the health category focused on mindfulness having health ramifications such as stress reduction, decelerate ageing and increase longevity (e.g. Geer et al., 1970; Langer et al., 1975; Alexander et al. 1989). Studies in the business context utilised techniques that increase mindfulness in workers and managers which have shown that an increase in mindfulness is associated with increased creativity, decreased burnout, and increase in productivity (e.g. Langer, Heffernan, & Kiester, 1988). Studies in the education category were focusing on reducing mindlessness in learning (e.g. Langer & Piper, 1987;), increasing attention and improvement in memory (e.g., Langer, 1997). With early accumulating evidence that mindfulness shows beneficial effects on a variety of outcomes, researchers have begun to turn attention to the processes that may help to explain its effects. Suggested processes involve changes in the use of attention, cognition, and emotion, and include, among others, insight, exposure, and nonattachment (e.g. Baer, 2003; Lynch, Chapman, Rosenthal, Kuo, & Linehan, 2006; Shapiro et al. 2006).

First, Langer (1989) described mindfulness as a cognitive state of alertness and proactive awareness and later defined the distinction between mindfulness and mindlessness with the differences in how individuals view and process information (Langer, 1992). Unlike automatic processing, mindless processing does not require repetition and is not capable of conscious awareness (Langer, 1992). Mindlessness could arise from an isolated, early cognitive engagement that remains completely beyond the reach of conscious awareness (Langer, 1992). The awareness that the same environmental stimulus can be processed in different ways depending on the context is the essence of mindful awareness (Langer, 1992). Further, Langer's early research (1992) shows that mindfulness/mindlessness is critical not only for cognitive functioning but also for physiological functioning. People can be mindless about one subject while remaining mindful about others. Langer (1993, p.44) defines mindfulness as »a state of mind that results from drawing novel distinctions, examining information from new perspectives, and being sensitive to context. It is an open, creative, probabilistic state of mind in which the individual might be led to finding differences among things thought similar and similarities among things thought different.«

The concept of mindfulness is not easily defined, but it is best understood as the process of drawing novel distinctions. It does not matter whether what is perceived is important or trivial, as long as it is new to the observer and actively drawing these distinctions keeps individuals in the present (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). Furthermore, mindfulness increases understanding of context and perspective, as opposed to mindless behaviour that relies on past distinctions, rules, and routines, often disregarding present circumstances (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). Drawing new distinctions leads to increased sensitivity to the environment, openness to new information, creation of new categories for structuring perception, and increased awareness of multiple perspectives in problem solving (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). Mindfulness, a subjective sense of heightened involvement and

alertness in the present, connects these various outcomes and involves the whole individual (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000).

It might be easier to understand mindfulness if we also present mindlessness that comes about from repetition and single or initial exposure to the information (When we first receive information, we process it without questioning alternative ways the information could be understood) (Langer, 2000). Mindfulness is a flexible state of mind that actively engages the present, notices new aspects, and is context-sensitive. In contrast, mindlessness leads to automatic behaviour based on past experiences rather than the present, using rigid perspectives and ignoring alternative viewpoints. While mindlessness relies on rules and routines to dictate behaviour, mindfulness allows rules and routines to guide action rather than predetermine it (Langer, 2000).

3.1.3 Similarities between Eastern and Western approaches

Brown et al. (2007) and Langer (e.g., 1989, 2002) emphasise a present-oriented state of mind reflected in awareness of one's behaviour and active use of attention. Despite these conceptual differences, initial evidence suggests that the two forms of mindfulness are related, most strongly in the dimension of present-oriented engagement and to a lesser extent in seeking novel distinctions and making distinctions (Brown & Ryan, 2003). Western and Eastern schools of thought have influenced different approaches to mindfulness that cannot always be clearly separated into either Eastern or Western schools of thought. Such as Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy (Segal, Williams, & Teasdale, 2002), Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (Hayes et al., 1999), and Dialectical Behavior Therapy (Linehan, 1993a) that are based on a theoretical synthesis of Eastern and Western approaches to well-being enhancement (Brown et al., 2007).

3.1.4 Constructs related/similar to mindfulness

Mindfulness as a concept overlaps with many other constructs in psychology (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000), such as awareness, vigilance, attention intelligence and meditation. In this section of the thesis, I will briefly present these constructs.

Awareness. Duval and Wicklund (1972) and Silvia and Duval (2001) distinguish between 'objective' and 'subjective' self-awareness. Objective self-awareness involves focusing on the self as an object, whereas subjective self-awareness arises when attention is diverted away from the self and one experiences oneself as the source of perception and action. The traditional way of comparing the self involves a mindless perspective that treats the self and others as rigid objects (Djikic & Langer, 2007). A mindful approach, on the other hand, views the self and others as constantly evolving subjects and promotes a changing sense of self as an active subject, while mindlessness promotes a passive, stable, and reactive object

perspective (Djikic & Langer, 2007). In addition, a mindful experience of the self as a subject is more conducive to accurate self-awareness (Djikic & Langer, 2007).

Vigilance. In contrast to one being mindful, being vigilant one has to have a particular stimulus in mind, an expectation of what the stimulus is rather than what it could be (Langer, 1993). Vigilance is considered closely monitoring the very awareness that one places on an object, whereas mindfulness is non-distracted focal attention on that object (Apple, 2015).

Attention. Lately, there has been a growing interest among researchers to distinguish between attention and mindfulness, where attention can be understood as having a somewhat more active character, selecting the data to be processed by the mind (Anālayo, 2020). The difference between attention has also been very simply and clearly described by Langer (1993) where attention is described as paying attention to something specific and at the same time, something else may go unnoticed.

Intelligence. In the early days of mindfulness research intelligence and mindfulness have been closely related constructs but in no way the same, because intelligence refers to the ability to find an "optimal fit" between oneself and one's environment and is a linear cognitive process that moves from problems to solutions and from questions to answers (Langer, 1993). On the other hand, mindfulness allows one to perceive any situation or environment from different perspectives and a comprehensive understanding of intelligence must include mindfulness (Langer, 1993).

Mindfulness meditation. One of the tools for developing mindfulness is meditation (Goldstein, 2016) furthermore, mindfulness meditation refers to a set of techniques for practising mindfulness that involve focusing attention on the present moment experiences in a receptive, non-judgmental way (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). Mindfulness and meditation are closely related concepts but considering mindfulness and meditation as if they are the same thing is a mistake (Ndubisi, 2014) since mindfulness is a psychological construct, and the concept of meditation refers to a set of tools that generally lead to an improvement in mindfulness (Pagnini & Phillips, 2015). Mindfulness is not a practice and unlike meditation, mindfulness itself is not a technique or something that happens (Pagnini & Langer, 2015). Different meditation techniques have been used in mindfulness training programs to improve well-being such as in a study done by Ivtzan et al. (2016).

3.1.5 Mindfulness theory

Researchers study mindfulness mostly in the context of mindfulness theory, although there can also be found alternative theories such as theories of Reflexive self-consciousness (Popoveniuc, 2014), theories of Integrative awareness (De Sousa, 2013), Mindfulness-to-meaning theory (Garland, 2015b), Working theory of human consciousness (Henriques, 2015), Mindfulness and acceptance theories (Follette & Hazlett-Stevens, 2016).

Mindfulness theory proposes the possibility and benefit of a person recognising alternative interpretations (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). Similar to automaticity, habit, and functional fixation, mindlessness involves rigid, consistent behaviour with minimal or no conscious awareness. Both mindlessness/mindfulness and automatic/controlled processing distinguish between a fully conscious, active information processing mode and a less conscious, relatively passive mode. However, unlike controlled processing, which is a capacity-consuming, effortful mental process (Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977), mindfulness theory heuristically does not assume capacity limits (Langer, 1992). »For heuristic purposes, mindfulness theory assumes that all capacity limitations result from a mindless acceptance of premature cognitive commitments.« (Langer, 1992, p. 301). Further, Langer and Moldoveanu (2000) believe that mindfulness theory has the potential to change both individuals and institutions by increasing mindfulness and decreasing mindlessness.

3.2 Mindfulness in consumer research

The concept of mindfulness has been studied in the fields of psychology, sociology, and education for a few decades before empirical research on mindfulness in management and marketing commenced in early 2010 (Ndubisi, 2012a, 2012b). The transformation of **mindless eating** was among the initial topics investigated by marketing scholars utilizing a mindfulness approach (Milne et al., 2020). Timmerman and Brown (2012) showed mindful restaurant eating intervention was effective in promoting weight management. Bahl et al. (2013) have shown how mindfulness lowers the incidents of negative habits such as overeating or skipping meals, and results from a study by Jordan et al. (2014) provide strong evidence that mindfulness encourages healthier eating. Mindfulness has also been associated with several positive mental health outcomes, such as treating symptoms of depression, anxiety, and pain (Brown et al., 2007). The first special issues on the application of mindfulness in business in mainstream management/marketing journals were published in 2012 in the International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management (Vol. 29, No. 6) and the Journal of Business Research (Vol. 65, No. 4), following mindfulness in management (e.g. Fiol & O'Connor, 2003; Ndubisi, 2012b) and in marketing where researchers have shown that mindful marketing can transform mindful consumption by generating win-win solutions that consider the planet, people, and profit (Sheth et al., 2011). Ndubisi (2012a) researches **loyal and satisfied customers**, and Sheth et al. (2011) show how employees can be more productive and fulfilled, and how to create happy shareholders by aligning the company and customers' shared interests. There has also been substantial research in the field of **personal finances**, where research findings suggest that mindfulness can significantly influence consumers' attitudes toward money and intentions and use of credit (Pereira & Coelho, 2019), reduce the gap between one's existing and desired financial state (Brown et al., 2009), and reduce materialistic cravings (Brown & Kasser, 2005). Recent research has shown how mindfulness practices can mitigate financial vulnerability (Bayuk et al., 2022) and reduce buy-now-pay-later usage and how that relates to overall well-being (Schomburgk & Hoffmann, 2022).

Extensive research indicates that mindfulness can significantly impact **sustainable consumption behaviours**. Early studies demonstrating the influence of mindfulness on consumer behaviour focused on how mindfulness can shape consumer's sustainable behaviour (Barber & Deale, 2014), more specifically, how mindfulness can increase one's attention to their behaviours and increase sustainable consumption behaviour (Amel et al., 2009; Fischer et al., 2017). Fischer (2017) proposes that mindfulness promotes sustainable consumption by disrupting routines, limiting the attitude-behaviour gap, nurturing non-materialistic values, or fostering pro-social behaviour. Researchers also demonstrated that mindfulness has a positive relationship with voluntary simplicity lifestyles and frugal purchasing behaviour and life satisfaction (Dhandra, 2019). Studies have also looked into how mindfulness enhances values that promote sustainable consumption, such as a study by Kaur and Luchs (2022), where researchers demonstrate that mindfulness has a positive relationship with values which then mediate the relationship between mindfulness and two distinct forms of sustainable consumption: socially conscious consumption and frugal consumption. **Overconsumption** is yet another research field where mindfulness has been applied, such as hyper consumption (Benett & O'Reilly, 2010), compulsive buying (Williams & Grisham, 2012), and impulsive buying, where authors show that consumers with mindfulness exhibit negative impulse buying behaviour (Yiğit, 2020) and consumer minimalism (Wilson & Bellezza, 2022).

Another area of consumer context where mindfulness has been applied for transformation is **information technology and online consumer research** such as smartphone addiction. Kim et al. (2018) show that mindfulness can help overcome smartphone addiction. In order for consumers not to fall into addictive consumption habits mindful consumption at the individual level will be necessary (Walker et al., 2019). Studying online consumers' impulse purchases from a mindfulness perspective seems to be an important area of research, as mindfulness is associated with various perceptions and behaviours, such as focusing on website aesthetics and participating in physical activities (Lim & Kim, 2022). The study by Lim & Kim (2022) examines the role of mindfulness in impulse buying behaviours in the e-commerce context. Mindfulness promotes greater stability, better judgement, perception of reality and better concentration (Langer, 2016). Mindless consumers are more closely related to impulse buying tendencies and behaviours (Armstrong, 2012). Mindfulness has helped elevate the psychological stability of IT users in organisations (Salovaara et al., 2019). The effect of mindfulness was also shown on technology acceptance and task technology fit, as well as on the satisfaction of information technology and its continuous use (Sun et al., 2016). In addition, it has been shown that problems related to information security in organisations are related to mindfulness (Jensen et al., 2017). Furthermore, lately, research on **mindfulness and consumption of social media** has gained momentum. Researchers Chan et al. (2022) present how mindful consumption can help consumers pay attention to their use of social media to recognise how their habitual use contributes to negative outcomes and make more conscious choices that build a healthier relationship with social media. Furthermore, Du et al. (2021) examine how self-control in social media use is related to

mindfulness and well-being where failure to control one's social media use is associated with a lower mindfulness.

3.3 Mindfulness in the context of consumption

Mindfulness plays an important role in avoiding automatic thoughts, habits, and unhealthy behaviours in consumers (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Mindful people are more aware of their thought processes, make decisions more consciously, and are less susceptible to the persuasive influence of others. However, instead of mindful deliberation, consumers often make unconscious decisions about what and how much they will consume (Rosenberg, 2004). This lack of sufficient attention and awareness is sometimes attributed to consumers' mindlessness in regard to their consumption decisions (Langer, 1992,). When consumers are mindless, they pay little attention to their consumption options, are not aware of the consequences of their decisions, and may tend to rely on already-existing distinctions, such as social norms and convenience (Subramaniam, 2016).

Mindfulness is both a trait and a psychological construct that refers to a specific "quality" of being in the moment (Pagnini & Phillips, 2015). Langer sees mindfulness as a heightened state of involvement and alertness, with emphasis on external stimuli, openness to new things and drawing new distinctions (Milne et al., 2020). Langer (1992) further described mindfulness as "a state of conscious awareness in which the individual is implicitly aware of the context and content of information. It is a state of openness to novelty in which the individual actively constructs categories and distinctions." In addition, Langer presented the contrast to mindfulness, called mindlessness, which is a state of mind where the individual relies heavily on categories and distinctions drawn from the past (Langer, 1992).

Consistent with mindfulness theory, the antidote to unconscious behaviour and automaticity lies in consumer mindfulness. Consumers exhibiting higher levels of mindfulness are believed to be highly engaged, attentive, and aware, while consumers with low mindfulness exhibit low levels of engagement and awareness (Ndubisi, 2014). With more mindfulness could also come more awareness of the negative impacts of consumption, and these consumers could choose not to buy certain products at all, buy less in general, or recycle and reuse more to create a less disposable economy (Rosenberg, 2004). Hence mindful individuals pay attention to consumption decisions and are consciously aware of the consequences their consumption has on the natural environment, community, and themselves (Sheth et al., 2011).

Many people engage in excessive and irresponsible consumption, often without regard for the planet's limited resources where "Because I can (afford to)" has become an acceptable justification. Consumption has become a goal rather than a mean, leading to conspicuous consumption (Uslay & Erdogan, 2014). With more mindfulness might come more attention to the negative effects of consumerism, and these consumers might choose not to buy certain products at all, to buy less generally, or to recycle and reuse more in an effort to create a less

disposable economy (Rosenberg, 2004). Mindful consumption is the application of mindfulness as the basis for the choices consumers make in the world (Milne et al., 2020). The application of mindfulness through mindful consumption is an approach designed to transform society, the marketplace, and individual well-being (Milne et al., 2020). Mindful consumption requires consumers to pay attention to their physical sensations, thoughts, and emotions with the attitude of acceptance to make consumption choices based on the direct experience of their own needs, values, and insights (Bahl et al., 2013). Researchers Sheth et al. (2011) employed mindful consumption to address pressing consumer issues such as sustainability and view mindful consumption as the interplay of a mindful mindset and behaviour. Consumer mindfulness according to Seth et al. (2011) involves a mindset for caring for self, community, and nature that translates into consumer behaviour aimed at moderating acquisitive, repetitive, and aspirational consumption. Acquisitive consumption can be described as the most basic form of excessive consumption which involves acquiring things at a scale that exceeds one's needs, or even one's capacity to consume (Sheth et al., 2011). Further, repetitive consumption can be defined as purchasing, disposing, and repurchasing, where products are discarded because of their obsolescence (Sarwar et al., 2022). This is frequently observed in the fashion industry, where clothing items are often discarded as a result of fashion obsolescence (Sheth et al., 2011). Finally, mindful consumption also consists of moderation of aspirational consumption in which people make comparisons with others whose incomes are higher than their own (Schor, 1999).

3.4 Operationalisation of mindfulness

The growing interest in mindfulness as a means of improving psychological and physiological treatment has led to several operationalisations and measurements of mindfulness for (almost exclusively) clinical use based on an Eastern, Buddhist perspective (Pirson et al., 2018). These measures included the:

- Mindfulness Attention and Awareness Scale (MAAS, Brown and Ryan 2003),
- Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills (KIMS, Baer et al. 2004),
- Five Factor Mindfulness Questionnaire (FFMQ, Baer et al. 2008),
- Toronto Mindfulness Scale (TMS, Lau et al. 2006),
- Freiburg Mindfulness Inventory (FMI, Walach et al. 2006),
- Cognitive and Affective Mindfulness Scale-Revised (CAMS, Feldman et al. 2007),
- Philadelphia Mindfulness Scale (PHLMS; Cardaciotto et al. 2008).

The consumer behaviour studies initially targeted individuals with physical and psychiatric issues but were lately also applied to healthy populations and showed the effects of mindfulness and its enhancement on mental health and psychological well-being, physical health, behavioural regulation, and interpersonal behaviour (Brown et al., 2007). Example items from above mentioned measurement scales include, “I observe how my thoughts come and go” from FMI; “I pay attention to how my emotions affect my thoughts and behaviour”

from KIMS and FFMQ, and “It seems I am ‘running on automatic’ without much awareness of what I’m doing” from MAAS. These measures, designed mainly for clinical use, are less conducive to action-oriented social settings (Pirson et al., 2018). However in early 2010, despite the increasing amount of research on mindfulness, Langer was a pioneer in measuring mindfulness by developing a reliable and valid scale to measure a clear Western and socio-cognitive conceptualization of mindfulness (Pirson et al., 2018).

Brown (2007) noted that mindfulness scales show considerable variation in content and structure according to theoretical conceptualization and has pointed out that such diversity suggests a lack of agreement on the meaning of the mindfulness construct. While mindfulness has been adequately studied in the social sciences in the early years it started appearing as a relatively new construct in marketing in the early 2010s (Usley & Erdogan, 2014).

Langer mindfulness scale

Current operational definition of mindfulness is not trying to exclude all other aspects and measurements of mindfulness, however, I have chosen to focus on Eastern, Langer mindfulness approach facets for which validated psychometric instruments already exist, such as LMS (Langer Mindfulness Scale).

In the late 2010s, despite the growing body of research on mindfulness in clinical and social psychology, as well as in organizational behaviour and adult development, there has been little research that measures mindfulness in a way that combines personal development with a perspective on the social and organizational context of mindfulness. Consequently, Pirson et al. (2018) articulated a clear Western and socio-cognitive understanding of mindfulness and developed a reliable and valid scale (LMS21 and LMS14) to measure this conceptualization of mindfulness. LMS represents a valid and reliable scale that drives research on mindfulness in clinical, interpersonal, social, and organizational contexts (Pirson et al., 2018).

Based on an information processing perspective, mindfulness is manifested by cognitive flexibility, which is manifested in (a) novelty-seeking behaviours such as curiosity and openness, (b) novelty-producing behaviours such as creativity and perspective thinking, and (c) engagement with current activities, people, and contexts (Pirson et al., 2018).

In developing the series of items of LMS, the authors relied on existing literature and interviews with experts on mindfulness and the related subconstructs of novelty seeking, novelty producing, and engagement (Pirson et al., 2018). The items of LMS21 are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Items of Langer mindfulness scale (LMS21)

Item number	Item content
1	I like to investigate things.
2	I generate few novel ideas.
3	I am always open to new ways of doing things.
4	I “get involved” in almost everything I do.
5	I do not actively seek to learn new things.
6	I make many novel contributions.
7	I stay with the old tried and true ways of doing things.
8	I seldom notice what other people are up to.
9	I avoid thought-provoking conversations.
10	I am very creative.
11	I can behave in many different ways for a given situation.
12	I attend to the “big picture.”
13	I am very curious.
14	I try to think of new ways of doing things.
15	I am rarely aware of changes.
16	I have an open-mind about everything, even things that challenge my core beliefs.
17	I like to be challenged intellectually.
18	I find it easy to create new and effective ideas.
19	I am rarely alert to new developments.
20	I like to figure out how things work.
21	I am not an original thinker.

Source: Pirson et al. (2018).

Langer Mindfulness Scale (LMS21) consists of 21 items that present four factors of novelty producing, novelty seeking, engagement, and flexibility (Langer, 2004). The novelty seeking factor represents the tendency to be curious and open to the environment and oneself. The novelty producing factor refers to a person's ability and tendency to create new categories rather than relying on previous categorisations. The flexibility factor represents the ability to look at experiences from different angles, which leads to a better adaptation to the environment. Finally, the engagement factor stands for the attitude towards active interaction with the environment, where the person is likely to notice finer details and changes (Moafian et al., 2017). Later, in 2018 Langer introduced the shortened version of Langer mindfulness scale (LMS14) which consists of 14 items in a three-factor model and has been proven to be a reliable and valid measure with important implications for individual development within social contexts (Pirson et al., 2018). Furthermore, both LMS21 and LMS14 have been extensively used in marketing and consumer research as presented in Table 7. The scale has been translated and validated into different languages including Malaysian (Leong and Rasli, 2013), German (Haller, 2015), Italian (Pagnini et al., 2018), Portuguese (Junça Silva & Caetano, 2021), Spanish (Miralles-Armenteros et al., 2021) and Persian (Moafian et al., 2017). Although the scale contains three factors, it was modified after translation and

validation to adapt it to the data collected and to local cultures and customs. For example, the Malaysian version contains only two factors and the German version only one (Moafian et al., 2017).

Table 7: An overview of research studies using the Langer Mindfulness Scale

Authors	Context	factors	Scale (number of items)
Haigh et al., 2011	Validating mindfulness scale and examining factor structure.	1	MMS (9 items)
Lazaridou & Kalogianni, 2013	Examining the correlation between mindfulness and sexuality.	4	LMS21 (21 items)
Leong & Rasli, 2013	Reviewing LMS from perspective of industry and factor structure	2	LMS21 (21 items)
Haller, 2015	Developing short adaptation of LMS – Mindful creativity to be used in clinical research.	1	MSC (6 items) based on LMS21
Andrei, Vesely, & Siegling, 2016	Validating different mindfulness scales and researching their association with several chosen outcomes.	3	LMS14 (14 items)
Zilcha-Mano & Langer 2016	Examining whether mindfulness training resulted in better childbirth outcomes (for mother and infant).	3	LMS14 (14 items)
Moafian et al., 2017	Validating the Persian Version of LMS and analysing relationship between LMS and positive affect, physical health, psychological health and environmental health.	2	LMS14 (14 items)
Pagnini, Bercovitz, & Phillips, 2018	Validating LMS in the Italian language and analysing the relationship between mindfulness and well-being	3	LMS14 (14 items)
Pirson et al., 2012, Pirson et al., 2018	Developing and validating measure of socio-cognitive mindfulness	3	LMS14 (14 items)
Stewart & Bower, 2019	Exploring the relationship between mindfulness and educators' design conceptualisations.	3	POS (The Personal Outlook Scale) based on LMS14

To be continued

Table 7: An overview of research studies using the Langer Mindfulness Scale (cont.)

Smith, Seimon, Harris, Sainsbury, & da Luz, 2019	Examining the relationships between binge eating and mindfulness.	3	LMS14 (14 items)
Atoy et al., 2020	Seeking to ascertain the moderating role of mindfulness on digital literacy and online information searching strategies.	4	LMS21 (21 items)
Culiberg & Mihelič, 2020	Examining the effects of Mindfulness on the ethical recognition of peer reporting.	1	MMS (4 items)
Junça-Silva & Caetano, 2021	Analysing the role of mindfulness on the relation between work characteristics and performance	n.a.	LMS14 (14 items)
Miralles-Armenteros et al., 2021	Examining the effects mindfulness has on students' academic performance.	1	Adaptation of LMS21 (7 items)

Source: Literature review.

3.5 Mindfulness in relationship with sustainable consumption

Since our culture often values busy individuals and those who can accomplish more in less time (Lewis & Cooper, 1999), it is likely to promote an individual's natural tendency to operate on autopilot and use mental shortcuts rather than pay more attention to their actions and choices (Amel et al., 2009). Research supports the notion that many daily decisions and actions of consumers are a function of automatic processing (Bargh & Chartrand, 1999) and unfortunately, many automatic habits are not sustainable (Holland et al., 2006). According to Langer (1989), when people are mindful, they first consider the unique qualities of a situation before deciding what to do rather than relying on strict categories developed through previous experience. Second, they constantly build their knowledge base by incorporating new and diverse information. Third, because they can view situations from multiple perspectives, mindful people will better understand their impact on others. Thus, consumers with higher levels of mindfulness pay more attention to the choices presented to them and actively seek new information about the product and its impact on the environment and society. Consumers are also more aware of the consequences of their choices for themselves, for others, and the environment. Mindfulness may be a necessity for consumers to adopt sustainable behaviours, especially in a society that does not routinely promote sustainability practises (Amel et al., 2009).

Early research by Brinkerhoff and Jacob (1999) indicated that mindfulness is a predictor of pro-sustainability values and behaviours. Further in their empirical work researchers Brown and Kasser (2005) found mindfulness to be correlated to more ecologically responsible

behaviour. Furthermore, studies have investigated the role of mindfulness in sustainable consumption behaviours, such as Bahl et.al. (2013) who reviewed the transformative potential of mindful consumption across domains of consumer, societal, and environmental well-being. They proposed that mindfulness is an antidote to mindless consumption. Fischer et al. (2017) note that mindfulness has multiple mechanisms for promoting sustainable consumption, including promoting disruption of routines, promoting greater congruence between one's attitudes and behaviours, promoting nonmaterialistic well-being, and promoting pro-social behaviours. Similarly, Amel et al. (2009) argue that mindfulness can make a difference in promoting sustainable behaviour with mindful consumers being more attentive and consciously processing information about environmental impacts. In addition, mindful consumers are more likely to make choices that are less harmful to the natural environment, despite many real or perceived barriers to doing so, for example, when people shop mindfully, they are more likely to read labels or examine a product's packaging for reusability (Amel et al., 2009).

Recently, Helm & Subramaniam (2019) found that mindfulness affects sustainable consumption behaviours and also impacts environmental concern and perceived consumer efficacy, where increased mindfulness can alter daily consumption routines and help reduce the negative environmental impacts of overconsumption, particularly in populations with elevated environmental concern and perceived consumer effectiveness. A study by Milne et al. (2020) explores the consumer understanding of mindful consumption. Researchers discovered various consumer views of mindful consumption, such as careful economic based consumption, monitoring activities of firms, and being informed about the impact of consumption choices. As presented in this chapter, research suggests that mindfulness may promote more sustainable consumption behaviour. Nonetheless, Geiger et al. (2020) found no evidence of the direct effects of mindfulness on sustainable consumption behaviour in their recent study. However, mindfulness intervention led to greater well-being and indicated a decrease in materialistic value orientations. Although the results do not support previous claims about possible causal effects of mindfulness practice on sustainable consumer behaviour, their research suggests that mindfulness interventions influence material values and well-being, which in turn could influence consumer behaviour in the long term.

4 CONSUMER WELL-BEING AS A CONCEPT – LITERATURE REVIEW

The fourth chapter of this dissertation includes in depth exploration of the concept of consumer well-being, starting with the definition of the terms happiness and well-being, followed by defining the consumer well-being concept. Furthermore, I present a research review on consumer happiness and well-being, including antecedents, outcomes and consumer well-being in the fashion industry. I continue with establishing the relationship

between mindfulness and consumer well-being and the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being. This chapter concludes with the presentation and operationalisation of life satisfaction as a closely related construct.

4.1 Happiness and well-being

Interest in happiness and well-being has been growing for decades, and psychologists, economists, and sociologists have made tremendous progress in determining the best measures of happiness, ways to increase happiness, and why understanding happiness matters (Dunn et al., 2008; Kahneman & Krueger, 2006; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). The growing interest in happiness and well-being has also had an impact on business, where researchers explored how to create brands that promote consumer happiness (Isen et al., 2004; Mogilner & Aaker, 2009). More recently, individual and societal well-being has become critically important as consumers, communities, and societies question their lifestyles (Karpen & Conduit, 2020). The terms happiness, well-being and subjective well-being are used by the majority of authors as synonyms (e.g., Chen & Li, 2018; Desmeules, 2002; Diener, 2000; Diener, Lucas, & Oishi, 2002; Ivens, 2007; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). For the purposes of this dissertation, I will follow their lead and use the terms happiness, well-being and subjective well-being interchangeably.

There are many conceptualisations of well-being and happiness within different disciplines, such as economy, anthropology, sociology, politics, human geography (Hulme & Toye, 2013), psychology (Baumeister et al., 2013; Huta & Ryan, 2010), marketing (Fletcher, 2008; McLean et al., 2023; Mogilner et al., 2012), urban planning (van Kamp et al., 2003) and in different contexts. Researchers take different views, such as a positive psychology view, including hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (e.g., Vada, Prentice, & Hsiao, 2019; Su et al., 2020) or the view of either objective or subjective nature of well-being and quality of life (Sirgy et al., 2020). Further, also driven by positive psychology, researchers conceptualise well-being as subjective well-being (SWB) and psychological well-being (PWB) (Shen et al., 2022). While some researchers take an absolute view and assume that absolute levels of wealth and consumption are important determinants of happiness, others take a relative view and proclaim that absolute values are not important and that happiness depends primarily on levels of wealth and consumption relative to others (Hsee et al., 2009). In this dissertation, I follow the hedonic perspective of well-being. The mentioned different views will be further presented in the next segment of this chapter.

4.1.1 Eudaimonic and hedonic well-being

In research, especially in psychology, the concept of well-being is mainly anchored in two research traditions (Balderjahn et al., 2023). First, the hedonic view of well-being reflects happiness and pleasure (Ryan & Deci, 2001). It is concerned with what makes life pleasant or unpleasant, with happiness viewed in terms of life satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2001) and

refers to life experiences and a broader assessment of happiness (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Second, the eudaimonic view emphasizes the personal perspective on overcoming life's challenges and refers to the individual's assessment of whether his or her growth throughout life is meaningful and self-actualizing (Balderjahn et al., 2023). Eudaimonic well-being focuses on the realization of human potential, a meaningful life, and good, sustainable relationships with others (Huta & Ryan, 2010) where meaningfulness is the key distinction of eudaimonic well-being (Baumeister et al., 2013).

4.1.2 Objective, subjective, and psychological well-being

Researchers studying objective well-being measure the concept based on social indicators such as income or crime rates, as opposed to subjective studies that measure well-being based on the perceived satisfaction individuals experience in their lives (Neal et al., 2007).

Subjective well-being (SWB) and psychological well-being (PWB) are positive psychology paradigms. Researchers who hold the SWB view argue that well-being is a happy emotional experience, and its philosophical foundation is Well-being theory. In contrast, PWB emphasizes the realization of human potential, which is based on the Theory of realization (Shen et al., 2022). SWB refers to an overall sense of well-being that is relatively enduring and not considered momentary (Diener & Tov, 2007). It includes emotional and cognitive elements, the emotional component presents the frequency of positive emotions that one experiences (for example, happiness), whereas the cognitive element includes the perception of the individual with his satisfaction with life (Diener & Tov, 2007). Researchers also view SWB as an affective and cognitive evaluation of life (Diener & Lucas, 2000; Hsieh et al., 2018) where the concept of SWB often consists of three dimensions: negative affect, positive affect, and life satisfaction (Diener, 1994; Kahneman et al., 1999; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

4.1.3 Existing models and theories of well-being

Researchers define happiness under different theories, such as the Self-Determination theory (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Maltby & Day, 2001; Wilson et al., 2004), the Positive psychology theory (Gilman & Huebner, 2000; Shen et al., 2022), the General theory of subjective well-being (Durayappah, 2011) the Classical theory of utility (Bentham, 1996; Wilson & Gilbert, 2008), the Multiple discrepancy theory (Durayappah, 2011; Michalos, 1985), the Top-down and bottom-up factors (Durayappah, 2011; Headey et al., 1985). Each theory is explained in more detail below.

The Self-Determination theory states that optimal happiness can be felt when basic psychological needs are satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 2012). This theory assumes that people have three basic psychological needs: Relationships needs, in which they feel close to a desired social group; Competence needs, such as being fulfilled and able to use one's skills and abilities effectively; Autonomy needs, in which people can behave in a way that is consistent

with their true identity and feel responsible for their actions (Deci & Ryan, 2012; La Guardia et al., 2000). When these three needs are met, consumer well-being is effectively improved (Li & Atkinson, 2020).

The Classical theory of utility considers the concept of utility as perceived value or worth (Bentham, 1996). Further, utility can be identified as happiness where happiness is expressed as the feeling of pleasure in the absence of pain (Long, 2017). Happiness derived in the context of the Classical theory of utility can thus take both hedonic and utilitarian forms (Higgins & Scholer, 2009).

The Multiple discrepancy theory suggests that people compare experiences or emotions to some standard (Durayappah, 2011). A discrepancy due to an upward comparison, where a person's expectation was higher than the actual experience results in decreased satisfaction, whereas a downward comparison, where a person's expectation was lower than the actual experience, results in an increase in satisfaction (Durayappah, 2011).

The Top-down and bottom-up factors present theory including a dichotomous model for the causes of subjective well-being (Durayappah, 2011). Diener et al. (1999) described bottom-up factors as external events, situations, and demographics having an impact on happiness. Further, Veenhoven (1999) explained how an average level of happiness in nations indicated that macro-social factors, such as wealth, freedom, and equality, together explain more than half of the difference in average happiness (Durayappah, 2011). On the other hand, the bottom-up factors have been explained as subjective well-being that results from a linear additive combination of domain satisfactions such as marriage, work, and health (Headey et al., 1985).

Cognitive evaluation theory posits that the intensity of emotions is related to the cognitive processing of the emotional experience and if a situation can promote the achievement of personal goals, it will evoke positive emotions in people (Roseman, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

A General theory of subjective well-being includes the 3P model (Prospect, Present and Past), which uses time as the fundamental component of subjective well-being and predicts that a network of well-being must grow over time to maintain and increase well-being since people not only seek happiness (Prospect), but also want to experience it (Present), as well as protect their previously acquired happiness (Past) (Durayappah, 2011).

Positive psychology theory. The term positive psychology can be traced to at least 1882 (Taylor, 2001). There are two major forms of positive psychology active in today's research – The original, humanistic positive psychology and The new, Positivistic positive psychology. Basic humanistic ideas were that positive psychology is an orientation toward the whole of psychology rather than a distinct area or school and interest in the exploration of new aspects of human behaviour (Mruk, 2013). Mruk (2013), Seligman and Csikzentmihaily are the founding fathers of the new (positivistic) positive psychology

known today as positive psychology. Positive psychology is considered the science of well-being and optimal functioning (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). The core characteristics of positive psychology centre around three global pillars of concern such as positive subjective experience, hope and optimism (Mruk, 2013).

4.2 Defining the concept of consumer well-being

As discussed earlier, the term well-being has a variety of definitions and can be explained with many theories. In addition, different disciplines focus on different aspects of well-being that are relevant to their area of interest (Lee & Ahn, 2016). This leads to terms such as psychological well-being, social well-being, or consumer well-being (CWB). As a result of various studies, well-being has emerged as a new area of research in marketing, along with happiness (Chen et al., 2020b). For the purposes of this dissertation, the concept of consumer well-being or consumer happiness (CH) is most relevant.

Most people strive to be happy regardless of where they come from, how much money they make, or how old they are and every day, people make choices that serve this goal (Mogilner et al., 2012). Consumer happiness is an evolving area of research within the marketing discipline (De Keyser & Lariviere, 2014) and is considered an important concept that deserves attention in both marketing literature and business practice (Desmeules, 2002). According to Tanaka and Tsubaki (2020), consumers can satisfy personal needs, including physical, material, social, and emotional needs, through products or services through which they experience happiness. Lee et al. (2002) argued that consumer well-being is best conceptualised through the entire consumption process — acquisition, ownership, consumption, maintenance and disposal — as consumers experience satisfaction and dissatisfaction throughout the entire consumption process and consumer satisfaction spills over into other areas of life that influence subjective well-being. The literature review shows that in addition to the conceptualisation of consumer well-being in the context of the different consumption stages, consumers' subjective well-being is also frequently researched. The literature review also shows that researchers differentiate between eudaimonic and hedonic consumer well-being and broader or narrower consumer well-being.

Subjective and objective consumer well-being. Consumer well-being is multidimensional and a complex construct (Kursan Milaković & Miocevic, 2022) that can be viewed either as objective or subjective consumer well-being. In the early days of consumer well-being studies, objective conceptualizations and measurements dominated (Ahuvia & Wong, 2002). Nevertheless, with the advent of subjective well-being and positive psychology, the importance of satisfaction and happiness was emphasised (Diener et al., 1999) and researchers began to develop subjective conceptualizations and measures of consumer well-being (Lee & Ahn, 2016), which since then, have been dominating the field of study. Most subjective models examine consumer satisfaction with various aspects of consumption, such

as the acquisition and ownership of material goods or retail and service experiences (Lee & Ahn, 2016). Today there are numerous conceptualizations and measurements of consumer well-being, such as the cost of living model, the consumption equity model, the quality model, the shopping satisfaction model, the possession satisfaction model, the acquisition/possession model, the consumer/product life cycle model, the community model, the need satisfaction model, the perceived value model, the bottom-up spillover model, the marketer's orientation model, the materialism model, and the globalization model, which Sirgy et al. (2007) meticulously gathered and described.

Consumer well-being and different consumption phases. Researchers studying consumption phases, define the term “consumer well-being” across different consumption phases, from pre-acquisition to disposal (Lee et al., 2002). Some researchers define consumer well-being as the idea that individuals have needs that they seek to satisfy within consumption experiences of acquisition, preparation, consumption and disposal (Daskalopoulou, 2014). For example, some focus on product use and define consumer happiness as a sense of well-being, induced by the use or consumption of products (Richins, 1997; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991) referring to benefits customers perceive from using a product or service (Agarwal et al., 2022). Others conceptualize consumer well-being as a positive evaluation of the contribution of purchases to consumer overall quality of life (Carter & Gilovich, 2010; Chen et al., 2021; Veenhoven, 2004). Agarwal, Mehrotra, and Misra (2022) define consumer happiness as a post-purchase feeling that results from the level of enjoyment the customer associates with the purchase. Consumer happiness can also be viewed in terms of value, where consumer happiness is defined as the usefulness of a product based on the customer's perception of what was given and received (Zeithaml, 1985).

Eudaimonic and hedonic consumer well-being. Like well-being, consumer well-being can also be considered eudaimonic and/or hedonic consumer well-being. In the well-being literature, researchers often include both eudaimonic facets (i.e., the extent of self-actualization) and hedonic facets (i.e., the extent of happiness and pleasure) of well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001). However, in the area of consumer behaviour, researchers studying consumer happiness generally focus on hedonic, pleasure-based forms of happiness (Gaston-Breton et al., 2020), with exceptions such as researchers who take a multidimensional approach with hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives (Gaston-Breton et al., 2020). Nevertheless, from a consumption perspective, happiness tends to be hedonic (Hsieh et al., 2018) which fits the context of this study where I define consumer happiness with an assessment of the satisfaction and happiness level that the purchase of goods, such as fashion apparel, brings to the consumer.

Broader (long term) consumer well-being. The term consumer well-being focuses on the well-being of an individual as a consumer and consumption-related aspects (Lee & Ahn, 2016). We can view consumer happiness from a broader (long term happiness) or more narrow point of view (short term happiness). When taking into account the broader point of view, consumer well-being refers to the well-being of a consumer or a group of consumers

(Lee & Ahn, 2016) and is determined by economic prosperity and encompasses many facets of human development and personally experienced quality of life (Diener et al., 2010). In the most extensive view, consumer well-being refers to optimal consumer functioning and experience encompassing quality of life, and physical, psychological and social well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

4.3 Research on consumer well-being and consumer happiness

For decades, happiness and well-being have been an important topic for philosophers, sociologists, psychologists and consumer researchers (Garner et al., 2022). Scholars have studied happiness in numerous contexts, and many of these analyses have attempted in some way to determine the role of consumption in the human psychology of happiness (Garner et al., 2022). Happiness has been studied from different perspectives, such as from a satisfaction perspective (Pipoli de Azambuja et al., 2023). Although the two concepts consumer happiness and consumer satisfaction appear to be similar, they are not the same. Consumer happiness is meant to mirror general well-being specifically for the area of consumption whereas consumer satisfaction is an evaluation of the performance of a product or a service versus expectations (Desmeules, 2002). While the concepts should not be used interchangeably they are closely connected since higher customer satisfaction leads to greater subjective well-being, and higher subjective well-being leads to greater consumer happiness (Wang & Chen, 2012).

4.3.1 Antecedents of consumer well-being

There are various antecedents with a positive impact on consumer happiness and consumer well-being, such as consumer satisfaction, loyal relationships with consumers, ethical and sustainable consumption, marketing, anti-consumption, psychological ownership and minimalism. In the literature, we can also find some antecedents with a negative impact on consumer well-being, such as overconsumption, materialism, marketing and social media consumption.

A positive antecedent of consumer well-being is satisfaction following a consumption experience (Manchanda, 2017; Sirgy, 2021). Scholars (e.g. Lee et al., 2002) argue that consumer well-being is determined by consumer satisfaction derived from acquisition, possession and consumption. Researchers (Pipoli de Azambuja et al., 2023) show that building loyal relationships with consumers can lead to higher consumer happiness. Ethical and sustainable practices can also have a positive impact on consumer well-being (Eshaghi et al., 2021; Sirgy et al., 2008) as well as intelligent products and smart services designed to boost consumer well-being (Henkens, Verleye, & Larivière, 2021; Hollebeek & Belk, 2018; Kang & Shao, 2023). The results presented by Li & Atkinson (2020) show that consumers feel happier when they have higher psychological ownership over an item after consumption. Anti-consumption has a positive effect on consumer well-being (Lee & Ahn, 2016),

furthermore, a recent study by Shafqat, Ishaq, & Ahmed (2023) shows that minimalism as a sustainable lifestyle choice helps people achieve higher consumer well-being and higher life satisfaction. Marketing can have a positive impact on consumers' psychological well-being (e.g., encouraging messages, facilitating healing from difficult life experiences, fulfilling wants and needs, helping consumers close a deal, etc.) or a negative impact on consumers' psychological well-being (e.g., dissatisfaction with current possessions, problems with product service, triggering memories of past hurts, negative experiences with services, diminished perception of one's body image, etc.) (Minton, 2022).

Researchers have also shown the negative effects of overconsumption on consumer happiness and well-being (e.g. Helm & Subramaniam, 2019; Seegebarth et al., 2016). Substantial research indicates a negative relationship between excessive consumption and well-being (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Kashdan & Breen, 2007; Lee & Ahn, 2016; Nagpaul & Pang, 2017), namely materialism and consumer well-being, where materialism has a negative effect on consumer well-being (Lee & Ahn, 2016). While social media has improved connectivity and has transformed global business, scholars are increasingly concerned that its use can also have detrimental effects on consumer well-being, such as psychological well-being (Griffith et al., 2022).

4.3.2 Outcomes of consumer well-being

There are various outcomes of happiness and well-being in the psychology, business and consumer behaviour literature. Some of the positive outcomes are mental and physical health as demonstrated by Lyubomirsky, King, and Diener (2005), and higher quality of life as shown in the extensive review of the literature by Sirgy, Lee, and Rahtz (2007), as well as influencing the choices individuals make when buying products (Mogilner et al., 2012). Limited research has assessed the outcomes of positive consumer well-being (McLean et al., 2023), with one such outcome being overall life satisfaction (Lee et al., 2002) and an increase in the quality of customers' lives (Hsieh et al., 2018) that consumer well-being is known to have an influence on. Some other consumer well-being outcomes are influencing behavioural intentions towards purchasing specific products and services (McLean et al., 2023), such as purchasing premium services or buying from a specific brand (Sirgy et al., 2007) and accepting higher prices for products or services that enhance their wellbeing (Sirgy et al., 2008). Studies on happiness provide evidence that happier customers rate service quality more positively than unhappy customers (e.g. Hellén & Sääksjärvi, 2011). Consumer well-being also has a positive effect on overall well-being, for example, individuals with higher consumer well-being are likely to experience more positive and fewer negative emotions, leading to an overall state of positive emotional well-being (Shafqat et al., 2023).

4.4 Operationalisation and measurements of consumer well-being

4.4.1 Operationalisation of consumer well-being

As written by Sirgy et al. (2007), in the early 90's authors Nakano, MacDonald, and Douthitt (1995) used a broad conceptualization of consumer well-being as satisfaction with consumer's ownership of durable consumer goods and other material possessions. The authors used two questions to measure consumer well-being: (1) How do you feel about your standard of living—the things you have like housing, car, furniture, recreation, and the like? and (2) How do you feel about the extent to which your physical needs are met? (Sirgy et al., 2007).

Consumer happiness can be measured using only one item “How does this purchase contribute to your happiness today?” (e.g. Etkin & Mogilner, 2016; Guevarra & Howell, 2015). Authors De Keyser and Lariviere (2014), focusing on the purchase phase of consumption, use three items to measure consumer happiness (Table 5.1, Appendix 5) which were originally developed by Van Boven and Gilovich (2003) and further adapted by Nicolao et al. (2009). Zhan and Zhou (2018) used very similar three items to measure consumer happiness (Table 5.2, Appendix 5). Researchers Thomas and Millar (2013) measured consumer happiness with three items, where participants were asked how happy the purchase made them feel, how much the event contributed to their happiness, and whether they would have been happier doing something else. Authors Kim and Lee (2020) measured consumer happiness with four items (Table 5.3, Appendix 5). Lately, authors Fei, Zeng and Jin (2022) composed a consumer happiness questionnaire focusing on the purchase and usage phases of consumption, modelled by previous research with five items (Table 5.4, Appendix 5).

4.4.2 The Consumer happiness measurement by van Boven and Gilovich

Many authors have either used or modelled their items from Van Boven and Gilovich (e.g. Al Mandil, 2016; Jang et al., 2018; Kim & Lee, 2020; Li & Atkinson, 2020; Theodorakis et al., 2019; Zhan & Zhou, 2018). In the consumer happiness measurement developed by van Boven and Gilovich (2003) respondents indicated how happy their purchase made them with the two questions (1) When you think about this purchase, how happy does it make you? and (2) How much does this purchase contribute to your happiness in life? with answers on a scale ranging from 1 (not happy) to 5 (moderately happy) to 9 (extremely happy). Authors later modelled their measurements or adapted the original one to measure consumer happiness, such as Nicolao et al. (2009). Theodorakis et al. (2019) further adapted Nicolao (2009) to measure consumer happiness using questions: (1) How happy does the thought that you participated in the race make you? (2) To what extent did this participation to the race contribute to your overall happiness? (3) To what extent do you think the money spent for participating in this race was worth it? These items were measured on a five-point scale

where 1 = not at all, and 5 = very much. Lately, authors Li & Atkinson (2020) modelled their 3-item measurement of the individual's happiness level with the purchase of an item (book) after Van Boven and Gilovich (2003) measurement (e.g. How much does this book contribute to your happiness right now?). An overview of studies using measurements modelled or adapted by Van Boven and Gilovich (2023) is presented in Table 8.

For the purposes of the quantitative research of this dissertation, a 3-item scale was used, modelled after Van Boven and Gilovich (2003) and Li and Atkinson (2020). The items used in our survey were: The first item asked, "When you think about the latest purchase of clothing, how happy does it make you?" The second item asked, "How much did the latest purchase of clothing contribute to your happiness in life?" The third item asked, "How much did the latest purchase of clothing contribute to your overall life satisfaction?" Participants rated the items on a seven-point scale (1 = not at all, 4 = moderately, 7 = very much).

Table 8: An overview of research studies using measurements modelled or adapted by Van Boven and Gilovich (2023)

Authors	Context	Factors	Scale and the number of items
Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003	The effects of purchasing experiences vs. material possessions on consumer happiness.	1	Van Boven and Gilovich scale (2 items)
Nicolao, Irwin, & Goodman, 2009	Testing if consumers will be happier if they spend their money on experiences as opposed to material possessions.	1	Adapted from van Boven and Gilovich scale (3 items)
Theodorakis, Kaplanidou, & Karabaxoglou, 2015	Examining how sport event service quality influence overall satisfaction with the event and experiential happiness.	1	Adapted from van Boven and Gilovich and Nicolao (2009) (3 items)
Al Mandil, 2016	Examining the influence of happiness on brand loyalty and premium price.	1	Modelled after van Boven and Gilovich scale and Bhattacharjee and Mogilner (2014) (4 items)
Zhan & Zhou, 2018	The influence of mobile internet use and risk factors on consumer happiness.	1	Adaptation of van Boven and Gilovich scale (3 items)
Jang et al., 2018	The effects of game process and outcome on sport consumers' happiness.	1	Modelled after van Boven and Gilovich (2 items)

To be continued

Table 8: An overview of research studies using measurements modelled or adapted by Van Boven and Gilovich (2023) (cont.)

Authors	Context	Factors	Scale and the number of items
Theodorakis et al., 2019	How satisfaction with the event influences happiness with the consumption experience; and how happiness influences the participant's perceived quality of life.	1	Adapted from van Boven and Gilovich and Nicolao (2009) (3 items)
Li & Atkinson, 2020	The effect of psychological ownership on consumer happiness.	n.a.	Modelled after van Boven and Gilovich (3 items)
Kim & Lee, 2020	The effect of online customization on consumers' happiness.	n.a.	Adapted from Bhattacharjee & Mogilner (2013); Millar & Thomas (2009); Van Boven & Gilovich (2003); Thomas & Millar (2013) (4 items)

Source: Literature review.

Another measurement of consumer happiness was developed by Gaston-Breton et al. (2020) who used one item where participants indicated how much the consumption experience contributed to their happiness in life: “How much do you think that this type of experience contributes to your happiness in life?” Indicating their thoughts on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = not at all, 7 = very much). I have modelled the measurement of the experience of buying fashion apparel after Gaston-Breton (2020) with one item: “How much do you think the experience of buying fashion apparel contributes to your happiness in life?”. In addition, I added two more items modelled after Van Boven Gilovich: “How much do you think the experience of buying fashion apparel contributes to your happiness?” and “How much do you think the experience of buying fashion apparel contributes to your had clothing items generally contributed to your overall life satisfaction?”

4.5 Consumer mindfulness in relation to consumer well-being

Mindfulness is often associated with positive psychology and well-being (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Fredrickson, 2011; Ivtzan et al., 2011; Kabat-Zinn, 2005; Langer, 2005; Lyubomirsky et al., 2011). Langer's mindfulness theory positions mindfulness as the essence of well-being which involves noticing new things, active orientation in the present, openness to new information, continuous creation of new categories and distinctions, sensitivity to different contexts, and awareness of multiple perspectives (Langer, 1978). Furthermore,

transformative choices can counter mindless behaviour in three areas of well-being: consumer, societal, and environmental (Milne et al., 2020). Since mindfulness promotes subjective well-being by focusing on the present moment (Ericson et al., 2014), it can help consumers focus on nonmaterial rewards and move toward more sustainable behaviours (Milne et al., 2020). Mindfulness is also relevant in a vast array of consumer behaviour issues, such as consumer decision-making, marketing communication, and persuasion among others where it could transform consumer behaviour and lead to higher levels of well-being (Brunel & Dong, 2006). Brown et al. (2007) suggested that mindfulness as living in the moment is negatively associated with hedonism. This idea encouraged further studies on concepts such as individual and societal well-being, including mindful consumption (Sheth et al., 2011), associations between environmentally sustainable behaviour, subjective well-being, and mindfulness (Jacob et al., 2009), the effect that mindfulness can have on impulse buying (Sermboonsang et al., 2020), and mindful finances (Pereira & Coelho, 2019), such as mindfulness leading to fewer financial desires and greater well-being (Brown et al., 2009).

Mindfulness has been theorized to lead to higher levels of psychological well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), due to higher levels of awareness and as a buffer against depression (Pirson et al., 2018). The benefits of mindfulness have received a lot of attention in scientific research as well as in the popular media (Van De Veer et al., 2016). At the beginning of 2000, mindfulness was a trendy topic in psychology and the social and health sectors (Pagnini & Phillips, 2015) as well as in marketing and management fields (e.g. Fiol & O'Connor, 2003; Rerup, 2004; Sheth et al., 2011). Studies dealing with mindfulness indicate a strong connection between mindfulness and physical and psychological well-being.

Increasing mindfulness is associated with improved quality of life in both the general population and clinical groups (Keng et al., 2011), and higher levels of mindfulness lead to meaningful personal engagement (Higher Stages of Human Development, 1990), in addition, the opposite of mindfulness – mindlessness is linked with human suffering (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). In clinical studies, mindfulness has traditionally been associated with outcomes such as self-control, emotion regulation, and compassion (Brown et al., 2007). Empirical research supports the role of mindfulness in well-being, e.g. significant correlations have been found with a variety of cognitive and affective indicators of mental health and well-being, lower levels of emotional disturbance (depressive symptoms, anxiety, and stress), higher levels of subjective well-being (higher positive affect, and satisfaction with life) and higher levels of eudaimonic well-being (vitality, self-actualization) (Brown & Ryan, 2003). In clinical studies, mindfulness has been shown to lessen negative affective reactivity and emotional volatility and facilitate recovery after emotionally provocative events (Arch & Craske, 2006). Further, mindfulness has also been shown to lead to quicker recovery from an induced sad mood (Broderick, 2005) and to enhanced mental health and well-being (Brown et al., 2007).

4.6 Sustainable consumption in relation to consumer well-being

Many researchers have presented a clear connection between happiness and different types of consumer behaviour such as general sustainable consumption behaviour (Brinkerhoff & Jeffrey, 1999; Iwata, 2001; Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007), ethical consumption (Szmigin & Carrigan, 2005), reducing waste (Jacob et al., 2009; Xiao & Li, 2011), voluntary simplicity (Elgin, 2010), pro-social spending (Dunn et al., 2008), and experiential purchasing (Carter & Gilovich, 2010; Dunn, Gilbert & Wilson, 2011; Nicolao, Irwin, & Goodman, 2009). There have been a growing number of studies establishing the link between sustainable behaviour and several psychologically positive consequences. Brown and Kasser (2005) found that people who engaged in more environmentally responsible behaviours were happier and experienced greater well-being. Gatersleben et al. (2008) found that individuals who reported more positive attitudes toward nature, greater environmental awareness and more environmentally responsible behaviours experienced greater satisfaction with life. Research by Liu, Baines, & Ku (2022) suggests that slow fashion could enhance consumers' well-being. Their study evaluates the positive relationship between slow fashion and well-being. Further, Seegebarth et al. (2016) found that individuals who avoid or limit consumption in an effort to simplify their life report higher well-being on average, whereas on the other hand, extensive research has shown that materialism lowers well-being and is related to negative personal well-being consequences (e.g. Balderjahn et al., 2023; Brown et al., 2016; Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Richins & Dawson, 1992; Van Boven, 2005)

Sustainable consumption's positive influence on consumers' subjective well-being is supported broadly by research on prosocial behaviour and subjective well-being, as well as intrinsic motivation. Veenhoven argued (2004) that one of the important reasons for promoting sustainable consumption is that it may give rise to greater happiness, at least in the long run - presenting evidence suggesting that a shift to sustainable consumption temporarily involves a minor reduction in happiness. However, sustainable consumption by the present generation will add to the happiness of future generations by avoiding degradation of the biosphere, such as global warming and reduced biodiversity. Another factor presented by Veenhoven (2004) is the concern that ongoing urbanization will reduce people's contact with nature and that, in the long run, this may diminish people's happiness. Next to these long-term considerations, the author (Veenhoven, 2004) also presents short-term factors that might influence the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness, such as eco-friendly consumption granting more satisfaction in itself, if consumers believe that eco products are healthier (e.g. organic foods).

Kim et al. (2016) developed a framework of proposed relationships between sustainable consumption and happiness based on the Self-Determination theory by Ryan and Deci (2000). Although several researchers discuss the positive relationship between sustainable consumption and happiness, Venhoeven et al. (2013) review theoretical arguments and empirical evidence for why environmentally friendly behaviours can both decrease and

increase consumer well-being, concluding that part of the answer lies in differing views of what well-being entails, and specifically whether the focus is on hedonic well-being or eudaimonic well-being. They conclude that more sustainable forms of consumption could increase well-being, especially if these behaviours align with a person's core values and shape their sense that they are moral agents (Venhoeven et al., 2013). Using a sample of Japanese customers, Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher (2016) investigated the complex relationships between sustainable purchasing choices and happiness with results suggesting that making sustainable purchases has a positive impact on happiness.

As already mentioned, the relationship between sustainable consumption and happiness is not always straightforward. For example, Carrero et.al. (2020) show that happiness results primarily from simplifying behaviours, while activist behaviours are associated with lower psychological well-being. Therefore, the authors of this study (Carrero et al., 2020) suggest that understanding the relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being can help identify entry points to support sustainable consumers and convince more young consumers to adopt this lifestyle. Recently, Ramos-Hidalgo et al. (2022) found that there is a positive relationship between consumers' predisposition toward sustainable behaviour and happiness. The results of their study show that consumers' inclination toward sustainable behaviour has a positive impact on happiness. The authors further state that the positive and significant impact observed in their study implies that a strong inclination toward sustainable behaviour, i.e., consumption that incorporates environmental and social concerns, increases consumer happiness (Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2022).

4.7 Life satisfaction

Several conceptualisations and measures of consumer well-being are based on the implicit or explicit assumption that high levels of consumer well-being lead to, among other things, higher life satisfaction, overall satisfaction with life, the absence of discomfort and greater societal welfare (Sirgy et al., 2007). The overall aim of this dissertation is to investigate the relationship between five concepts (namely mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, green warm glow and life satisfaction). Therefore, the concept of life satisfaction is explored in more detail in the following subchapter.

4.7.1 The concept of satisfaction with life

Diener and Diener (1996) refer to satisfaction with life (SWL), which is synonymous with life satisfaction, as a subjective assessment that individual makes about all aspects of their life. In general, positive ratings of satisfaction with life are associated with achieving the 'good life,' whereas negative ratings of satisfaction with life are associated with depression and unhappiness (Proctor et al., 2009). The concept of happiness is associated with several varied meanings, one of them being satisfaction with life (among hedonic level, joy, positive affect, and pleasantness, just to name a few) where literature review reveals measures of

satisfaction with life are often used to indicate happiness or unhappiness (Proctor et al., 2009). Moreta-Herrera et al. (2023) even go so far as to claim that satisfaction with life is one of the most studied and researched psychological traits within the constructs of quality of life and well-being. Furthermore, satisfaction with life is considered the key indicator (Proctor et al., 2009) and a key cognitive component of well-being (Moreta-Herrera et al., 2023).

As early as the 1990s, Diener (1996) discussed the factors that influence life satisfaction. Even in the 2020s, researchers still explored the concept of life satisfaction - scholars studied the determinants of life satisfaction from political, economic, institutional, developmental, and cultural aspects (Bjørnskov et al., 2008), gender differences (Fu et al., 2006), age, and health status as important indicators of people's life satisfaction (Chen et al., 2020b) as well as economic utility, enjoyment, and reputation motives as antecedents of life satisfaction (Chou et al., 2022).

4.7.2 Life satisfaction in consumer studies

A major component of happiness is life satisfaction (SWL), which reflects consumers' personal assessment of how good they think their lives are (Thomas & Millar, 2013). For many consumers, shopping can come at the expense of the time, energy, and money they invest in family life, social life, leisure life, work life, etc., where life satisfaction is strongly influenced by satisfaction in each life domain (i.e., overall satisfaction in work life, family life, social life, material life, etc.) (Ekici et al., 2018). Life satisfaction can be divided into two types, namely general life satisfaction and special life satisfaction (Oliver, 1997). The general life satisfaction focuses on the overall quality of life, while the special life satisfaction focuses on the different areas of life such as family satisfaction, health satisfaction, job satisfaction, school satisfaction, community satisfaction or consumer satisfaction. According to its definition, special life satisfaction is more specific than the general life satisfaction (Chen et al., 2020a). Positive and negative experiences with marketplace activities (e.g., shopping) affect life satisfaction by influencing overall satisfaction in different domains of life (Ekici et al., 2018).

Consumer life satisfaction is the content of consumer subjective well-being study and an important cognitive component of consumer subjective well-being (Chen et al., 2020a). Consumer life satisfaction is also considered an important part of the Positive psychology (Gilman & Huebner, 2000) and is a comprehensive assessment of consumers' daily lives (Chen et al., 2020a). Research on life satisfaction in the context of consumers has shown that consumers who experience a high level of satisfaction with life are more active, loyal and engaged in their consumption practices (Richins & Dawson, 1992). Income is also an important factor affecting the life satisfaction of consumers (Chen et al., 2020a; Schyns, 2000). Research by Chen et al. (2020a) has shown that higher financial education is significantly positively related to consumer life satisfaction. Researchers Thomas and Millar

(2013) present how goods and services are directed towards satisfying consumer needs, and how satisfaction with life serves as an important measure for understanding how consumers view their needs in light of their overall positive view of themselves and their experiences. Lately, The COVID-19 pandemic has dramatically impacted the lives of consumers across the globe and Ekici and Watson (2022) present a model that suggests that amidst COVID-19, seeking emotional help triggers positivity in people, which in turn increases life satisfaction.

4.7.3 Life satisfaction and mindfulness

Research over the past several decades demonstrates that mindfulness is associated with a host of positive outcomes (e.g. Grossman et al., 2004; Pepping et al., 2013; Zvolensky et al., 2006). In particular, several psychological health benefits (Charoensukmongkol & Suthatorn, 2018; Schutte & Malouff, 2011; Tomlinson et al., 2018) and greater life satisfaction (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kong et al., 2014; Stolarski et al., 2016). Increasing the level of mindfulness and increasing life satisfaction can be considered vital for a person (Aşık & Albayrak, 2022). Many recent studies support a positive relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction and focus on different mediators and moderators that influence this relationship. Nell (2016) found that higher mindfulness scores predict higher life satisfaction, showing that university students and their relatives who were more mindful tended to experience more positive and fewer negative emotions and were likely to be more satisfied with their lives, more hopeful and more likely to find their lives meaningful. Aşık and Albayrak (2022) found that increased mindfulness can increase the life satisfaction of nursing students. The study by Sünbül and Özcan (2022) found that body awareness mediates the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction, and more recently, Lee et al. (2023) have shown that mindfulness is positively associated with life satisfaction. They also show significant indirect effects of mindfulness on life satisfaction via self-esteem and perceived stress and show that the trait mindfulness is positively correlated with life satisfaction, with this association significantly explained by higher self-esteem and lower perceived stress.

Liang et al. (2022) showed that self-control plays a moderating role in the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction, and this moderation was further moderated by resilience. The results of the study by Kütük et al. (2022) showed that resilience and wisdom had a significant mediating role in the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction, and mindfulness accompanied by wisdom and resilience can lead to an increase in life satisfaction. Researchers Xie et al. (2023) examined the relative effects of pension amount and mindfulness on life satisfaction in retired older adults and found that mindfulness through positive and negative affect - PANA - had a much greater impact on life satisfaction than pension amount. Mindfulness is also a key concept associated with life satisfaction in adolescents (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kong et al., 2014). Brown et al. (2011) reported that adolescents in the study who displayed more mindfulness had greater life satisfaction than

those with low mindfulness. A study by Yüksel et al. (2023) concluded that mindfulness is directly and positively related to self-esteem, which in turn indirectly influences life satisfaction. Specifically, adolescents with greater mindfulness had higher self-esteem, which led to greater life satisfaction (Yüksel Doğan & Metin, 2023). Terzioğlu et al. (2022) used the Mindfulness-Based Physical Exercise Program (MBPE) and found that life satisfaction increased significantly from the pre- to post-mindfulness based exercise program, with a large effect size.

4.7.4 Operationalisation of the concept of life satisfaction – The Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS)

In recent decades, more and more research has been conducted in the social sciences on positive constructs such as optimism, happiness, subjective well-being, and quality of life (Glaesmer et al., 2011). Many authors (Arrindell et al., 2022; Glaesmer et al., 2011; López-Ortega et al., 2016) deem the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) the most commonly used measure of life satisfaction. SWLS has been developed by Diener et. al. (1985) and allows the identification and evaluation of the construct of satisfaction with life (Moreta-Herrera et al., 2023). Diener is one of the leading pioneers of scientific research on life satisfaction and has proposed numerous theories in this field (Moafian et al., 2017). Diener and colleagues (1993) define life satisfaction as an evaluation process in which individuals judge the quality of their lives based on their personal and unique standards. It is intended to be a comprehensive, reflective assessment of a person's life, without distinguishing between different domains and is considered a state variable, and the measurement of life satisfaction must not be too sensitive to change (Glaesmer et al., 2011). The SWLS consists of 5 items (Table 9) on a self-reported Likert scale from one to seven and measures subjective well-being's cognitive component (Moafian et al., 2017). Some of the latest research using SWLS also include studies such as Chou et al. (2022) who use the Life Satisfaction scale (SL) based on SWLS with some modifications (Table 6.1, Appendix 6).

Table 9: Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS)

No.	Item
1	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2	The conditions of my life are excellent.
3	I am satisfied with my life.
4	So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Source: Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985).

Regarding the psychometric properties of the SWLS, several studies that have examined this scale primarily on factorial validity have found it to have a unidimensional structure (Moreta-Herrera et al., 2023). Analyses of the internal consistency of the scale have yielded highly positive results (between $\alpha = .80$ and $\alpha = .87$) (Moreta-Herrera et al., 2023). Due to

the ease of implementation of the SWLS and its suitable psychometric properties, the scale has been used worldwide, especially in research on life satisfaction (Moafian et al., 2017). With a citation count exceeding 30,000, the SWLS has been translated into 39 different languages and even American Sign Language (Arrindell et al., 2022). The SWLS has been widely used by behavioural scientists, public health professionals (Pavot & Diener, 2008) and philosophers (Kusier & Folker, 2021) with different versions of the SWLS administered to children (Gadermann et al., 2010), adolescents (Bendayan et al., 2013; Neto, 1993), adults (Kołtuniuk et al., 2021), and the elderly (Durak et al., 2010; Pons et al., 2000). As presented bellow, the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) has been used thoroughly to assess happiness, (Moafian et al., 2017) and for the purposes of this dissertation, I have translated the 5-item SWLS from Diener (1985) into the Slovenian language.

In Table 10 I present the summary of Emerson's (2017) research review of the use of the Satisfaction with Life Scale including half of the presented research (Emerson et al., 2017).

Table 10: An overview of research studies using the Satisfaction with Life Scale

First Author & Year	Sample
Bai, 2011	Adults and older adults in China (n = 4795)
Clench-Aas, 2011	Adolescents, adults, and older adults in Norway (n = 4984)
Shevlin, 1998	Undergraduates in the United Kingdom (n = 258)
Tomás, 2015	Adolescents, adults, and older adults in Angola (n = 5630)
Hultell, 2008	Student-teachers in Sweden (n = 2900)
Jovanović, 2016	High school students in Serbia (n = 481)
Glaesmer, 2011	Adolescents, adults, and older adults in Germany (n = 2519)
Sovet, 2016	Undergraduates in Togo (n = 460)
Wu, 2006	Undergraduates in Taiwan (n = 476)
Atienza, 2003	High school students in Spain (n = 2080)
Tucker, 2006	University students in the US and Russia (n = 152)
Whisman, 2016	Older adults in the US, England, and Japan (n = 1594)
Bieda, 2016	University students in Germany, Russia, and China (n = 20,783)
Ponizovsky, 2013	Immigrants in Israel, Germany, and Bulgaria (n = 603)
Durak, 2010	University students, correctional officers, and older adults in Turkey (n = 836)
Siedlecki, 2008	Adults and older adults in the US (n = 818)
Clench-Aas, 2011	Adolescents, adults, and older adults in Norway (n = 4984)
Pons, 2000	High school students and older adults in Spain (n = 266)
Gana, 2013	Older adults in France (n = 899)
Glaesmer, 2011	Adolescents, adults, and older adults in Germany (n = 2519)

Source: Emerson et al. (2017).

5 PRELIMINARY QUALITATIVE RESEARCH¹

The fifth chapter is dedicated to the preliminary qualitative research and starts with the presentation of the methodology, followed by findings of the qualitative research which include emerging themes, the concepts of mindfulness, consumer well-being, sustainable consumption and an emergence of an additional construct of warm glow. Next, I explore the relationships between the concepts of well-being, mindfulness and sustainable consumption and conclude the chapter with discussion and implications of preliminary qualitative research.

5.1 Introduction to the qualitative study

Current consumption patterns, including consumption of textile products and clothing, have a significant environmental impact and must be addressed as an environmental research priority. Therefore, sustainability requires efforts by the textile industry as well as consumers (Connell & Kozar, 2014). It seems that although consumers are aware of the negative consequences of consumption for themselves, society, businesses and the environment (Galbreth & Ghosh, 2013; Quelch, 2007; Yarimoglu & Binboga, 2019), they tend not to behave according to their intentions (Hassan et al., 2016; Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). One possible explanation for this is that consumers often make unconscious decisions and do not pay much attention to their consumption behaviour, which eventually results in unsustainable consumption practices (Armstrong & Jackson, 2015; Jackson, 2005; Shove & Warde, 1997). Lack of sufficient attention and awareness is sometimes attributed to consumers' mindlessness in their consumption decisions (Langer, 1992; Langer & Ngnoumen, 2002). By being mindful, individuals may behave in a way that aligns more closely with their values and interests (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Prudenzi et al., 2022; Ryan et al., 1997; Shapiro et al., 2006). Thus, mindfulness may fill the gap between attitude and behaviour that has been identified as an obstacle in some unsustainable consumption contexts (Prothero et al., 2011; Young et al., 2010). The qualitative study addresses this problem by investigating the role of mindfulness in fashion apparel consumption. Today, it is no longer possible to imagine a future where the pursuit of happiness is not somehow connected to sustainability, and more emphasis must be placed on the interaction between sustainability and well-being (Landes, Unger, Andsbjerg, Frank & Wiking, 2015). This study, thus, investigates the connection between sustainability and well-being.

The goals of this study are to shed light on how mindfulness can be used to limit overconsumption tendencies and enhance pro-environmental and pro-social behaviours at the individual consumer level and to better understand how mindfulness and sustainable

¹ This chapter is partially based on Resnik (2022)

consumption promote individual consumer well-being in the context of fashion apparel consumption.

5.2 Qualitative study research questions

Many of our daily decisions and actions are a function of automatic processing (Bargh & Chartrand, 1999). This is in line with mindfulness theory, which presents automatic processing as mindlessness and describes it as a state of mind characterised by an overreliance on categories and distinctions drawn in the past and in which the individual is context-dependent and, as such, is oblivious to novel (or simply alternative) aspects of the situation (Langer, 1992). According to Langer (1989), when people are mindful, they first consider the unique qualities of a situation before deciding what to do and because they can view situations from multiple perspectives, mindful people will better understand their impact on others. Thus, consumers with a higher level of mindfulness pay more attention to the choices presented to them and actively seek new information about the product and its impact on the environment and society. Furthermore, consumers are more aware of the consequences of their decisions on themselves, others, and the environment. As presented above, mindfulness theory supports the notion that, by being more mindful, an individual consumer is likely to behave more sustainably. Following this notion, I will try to answer how the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption are connected.

RQ1. How are the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption connected?

Mindfulness is often associated with positive psychology and well-being (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Fredrickson, 2011; Ivtzan et al., 2016; Kabat-Zinn, 2005; Lyubomirsky, 2012). Nevertheless, researchers (e.g., Bahl et al., 2016) still raise concerns about the underresearched area of the benefits of consumer mindfulness. In this study I propose a bridge between mindfulness theory and positive psychology theory in that there exists a connection between mindfulness and consumer well-being. Langer's mindfulness theory positions mindfulness as the essence of well-being which involves noticing new things, active orientation in the present, openness to new information, continuous creation of new categories and distinctions, sensitivity to different contexts, and awareness of multiple perspectives (Langer et al., 1978). Following this notion, I will aim to answer how consumer mindfulness relates to consumer happiness.

RQ2. How does consumer mindfulness reflect consumer well-being?

Many researchers have presented a clear connection between happiness and different types of consumer behaviours, such as general sustainable behaviours (Iwata, 2001; Jacob & Brinkerhoff, 1999; Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007), ethical consumption (Szmigin & Carrigan, 2006), reducing waste (Jacob et al., 2009; Xiao & Li, 2011), voluntary simplicity (Elgin, 2010), pro-social spending (Dunn et al., 2008), and experiential purchasing (Carter & Gilovich, 2010; Dunn et al., 2011; Nicolao et al., 2009). There are a growing number of

studies establishing the link between sustainable behaviour and several psychologically positive consequences, such as happiness and I will try to answer how is sustainable consumption related to consumer well-being.

RQ3. How is sustainable consumption associated with consumer well-being?

The study uses in-depth interviews with individual consumers to better understand the mechanisms of consumer mindfulness and to explore the relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being in the context of fashion apparel consumption. Using such qualitative instruments often provides additional types of information which cannot be easily obtained using a quantitative research design. The aim of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the main concepts and the relationship between them. The study aimed to gain a deeper understanding of the (a) mindfulness concept, consumers' familiarity with the concept of mindfulness, how they perceive it, and how they personally practice consumer mindfulness, (b) sustainable consumption concept, such as consumers' familiarity with the concept, their perception of a sustainable consumer, their attitudes toward sustainable consumption, and their own sustainable consumption practices, and (c) consumer well-being concept in terms of consumers' familiarity with the concept and their own sense of consumer well-being. Secondly, the aim of the qualitative study was to examine the potential for developing a link between consumer well-being, mindfulness and sustainable consumption, specifically by gaining insight into consumers' understanding of the relationship between consumer mindfulness and sustainable consumption, the relationship between consumer well-being and mindfulness and the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being in the context of fashion apparel. The goal of this qualitative study was to gain a better understanding of the main concepts and the relationships between them to be able to propose a comprehensive conceptual model which would be later tested with quantitative methods.

The qualitative study was focused on general concepts of sustainability, mindfulness and well-being as well as specifically on the consumption of apparel fashion at the individual consumer level, regarding several consumption phases: acquisition, usage (consumption), maintenance, and disposal.

5.3 Methodology of the qualitative study

5.3.1 Data collection

The participants for the semi-structured, in-depth interviews were identified within the researchers' personal, family and professional networks using convenient sampling. The in-depth interviews were designed to offer the opportunity for participants to reflect on their experiences and express their opinions. This sort of data collection technique is deemed to

be appropriate, as it allows two-way communication and insight into participants' understandings and perspectives (Venter et al., 2011).

The initial participants were selected to ensure different ages, gender, income, education, employment status, and different jobs, thus, a brief personal profile data on each individual was collected. All interviews were conducted by the researcher and all participants were informed of the nature of the research and their participation was voluntary. In line with the university guidelines and requirements, all participants signed informed consent documents permitting their data to be recorded and their transcribed conversation used solely for the purpose of the research. The interviews were conducted in the Slovenian language since the study focuses on the Slovenian market of fashion apparel consumption and all the participants were native speakers including the researcher performing the interviews. The interviews were recorded, and later transcribed scripts were made by the researcher.

Social desirability bias describes the behaviour of participants who describe themselves positively in order to create a socially appropriate image of themselves or certain situations instead of answering truthfully and identifying themselves accurately (Kühne, 2018). In most cases, social desirability bias is unintentionally introduced into a study by the researcher, making it difficult to detect (Bispo, 2022). Therefore, some necessary steps were taken to ensure minimal social desirability bias, such as:

- Assuring respondents that their data is confidential and reassuring them that their anonymity will be maintained and their personal information will be kept confidential as suggested by Bispo (2022).
- Be careful not to show what answers are expected. As Kempf-Leonard (2004) point out, a smile, a frown or even the raising of an eyebrow can indicate what answers the interviewer expects or disapproves of. This type of nonverbal communication can influence interviewees to censor or distort their positions (Bispo, 2022).
- Only the researcher and the interviewee were present in the room to eliminate the observer effect, and the environment of most interviews (with some exceptions) was free of interruptions.
- The questions were phrased in a way that indicated to the interviewee that they could share different views without the fear of being judged, as suggested by (Bispo, 2022). Furthermore, when conducting the interviews, the questions were asked in a specific order, with more general and easy questions to break the ice and set the relaxed and friendly tone of the interview. It was also important that the interviewees felt comfortable and therefore more willing to express their opinions, as suggested by Scott et al. (2021).

5.3.2 Sample profile

At the sample size of 20 participants, the data saturation was reached, as there was no new information that was extracted from participants. Participants represented in the sample

provided a variety of demographic and lifestyle variables. The sample thus included 8 men and 12 women from ages 17 to 69 years old. Participants varied in their level of education from primary school to doctorate, where only one participant had the highest finished education in primary school and one participant had the highest finished education of PhD studies. Most of the participants were employed full time, 3 were unemployed, 1 was employed part-time and 2 were students (See Table 11).

Table 11: Demographic data of the in-depth interview participants

Participant	Age	Gender	Education	Employment status
A	40	Female	High school / College	Employed full-time
B	17	Female	Primary School	Student
C	24	Female	High school / College	Employed full-time
D	34	Female	Master's degree	Employed full-time
E	43	Male	Gymnasium	Employed full-time
F	61	Female	Secondary / vocational school	Unemployed
G	35	Male	Master's degree	Employed full-time
H	34	Female	Master's degree	Employed full-time
I	36	Male	Master's degree	Employed full-time
J	34	Female	Master's degree	Employed part-time
K	27	Male	Gymnasium	Student
L	33	Female	Master's degree	Employed full-time
M	37	Female	High school / College	Employed part-time
N	35	Male	PhD studies	Employed full-time
O	57	Male	Master's degree	Employed full-time
P	56	Female	Master's degree	Employed full-time
Q	38	Female	High school / College	Employed full-time
R	35	Female	Master's degree	Employed full-time
S	69	Male	Gymnasium	Unemployed
T	35	Male	High school / College	Unemployed

Source: Own work.

The sample included 14 participants from the capital city of Slovenia, Ljubljana and 6 from other cities across Slovenia. The monthly income of the household was spread out from less than 1,000 euros to 4,000 euros, except for two participants who have indicated that their household has an income greater than 4,001 euros per month. Regarding the participants' jobs, most of the participants indicated that they were professionals in the fields of science, engineering, education, information technology or law, 4 participants were unemployed, 1

working in the administration and 1 as a salesperson. This diverse set of participants was chosen to observe whether these demographic factors may or may not be associated with participants' opinions, behaviours, and attitudes toward sustainable consumption of fashion apparel.

This research provided an in-depth analysis of stories told by a relatively small number of consumers who talk about their habits regarding the consumption of fashion apparel, their opinion about the sustainable consumption of fashion apparel and their reflection on the relationship between mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer well-being regarding consumption of fashion apparel.

5.3.3 Data analysis

In this study, the researcher used a qualitative method since the issues under investigation were complex and multi-faceted. In the first stage, interviews were conducted by using open-ended questions. The objective of these interviews was to gather an in-depth view of the themes arising from a comprehensive literature review regarding three main concepts: sustainable consumption, consumer mindfulness and consumer well-being. All recordings from the interviews were transcribed by the researcher and analysed using qualitative content analysis since it offers a focused and systematic approach that aims to code text-based data in response to the research questions and requires the researcher to focus on pre-identified concepts of meaning. Because of the scarcity of previous studies dealing with the concepts of mindfulness, consumer well-being and sustainable consumption concurrently, coded themes and subthemes were derived directly from the text data, therefore inductive content analysis was used.

The methodology for this study required several steps as presented by Elo and Kyngäs (2008): (1) In the preparation phase the researcher transcribed the interviews and obtained a sense of the whole by reading the transcripts several times and finally developed themes with inductive content analysis. (2) In the organising phase the researcher started coding and creating subthemes, grouping coded text under higher order headings. (3) In the final stage of the analysis the researcher presented a storyline about the data in relation to the research questions.

5.4 Findings of the qualitative study

5.4.1 Emerging themes

The overall research questions drove the research project and themes that captured something important about the data in relation to the research questions. The identified themes represented some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set (Braun

& Clarke, 2006). The researcher identified a number of themes across the data set, and a researcher's judgement was necessary to determine the themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The emergent themes from the content analysis of the in-depth interview data revealed a number of key findings. Six main themes, with adjoining sub-themes, were identified based on the overall research questions: mindfulness (mindful consumer behaviour), sustainable consumption (first thoughts about sustainable consumption, characteristics of a sustainable fashion apparel consumer, positive and negative consequences of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel, participant's attitude toward sustainable consumption, sustainable fashion consumption of participants, and fast fashion industry consequences), consumer well-being (negative fashion apparel consumer experiences, positive fashion apparel consumer experiences), the relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption, the relationship between consumer well-being and mindfulness, and the relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being.

The word frequency for all coded text, calculated in the NVivo software has shown that the respondents most frequently used words such as "I buy" (166 times, 0.40% frequency), "very" (156 times, 0.37% frequency), "I go" (147 times, 0.35% frequency), "always" (132 times, 0.31% frequency), "I am buying" (122 times, 0.29% frequency), "a thing" (119 times, 0.28% frequency), "I bought" (119 times, 0.28% frequency), "cotton" (111 times, 0.26% frequency).

5.4.2 Mindfulness

In the interviews, significant attention was paid to the concept of mindfulness. Some participants never heard of mindfulness, a few heard of it but were not sure what it means and some were familiar with mindfulness and had an idea of what it means. The participants who had never heard of mindfulness were presented with the definition in order to continue the discussion, and all of the participants continued to reflect on how they see mindfulness. Frequently, participants described mindfulness as being aware and attentive to the things around you.

Participant T, male, age 35: *"(Note: Mindful) is someone who is aware of what is going on around him, why things are happening... and also (aware) of what is happening with himself."*

Participant S, male, age 69: *"(Note: Mindful) is someone who is aware of the world around him. He is not in a bubble, he is attentive."*

One participant believed that mindfulness is about relationships among people, another simply described mindfulness as "Here and now" and few indicated that mindfulness is about being aware of your own thoughts. Since the interviews were conducted in Slovenian language, I introduced the participants to the word mindfulness translated into Slovene

“čuječnost” as well as the original word in the English language “mindfulness”. Few participants indicated that the translated word “čuječnost” does not have the same meaning as mindfulness. They believed that the word mindfulness better translates into a word “ozaveščen” which is a Slovene word for “aware”.

Participant K, male, age 27: *“I imagine that mindfulness is sort of a mindset and awareness. “Čuječnost” is more about receiving information. Being “čuječ” is about receiving things from the environment. Mindfulness, on the other hand, is something that you have in your head.”*

Participant N, male, age 35: *“I’ve heard of mindfulness, but I have never heard of “čuječnost”. I imagine that mindful is more about being aware. “Čuječnost” is more than being aware, it also includes your beliefs. I imagine that you are ready to do more because of your beliefs. That you approach your awareness more proactively, you do things and become a better person.”*

Further, the rest of the participants were presented with the definition of a mindful consumer and the conversation continued. Participants described a mindful consumer as someone who is attentive and precise and as someone who is kind to nature, animals, and people. Some of the participants indicated also that a mindful consumer is frugal and contemplates and does research before the purchase.

Participant Q, female, age 38: *“(Note: Mindful apparel consumer) is attentive when buying, gets acquainted with the store: who is working for this store? Makes sure there is no child labour and that products are not tested on animals.”*

Participant H, female, age 34: *“(Note: Mindful apparel consumer) buys only products with a proven origin, proven materials, made fair-trade and doesn’t buy large quantities, owns small quantities of things and uses them for a long time. He/she takes good care of his/her clothes so they last longer.”*

Since there is a lot of research associating meditation with mindfulness (e.g. Kabat-Zinn, 1994, 2003; Richards, 2014) participants were asked to think about whether a mindful consumer is more likely to meditate. Some participants saw no connection between meditation and mindfulness and few believed that a mindful consumer is more likely to meditate. Most of the participants who saw a connection between meditation and mindfulness saw meditation similar to mindfulness – as being present in the moment or being self-aware.

Participant P, female, age 56: *“(Note: Yoga and mindfulness are not connected), but meditation is. I started doing meditation 15 years ago, but I am not practising it often. Maybe I am more self-aware because of that.”*

Participant C, female, age 24: *“I think this is connected (note: meditation and mindfulness). I guess the original meaning (note: of mindfulness) is in the meditation. Self-awareness, being aware of your surroundings, not being in a hurry, thinking about things that you hear, not believing everything you hear, double-check some things. You are thinking about others.”*

When describing themselves, many participants viewed themselves as somewhat mindful consumers or at least trying to be. Their fashion apparel consumption habits consisted of not buying too much apparel and striving to buy even less, staying away from big shopping centres and fast fashion stores and practising thoughtful purchases. Overall, participants view mindful consumption as something positive for an individual consumer, for nature and for society. Regarding the consequences of mindfulness to an individual consumer, participants expressed mostly positive consequences such as being happier, living a good life, being free (because of less clothes and other stuff in your living space), doing good for yourself and others, having more money to spend on other things (because you are not spending it on clothes). One participant expressed doubt about the positive consequences of mindfulness because a person, if being unaware and less mindful, is blissfully ignorant of the world around him or her and consequently more content with his or her purchases.

Participant H, female, age 34: *“If someone is less mindful, he does not deal with any of these questions because he most likely does not care and thus, he can be a happier consumer. He or she is satisfied with the products he or she uses and is not interested in where these products came from and where they are going. If you are more mindful than you have to – to some degree – deal with these questions and sooner or later, you come to the point when you have internal battles with yourself (the way I do): will I buy this or not? I know this is bad, someone did not get paid to sew this, but still, it is so inexpensive... More mindful you are the more you get moved by all of the things considering sustainable consumption and at least you are trying not to buy.”*

5.4.3 Mindful consumer behaviours

As stated by Sheth, Sethia, and Srinivas (2011), mindful consumption consists of temperance in acquisitive, repetitive and aspirational consumption at the behaviour level. During the interviews participants also discussed how often they buy apparel items, how many of their apparel items they frequently wear, if they ever buy apparel they cannot afford, the main reason for buying a new apparel item, buying a specific apparel item to be seen wealthier or buying clothes they cannot afford.

5.4.3.1 Acquisitive consumption

Participants discussed how many apparel items they bought in the last three months, how many of their apparel items they frequently wear and how many apparel items they have not

worn for more than one season. Participants' answers indicate their level of acquisitive consumption which involves acquiring things at a scale that exceeds one's needs, or even one's capacity to consume (Sheth et al., 2011). Two participants (both male) stated that they have not bought any apparel item in the past 12 months, some participants stated that they have bought from one up to three individual apparel items in the last three months, some participants stated they have bought from 4 to 6 individual apparel items and few participants (all female) indicated they have bought from ten up to twelve apparel items in the past three months. When discussing their stock of apparel items at home, one participant stated that he wears only about 10% of his clothes regularly, few participants stated they wear from 10% to 30% regularly and some stated they wear from 30% up to 50% regularly. Some participants stated that they wear from 80% to 90% of their clothes regularly and one participant stated that she wears all of her clothes regularly. When asked if they own apparel items that they have not worn for more than one season, many participants stated that they own several items of apparel that they have not worn for one or more seasons, few participants stated they own many of such apparel items and few stated they own very little of such apparel items and some participants stated they do not own any apparel item that they haven't worn for one or more seasons.

5.4.3.2 Repetitive consumption

Further, participants discussed the main reason for buying a new apparel item which can indicate their level of repetitive consumption and can be simply described as buying, discarding, and buying again, where products are discarded because of their obsolescence. As presented in the theoretical background, social and ecological awareness can influence consumers' decisions when buying fashion apparel, as well as other aspects such as fit and style. Respondents in this study also talked about the main criteria when deciding to buy fashion apparel. Respondents frequently mentioned apparel appearance as one of the main factors as well as the price of an apparel item. When talking about the main criteria respondents consider when buying an apparel item, some participants mentioned the level of quality, the material of which an apparel item is made and how comfortable it is (see Table 12). When talking about material as the main criterion for choosing to buy an apparel item a few participants specifically mentioned the importance of material of undergarments.

Participant B, female, age 17: *"Appearance. Most definitely. Also the price. And also quality, of course."*

Participant E, male, age 43: *"Clothes I buy are for long term use, this is why I like high quality clothes."*

Participant R, female, age 35: *"It (note: apparel) needs to be comfortable and of high quality. When buying casual clothes, the most important thing is that they are comfortable, when buying formal wear the most important things are appearance and being comfortable."*

Participant H, female, age 34: *“The most important criterion is the price. Also materials. Especially t-shirts, undergarments and tights – I like it when the material is cotton.”*

Few participants mentioned a good fit of an apparel item when talking about the main criteria they consider when buying an apparel item and few participants said that one of the main criteria is that an apparel item has a certificate for being bio, natural, sustainable or similar. Participants also talked about other criteria that are important when buying an apparel item such as looking good in an apparel item, being able to style it with their old clothes, it being fashionable, functional, different (stands out), pleasant to touch and being simple to maintain. Few participants specifically mentioned that the price is not one of their main criteria when choosing to buy an apparel item. The main purchase criteria are summarized in Table 12.

Participant D, female, age 35: *“High quality, appearance. I like to see it has a certificate for being socially responsible, not tested on animals... I like to see this.”*

Participant I, male, age 36: *“High quality. It is important that I use an item for a long time. This is not something that looks nice and has the lowest price.”*

Table 12: Respondents' main criteria when buying fashion apparel

Respondents' main criteria when buying clothes	Frequency
Appearance of the apparel	13
The price	11
Quality of the apparel	8
Material of which the apparel is made of	7
How comfortable the apparel is	6
How well apparel fits	2
Having certificates (e.g. sustainable, natural, bio, recycled...)	2
Other	7
Total (N=20)	56

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

5.4.3.3 Aspirational consumption

Aspirational consumption can be observed when consumers are aspiring to compare themselves with others whose income is much higher (Schor, 1999, pp. 4, 12). Only one participant has clearly shown the behaviour of aspirational consumption, talking about buying a specific apparel item to be seen as super-rich or buying clothes she cannot afford.

Due to the somewhat sensitive topic, perhaps some of the participants did not want to reveal their aspirational consumption intentions, thus it is difficult to reveal the extent of aspirational consumption behaviours of all participants.

Participant R, female, age 35: “... *I buy statement pieces in Emporium for occasions when we go to a hotel, to a luxury destination, among the higher class. You need to fit in there, that is why I go to Emporium to buy a statement piece with which I can go anywhere. Then you can actually be a part of the elite and they do not judge you “Who are these two people?!”*. That is why you buy a few statement pieces and people will immediately see what you are about “Ok, the wristwatch is there, shoes as well, a handbag and a t-shirt... this is it!”. This sort of apparel you buy once and then you have it for some time.”

The word frequency for nodes regarding mindfulness has shown that the respondents most frequently used the word “mindful” (90 times, 1.77% frequency) followed by “consumer” (39 times, 0.77% frequency), “mindfulness” (36 times, 0.71% frequency), “sustainable” (34 times, 0.67% frequency) and “happy” (28 times, 0.55% frequency).

5.4.4 Sustainable consumption

One of the three main themes revealed by the in-depth interviews data was sustainable consumption with adjoining five sub-themes: first associations about the concept of sustainable consumption, characteristics of sustainable consumer, consequences of sustainable consumption, participants’ attitude toward sustainable consumption, and participants’ own sustainable consumption.

The word frequency regarding sustainable consumption calculated in NVivo 12 computer software has shown that the most frequently used word by the respondents was “longer” (24 times, 0.50% frequency) followed by “going” (21 times, 0.44% frequency), “environment” (21 times, 0.44% frequency), “always” (21 times, 0.44% frequency), “eko” (20 times, 0.42% frequency) and “bio” (19 times, 0.40% frequency).

5.4.4.1 First thoughts about sustainable consumption in general

When starting the discussion on sustainable consumption, many participants were already familiar with this term viewed by many as the consumption of things that will last a long time. Few participants viewed sustainability more comprehensively, including consumers, producers, workers, and nature. Few viewed sustainable consumption primarily as recycled and up-cycled products and few participants believed that sustainable consumption is primarily about taking care of the environment.

Participant F, female, age 61: “*This (Note: sustainable product) is something that will last a long time, that you will use for a long time, no frequent replacements.*”.

Participant G, male, age 35: *“The whole cycle, from the manufacturing to consumption... you are not looking only to buy apparel but also think about where the apparel came from, where it was made, how was it made, with what materials, and what was the impact on the environment. This to me is a concept of sustainability.”*

Participant I, male, age 36: *“I think of a product that is made of already used products, recycled products that used to be used for something else. Such as trousers made from 5 different trousers.”*

All participants were presented with the definition of sustainable consumption, but not all of the participants were specifically asked for their opinion about the definition: *“Researchers often refer to sustainable consumption as a type of consumption that has several dimensions. These dimensions frequently include environmental, economic, and social dimensions. The Oslo Symposium (back in 1994) defined sustainable consumption as “the use of services and related products, which respond to basic needs and bring a better quality of life while minimizing the use of natural resources and toxic materials as well as the emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle of the service or product so as not to jeopardize the needs of further generations”.*”

Many participants did not give their opinion about the definition, few of the participants agreed with the definition and did not comment further and some participants commented about some parts of the definition, such as: not agreeing we should be minimizing the use of natural resources, not agreeing that any apparel item can enhance the quality of life, saying that the definition is not realistic since no consumer is capable of doing everything, pointing out minimal use of natural resources as something very important that consumers often forget about, and seeing sustainability more from a technical point of view which is different from the definition in a way that if a t-shirt gets recycled it should be recycled into another t-shirt.

Participant Q, female, age 38: *“This is similar to the way I see sustainable consumption, yes.”*

Participant E, male, age 43: *“If you want to be sustainable you need to engage in it by yourself. This is not something you can just buy off the rack. He (Note: a sustainable consumer) can cover some aspects of the definition when he buys an organic collection of some brand, but to be able to cover everything and at the same time also be a hipster – this is impossible. Someone might buy less and wear clothes for a long time not to burden the natural environment, someone will do something else... but one consumer to be able to do everything? You will never find him.”*

Participant H, female, age 34: *“A sustainable consumer might be aware of how (with what) the clothes are coloured. But even I (when I am buying) don’t say at the end “I will not take this apparel item because this cotton has a bad influence on the natural environment and it is also coloured in the way that it even further impacts the natural environment.” I don’t*

think so. I believe that there is not one piece of clothing that can improve my quality of life. This is very personal. There are some to whom clothes mean a lot. It means a lot to them to be wearing a different look every day and this improves their quality of life. For me personally, this is not the case. This sort of person (whose clothes mean so much to him/her) can't easily be sustainable."

Participant D, female, age 34: *"Hmmm... it (NOTE: the definition) also includes the production. It covers the concept even more broadly. Minimizing the use of natural resources – this is something we consumers forget about when we are looking for the items that would be the best for us, just us, just us! On the other hand, the definition says it has to be in the best interest of all of us."*

5.4.4.2 Characteristics of a sustainable fashion apparel consumer

When talking about what a sustainable fashion apparel consumer is like six characteristics emerged: he or she is concerned about the natural environment, frugal, thoughtful, not interested in fashion trends, is concerned about other people and has a sense of style and fashion (regularly looks stylish and is well dressed and dresses accordingly to the latest fashion trends). Participants most commonly described a sustainable consumer as someone who is concerned about the natural environment and is frugal as shown in Table 13. The word frequency calculated with NVivo software has shown that when talking about the characteristics of a sustainable consumer, respondents used words such as: "is buying" (15 times, 0.70% frequency), "wearing" (15 times, 0.70% frequency), "eco" (14 times, 0.65% frequency) and "going" (14 times, 0.65% frequency).

Table 13: Characteristics of a sustainable consumer

Characteristic	Frequency
Concerned about the natural environment	16
Frugal	12
Thoughtful	8
Not interested in fashion trends	7
Concerned about other people	4
Has a sense of style and fashion	2
Total (N=20)	49

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant C, female, age 24: *“This kind of consumer is probably aware that for one piece of clothing half of the Brazilian forest was cut down. He avoids harmful things and tries to find an alternative solution...”*

Participant B, female, age 17: *“... he is concerned about the natural environment, he is careful about how his actions affect the natural environment and himself, ...”*

Participant T, male, age 35: *“He (Note: sustainable consumer) is probably washing his clothes with a detergent that is better for the natural environment and owns a washing machine that uses less energy.”*

In the discussion about how sustainable consumer is attentive to the natural environment a sub theme emerged. Some participants pointed out that a sustainable consumer is recycling or upcycling and is trying to produce as little waste as possible.

Table 14: Sustainable consumer consumption habits

Consumption habits		Frequency
Pre-purchase consumption habits	Wearing and buying apparel that will last a long time	12
	Buying apparel with eco and bio certificates or made out of natural materials	6
	Buying locally produced apparel	4
	Doing some or extensive inquiry before buying an apparel item	4
	Buying apparel in second-hand stores	3
	Buying apparel products that can be recycled	1
Post-purchase consumption habits	Recycling, up-cycling, giving away, selling	11
	Wearing apparel items for a long time	11
	Not washing the clothes too often	5
	Using environment-friendly detergents	2
	Wearing a piece of clothing more often	2
	Taking good care of apparel and mending it	2
	Using environment-friendly washing machine	1
	Total (N=20)	65

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant Q, female, age 38: *“... not using too much plastic, when going shopping he brings his own bag, and produces less waste.”*

Participant K, male, age 27: “... *at the end, he throws away as little as possible. At some point, you have to, but it should be as little as possible.*”

When talking about what kind of consumption habits a sustainable apparel consumer has, several habits emerged that fall under a pre-purchase consumption habits category or post-purchase consumption habits category. During the conversations six pre-purchase consumption habits emerged: wearing and buying apparel that will last a long time (usually of higher quality), buying apparel with eco and bio labels or made from natural materials, buying locally produced products, buying in second-hand stores, buying products that can be recycled, and, lastly, doing at least some if not a thorough inquiry before buying a new fashion apparel item. Participants also mentioned seven post-purchase consumption habits: recycling fashion apparel, wearing apparel that will last a long time, not washing the clothes too often or not washing them after every wear, using detergents that are environment-friendly, wearing a piece of clothing more often, taking good care of apparel and mending it if necessary and using environment-friendly washing machine (Table 14).

Most respondents believed a sustainable consumer is buying products with eco and organic labels and made of natural material however, a few respondents specifically stated that a sustainable consumer does not buy products with eco and organic labels, but rather recycles or buys in second-hand stores.

Participant I, male, age 36: “*I believe that sustainable people are the ones that recycle, and they acquire this sort of products (Note: eco, organic) by some sort of goods exchange. They are doing their best to be sustainable and fair to their money as well. They find products at a good price that are more likely to be organic and eco...*”

Participant C, female, age 24: “...*they also prefer visiting second-hand stores*”.

5.4.4.3 Positive and negative consequences of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel

Further, respondents discussed the outcomes of sustainable consumption at the individual level. Most participants agreed that sustainable consumption has a positive effect on consumers, nevertheless, some participants were also concerned about the negative consequences. As stated previously, most participants believed that sustainable consumption has a positive effect on consumers, such as a personal sense of achievement where a consumer is content because he or she knows he is helping the environment and society by consuming sustainably. In addition, some of the positive consequences of sustainable consumption, according to the respondents, are also spending less money on clothes and other fashion apparel. As well as having more time for other things in their lives since they buy high quality clothes that last for a long time and thus they do not need to constantly buy new clothes (spend time shopping for new fashion apparel). The positive consequences of sustainable consumption are summarized in Table 15.

Table 15: Positive and negative consequences of sustainable consumption

Consequences of sustainable consumption	Frequency
Positive: Doing good for the environment and workers	7
Positive: Personal satisfaction	7
Positive: Spending less money	2
Positive: Having more time for other things	2
Positive: Brings happiness	1
Negative: Being judged by others	2
Negative: Spending more money	1
Negative: Seeing consumerism rising	1
Total (N=20)	23

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant J, male, 69: "(Note: The effect is) *positive*. He (Note: a sustainable consumer) *believes that he is doing a good thing. He is polluting less and is happier because he knows he is helping. And if this does not affect his bank account (at least not too much) that is great. Instead of donating the money he is doing something different and he is satisfied.*"

Participant T, male, age 35: "... *financially this is better for him. He has more time. These are some of the positives.*"

Some respondents pointed out the negative consequences of sustainable consumption on a consumer, such as spending more money on fashion apparel because sustainable fashion apparel is more costly than traditional and fast fashion apparel. In addition, respondents raised concern about a sustainable consumer being judged by other people because he or she is frequently wearing the same clothes and is not dressed according to the latest fashion trends. One respondent also mentioned that a sustainable consumer must feel bad when seeing the rise of consumerism around him or her, such as new fast fashion stores being opened. The negative consequences of sustainable consumption are summarized in Table 15.

Participant K, male, age 27: "*I don't think it is good for the financial situation of the individual, I guess sustainable consumption is more expensive*".

Participant J, female, age 34: "*On the other hand, society expects that you are dressed differently every day, that you have diversity.*"

Participant C, female, age 24: "... *it is hard for them to look at how shops such as Primark are being opened.*"

In general, participants in this study had a positive attitude towards sustainable consumption, but some of them still showed scepticism. Many of these participants expressed doubt that sustainable products are in fact sustainable, such as having doubt about the legitimacy of the eco, organic, and fair-trade labels, believing it is mostly just a marketing trick and doubting that a low-priced apparel item can be sustainable. Some of these participants also expressed concern about what a sustainable consumer is doing at the individual level is just not enough to save the planet.

Participant C, female, age 24: *“I am very sceptical about eco and bio labels because most of the time I think these are just labels – I don’t know what is behind it. I don’t know which inspection officers oversee this? Is anyone even controlling this?”*

Participant E, male, age 43: *“... just a few individuals can’t change anything, they can only feel better about themselves if they really believe in the cause.”*

As already mentioned, several emotions have been pointed out by the participants. Mainly a sense of achievement, satisfaction and happiness – as a potential consequence of sustainable consumption, but also negative emotions such as feeling bad when being judged by others and sadness when seeing the increase in overconsumption. In addition, the participants often talked about guilt, mostly not feeling guilty when they bought sustainable products, and feeling guilty when they bought a product that they knew was harmful to the environment and/or workers. They also talked about feeling light at heart when buying sustainable products (note: translation into Slovenian “lažje pri srcu”). Participants also talked about satisfaction with the purchase. Buying sustainable products makes consumers feel satisfied and this leads to a higher level of happiness, according to the participants of this study. Participants also discussed the feeling of having achieved something and being proud of themselves. Even if the consequences of their purchase are small, the feeling of fulfilment is still present. It gives sustainable consumers a sense of purpose in life and added value. When talking to participants about happiness and satisfaction when buying clothes, it appears that mindless, materialistic and compulsive consumers are happier with their purchase (even if only for a short time), while mindful and sustainable consumers find it harder to feel happy and satisfied with their purchase. As one participant put it: *“It’s easier to live with yourself, but I would not call it pure happiness.”* (Participant I, male, age 36). However, when sustainable consumers are happy with their purchase, this feeling lasts much longer, according to the participants of this study.

5.4.4.4 Sustainable fashion consumption of participants

Most of the participants were asked either “How sustainable are you with your own consumption of apparel?”, “Are you a sustainable consumer?” or “Are you thinking about how to be more sustainable about the consumption of apparel?” depending on each individual conversation the researcher had with the participants. Even when not specifically stated in the question, mostly participants talked about their apparel consumption since the

previous question was focused on sustainable consumption of apparel (“What are your thoughts about sustainable consumption of apparel products?”). When asked if they consider themselves sustainable consumers, most of the respondents in this study believed they were at least somewhat sustainable, although a few stated they were not (Table 16).

Table 16: Sustainable fashion consumption of participants

Are you a sustainable consumer?	Frequency
Not really	2
Yes	4
I am trying to be	4
Somewhat	8
No answer	6
Total (N=20)	24

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants’ responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant T, male, age 35: *“Yes, I think I am much more (Note: of a sustainable consumer) than other people.”*

Participant S, male, age 69: *“I could not be more sustainable, I don’t buy anything (Note: fashion apparel).”*

Participant P, female, age 56: *“I am (Note: a sustainable consumer), but I could be more sustainable. I don’t buy a lot, I recycle, I fully use, I give away.”*

Participant I, male, age 36: *“I understand trends, I know about the problems big brands cause and I don’t like it but I haven’t done anything about it yet.”*

Participant D, female, age 34: *“If I compare myself to others, I am not a sustainable consumer. Mostly because of the lack of time and organization, I do things I would not do if I had more time.”*

When talking about their consumption habits, throughout the entire interview, most respondents pointed out at least some elements of sustainable apparel consumption (without specifically referring to them as sustainable), such as wearing individual fashion apparel items for a long time, not buying often, giving unwanted apparel items to their friends and family, to charity or Humana bins, wearing second-hand apparel from their family and friends and occasionally buying apparel with organic, eco or recycled labels (Table 17).

Table 17: Sustainable consumption habits of the respondents

Consumption phase	Sustainable consumption habits of the respondents	Frequency
Pre-purchase and purchase	Not buying often	12
	Occasionally buys bio, eco and recycled	10
	Not buying in fast fashion stores often	4
	Buys locally produced	3
	Occasionally buys in second-hand store	2
Post-purchase	Wears one piece of apparel for a long time	13
	Disposing apparel: gives to friends and family	12
	Disposing apparel: charities and Humana	11
	Wears second-hand apparel from family and friends	11
	Recycling apparel as cloths for household chores	10
	Fixes apparel if damaged	7
	Total (N=20)	95

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant I, male, age 36: *"I wear my clothes till the end, even if they are already patched three times, I still wear them. Once it is not appropriate to wear them anymore, I use them for travel. Once it is not appropriate even for travelling, I give it away or throw it away. Till now I don't think I threw away more than 10% of my clothes."*

Participant Q, female, age 38: *"Even though I buy in fast fashion stores I wear clothes for a long time. I have a habit of wearing clothes for a long time, I still wear things that are 12 or 13 years old."*

Participant J, female, age 34: *"I take clothes from family and friends, and I wear them. If they are OK, I am not reluctant to wear them."*

Participant B, female, age 17: *"I have friends I give my clothes to. If the clothes don't fit them, I take them to Caritas (Note: a charity organization) near my home."*

Participant P, female, age 56: *"I always check if bio cotton is available. At C&A they have bio cotton which is why I like going there to shop for my granddaughter. ... I buy my underwear from a lady at the local market. She makes it from bamboo and cotton... I do have some clothes made from recycled material... I am willing to pay 10% to 20% more for a t-shirt made of bio cotton."*

Interestingly, one respondent described himself as not really a sustainable consumer, although throughout the entire interview, he talked about wearing his clothes for a long time, not buying often, giving his unwanted apparel items to charity, occasionally buying apparel with organic, eco or recycled labels, recycling apparel as clothes for household chores and not frequently buying in fast fashion stores.

Even though the respondents, throughout the entire interview, revealed many elements of sustainable consumption they also acknowledged different habits which the interviewer considered as non-sustainable, such as buying in fast fashion stores, never paying attention to what materials the apparel is made of, not being able to resist buying a t-shirt for 1 euro, not thinking about the sustainability of the product when buying, disposing of used and damaged apparel immediately in the trash and having prejudice of wearing second-hand clothes from family and friends or from buying in second-hand stores.

Participant B, female, age 17: *"...if the t-shirt is just 1 euro, I think to myself, ah, I will wear it at home."*

Participant G, male, age 35: *"... I am aware, I know this topic (Note: sustainability), sometimes I check the product, but I am not strict. In the end, I buy what I like and need. (Note: Sustainability) is not a decisive criterion although it does influence my purchase."*

Since we often associate buying second-hand clothes with sustainable fashion consumption, the researcher also talked about second-hand stores and clothes with the participants. Some respondents had never bought a second-hand fashion apparel mostly because either they do not know where second-hand stores are located, or they are too far away or simply not on their way. Few respondents indicated they have a prejudice of wearing second-hand apparel or buying in second-hand stores and few even admitted they do not want to wear second-hand clothes previously owned by their friends and family. One participant did not mind wearing clothes from second-hand stores but was reluctant to wear clothes from her family and friends. Some participants contemplated that people who shop in second-hand stores are in financial need. As they have enough money to buy new apparel items, they do not visit second-hand stores.

Participant Q, female, age 38: *"I get very few things (Note: from friends and family) and I don't usually take anything. I am not into this sort of thing. I visited a second-hand store, though. I bought some things there and have worn them repeatedly for 10 years."*

When discussing second-hand apparel items, many respondents did not wear nor were willing to wear second-hand shoes, even though they had no issues wearing second-hand clothes previously owned by their family and friends or from second-hand stores. The main reason that participants were not willing to wear second-hand shoes was because they believed that with time shoes change their form to fit the foot of the owner and thus are not suitable for another person to wear them.

5.4.4.5 Fast fashion and fashion industry consequences

Respondents in this study were asked to think about and give their opinion on the accessibility of clothing, the concept of fast fashion, the affordability of clothing, and how fast fashion impacts the natural environment and the workers employed by fast fashion companies. The word frequency for nodes regarding fast fashion calculated in NVivo 12 software has shown that the most frequently used word by the respondents were “very” (25 times, 0.81% frequency) followed by “fast” (16 times, 0.52% frequency), “fashion” (16 times, 0.52% frequency), “probably” (16 times, 0.52% frequency), “cheap” (14 times, 0.45% frequency) and “work”, “people”, “environment”, “these”, “affecting” (all of them mentioned 13 times, with the 0.42% frequency).

First, the respondents were asked to express their general opinion about the affordability and accessibility of clothing today and afterwards about the fast fashion concept. Later they were invited to think about how the fast fashion industry impacts the natural environment and the workers employed by the fast fashion companies. Contemplating the accessibility and affordability of clothing today, respondents frequently agreed that fashion apparel items are highly accessible, and few participants mentioned a lack of specific brands in the local market. Participants frequently discussed that fashion apparel items are affordable and that the price is even too low which can cause overbuying and consumers seeing clothes as worthless.

Participant P, female, age 56: *“Everything changes so fast that clothes become worthless. In the stores there are piles of clothes. They lay on the floor. Nobody cares that there are clothes lying in the middle of the store. People lose all respect for clothes and they become worthless.”*

Participant R, female, age 35: *“I come from manufacturing business, and I know that if you pay your workers as required by law – the price just can’t be as low.”*

Participant T, male, age 35: *“I believe that clothes are highly accessible, especially when there are sales – the clothes are so cheap it is funny. If someone tells me that he doesn’t have any money to buy clothes I think to myself – do not go for lunch today and you can fully dress yourself.”*

Participant I, male age 36: *“Accessibility of the clothes is extraordinary, from the low cost to the high priced and everything in between. But on a second thought, I believe that Slovenian market is still very conservative regarding some brands that I like, brands that are a bit different.”*

When talking about fast fashion the respondents were presented with the description of the term “fast fashion” and given examples of some of the fast fashion brands in their local environment such as H&M, ZARA and Mango. Participants were then asked to talk about their general opinion about the fast fashion industry and products. Participants frequently

mentioned the poor quality of the apparel items that are made by fast fashion companies. Some participants also expressed somewhat negative opinions but stated that they still sometimes buy clothes from fast fashion companies. These negative opinions included concern that fast fashion is devaluating clothes, that the clothes are way too cheap and the trends are changing way too often, that the clothes are poorly designed (not considering different body types), and feeling guilty when buying in fast fashion stores because of the rumours of exploitation of the workforce. Some participants had nothing against fast fashion, some stated that they never buy in fast fashion stores, and one participant expressed he was strongly against the fast fashion industry and what it stands for, but admitted he still makes an occasional purchase in H&M store (especially for the underwear). One participant expressed a somewhat positive opinion about fast fashion stating that sometimes he likes going to H&M because it is simple, clothes are already styled together and because the clothes are cheap, as he does not want to spend a lot of money on clothes (Table 18).

Table 18: General opinion about the fast fashion industry and products

General opinion about fast fashion	Frequency
Believes the quality of products is low	10
Somewhat negative opinion	9
Nothing against fast fashion	5
Never buying in fast fashion stores	4
Somewhat positive opinion	1
Strongly against the fast fashion industry	1
Total (N=20)	30

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant C, female, age 24: *"I would say that these clothes get distressed very fast because they are of low quality. Nevertheless, people buy a lot of these clothes, but they do not wear them for long. The fashion changes every couple of years and they stop wearing them. The end. I guess they are not interested in the quality of the clothes because why would they be."*

Participant P, female, age 56: *"Today everyone can get dressed, but it is a question of the quality."*

Participant T, male, age 35: *"I have never bought anything there (Note: in the fast fashion stores). My daughter has clothes from there because her grandmother buys her stuff there. I was never interested in this."*

Participant S, male, age 69: *"If you want to dress according to the latest fashion, then it (Note: fast fashion) is ok. But this is not for me."*

Participant G, male, age 35. *“Everything is so cheap, but it still works out for them (Note: fast fashion companies) because of the quantity they sell. I believe this is totally faulty logic. The concept of frequently buying something new and throwing away the old one, the reason being poor quality (and not being able to give to charity because the quality is so low) – I am very against this concept. ... Fast fashion manufacturer is doing the wrong thing, encouraging the wrong thing and I believe this is not the right way, not even for the manufacturer in the long run.”*

Participants in this study were also invited to contemplate how the fast fashion industry impacts the natural environment and the workers employed by fast fashion companies. Frequently participants agreed that fast fashion has a negative effect on the natural environment in general. Further, participants frequently mentioned the biggest problem was large amounts of waste (mainly because a lot of the clothes get thrown away). Some participants also mentioned the negative effects that manufacturing has on the environment, such as chemicals, water consumption and other waste that is produced during the manufacturing of fast fashion apparel products. Few participants did not indicate that fast fashion could be bad for the natural environment, one of them stating that he does not know for sure if the fast fashion industry is bad for the environment and two of them stated that they have never thought about it.

Participant F, female, age 61: *“Especially in the natural environment, yes. We don’t have anywhere to put all of these clothes. Even the third world countries have too much, everyone has too much.”*

Participant O, male, age 57: *“I guess it (Note: Fast fashion industry) has an effect on the natural environment, but who is thinking about nature? Not me.”*

Participant J, female, age 34: *“I guess it (Note: fast fashion industry) doesn’t have a positive effect (Note: on the natural environment). Everything in modern society has a negative effect on the natural environment... I guess it represents the same problem as plastic does. Clothes are mostly made from plastic. ... When plastic clothes get thrown away, they do not decompose.”*

Participant K, male, age 27: *“In my opinion yes, big consequences (Note: fast fashion on natural environment). They are especially big in the countries where there are manufacturing fast fashion, I am not sure exactly because I haven’t been there and the media tailors the data – some of them are exaggerated and some of them are hidden and therefore it is hard to get an objective picture. The fact is that the pollution and exploitation of the workers are present there and that the whole economic system of those countries is worse off.”*

Further, participants were asked to think about the influences fast fashion has on the people working in manufacturing. Commonly participants agreed that there is some sort of exploitation of the workers involved or that the workers are not working in the best

conditions. Three participants specifically mentioned child labour and two participants mentioned new age slavery. Somewhat less specifically, a few participants mentioned that they heard about the exploitation of the workers via the media. On the other hand, two participants stated that they are not sure if the workers are being exploited, another two participants said they do not know anything about workers being exploited and two participants stated that if the workers have more work, they get paid more. One participant even said he does not care about the workers.

Participant E, male, age 43: *“Today workers in the clothing factories are the most exploited of them all. This is the highest form of the new age slavery.”*

Participant A, female, age 40: *“Workers? What do I know... why would that (Note: fast fashion industry) be bad for the workers? They have more work, they are working like crazy, that is not good, but this is what the customers and consumers want.”*

Participant Q, female, age 38: *“I guess that workers do not have the best conditions considering the end price of the products. I guess the norms are high and workers need to work a lot. I am sure that it is nicer to work on nicer products that you can dedicate yourself to.”*

Participant L female, age 33: *“If I have in mind the cheap stuff - Asian factories that exploit workforce – when I start thinking about it, I feel terrible. Oh! The fact that there is somebody working in terrible conditions because of me.”*

5.4.5 Well-being concept

In this study, the participants talked about the concept of consumer well-being and their positive and negative experiences in their fashion apparel consumption. The word frequency for nodes regarding well-being in general and consumer well-being calculated in NVivo 12 computer software has shown that the most frequently used words by the respondents were “happy” (54 times, 0.86% frequency), “very” (37 times, 0.59% frequency), “satisfied” (34 times, 0.54% frequency), “a thing” (32 times, 0.51% frequency) and “consumer” (31 times, 0.49% frequency).

5.4.5.1 First thoughts about the concept of consumer well-being

When asked about their first thoughts about the concept of consumer well-being, most participants mentioned that consumer well-being is happiness when buying an apparel item and several mentioned consumer well-being is happiness when wearing apparel. Some of the participants considered consumer well-being to be happiness throughout the whole customer experience (Table 19). Interpreting consumer happiness as feeling happy before or after the purchase was mentioned by one participant only. Participants’ words describing consumer happiness or well-being were: happiness, satisfaction, and feeling good.

Table 19: First thoughts on the concept of consumer well-being or happiness

First thoughts to the concept consumer well-being or happiness	Frequency
Feeling happy when buying an apparel item	10
Feeling happy when wearing an apparel	4
Feeling happy throughout the whole customer experience	3
Feeling happy before the purchase	1
Feeling happy after the purchase	1
Total (N=20)	19

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participants of this study were then presented with the definition of consumer well-being according to Sirgy, Lee, and Rahtz (2007): " ... *consumer well-being is focused on subjective well-being that arises from consumers experiences. These experiences involve shopping or acquisition of goods, possession (product ownership), consumption (use of goods and services), maintenance (repair and servicing of consumer durables), and disposal (selling, trading in, or discarding consumer durables). The theoretical assumption behind this conceptualization is that consumers experience satisfaction and dissatisfaction in relation to consumer experiences and their overall satisfaction with acquisition, possession, consumption, maintenance and disposal of goods and services.*" and some participants commented on the definition. Most of the participants in this study agreed with the presented definition, one participant pointed out that the definition is very detailed and that it would be enough to define consumer well-being as feeling good in the clothes one wears, while another participant agreed with the definition but wanted to add that consumer happiness can also be the act of buying and giving away. Another participant believed that the definition is too general and does not provide an explanation of this construct but did not provide any suggestion on how this definition could be improved.

5.4.5.2 Participants' own well-being in general

Participants in this study were also asked about their well-being in general and most described themselves as happy or as pretty happy, few participants described themselves as very happy and one stated that it is complicated and did not answer the question. When participants further contemplated if they view themselves as happier than others around them, few participants answered that they are happier, one believed he was less happy and few participants stated that they do not compare nor wish to compare with others.

Participant, female L, age 33: *“There is nothing wrong.... I am surrounded by people who are happier than me and those who are not.”*

5.4.5.3 Negative fashion apparel consumer experiences

When talking about negative experiences in the role of a fashion apparel consumer, participants in this study talked about the experience of shopping, wearing clothes, and maintaining and disposing of them. Regarding the negative experiences when shopping, most of the participants mentioned how much they dislike crowded stores, not being able to find what they were looking for and the store not having a sufficient selection of garments (sizes and models). Some other negative shopping experiences included not feeling well in the store because of the closed space, artificial lighting, loud people, bad music and not wanting to try on clothes (Table 20). The word frequency calculated in NVivo 12 software has shown that respondents, when talking about negative fashion apparel consumer experiences, most frequently used words such as “a thing” (11 times, 0.67% frequency), “bad” (9 times, 0.55% frequency), “very” (9 times, 0.55% frequency) and “I have to” (8 times, 0.48% frequency).

Participant, female Q, age 38: *“Crowd. Definitely. It gets on my nerves.”*

Participant, male O, age 57: *“... if I don’t get what I am looking for, and crowd. If I see a crowded shop, I turn around. I don’t buy in a crowd. And unprofessional staff – they should just leave me alone.”*

Some negative experiences that participants had with wearing fashion apparel were disappointment regarding garment malfunction, garment stretching, shrinking or losing the form in some other way, garment not being comfortable, not liking it, and poor material of the garment. Participants also mentioned some other negative experiences such as wearing and tearing of the garment is not in line with the price paid for the garment, not being sure if the size fits and the garment not looking as well as it did in the store. Few participants also mentioned negative experiences with maintenance of the fashion apparel, specifically about needing to take extra care when washing specific apparel items (Table 20).

Participant J, female, age 34: *“I hate it when it (Note: garment) loses its original qualities. When you buy it, it seems fine, then you wash it once and it changes, it shortens. This often happens with t-shirts: if the t-shirt is not well tailored it will turn sideways after the first wash. I also hate it when clothes shrink in the dryer.”*

Participant C, female, age 24: *“I don’t like dirty t-shirts because I need to deal with the stains before the washing. And turning clothes around! Such as kids’ t-shirts with glitter (I tell the girls to turn the t-shirts around before they put them in the laundry basket) or t-shirts with prints on them that could get distressed. And then when I hang the clothes to dry, I again need to turn around those t-shirts. These are the torments.”*

Table 20: Negative experiences of fashion apparel consumers

Consumption stage	Experiences described as negative	Frequency
Shopping experience	Too crowded	9
	Rude and unprofessional staff	7
	Not having enough choice (sizes and models)	6
	Too much items in the store	5
	Not finding what you came in looking for	5
	Clothes in the store have a malfunction	2
	Taking up my time	2
	Other	3
Use	Garment malfunctions	8
	The garment stretches/shrinks or losses the form	9
	It is not comfortable	2
	I don't like it	2
	The material is not good (it wrinkles)	2
	Other	4
Maintenance	Taking extra care when washing	4
Disposal	Disposing a garment, I really love	2
	If there is no other way, but throwing the garment in the bin	2
	Should be more options for disposing clothes	2
	Not being able to recycle shoes	2
	Total (N=20)	78

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participants also talked about negative experiences when disposing of their apparel, such as feeling sad if they have to get rid of an apparel item they loved to wear, or if an apparel item must be thrown in the bin because there is no other way of reusing it and it cannot be given away, or not being able to recycle shoes. Few participants also expressed negative feelings towards the lack of options for disposing of clothes, such as the lack of recycling bins for old clothing and shoes and the lack of recycling bins that would be categorised by material with a special recycling bin for old shoes (Table 20).

Female H, age 34: *"I feel terrible every time I need to throw a garment in the bin. I used to do it like this: I went travelling and took bad (Note: worn and old) clothes with me. I wore*

them when travelling and then I threw them in the bin – this is also bad because I was littering somewhere else (not at home, though) but I still threw them in the bin.”

5.4.5.4 Positive fashion apparel consumer experiences

When talking about positive experiences as fashion apparel item consumers, participants in this study talked about the experience of shopping, wearing clothes, and maintaining and disposing of them. With respect to positive experiences when shopping, most of the participants mentioned how much they enjoy quickly finding the items they were looking for, getting a good price or a discount and receiving good customer service such as a friendly staff member (Table 21). The word frequency calculated in NVivo 12 software has shown that respondents, when talking about positive fashion apparel consumer experiences, most frequently used words such as “a better” (14 times, 0.85% frequency), “shopping” (12 times, 0.72% frequency), “making happy” (12 times, 0.72% frequency) and “buying” (11 times, 0.66% frequency).

Participant K, male, age 27: *“When I quickly find what I am looking for and that the price is good.”*

Participant J, female, age 34: *“Let’s say that I need jeans. I like it best when I find the right cut of jeans in the first store, I try it on and I like it. And that the price is good.”*

Participant S, male, age 69: *“Friendly staff, without imposing.”*

Participant F, female, age 61: *“I like it if there is a friendly staff member at the store who devotes her time to me and has answers to my questions.”*

Participants most commonly expressed positive experiences with wearing apparel items such as looking good in the apparel item and that the item was figure flattering. Participants in this study also liked comfortable items, items of high quality and functional apparel items (Table 21).

Participant P, female, age 56: *“If I look good and I feel good in a clothing item. If I like the way I look I am more self-confident, I feel better and I start my day with a positive energy.”*

Participant A, female, age 40: *“The look, level of comfort, high quality and feeling good in a specific clothing.”*

Participant G, male, age 35: *“When it (Note: a clothing item) is durable and I can wear it for a long time.”*

Participant C, female, age 24: *“That it (Note: a clothing item) fits nicely, is easily styled with my other clothes. Good price.”*

Table 21: Positive experiences of fashion apparel consumers

Consumption stage	Experiences described as positive	Frequency
Shopping experience	I quickly get what I am looking for	9
	Good price or discount	7
	Friendly staff	5
	Apparel looks nice	4
	I buy only what I really need	3
	Shopping in a small or boutique store	2
	Store offers my apparel size	2
	The apparel is not cluttered on the shelves	2
	It is easy to return apparel items (*online shopping)	2
	Other	8
Use	I look good and the clothes are flattering	8
	Comfortable	7
	High quality	4
	Functional	4
	The apparel item is easily styled with my other clothes	3
	I can wear the item for a long time	2
Maintenance	I can wear an item often	1
	Easy to maintain (washing and ironing)	9
	Material that does not pick up an unpleasant odour	2
Disposal	Knowing an item will be worn by someone else	10
	Total (20)	94

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

When discussing maintenance of apparel items, participants in this study expressed they like easy maintenance of apparel items, pointing out easy machine washing and no ironing. Two participants additionally mentioned apparel items made from materials that do not pick up an unpleasant odour of your body (Table 21).

Participant H, female, age 34: *“Easy to maintain and that I do not need to iron anything. My husband is ironing (Note: his clothes) all the time. When I buy clothes, I make sure I don't have to iron them.”*

Participant M, male, age 35: *“I like materials (such as new age cotton) that don’t pick up an unpleasant odour of your body. Even after a month of using it - ventilating it outside during the night should be enough. I don’t want to wash my clothes too often, because they get worn out and the colour fades. I like to ventilate clothes outside; this way I hope I will not have to wash them for another week. I like that the most.”*

Participants also talked about positive experiences when disposing of apparel items and frequently mentioned that knowing an item will be worn by someone else makes them feel good because they were able to help someone or because the item will still have a purpose and will be enjoyed by someone else (Table 21).

Participant B, female, age 17: *“If I give (Note: my old clothes) to someone who really needs them because they can’t afford them – this makes me happy because I know I did something nice for somebody else.”*

Participant P, female, age 56: *“(Note: it makes me happy) if I can give my old clothes to someone who I know will wear them. Since I was a little girl, I was used to giving my clothes away to other children. Even today, when I give away a business suit (if it is a bit worn out at the end of the sleeves or if I get bored with it) and my mother tells me she saw a lady at the church on Sunday with my business suit – I like this. I say to myself “great”! This is a real pleasure. Clothes get a new value.”*

When asked if shopping for apparel items makes them happy, some participants in this study answered yes or sometimes and few participants stated that it does not. When asked if they ever go shopping to make themselves feel better, some participants answered yes or sometimes, and significantly more participants answered they do not.

5.5 Relationship between concepts of well-being, mindfulness and sustainable consumption

5.5.1 The relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption

Most of the participants in this study believed that mindfulness has an effect on sustainable consumption, such as a mindful consumer is much more likely to be a sustainable consumer and a sustainable consumer has to be mindful. Few participants could not think of how the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption are connected and if one has an effect on the other. One participant stated that mindfulness does not necessarily lead to sustainable consumption (Table 22). The word frequency calculated in NVivo 12 software has shown that respondents, when talking about the relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption, most frequently used words such as “mindful” (44 times, 3.30% frequency), “sustainable” (28 times, 2.10% frequency), “sustainable” (Note: as an adjective for a

sustainable person) (23 times, 1.72% frequency), “being” (15 times, 1.12% frequency), “consumer” (11 times, 0.82% frequency) and “probably” (11 times, 0.82% frequency).

Participant I, male, age 36: *“There is a much greater chance that someone who is mindful will decide to consume sustainably because he is aware of the surroundings, he is aware that he can make a minimal difference.”*

Participant T, male, age 35: *“If you are mindful you are automatically sustainable because you know what is going on and you know that things can’t go on like this anymore”*

Participant S, male, age 69: *“Sustainable consumption is a result of mindfulness.”*

Table 22: Connection between mindfulness and sustainable consumption

Connection between Mindfulness and Sustainable Consumption	Frequency
Mindful consumer is more likely to be sustainable consumer	12
Sustainable consumer needs to be mindful	5
Don’t know	3
Mindful consumer will not necessary be sustainable consumer	1
Total (N=20)	22

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants’ responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

5.5.2 The relationship between well-being and mindfulness

When discussing the concepts of mindfulness and well-being (or happiness), the majority of the participants in this study stated that mindful consumers are happy and happier than regular consumers or that mindfulness is good for the consumer on a personal level. Most commonly they stated that this is due to being aware of the moment, nature and themselves, and because they are positively influencing the world. Some participants also pointed out that mindfulness can have a negative effect on well-being (that mindful consumer is generally unhappy or less happy/ more unhappy than the regular consumer) and contemplated that this is due to being aware of how the apparel industry works and being aware of how your actions affect others. One participant did not see any connection between these two concepts and one participant mentioned that well-being has an effect on mindfulness, such as a happy consumer will be more mindful (Table 23). The word frequency calculated in NVivo 12 software has shown that respondents, when talking about how well-being affects mindfulness, most frequently used words such as “mindful” (28 times, 2.53% frequency), “happy” (26 times, 2.35% frequency), “being aware” (12 times, 1.08% frequency) and “you will” (10 times, 0.90% frequency), “mindfulness” (7 times,

0.63% frequency), “less” (7 times, 0.63% frequency), “make a decision”, “sooner”, “sustainable”, “probably”, “happy”, “influences”, “satisfied” (6 times, 0.54% frequency).

Table 23: The connection between concepts of mindfulness and well-being

The connection between mindfulness and well-being		Frequency
Positive connection	Mindful consumers are happy	6
	Mindful consumer is happier than regular consumer	4
	Mindfulness is good for the consumer	1
Negative connection	Mindful consumers are unhappy	2
	Mindful consumers are more unhappy than the regular consumer	2
Other	No connection between mindfulness and well-being	1
	Happy consumer will be more mindful	1
Total (N=20)		17

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant P, female, age 56: *“Someone who is mindful will have higher levels of well-being.”*

Participant J, female, age 34: *“... there could be a connection: if you are mindful, you are more aware of everything that is going on and it is harder for you to get things (Note: apparel) that are really sustainable. And you are not as happy because you know that your habits have negative consequences on others.”*

When discussing the positive effects of mindfulness on consumers' happiness and well-being, two themes emerged. The first theme centred on the fact that mindful consumers are happier, more satisfied and more fulfilled with their purchases. Mindful consumers are happier, according to the participants in this study, because of three reasons: a) they can prove to themselves and others that buying with less environmental impact is possible; b) they are aware that their purchase has made a positive difference; and c) they are thoughtful about what they buy and focus on high-quality products. According to one participant, the positive effects of mindfulness are not just about buying a product, but also about personal growth, changing one's consumption habits, being aware of the consequences of consumption and trying to influence other people to buy more mindfully too. Participants also discussed how mindfulness has a positive impact on overall well-being and happiness. More specifically, how mindful people are self-aware and are more satisfied with

themselves, which has a positive impact on their well-being. Furthermore, mindful people value happiness and can create happiness for themselves.

Participant C, female, age 24: *“If (Note: mindfulness) is connected to sustainable consumption and the latter is connected to happiness – it means that mindfulness and happiness are connected. Buying a product doesn’t bring you happiness, but the whole process does. It is about personal growth, changing one’s habits, and being aware of the consequences. If on top of that, you are also an activist, trying to influence other people – I would say there is a lot more happiness here.”*

The second theme that emerged was the positive effects of mindfulness in the absence of consumption. When discussing the positive effects of mindfulness on consumer happiness, participants talked about how a mindful person is more receptive to the little things and non-material things, such as finding joy in nature. They also felt that consumers are happier because they own fewer items and have more space in their homes, as well as because they do not buy unnecessary apparel items and therefore do not feel guilty about spending too much money. Finally, one participant pointed out that buying products generally does not make a mindful consumer any happier.

Participant K, male, age 27: *“I could say that if you are very aware of the world and the things around you – you will be more susceptible to beautiful things or little things that are less material. Such as appreciating a sunrise.”*

The negative effects of mindfulness on consumer happiness were mainly related to consumers’ knowledge of the negative effects of consumerism, overconsumption and the fashion industry. Mindful consumers could be unhappy, dissatisfied and sad because they are aware of the consequences of their choices regarding the consumption of products in general and fashion apparel products. Participants also mentioned that consumers with low levels of mindfulness may be happier than mindful consumers because mindless consumers are easily satisfied with their purchases, enjoy discounts and shopping, and are not burdened by the true cost of their purchases.

Participant H, female, age 34: *“Someone who is mindful can be more unhappy than someone who is not mindful. Because they are informed and aware of the whole production cycle of a certain product. Someone who is not mindful is not bothered, doesn’t care and can thus be a happier consumer – consuming everything there is.”*

5.5.3 The relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being

Most of the respondents in this study contemplated that sustainable consumption has a positive effect on well-being such that consumers are happier because they are consuming sustainably. Two participants saw no connection between these two concepts. When asked if happiness has an effect on sustainable consumption some participants were certain there

is none and some participants commented that well-being has an effect on sustainable consumption stating that a happier consumer will more likely act as a sustainable consumer. The connection between sustainable consumption and well-being is summarized in Table 24.

Table 24: Connection between sustainable consumption and well-being

Connection between Sustainable Consumption and Well-being	Frequency
Consumer is happier because he is a sustainable consumer	16
Happier consumer will more likely act as a sustainable consumer	4
No connection between sustainable consumption and well-being	2
Sustainable consumer is often less happy with the purchase	1
Total (N=20)	23

Note: The frequencies presented in the table do not necessarily add to 20 as multiple themes surfaced in participants' responses to this question.

Source: Own work.

Participant H, female, age 34: *"I believe this person (Note: A sustainable consumer) is truly pleased. This person is content with herself because she does not pollute the environment as much, and produces less trash, fewer workers in Asia need to work hard because of her. I personally am very pleased when I hold back and don't buy when I want to buy something and I say to myself "no, I do not need this". I feel very good after that."*

As discussed in Chapter 5.4.4.3, some of the previously mentioned positive consequences of sustainable consumption could have a positive impact on the general well-being and consumer happiness. Sustainable consumers are considered happier for several reasons: a) they are doing something good for the environment and workers, b) this type of consumption increases their satisfaction, c) they spend less money, d) they have more time for other things and e) sustainable consumption increases their general feeling of happiness. Participants discussed how buying a sustainable product might positively affect their happiness since with this type of purchase a consumer will fulfil his beliefs and how this type of purchase makes them happier for longer. One participant described impulsive and very materialistic consumers as the opposite of sustainable consumers, suggesting that impulsive and materialistic consumers are bitter and unhappy and seek happiness in small, quick doses (e.g. buying a new t-shirt) that only last for a short moment.

Participant K, male, age 27: *"I think impulsive consumers and classical materialists are more frustrated or less happy. This is why they seek happiness in quick doses of happiness, such as buying a new t-shirt. Although only for that moment. Someone satisfied with their life doesn't need to seek happiness in the idea that they are dressed nicely."*

In the discussions with the participants, a theme of general happiness and well-being influencing sustainable consumption emerged. Although most participants could not identify how well-being or happiness could influence sustainable consumption, one participant suggested that sustainable consumers are happier because they are not looking for comfort in buying products, but are happy with what they have. Participants also reflected that happy consumers might be more inclined to buy sustainable products because they are happy and satisfied with their lives and with themselves. As discussed in Chapter 5.4.4.3, some of the previously mentioned negative consequences of sustainable consumption could also negatively affect consumers' overall well-being and satisfaction. Participants reflected on how sustainable consumption, if taken to extremes, could have a negative impact on consumers. They also raised concerns about how society will accept a differently dressed person, how sustainable consumption will affect an individual's financial well-being and how the regular opening of new fast fashion stores will negatively impact mood.

5.6 Discussion and implications of the qualitative research

This qualitative study helps us understand the concepts of mindfulness, consumer well-being and sustainable consumption and their interaction, as well as gain more knowledge of these concepts in the context of fashion apparel consumption. Insights from this research are in line with the theoretical framework and will create a base for future quantitative analysis. The findings of this study are in line with previous research regarding the association between concepts of mindfulness, well-being and sustainable consumption (Fredrickson, 2011; Holland et al., 2006; Ivtzan et al., 2011; Iwata, 2001; Langer, 2005; Layous et al., 2014; Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007). The findings about the relationships among the three constructs add to the current body of knowledge by illustrating the bridge between mindfulness theory and positive psychology theory in that they demonstrate a clear positive as well as some negative relationship between consumers' mindfulness and their well-being.

5.6.1 The concept of mindfulness and mindful consumer

In line with Langer's (1992) description of mindfulness, participants described mindfulness as being aware and attentive to the things around them. They further described a mindful consumer as someone who is kind to nature, animals and people, which supports Rosenberg's (2004) indication that with more mindfulness might come more attention to the negative effects of consumerism. In contrast to the research on associating meditation with mindfulness (e.g. Kabat-Zinn, 1994, 2003; Richards, 2014), it seems that some participants of this study see no connection between meditation and mindfulness.

Overall, participants viewed mindful consumption as something positive, and regarding the consequences of mindfulness for individual consumers, they mostly highlighted positive consequences. This is in line with the hypothesized notion that mindfulness is positively associated with consumer happiness or well-being (Bahl et al., 2016; Brown & Kasser,

2005). Further, the results show that mindful consumption is considered an antecedent to general happiness and good life. This finding suggests that mindfulness might be positively related to general life satisfaction. Quantitative research that will follow this study might further shed light on how mindfulness relates to consumer happiness as well as general life satisfaction.

Regarding the consequences of mindfulness to an individual consumer, participants expressed mostly positive consequences such as being happier, living a good life, being free (because of less clothes and other stuff in your living space), doing good for yourself and others, having more money to spend on other things (because you are not spending it on clothes). One participant expressed doubt about the positive consequences of mindfulness because a person, if unaware and less mindful, is blissfully ignorant of the world around him or her and consequently more content with his or her purchases.

Moreover, some participants envisaged a mindful consumer as someone who is mindful of the price and is frugal, which is in line with the Oslo Symposium (Norwegian Ministry of the Environment, 1994) definition of a sustainable consumer, with the findings of a recent study by Milne et al. (2020) and other definitions emphasizing an absolute reduction in consumption (Mont & Plepys, 2008) and supporting the notion of consuming less as the main issue in sustainable consumption (Balderjahn et al., 2013; Jackson & Michaelis, 2003). In turn, this indicates the connection and overlap between the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption which will be further studied in the subsequent quantitative research. Practising the above-mentioned behaviours could fill the gap between attitude and behaviour that has been identified as an obstacle in some unsustainable consumption contexts. The gap may be narrowed by enforcing behaviours, such as awareness, frugality, kindness, and reduction in consumption with extensive awareness raising campaigns.

5.6.2 Sustainable consumption and main characteristics of sustainable consumer

This qualitative research suggests that consumers view sustainable consumption as the consumption of things that will last for a long time, recycled and upcycled products and taking care of the environment, which is in line with the Oslo Symposium (Norwegian Ministry of the Environment, 1994) definition of sustainable consumption and bolsters other research that describes recycling, waste and resource minimization as actions that nurture sustainable consumption (Bentley, 2008). Further, participants described a sustainable fashion apparel consumer as someone who is concerned about the natural environment, is frugal, thoughtful, not interested in fashion trends and is concerned about other people, which also aligns with the aforementioned definition of sustainable consumption and other research referring to sustainable consumption as a type of consumption that frequently includes environmental, economic and social dimensions (Balderjahn et al., 2013; Huang & Rust, 2011; Lim, 2017). The warm glow concept also emerges in this qualitative study, despite it not being planned as a subject of conversation. The results of this study imply that

sustainable consumption leads to a personal sense of achievement and consumers being content because they know they are helping the environment and society by consuming sustainably. This notion is in line with research presenting green warm glow as the main driver of pro-environmental behaviour as it takes both the role of behavioural antecedent and consequence, reinforcing pro-environmental behaviours (Hartmann et al., 2017).

Considering what kind of consumption habits a sustainable apparel consumer has, several habits emerged that can be categorised either as a purchase consumption habits category or a post-purchase consumption habits category. The results of this study show participants often emphasized consumer purchase consumption habits, such as buying apparel that will last a long time (usually of higher quality) or buying apparel with eco and bio labels or made from natural materials. Further, participants also consider sustainable consumption as buying locally produced products, buying in second-hand stores, and buying products that can be recycled. Participants, when contemplating sustainable consumer habits, often consider post-purchase consumption habits such as recycling fashion apparel and wearing apparel that will last a long time, not washing the clothes too often or not washing them after every wear, using detergents that are environment-friendly, wearing a piece of clothing more often, taking good care of apparel and mending it if necessary and using an environment-friendly washing machine. This comprehensive perception of sustainable apparel consumption further emphasises the complexity of the construct of sustainable consumption and thus might be necessary to present this construct as a second order construct in our quantitative study. It also implies the importance of using a questionnaire that covers the entire life cycle of fashion apparel products in the quantitative research that will follow.

This study indicates that participants generally see sustainable consumption as something positive, despite the fact that some participants showed scepticism. These participants expressed doubt that sustainable products are in fact sustainable, such as doubting the legitimacy of the eco, organic, and fair-trade labels, believing it is mostly just a marketing trick and doubting that a low-priced apparel item can be sustainable. These findings are in line with previous research that shows positive consequences of sustainable consumption, such as greater happiness and satisfaction with life (Corral Verdugo, 2012; Minton et al., 2018) as well as research acknowledging the presence of scepticism due to greenwashing and green marketing (e.g. Aji & Sutikno, 2015; Akturan & Tezcan, 2019; Zhang et al., 2018).

5.6.3 The environmental and social impact of fast fashion

From this study, it is evident that consumers associate the global fast fashion industry with environmental pollution and social problems, such as abused workers and low pay. I observed that consumers believe fast fashion has a negative effect on the natural environment, such as large amounts of waste (mainly because a lot of the clothes are thrown away) and are aware of the negative effects that manufacturing has on the environment, such as chemicals and water consumption. Finally, this study shows that consumers believe there

is some sort of exploitation of workers or that the workers are not working in the best conditions. These findings support the notion that fashion is among the world's most polluting industries (Brewer, 2019) and is associated with numerous social problems, such as the prohibition of workers from joining or forming trade unions, abuse, child labour, forced labour, low pay and dangerous working conditions, among others (Niebank, 2018; Walk Free Foundation, 2018).

5.6.4 Consumer well-being or happiness

This study shows that consumers view consumer well-being as happiness when buying or wearing an apparel item, and some consider consumer well-being to be happiness throughout the whole customer experience. In describing consumer happiness or well-being, participants used the words happiness, satisfaction and feeling good. These findings support that the terms “happiness” and “well-being” are synonymous.

When talking about positive and negative experiences in the role of a fashion apparel consumer, participants in this study talked about the experience of shopping, wearing clothes, and maintaining and disposing of them. Results of this study show that regarding the negative experiences, consumers dislike crowded stores or rude and unprofessional staff, garment malfunction or garment stretching, shrinking or losing form in some other way. Further, the results suggest that consumers have negative experiences when maintaining and disposing of their apparel items, such as taking extra care when washing an apparel item and feeling sad if they have to get rid of an apparel item they really love to wear. Concerning positive experiences when shopping, consumers enjoy quickly finding the items they are looking for, getting a good price or a discount, looking good in the apparel (and it being figure flattering) and apparel item being comfortable to wear and easy to maintain (washing and ironing). Participants of this study frequently mentioned that knowing an item will be worn by someone else makes them feel good regarding a positive experience when disposing of apparel items.

5.6.5 The relationship between mindfulness, consumer well-being and sustainable consumption

From this study, it is also apparent that consumers believe mindfulness has an effect on sustainable consumption. For instance, a mindful consumer is likely to be a sustainable consumer and a sustainable consumer must be mindful. This supports the underlying premise of this research namely, that an increased level of mindfulness is positively associated with an individual's sustainable consumption behaviours. This premise is supported by Helm and Subramaniam's (2016) findings regarding the positive effect of mindfulness on sustainable consumption.

Participants in this study also indicated that mindful consumers are happy, happier than regular consumers or that mindfulness is good for the consumer on a personal level, thus supporting previous research demonstrating the positive effect of mindfulness on individual well-being (Bahl et al., 2016; Brown & Kasser, 2005; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Carmody & Baer, 2008; Friese & Hofmann, 2016; Wilber, 2000). Further, the results of this study illustrate a connection between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being. Participants expressed the belief that sustainable consumption has a positive effect on well-being in that consumers are happier because they are consuming sustainably, which supports the assumption that sustainable consumption behaviours are positively associated with consumer well-being.

Contrary to the views of most participants, some did not see any connection between the three concepts under study and some even stated that mindfulness can have a negative effect on well-being. In addition, the participants mentioned some negative consequences of sustainable consumption, which in turn could have a negative impact on general well-being and consumer happiness. This could be an avenue for future investigations into the topic of a negative relationship between mindfulness and well-being and the negative relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being.

The study uses in-depth interviews with individual consumers to explore the relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being in the context of fashion apparel consumption. The aim of this qualitative study was to gain a better understanding of the main concepts and the relationships between them to propose a comprehensive conceptual model to be later tested with quantitative methods. The key research questions of the qualitative study and the main findings are listed in Table 25.

Table 25: Main research questions and findings

	Research questions	Findings
RQ1	How are the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption connected?	Mindfulness has a positive effect on sustainable consumption behaviour.
RQ2	How does consumer mindfulness reflect consumer well-being?	Mindfulness has a positive effect on consumer well-being. Mindfulness has a negative effect on consumer well-being.
RQ3	How is sustainable consumption associated with consumer well-being?	Sustainable consumption has a positive effect on consumer well-being.

Source: Own work.

5.6.6 Unexpected findings

This study has also yielded some unexpected findings. One of these is that two contradictory characteristics of a sustainable fashion apparel consumer emerged; namely, that sustainable fashion apparel consumers have no interest in fashion trends and that these consumers have

a sense of style, are fashion forward and are highly interested in fashion trends. Based on the conversations with participants, the most likely explanation for the noted contrasting characteristics of sustainable fashion apparel consumers is that participants understand fashion trends differently. Some understand green and sustainable fashion as a fashion trend that has been adopted by many fashion apparel brands, from fast-fashion brands to luxury brands, that a fashion conscious consumer is likely to buy. Others understand fashion trends more broadly to include all fashion trends in a season, such as the fall/ winter 2023/2024 fashion trends that include broad shoulder design, plaid and polka dot patterns, red colour and sheer material (Agnew & Gervais, 2023; Fox-Suliaman, 2023; Leconte, 2023; Salessy, 2023).

Further, in discussing the connection between the concepts of mindfulness and well-being, some participants underlined that mindfulness could have a negative effect on well-being. The negative effects of mindfulness on consumer well-being were mainly related to consumer awareness of the negative environmental and social impacts of consumption. In addition, mindless consumers were described as more easily satisfied and happier than mindful consumers. This was unexpected because I had not found this concept when reviewing the literature. Lastly, most participants contemplated the positive effect of sustainable consumption on well-being, in line with the literature review, but surprisingly, the results show that consumer happiness may also have an effect on sustainable consumption. That is, according to my qualitative study, a happier consumer will likely behave as a sustainable consumer. In addition, this qualitative study shows the positive effects of mindfulness on well-being in the absence of consumption, suggesting that mindful people are happier but are not necessarily happier consumers.

The qualitative research clearly shows that further research efforts are needed to establish clearer relationships between the main constructs: mindfulness, consumer well-being and sustainable consumption. This chapter concludes by suggesting comprehensive quantitative research to further establish the relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption and the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being and further include two additional constructs green warm glow and life satisfaction.

6 HYPOTHESES AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL DEVELOPMENT

This chapter provides the theoretical basis for the development of the conceptual model, which is also presented in this chapter. In addition, I present three main hypotheses and five additional hypotheses. Finally, I describe the control variables used in the study and present the conceptual model with the control variables.

6.1 Theoretical foundation for the quantitative study

The choice of a philosophical perspective in a research study is influenced by the different ways in which social relations and behaviours are perceived and understood in society. These different perspectives shape the researcher's approach to conducting their study. Therefore, the research process always involves the implementation of a particular paradigm, which subsequently determines the approach to the research process and the way data are collected and analysed (Lewin & Somekh, 2011). In terms of the nature of the study, I observed several underlying theories running through my research. The **Self-Determination theory**, developed by Ryan and Deci (2000) is the predominant theory underlying my model. However, I not only use insights from the Self-Determination Theory but also partially use insights from the **Mindfulness-Sustainability framework** by Geiger, Fischer, & Schrader (2018) and Garland's (2015b) **Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory**. I believe these theoretical perspectives are essential to my research and can help better explain the relationship between sustainable consumption, mindfulness, consumer well-being as well as life satisfaction and warm glow. These theoretical perspectives largely influence the type of variables and the type of methodological approaches used in the study.

The influence of social norms on behaviour very often leads mindless consumers to act unsustainably because they do not challenge routines and default behaviours (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000) that manifest in our social and economic paradigm (Teufer & Grabner-Kräuter, 2023). There are several models of consumer behaviour and motivational theories that analyse various individual, social, or psychological influences on behaviour. For example, Deci and Ryan's (1985) Self-Determination theory, the Theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Batoool et al., 2023), the System theory (Wilkinson, 2011) and the Double dividend theory (Herziger et al., 2020). The Theory of planned behaviour (TPB), the System theory and the Double dividend theory were considered in the process of establishing our conceptual model but were not chosen to be the theories on which our conceptual model would be built on.

The Theory of planned behaviour (TPB) model analyses the attitudes and perceived factors necessary to predict human behaviour (Batoool et al., 2023). The TPB model is widely used to predict and understand consumer behaviour, including environmental behaviour and food waste (Zhang et al., 2015). The TPB has been used in previous research to understand sustainable consumer behaviour (Si et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018) as well as sustainable fashion consumption (Blazquez et al., 2020; Jain, 2019). The key concepts of the Systems theory state that the individual parts of a system can best be understood in the context of the relationships with each other and with other systems in a holistic manner, rather than in isolation (Wilkinson, 2011). Although TPB and Systems theory are used in studies of sustainable consumer behaviour, I conclude that they do not provide us with sufficient theoretical support for incorporating the concepts of mindfulness and well-being. At odds with Classical economic theory which assumes that individuals act rationally and satisfy their needs and preferences through consumption (Herziger et al., 2020) the Double dividend

theory supports some psychologists and sociologists who argue that consumption and materialism can negatively affect well-being and life satisfaction (Herziger et al., 2020). Moreover, some researchers have argued that overconsumption has a negative impact on well-being (Jackson, 2005; Jackson and Marks 1999; Kasser 2002, Zhan (2022)). The reason this theory predominantly focuses on one aspect of sustainable consumption – that is reduced consumption - I have decided not to build my conceptual model on this theory.

In my research, I have used three underlying theories to develop our conceptual model: the Self-Determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework (Geiger, Fischer, & Schrader, 2018) and the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory (Garland, 2015b). All three theories are presented in the following paragraphs.

Self-Determination theory (SDT), developed by psychologists Ryan and Deci (2000), presents humans with three universal basic psychological needs, namely, autonomy, competence and relatedness. Moreover, the need for autonomy is being able to decide one's own actions and behaviours and a sense of personal initiative, the competence need is the capacity to engage in activities valued by the person and interact effectively with the environment and lastly, the relatedness need is defined as feeling connected, close to and accepted by others (Guillen-Royo, 2019). Further, these three psychological needs form the motives for engagement in various human activities (Kim et al., 2016). SDT is a comprehensive theory of human motivation, personality development and well-being that is one of the most researched and applied theories in psychology today. However, SDT is relevant to both the basic science of motivation and development and applied fields such as parenting, education, organisations, sport, healthcare and technology (Ryan & Deci, 2019). SDT assumes that the fulfilment of the above-mentioned psychological needs promotes well-being. Based on this theory researcher Kim et al. (2016) proposed a framework showing the relationship between sustainable consumption and happiness and argue that it is posited that sustainable consumption may lead to happiness. Relying on Self-Determination theory, Ramos-Hidalgo et al. (2022) analyse the relationship between ethical and sustainable consumption behaviour and consumer happiness.

The conceptual model of this research is heavily related to the SDT as I try to understand how mindfulness relates to sustainable consumption, namely how mindfulness influences sustainable purchase and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of apparel products. In addition, mindfulness has manifold influences on the pathways leading toward authentic self-regulation and well-being (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). Schultz and Ryan (2015) reviewed the evidence concerning how mindfulness diffuses through critical components of SDT and framing mindfulness as an essential part of well-being. Finally, it seems that mindfulness can act as an antidote to external and internal controlling forces that often undermine the choice and implementation of more voluntary behaviours (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). When awareness of circumstances is heightened, people are also better able to pay attention to the impulses arising from basic needs and to consciously self-organise and self-regulate their actions thus increasing their overall well-being in life (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). Mindfulness

contributes to the vividness of present experience and moment-to-moment sensory contact with life (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kabat-Zinn, 2005). In the chaotic, fast-paced modern life, there is little time for contemplation of one's experiences and little inclination to switch off autopilot to reflect on the present moment (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). Therefore, in this lifestyle, mindfulness becomes a central tool for an autonomous, vital life (Schultz & Ryan, 2015).

Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory (MMT) (Garland et al., 2015b), encompasses two primary, empirical hypotheses, first, mindfulness promotes reappraisal (the mindful reappraisal hypothesis), and second, mindfulness promotes savouring (the mindful savouring hypothesis). These two tenets of MMT are supported by an array of cross-sectional, observational, experimental, and clinical studies (Garland et al., 2015b, 2015a). Across this body of research, mindfulness is associated with both reappraisal and savouring. MMT provides a detailed process model of the mechanisms by which mindfulness may promote well-being (Garland & Fredrickson, 2019). Central to the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory is the mindful reappraisal hypothesis (MRH), which suggests mindfulness training promotes well-being by facilitating positive reappraisal (Garland & Fredrickson, 2019). Coo and Salanova (2018) using MMT show that mindfulness intervention programs boosted the existing levels of people's mindfulness, work engagement, happiness and performance. In this research, I adopt the notions of SDT and MMT theories by including the concepts of mindfulness, consumer well-being and general life satisfaction in the conceptual model and proposing a positive relationship between these three concepts. I explore how mindfulness relates to consumer happiness and people's life satisfaction.

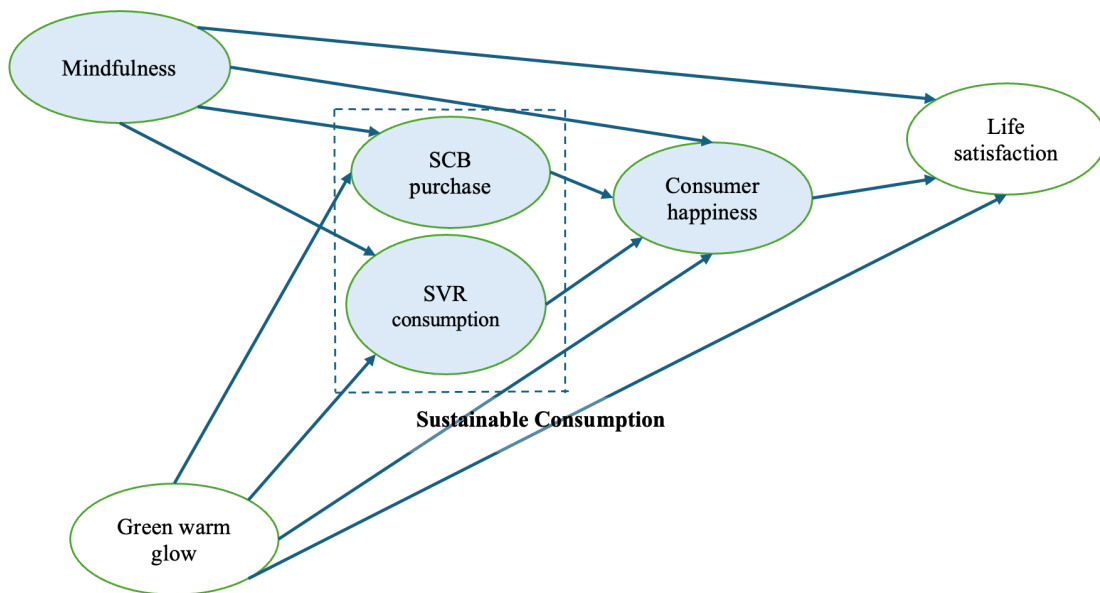
The **Mindfulness-Sustainability framework (MSF)** (Geiger, Fischer, & Schrader, 2018) analyses the link between mindfulness and sustainability, including culturally shaped aspects, namely subjective well-being, activation of (intrinsic/non-materialistic) core values, consumption and sustainable behaviour, the connection equity issues, social activism and conscious, flexible and adaptive responses to climate change. Based on the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework, Geiger et al. (2019) suggested that mindfulness interventions can directly target core values and ethical principles and affect sustainable behaviours. Furthermore, in line with MSF, Helm and Subramaniam (2019) argue that increased mindfulness may be effective in changing daily consumption routines, helping to reduce the negative environmental impacts of overconsumption. I have linked MSF to the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption constructs with the premise that mindfulness will positively affect the sustainable consumption of fashion apparel.

6.2 Conceptual model and hypotheses development

6.2.1 Conceptual model

Having established the study's theoretical framework, I proceed to develop the conceptual framework. The conceptualization of the model is largely based on the results of the qualitative study described in Chapter 5, and a detailed literature review supported by the Self-Determination theory, Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory and Mindfulness-Sustainability framework.

Figure 4: The proposed conceptual model



Note: SCB = Sustainable consumption behaviour; SVR = Second-hand, vintage and rental

Source: Own work.

The conceptual model consists of three main constructs reflecting the key premise of the thesis: mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer happiness. In addition, green warm glow and life satisfaction are added as secondary constructs. I propose that connections among constructs exist and are positive. Specifically, mindfulness has a positive effect on sustainable consumption and sustainable consumption has a positive effect on consumer happiness. Furthermore, mindfulness and consumer happiness have a positive effect on life satisfaction and green warm glow has a positive effect on sustainable consumption, consumer happiness and life satisfaction.

In this chapter, I present the theoretical basis for the quantitative study and develop a conceptual model. Later, in Chapter 8, the proposed conceptual model is tested and the conceptualisation of the individual constructs is presented in the next chapter (see Chapter 7). My aim is to present a comprehensive conceptual model, connecting mindfulness and green warm glow to the concepts of sustainable consumption, consumer happiness and life satisfaction. The developed conceptual model should add to the current body of knowledge, as well as help governments and businesses to enable them to enforce sustainable consumption and elevate the level of life satisfaction. The proposed conceptual model is presented in Figure 4.

6.2.2 Hypotheses development

In previous chapters (see Chapters 2, 3 and 4), I explained concepts of interest in this research, namely mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer happiness, green warm glow and life satisfaction. In the following section, I will focus on hypothesis development and present the theoretically grounded hypotheses. There are three main hypotheses, which will be closely analysed and additional five hypotheses will be added. The first set of hypotheses focuses on the relationships between mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer happiness. Additionally, the second set of hypotheses expands this model, including the positive effect of green warm glow on sustainable consumption, consumer happiness and life satisfaction as well as life satisfaction as an outcome of mindfulness and consumer happiness constructs.

6.2.2.1 *Main hypotheses*

In empirical studies, researchers have confirmed a link between the concept of mindfulness and sustainable consumption (e.g. Bahl et al., 2013; Brown & Kasser, 2005b; Geiger et al., 2020a; Milne et al., 2020), between mindfulness and consumer well-being (e.g. Brown et al., 2007; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) and between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness (e.g. Brinkerhoff & Jacob, 1999; Brown & Kasser, 2005b; Iwata, 2001; Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007). However, there is limited evidence on the strength and direction of these relationships. Therefore, there is still much to learn about the relationship between mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer happiness.

One outcome of mindfulness that has not been widely studied is sustainable consumption, especially in the research field of fashion apparel consumption. Researchers have indicated that mindfulness is a predictor of sustainable and environmentally friendly behaviour (Brinkerhoff & Jacob, 1999; Brown & Kasser, 2005b; Helm & Subramaniam, 2019), showing how mindfulness employs multiple mechanisms to promote sustainable consumption (Fischer et al., 2017; Milne et al., 2020) and how mindful consumers are more likely to make choices that are less harmful to the natural environment (Amel et al., 2009). Also, in line with this research, the qualitative study findings (see Chapter 5) suggest that

mindfulness might have an effect on sustainable consumption, namely, that a mindful consumer is much more likely to be a sustainable consumer and that a sustainable consumer has to be mindful, which also supports the underlying premise of this quantitative research. In grounding hypothesis 1, I draw on the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework (Geiger et al., 2018) which suggests an influence of mindfulness interventions on sustainable behaviours. Furthermore, despite the volume of research, scholars argue that the number of studies on second-hand consumption is still limited and isolated (Na'amneh & Al Husban, 2012) and that results are mixed and lack agreement (Felix et al., 2013). To address this problem, Xu et al. (2014) suggest further investigations on this topic. Based on an extensive literature review, responding to the researcher's call and to improve the understanding of second-hand, vintage and rental consumption I have included it in the construct of sustainable consumption. Thus, I propose the hypothesis:

H1: Mindfulness has a positive effect on an individual's sustainable consumption behaviour.

H1a: Mindfulness has a positive effect on an individual's sustainable consumption purchasing.

H1b: Mindfulness has a positive effect on an individual's second-hand, vintage, and rental consumption.

It has been proven that sustainable consumption has a positive impact on consumer happiness. Nevertheless, the link between sustainable consumption and happiness is not always clear. Researchers have shown a clear positive relationship between happiness and sustainable consumption behaviour (Brinkerhoff & Jacob, 1999; Iwata, 2001; Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2022; Sudbury-Riley & Kohlbacher, 2016). Venhoeven et al. (2013) reviewed theoretical arguments and empirical evidence for why pro-environmental behaviours can both decrease and increase consumer well-being, and Carrero, Valor, & Redondo (2020) empirically demonstrate that some sustainable behaviours of consumers can result in happiness, while others are associated with lower well-being. In addition, the results of the qualitative study (see Chapter 5) indicate that sustainable consumption has a positive effect on well-being such that consumers are happier because they are consuming sustainably, which in turn supports the idea that sustainable consumption behaviours are positively associated with consumer well-being. Despite the contradictory research results, I conclude that enough research shows the positive relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being and thus decided to include this notion in the formulation of my hypothesis. Given the results of studies conducted in the past and my own qualitative study, I still expect a direct positive impact of sustainable consumption behaviours on consumer happiness. In grounding the second hypothesis, I draw on the Self-Determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) which suggests a positive relationship between sustainable consumption and happiness. Therefore, I put forward the following hypothesis:

H2: Sustainable consumption behaviour has a positive effect on consumer well-being.

H2a: Sustainable consumption purchasing has a positive effect on consumer well-being.

H2b: Second-hand, vintage, and rental consumption has a positive effect on consumer well-being.

In consumer research, there is a dearth of studies researching the relationship between constructs of mindfulness and consumer well-being especially in the context of fashion apparel consumption. However, there are still studies that found a positive correlation between consumer mindfulness and consumer well-being (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Fredrickson, 2011; Ivztan et al., 2011; Kabat-Zinn, 2005; Langer, 2005; Lyubomirsky et al., 2011). Furthermore, our qualitative study results also indicate that mindful consumers are happy consumers and that they are happier than regular consumers. However, in my qualitative research emerged also the notion that mindfulness could have a negative effect on consumer well-being. Contradictory findings in the qualitative research suggest further research needs to be done to add additional value to the body of knowledge on the direct influence of mindfulness on consumer well-being. In grounding the third hypothesis, I draw on the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory which provides a model of the mechanisms by which mindfulness may promote well-being. Therefore, I offer the following hypothesis:

H3: Mindfulness has a positive effect on an individual consumer well-being.

6.2.2.2 Additional hypotheses

The proposed conceptual model, which has already been presented (see subchapter 6.2.1), comprises five constructs. Sustainable consumption, mindfulness and well-being are the three main constructs, while green warm glow and life satisfaction are two additional constructs. In this subchapter, I will present the additional concepts in relation to the main concepts and develop five additional hypotheses.

The research has shown that the pursuit of happiness can be an important motive for pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017), where green warm glow significantly relates to pro-environmental consumer behaviour (Ahn & Lee, 2019; Chiengkul et al., 2023). Pro-environmental behaviour can be psychologically rewarding and green warm glow has been researched as an antecedent to pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003). The results of our qualitative study show that participants - when asked about the positive outcomes of sustainable consumption - most frequently talked about a personal sense of achievement where a person is content because they know they are helping the environment and society by consuming sustainably. This could be interpreted as a warm glow and thus relates to green warm glow and warm glow studies. Because of the scarce studies conducted so far on the construct of

warm glow as an antecedent of sustainable consumption behaviour, I intend to add to this body of knowledge by proposing the following hypothesis.

H4: Green warm glow has a positive effect on an individual's sustainable consumption behaviours.

H4a: Green warm glow has a positive effect on an individual's sustainable consumption purchasing behaviour.

H4b: Green warm glow has a positive effect on an individual's second-hand, vintage, and rental consumption.

Research thus far has indicated that warm glow has a positive effect on the well-being and happiness of individuals. For example, warm-glow motivates the positive relationship between contributions to the public good of environmental protection and higher levels of life satisfaction and happiness (Videras & Owen, 2006). In addition, Becchetti and Degli Antoni (2010) showed how a warm glow may motivate the positive relationship between individuals' self-declared happiness and the circumstances and/or outcomes of the investment game. Furthermore, Aknin, Hamlin, and Dunn (2012) showed that experiencing positive emotions when giving to others is a proximate mechanism for human cooperation, and the warm glow could provide one such mechanism (Aknin et al., 2012). Furthermore, Özer (2014) shows the direct relation between contribution and level of individuals' life satisfaction which provides direct empirical evidence for the warm-glow motive. Given the results of studies conducted in the past, I expect a direct positive impact of green warm glow on consumer happiness as well as individual life satisfaction. Therefore, I put forward the following two hypotheses:

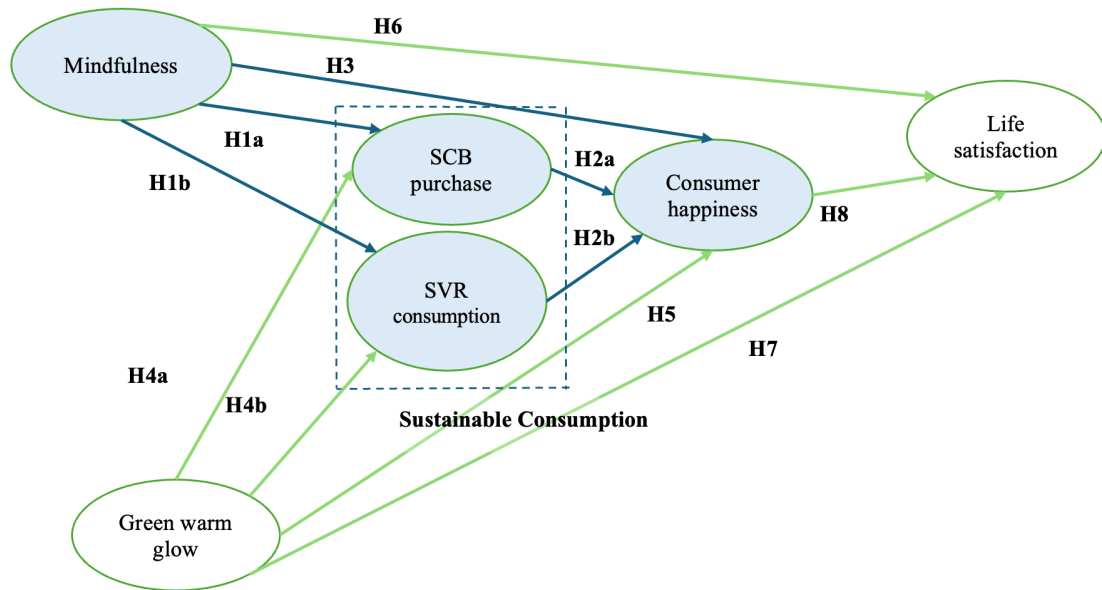
H5: Green warm glow has a positive effect on an individual consumer well-being.

H7: Green warm glow has a positive effect on an individual's satisfaction with life.

Mindfulness has also been associated with a number of positive mental health outcomes, such as treating symptoms of depression, anxiety, and pain (Brown et al., 2007) as well as greater life satisfaction (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kong et al., 2014; Stolarski et al., 2016). Studies thus far have established a positive correlation between mindfulness and life satisfaction. These studies have also explored various factors that either mediate or moderate this relationship, such as body awareness (Sünbül & Özcan, 2022), self-esteem and perceived stress (Lee et al., 2023), self-control (Liang et al., 2022), resilience and wisdom (Kütük et al., 2022). Results from my qualitative research (see Chapter 5) also indicate that mindfulness is good for the consumer on a personal level. All the mentioned studies have in common the positive effect, being direct, or indirect on life satisfaction. However, these results have not always been consistently replicated suggesting that additional studies are needed to clarify the relationships between these variables (Garland et al., 2015a). Thus, I propose the hypothesis:

H6: Mindfulness has a positive effect on an individual's satisfaction with life.

Figure 5: The conceptual model with all the proposed hypotheses



Source: Own work.

Consumer happiness with a product or a service, as a specific domain, and satisfaction with life, as a more general concept encompassing different domains, are closely related and may overlap. Based on the bottom-up spillover theory of life satisfaction, researchers (Lee et al. 2014; Sirgy 2012) assume that the pleasure of shopping or buying contributes to overall life happiness and well-being. Individuals experience different areas of life, such as shopping and leisure activities, family, home, job, education, economic situations etc. with life satisfaction at the top of the domains (Olsen et al., 2022). From this perspective, whether and how shopping and buying contribute to life satisfaction depends on their relative importance and contribution compared to the other area-specific life spheres (Olsen et al., 2022). Limited research has assessed overall life satisfaction and an increase in the quality of customers' lives as an outcome of consumer well-being (Hsieh et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2002; McLean et al., 2023) as well as a positive effect on overall well-being. Therefore, with this research, I intend to add value to the scarce body of knowledge on the direct influence of consumer well-being on an individual's satisfaction with life, by offering the following hypothesis:

H8: Consumer well-being has a positive effect on an individual's satisfaction with life.

The proposed hypotheses (the main and additional hypotheses) are visually represented in Figure 5. Several expected effects and relationships are empirically tested in the quantitative study and presented in the following chapters (see Chapter 8).

6.3 Control relationships

Control variables are a central element of the research design of any empirical study (Nielsen & Raswant, 2018). From a theoretical perspective, there are two reasons for including variables that are not directly caused by the researchers' hypotheses in an empirical model: first, the inclusion of control variables allows for better causal interpretability of the estimated coefficients and second, to improve the precision of the estimated coefficients (Klarmann & Feurer, 2018).

If hypothesized relationships persist after adding the control, alternative causal explanations involving the control variables can be ruled out. Conversely, if alternative explanations are not included in the model, the analysis suffers from omitted variable bias or endogeneity (Ebbes et al., 2021). The additional variables in the model are assumed to be important explanatory variables for the dependent variable while they are not correlated with the hypothesised independent variables (Klarmann & Feurer, 2018).

To improve the empirical rigour of the model estimation and to rule out endogeneity through omitted variables (Sande & Ghosh, 2018), I included a set of control variables pertaining to consumer studies, specifically mindfulness and sustainable consumption research. Lavuri et al. (2023) and Hou and Sarigollu (2022) use control variables age, income level, education and occupation when researching sustainable purchase intention and a study by Xiao & Li (2011) examined the relationship between green purchase and life satisfaction including control variables such as gender, age, education and family income.

Frequently used control variables such as gender, age, education, employment and income have also been widely used in sustainable consumption behaviour studies (e.g. Dermody et al., 2018, 2021; Tan et al., 2022), in life satisfaction studies (e.g. Danish et al., 2019; Şimşek et al., 2021) and in consumer happiness and well-being studies (Fei et al., 2022).

The control variables in this study were selected based on the findings in other studies, which showed that **age** was positively related to more sustainable behaviour (Banytė et al., 2020) as well as to life satisfaction (Kaya & Zeren, 2022). On the other hand, studies show age is negatively related to life satisfaction attainment (Daig et al., 2009). **Gender** was included in this model as a control variable since different studies have investigated the effect of gender on sustainable consumption behaviour and life satisfaction, showing how women get more engaged in sustainable consumption than men (Banytė et al., 2020) and women reported higher levels of life satisfaction than men (Joshi & Jovanović, 2020). Further, I choose income as a control variable, since it has been reported that higher **income** generally predicts greater life satisfaction (Soto & Luhmann, 2013; Zakershahrak et al., 2023) and positive associations between income and well-being (Diener et al., 1999; Howell & Howell, 2008).

A brief overview of the control variables used in recent consumer behaviour studies is presented in Table 26.

Table 26: Overview of the control variables used in the consumer behaviour studies

Control variables	Context	Study
Age, gender, education and family income	Examining the relationship between green purchase and life satisfaction.	Xiao & Li, 2011
Age, gender, education, survey mode, and perceived consumer effectiveness	Examining how environmental brand attributes and nature imagery affect green advertising.	Schmuck, Matthes, Naderer, & Beaufort, 2017
Age, gender and education	Exploring how pro-environmental self-identity affects sustainable consumption buying.	Dermody et al., 2018
Age and income	Analysing what factors affect life satisfaction of employees in the banking sector.	Danish et al., 2019
Age, gender and income	Exploring how pro-environmental preference affects consumers' well-being.	Gao, Wang, & Wang, 2020
Age, gender, education, employment, and dependent children at home	Exploring how pro-environmental self-identity, market-based barriers, and knowledge barriers influence sustainable consumption buying, product lifetime extension, and environmental activism.	Dermody et al., 2021
Age, gender, education, marital status and number of siblings	Analysing the effect between cognitive distortions and life satisfaction by asserting the mediating role of loneliness.	Şimşek et al., 2021
Age, gender and social media use	Exploring the relationships between social media self-control failure, mindfulness and wellbeing.	Du et al., 2021
Age, gender, education and income	Examining how the numerical scale effect influences green purchase intention.	Hou & Sarigollu, 2022
Age, education, income, etc.	Examining how ethical consumers utilize sharing economy platforms as part of their sustainable resale behaviour.	Tan et al., 2022
Age, gender, education level, and income	Exploring how ethical consumption behaviours affect consumer happiness and the role of consumer' social capital on ethical consumption	Fei et al., 2022
Age, gender and income	Examining how consumer-brand identification can be a source of happiness in experiential consumption settings.	Sato, Yoshida, Doyle, & Choi, 2023
Age, income, education and occupation	Exploring the antecedents of sustainable consumers' purchase intentions.	Lavuri et al., 2023

Source: Literature review.

7 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I present quantitative research objectives and design. I explore the internet-based survey research and discuss how maximum response rate has been assured. In addition, each construct is operationalised, and each measurement explored in more detail. I conclude this chapter by presenting socio-demographic questions that were answered by our participants.

7.1 Research objectives and design

In the previous chapter, research hypotheses were developed based on the extensive literature review and the qualitative study. The next step is to test these hypotheses. However, in order to test these hypotheses, an appropriate methodology with the appropriate style and rigour should be applied. The measurement approach and method of data collection should be consistent with the nature of the research problem and the research objectives. As discussed earlier, the terms consumer well-being and consumer happiness are used as synonyms. With this in mind, the overall aim of this study is to investigate the relationships between mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer happiness, and the impact of green warm glow on sustainable consumption and consumer happiness. More specifically, this study has eight objectives:

1. To examine the relationship between the constructs of mindfulness and sustainable consumption, including, sustainable consumption purchasing behaviour and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption.
2. To offer more insights into the relationship between the constructs of sustainable consumption, including, sustainable consumption purchasing behaviour and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption and consumer happiness.
3. To examine the relationship between the constructs of mindfulness and consumer happiness.
4. To offer more insight into how green warm glow affects sustainable consumption, including, sustainable consumption purchasing behaviour and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption.
5. To offer more insight into how green warm glow affects consumer happiness.
6. To offer more insights into the relationship between the constructs of mindfulness and life satisfaction.
7. To offer more insight into how green warm glow affects life satisfaction.
8. To examine the relationship between the constructs of consumer happiness and life satisfaction.

7.1.1 Research design

The research design provides a framework for data collection and analysis and offers a guide for exploring the problem. A research design is an overall plan or structure for a research project and determines the method by which data is collected (Khan, 2022). A research design uses various combinations of primary, secondary, qualitative and quantitative data. Depending on the research questions, research designs in marketing can fall into one of three categories: exploratory research design, descriptive research design or causal research design (experiments).

An exploratory research design is usually less structured than the other two types of designs and may include analysing case studies, published reports (i.e. secondary data), in-depth interviews with experts and conducting focus groups. Descriptive research designs generate quantitative information, often in the form of surveys using relevant scales or specific instruments. A descriptive research design can be either a cross-sectional study conducted at a specific point in time or a longitudinal study conducted with the same respondents - repeatedly - over a period of time. The causal research design or experimental research design investigates cause-effect relationships and can be categorised as field experiments (conducted in a natural environment) or laboratory experiments (conducted in a researcher's office or a university classroom) (Khan, 2022).

It is worth noting that the choice of research design depends on the research question, available resources and ethical considerations. In addition, researchers often combine multiple research designs or use a mixed methods approach to gain a comprehensive understanding of consumer behaviour by combining quantitative and qualitative data. For the purposes of this dissertation, I have used a mixed-method approach, combining quantitative and qualitative data. In general, qualitative research should be used to define or more precisely formulate a problem, set priorities for research, eliminate impractical ideas, develop concepts, generate hypotheses, identify variables and clarify concepts (Malhotra, 2010). The review of the literature has revealed that the relationships between mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer happiness and life satisfaction in the context of fashion apparel consumption are very much under-explored, especially in terms of the usage of qualitative methods, while the role of warm glow in the context of fashion apparel consumption is under-researched in general. Since relatively little is known about these relationships in the context of fashion apparel consumption, exploratory research is needed. Hence, my primary research started with an exploratory qualitative study (Chapter 5), followed by a quantitative descriptive study (Chapters 7 and 8).

The research design of this study is as follows. First, the qualitative study (presented in Chapter 5) provided the foundations on which the model was conceptualised and helped us gain a deeper understanding of the relationships between the main concepts of mindfulness, consumer happiness and sustainable consumption, preparing the foundations for the second phase, quantitative research - main conceptual model. Quantitative research in the second

phase tests hypotheses based on theory and previous research. In the next section, I briefly introduce the most commonly used research methods in consumer research and in the following section (7.2 Internet-based survey research) I present the main features of the chosen research method.

7.1.2 Research methods

Research methods are the instruments and/or range of approaches that researchers employ to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, explanation and prediction (Cohen et al., 2007). Since there are a multitude of instruments which can be used to administer different enquiries (Cohen et al., 2007; Walliman, 2011) it is the researcher's responsibility to select the most appropriate instrument for their specific study (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Each of the instruments selected should complement other, so that the information that is generated is relevant to the subject of the study (Jonker & Pennink, 2010).

In consumer studies, researchers use various methods of primary data collection to gather information directly from participants, such as: Surveys via online platforms, in person or by mail, or interviews, which can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. In my research, I used semi-structured interviews in the qualitative study (see Chapter 5) and internet-based surveys to collect data for the quantitative research. More about this research method can be found in subchapter 7.1.4.

7.1.3 Common method bias

I attempted to avoid the common method bias with the implementation of several instruments. First, I ensured respondents' anonymity with respect to their answers to the survey questions to prevent general response bias. I also assured them that the answers to the questions represented their personal opinions and therefore could not be wrong. Second, I used a 7-point Likert scale for several reasons, which can reduce common method bias, such as providing a balanced number of choices and not overwhelming respondents with too many choices. In addition, 7-point scales are commonly used by researchers and have good reliability and validity in various studies measuring attitudes, perceptions and opinions. Third, I divided the items into several groups depending on the context: mindfulness construct, sustainable consumption behaviour, consumer well-being, and the additional constructs green warm glow and satisfaction with life. Fourth, the items in each group or construct were not fixed and their order was randomised for each respondent to avoid differences in responses based on the order of the measurement items. Fifth, in order to design a study carefully and increase the respondents' ability to answer accurately, I pre-tested the questionnaire to ensure that the questions were understandable. Furthermore, I followed the qualitative study with Slovenian consumers (Chapter 5) in translating the questionnaire to ensure that I used familiar phrases and expressions to describe sustainable

consumption, mindfulness and well-being. Sixth, I informed respondents that the survey results would be used for the doctoral dissertation, which might increase their motivation to answer more accurately. Seventh, respondents answered the questionnaire on an online platform, which helps to minimise the effect of the interviewer's presence and the possible social desirability of selecting other answers because of his presence. Eighthly, to control for social desirability bias, the respondents were guaranteed anonymity. Ninthly, according to Podsakoff et al. (2003) potential sources of bias from common methods could include common scale formats and common scale anchors (repeated use of the same anchor points, e.g. extremely, always, never, in the questionnaire). In this study, I only used 7-point scales, but with different anchor points, such as never/always, strongly disagree/fully agree, absolutely nothing/very much. Lastly, I rarely used negatively worded items because negatively worded items could be a source of method bias (Schmitt & Stults, 1986). However, since I selected previously used measurements, some negatively worded items were still present in the questionnaire.

7.2 Internet-based survey research

The internet has become easily accessible to everyone (Wellman, 2004) and user-friendly survey software has streamlined the process of questionnaire design and simplified data collection and entry (Alessi & Martin, 2010) as well as lowering costs and elimination of manual data entry (Hanna et al., 2005). The most widely used data collection instrument for Internet surveys is the questionnaire (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). There are several claimed advantages as well as problems with using an Internet questionnaire in comparison to a paper questionnaire, as presented in Table 27.

In the design of the survey questionnaire, I have considered the possible drawbacks and thus kept the questionnaire simple, easy to complete, and clear instructions on every page. The questionnaire's user interface was designed by a professional research agency with high experience in distributing, and visually presenting the survey questions and collecting the data.

Questionnaires have several benefits over other forms of data collection: they are generally inexpensive to conduct, little training is needed to develop them, and they can be easily and quickly analysed once completed (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). For the questionnaire to be effective it must present questions in a clear and unambiguous way so that the respondent may interpret them, articulate their response and pass it on to the researcher (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Questionnaires are usually comprised of different approaches to asking questions, such as: closed questions, multiple-choice or ranking questions, and open-ended questions (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Some questions require the respondent to choose answers according to a predefined list or scale, such as the most popular approach, the Likert scale (published in 1932) (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). The Likert scale approach has also been used in the questionnaire conducted for the

purposes of this quantitative study, however, I have chosen to use a 7-point scale, instead of a 5-point scale to allow the selection of a larger number of frequency options for the respondents. The 7-point scale has been used for decades to assess the frequency of observable behaviours in research (Brown et al., 2009; Phau & Woo, 2008). The respondents of our survey were provided with a 7-point scale of possible responses to the question – ranging from the measure “strongly agree” and “very much” to the exact opposite measure of “strongly disagree” and “absolutely nothing”.

Table 27: Advantages and disadvantages of using an Internet questionnaire in comparison to a paper questionnaire

Advantages	
+	Time-saving - it reduces the time needed to distribute, collect and process data.
+	Larger population - it allows access to a wider and much larger population.
+	Time management - respondents can complete the questionnaire at a time that suits them, minimising organisational constraints on the part of the researcher or respondents.
+	Fewer missing entries - responses in web-based surveys show fewer missing entries than in paper-based surveys.
+	Lower error rate - fewer human errors occur when entering and processing online data.
Disadvantages	
-	Coverage errors - coverage errors can occur because not everyone has a non-zero chance of being included (not everyone has access to the Internet).
-	Poor user interface design - the configuration of the questionnaire can vary from one computer to another, and the screen designed by the researcher may not look exactly like the respondent's screen. Further, respondents may have difficulty navigating the online survey pages or may not be able to see all the choices without scrolling down the screen.
-	Slow internet connection - slow network connections or limited bandwidth can slow down downloads.
-	Easier abandonment - if people do not want to participate, it is easier for someone to abandon an internet-based survey with a simple click of a button than a paper-based survey.

Source: Summarized after Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003)

7.3 Maximising response rates

One way to maximise response rates is the use of a cover letter for the questionnaire, which should be short and should explain the research in a clear and understandable way conveying to respondents the importance of the research, assuring them of confidentiality, and encouraging their replies (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Another popular way of increasing response rate is to compensate respondents for their time and effort which the agency responsible for the survey did in the form of points. The value of one JazVem point is 0.01 euros, and the first 100 points are earned by registration to the panel. Individuals then gather points by either encouraging their friends to take a survey or fully completing the

survey on their own. The number of JazVem points that the member receives for participating in a survey is determined for each survey separately and is published in the invitation to the survey. When a panel member reaches a minimum of 1000 points, they can exchange the points for various vouchers, money transfers directly to their account or donate the amount to charity (Valicon, n.d.).

A selection of registered users of JazVem platform received an email indicating there is a survey to be answered. The design of the email and the address of the sender are easily recognised by the users and offer some key information about the survey, such as how long will it take to finish the survey, how many days will the survey be available, how many points can a user receive by answering all of the questions, current status of points for individual user, an option to invite a friend to participate in the survey, some other information and most importantly a green call to action button “Start the survey”. Once on the website the user can read the cover letter and start answering the questions. Our cover letter included the title of the research, the researcher's name and the organization the researcher is affiliated with, the purpose of the research, what kind of questions the respondents can participate and a thank you sentence (Valicon,n.d.). The content of the cover letter is presented in Appendix 7.

7.4 Construct operationalisation

To operationalise constructs an extensive literature review was conducted. Items for the selected constructs were selected from the literature and have been previously used by other authors. The scales were originally developed in the English language and were translated into the Slovenian language. An early version of the questionnaire underwent extensive pre-testing and, in this phase, some of the translations for individual items were amended according to the feedback. In general, the questionnaire includes 5 groups for 5 constructs (socio-demographic questions were not part of the questionnaire, since users need to fill out these in the process of signing up to the JazVem platform):

Group 1: Sustainable consumption

Group 2: Consumer happiness or well-being

Group 3: Mindfulness

Group 4: Green warm glow

Group 5: Life satisfaction

The questionnaire items that were used to measure individual constructs were based on existing scales and a back-translation process was conducted to validate the consistency of the translation and to test the understanding of the translated items with a pre-test that did not result in any changes to the original item wording. In the following chapters

operationalisation of each construct will be explained in more detail and the literature review will be presented.

7.4.1 Measuring sustainable consumption

Following other researchers (e.g. Geiger et al., 2018; Leach et al., 2013), I recognise sustainable consumption as a multi-dimensional construct encompassing an environmental and socio-economic dimension.

The general consumption model dominant in consumer behaviour research comprises different phases and does not exhaust itself in mere purchases of products or services (Geiger et al., 2018). Often, three main phases of consumption are distinguished (e.g. Geiger et al., 2018; MacInnis & Folkes, 2010): acquisition, usage, and disposal which I have already mentioned previously. Primarily I have considered including all 3 phases of consumption but due to the importance of the first stage, I decided to focus our research on the acquisition phase. Several studies (Kim et al., 2012; Lin & Huang, 2012; Peattie, 2010) have also focused solely on the first stage in the consumption process – the acquisition of green products which is an important form of sustainable consumption behaviour (Pilgrimienė et al., 2020).

7.4.1.1 Sustainable consumption behaviour scale

For the measurement of the sustainable consumption construct I choose Geiger's (2019) SCB scale which is based on an earlier version of Geiger's SCB from 2017. The SCB scale and other scales based on it have been used in several studies thus far, namely focusing on food and clothes consumption (Barrera-Verdugo & Villarroel-Villarroel, 2022; Böhme et al., 2018; Fischer et al., 2017; Stanszus et al., 2019). The SCB scale consists of several dimensions, where all items are assessed on a 7-point Likert scale where answers are labelled with never (0), sometimes (2), often (4), and always (6). All items included in the SCB scale are included in Appendix 2. Here I present only the dimension of the acquisition phase of the SCB scale which includes the questions presented in Table 28.

Table 28: The acquisition phase dimension of the SCB scale

No.	Item
1	I buy fairly produced clothes.
2	Instead of buying a piece of wardrobe for special occasions, I borrow it.
3	I buy ecologically produced clothes from organic materials (e.g., organic cotton).
4	I buy second-hand clothes.
5	I avoid clothes from countries with bad working conditions.
6	I buy clothes with labels that guarantee they are free from chemicals.
7	I buy high-quality, long-lasting clothes.

Source: SCB scale by Geiger (2019).

7.4.1.2 Second-hand, vintage and rental scale

Geiger (2017, 2019) has included questions about second-hand purchase behaviour in the SCB scale, and other researchers have been similarly operationalising second-hand apparel consumption (Lastovicka et al., 1999; Lovelace & Brickman, 2013; Park & Lee, 2021). In my survey, I have included both, Geiger's SCB scale questions about second-hand purchase behaviour as well as the Sustainable Consumption of Clothing Products-Consumer Behavior – Secondhand, vintage and rental scale by Park & Lee (2021). The Sustainable Consumption of Clothing Products-Consumer Behavior – Secondhand, vintage and rental scale (Park & Lee, 2021) includes 3 items presented in Table 29. These items are similar to Geiger's SCB scale questions about second-hand purchase behaviour (also presented in Table 29). Due to a better model fit I have decided to include the data from the Sustainable Consumption of Clothing Products-Consumer Behavior – Secondhand, vintage and rental scale by Park & Lee (2021) in my final model.

Table 29: Secondhand, vintage and rental scale by Park and Lee (2021) and items about second-hand purchase behaviour from Geiger's SCB scale (2019)

No.	Item
The Sustainable Consumption of Clothing Products - Secondhand, vintage and rental scale	
1	I consider a second-hand clothing firstly when buying a garment.
2	I often purchase an old or a vintage garment.
3	I often use clothing rental services.
SCB scale items regarding second-hand purchase behaviour	
1	Instead of buying a piece of wardrobe for special occasions, I borrow it.
2	I buy second-hand clothes.

Source: Secondhand, vintage and rental scale (Park & Lee, 2021)

7.4.2 Measuring consumer happiness

As discussed earlier, the terms consumer happiness and consumer well-being are used as synonyms and for the purposes of this quantitative study I will focus on consumer happiness measurements. The level of happiness with specific product or service is often measured by three items modelled after van Boven and Gilovich (2003) which measured the influence of experiential purchases on people's happiness. One example of adopting van Boven and Gilovich (2003) items are 3 items used by Li and Atkinson (2020): (1) How much does this book contribute to your happiness right now?, (2) How much has this book contributed to your overall life's happiness?, and (3) How much do you think this book increased your overall life satisfaction? These items have been rated on a nine-point scale (1 = not at all, 5 = moderately, 9 = very much) and the average score of the three items represented the individual's happiness level with the book (Li & Atkinson, 2020).

Table 30: The level of happiness that clothes bring

The level of happiness that clothes bring	
1	How much do clothing items generally contribute to your happiness?
2	How much had clothing items generally contributed to your overall life's happiness?
3	How much do you think clothing items have generally increased your overall life satisfaction?
The measurement of the experience of buying on happiness	
1	How much do you think the latest purchase of an apparel item has made you happy?
2	How much do you think the latest purchase of an apparel item has contribute to your overall happiness in life?
3	How much do you think the latest purchase of an apparel item has increased the quality of my life?

Source: Li and Atkinson (2020) and van Boven and Gilovich (2003).

I have used the same approach as Li and Atkinson (2020) to measure the level of happiness that clothes bring, using three items, where participants rated the items on a seven-point scale (1 = not at all, 7 = very much). The items are presented in Table 30. For the construct of consumer happiness, I have also included 3 questions for consumer happiness regarding the experience of buying on happiness, composed of the following three items (see Table 30). This measurement is based on previous research and was modified to fit this study. The respondents indicated how happy their purchase made them on a seven-point scale (1 = not at all, 7 = very much). These items were modelled by van Boven and Gilovich (2003), using similar items as other researchers modelling their items after these authors (Al Mandil, 2016; Fei et al., 2022; Gaston-Breton et al., 2020; Kim & Lee, 2020). The construct of consumer happiness in our quantitative study includes both, the measurement of level of happiness that clothes bring and the measurement of the experience of buying on happiness.

7.4.3 Measuring mindfulness: Langer mindfulness scale

For the purposes of this quantitative study, I used the LMS14 scale, which contains 14 items (see Table 31). Participants indicated how strongly they agreed or disagreed with an individual statement on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree). Items 1, 7, 8, 10 and 13 belong to the novelty seeking factor, items 2, 3, 6, 11 and 14 belong to the novelty producing factor and items 4, 5, 9 and 12 belong to the engagement factor. The Slovenian version of the LMS14 is a translation of the original LMS.

Table 31: LMS14 scale items

No.	Factor	Item
1	NS	I like to investigate things.
2	NP	I generate few novel ideas.
3	NO	I make many novel contributions.
4	E	I seldom notice what other people are up to.
5	E	I avoid thought-provoking conversations.
6	NP	I am very creative.
7	NS	I am very curious.
8	NS	I try to think of new ways of doing things.
9	E	I am rarely aware of changes.
10	NS	I like to be challenged intellectually.
11	NP	I find it easy to create new and effective ideas.
12	E	I am rarely alert to new developments.
13	NS	I like to figure out how things work.
14	NP	I am not an original thinker.

NS = Novelty seeking factor; NP = Novelty producing factor; E = Engagement factor

Source: Pirson et al. (2012).

7.4.4 Measuring additional constructs: green warm glow and life satisfaction

7.4.4.1 Green warm glow

Inspired by Hartman's (2017) green warm glow measurement, Jia and Van der Linden (2020) developed items measuring the construct of green warm glow with four items (Table 32) where participants rated their agreement or disagreement on a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The scale showed good reliability and validity and has been well comparable with other warm glow measurements (Jia & van der Linden, 2020).

Table 32: Green warm glow measurement

No.	Item
1	Doing something good for the environment would make me feel positive about myself.
2	I expect to feel good when I behave environmentally friendly.
3	I anticipate that I would feel good when I do something to help the environment.
4	I'd feel guilty if I did NOT behave environmentally friendly.

Source: Jia and Van der Linden (2020).

7.4.4.2 Life satisfaction

As already presented in Chapter 4 on Consumer happiness as a construct, I have chosen to use one of the most commonly used measures for life satisfaction - the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985). This scale consists of 5 items on a self-reported seven-point Likert scale with items presented in Table 33. As far as the psychometric properties of the SWLS are concerned, various studies that have examined this scale primarily for its factorial validity have found it to have a unidimensional structure and internal consistency analyses have shown very favourable results (between $\alpha = .80$ and $\alpha = .87$) (Moreta-Herrera et al., 2023).

Table 33: Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS)

No.	Item
1	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2	The conditions of my life are excellent.
3	I am satisfied with my life.
4	So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Source: Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985).

7.5 Socio-demographic questions

In the final questionnaire, no additional socio-demographic questions have been added because the socio-demographic data has been collected previously by the agency and has been saved in the profile of each individual respondent. A series of questions is used by the agency when a person creates their profile in order to determine the different socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. For example, the agency asks the respondents to indicate their sex (male or female); select their year of birth; choose the county where they spend most of their time; choose the settlement where they spend most of their time; choose their employee status among 18 different answers (e.g.: employed (with the employer), owner of the company – employer, craftsman, entrepreneur, unemployed, retired, student, farmer, housewife/carer, etc.); indicate how many members does their household have; selecting the amount of personal average monthly income of the last 3 months; selecting the amount of average monthly income of the last 3 months for the whole household; choosing the education among the 13 possible answers (e.g.: unfinished primary school, finished primary school, vocational school, 4-year high school, ... scientific master's degree, PhD, and I don't want to answer); indicate their marital status; and more. For more detail about socio-demographic questions used, see Appendix 9.

8 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

8.1 Sample characteristics

8.1.1 Final sample size and data collection

A representative sample of Slovenian consumers who buy their own clothes was recruited using an online customer panel JazVem by Valicon marketing research agency, one of the leading companies for marketing consulting and research in South-Eastern Europe (Valicon, 2023). The first question in the survey (I mostly buy/choose my own clothes) served as a condition to determine which consumers buy their own clothes. The respondents were sent emails with the invitation to participate in the survey with a link to the platform where the questionnaire was published. Email invitations also included information about the reward - how many points this survey will bring them, how much time it will take to finish the survey and a URL link to the survey which they can share with their friends in order to receive additional points. The survey took place from the 4th of March 2022 to the 10th of March 2022. The final sample contained no missing data since the agency delivered only fully completed questionnaires. I have received 479 fully completed questionnaires of which I excluded 5 because the respondents indicated that they do not buy or choose their own clothes. Those were the respondents who answered the question “Most of the time I buy (or choose) my own clothes.” with 1 or 2, where the answers ranged from 1 - never to 7 – always. Therefore, the final sample included 474 fully completed questionnaires, and the content of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix 8.

8.1.2 Respondents' characteristics

Before continuing with the further analysis, we must first take a closer look at the respondents. The purpose of this section is to explore the general characteristics of the people who provided information for this study which were obtained by the agency when participants created their online profiles with a series of socio-demographic questions (see Appendix 9).

The respondents were all consumers from Slovenia who mostly buy their own clothes. The respondents are well distributed between both genders with 53.6% males and 46.4% females. Out of 474 respondents, the majority (68.2%) were between 35 and 65 years old, the largest groups were males aged between 35 and 49 years (19.6%), followed by females aged 50-65 (17.5%). The table with age groups is presented in Appendix 10. As for education, slightly above half of the respondents (50.6%) completed secondary education, while 43.8% completed tertiary and 3.8% completed primary level.

Table 34: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Sociodemographic characteristics	Frequency (n=474)	Precent	Cumulative percent
Gender			
Male	254	53.6	53.6
Female	220	46.4	100.0
Age			
15 – 24	62	13.1	13.1
25 – 34	89	18.8	31.9
35 – 49	162	34.2	66.0
50 – 65	161	34.0	100.0
Education			
Primary level	18	3.8	3.8
Secondary level	240	50.6	54.4
Tertiary level	208	43.8	98.2
Do not want to answer	8	1.8	100.0
Marital status			
Single	119	25.1	25.1
Married	175	36.9	62.0
Extramarital community	138	29.1	91.1
Divorced	15	3.2	94.3
Separated	3	0.6	94.9
Widowed	4	0.8	95.8
Do not want to answer	20	4.2	100.0
Region			
Central Slovenia	122	25.7	25.7
Podravska	75	15.8	41.5
Savinjska	58	12.2	53.7
Other	219	46.3	100.0
Employment status			
Employed	299	63.1	63.1
Unemployed	33	7.0	70.1
Retired	34	7.2	77.3
Student	44	9.3	86.6
Other	64	13.4	100.0
Personal income			
No income	21	4.4	4.4
< 920 euros	134	28.3	32.7
920 – 1830 euros	209	44.1	76.8
> 1830 euros	30	6.3	83.1
Do not want to answer	80	16.9	100.0

Source: Own work.

As for marital status, individuals who were married accounted for 36.9%, those in the extramarital community accounted for 29.1% and those who are single accounted for 25.1%. The respondents were from all parts of Slovenia of which the most represented was the

Central Slovenia region at 25.7%, followed by Podravska (15.8 %) and Savinjska (12.2) regions. Respondents are living in rural (44.3 %) and urban areas (35.7%) with 15.6% living in the capital city of Slovenia, Ljubljana and 4.2% in Maribor, the second biggest city in Slovenia. The table containing information about the type of settlement the respondents live in and the household size is presented in Appendix 10. The majority of the respondents (63.1%) were employed, followed by students at 9.3% and retired citizens at 7.2%. In the case of monthly average personal income those who receive an average of 920 euros up to 1380 euros accounted for 44.1% followed by those who receive an average of up to 920 euros and accounted for 28.3%. When looking at an average household income, more than half of the respondents (58.5%) reported an average household income between 1100 euros and 3300 euros (see Appendix 10).

The socio-demographic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 34. and is similar to the general population of Slovenia Demographic characteristics of my sample and the general demographic characteristics of Slovenian population were similar in gender, age, region and employment status (see Appendix 11).

8.1.3 Descriptive statistics

A summary of the descriptive data of individual items for all constructs is presented in Appendix 12. All items measuring the constructs appear in the full range of their respective rating scales (both minimum values and maximum values). Furthermore, sum, mean, standard deviation and variance indicators are presented for each item as well as information about skewness and kurtosis (Appendix 12).

Skewness values indicate the symmetry in a distribution where a perfectly symmetrical distribution has a skewness equal to 0 which means that normal distribution will have a skewness close to 0 (Field, 2009). When the frequent scores are clustered towards the higher or more positive scores, the value of skew is positive (Field, 2009). On the other hand, when the frequent scores are clustered towards the lower more negative scores, the value of skew is negative (Field, 2009). Most of the variables used to measure this study's constructs have negative skewness which means that the values are concentrated on the right side of the probability density function, with more responses being positive. Further, most of the variables (except variables SVR1, SVR2 and SVR3) have skewness values between -1 and 1 as presented in Table 12.1 (Appendix 12). The values indicate positively skewed data and do not indicate any consequential abnormalities in the distribution.

Kurtosis value measures the degree to which scores cluster in the tails of a frequency distribution (Field, 2009). A distribution where Kurtosis values are larger than 0 has many scores in the tails and is peaked, whereas a distribution with negative kurtosis values has few scores in the tails and has a flat shape (Field, 2009). Most of the variables (except variable SVR3) which measure the constructs in my empirical model have kurtosis values close to 0 and overall values do not indicate any consequential abnormalities in the distribution.

8.2 Measurement model and structural model testing

8.2.1 Measurement model

To evaluate my measurement model, I focused on relationships among latent variables and their indicators. I aimed to determine the validity and reliability of the measures of the individual constructs. The analysis was conducted in IBM SPSS Amos 28.

In this chapter I will verify that the measurement items reflecting each latent variable are consistent with each other (scale reliability), and reflect the same latent variable of interest (convergent validity) while making it statistically distinct from other latent variables (discriminant validity), and that the variance each item shares with other items does not relate to an unspecified latent variable (unidimensionality) (Gefen, 2003). This is a crucial step in the research since inadequate reliability, insufficient convergent, and discriminant validity, or a significant lack of unidimensionality, may lead to conclusions that are unjustified or biased (Gefen et al., 2000; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Segars, 1997).

8.2.1.1 Assessment of the model fit

In order for a theoretical model to be acceptable I need to report several model-fit indexes and if a majority of them indicate an acceptable model, then a theoretical model is supported by the data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Model-fit criteria commonly used are chi-square (CMIN, χ^2), the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), and the root-mean-square residual index (SRMR or RMR) (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). These criteria are based on differences between the observed and model-implied variance–covariance matrices (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Several alternative fit indices also include Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Pclose. All of the above mentioned model-fit indexes are presented in Table 35 and explained in the paragraph below.

Chi-square (CMIN). A significant CMIN value in relation to the degrees of freedom indicates that the observed and implied variance–covariance matrices differ (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). CMIN values relative to the degrees of freedom between 1 to 3 are desired since values smaller than 1 indicate an over-fitted model, while higher values than 3 indicate an under-parameterized model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). **The root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)** is a global fit measure and is one of the most widely reported measures of misfit/fit in applications of structural equation modelling (Kelley & Lai, 2011). According to Schumacker and Lomax (2010) RMSEA value of .05 to .08 indicate a close fit. One of the most commonly used incremental fit measures is the **Comparative Fit Index (CFI)** (Kadić-Magalajlić & Vida, 2013). The cutoff value is $>.95$ (Siguaw & Diamantopoulos, 2000) however in general it could be noted that incremental fit measures increase as goodness of fit increases and are bounded above by 1.00 (Baumgartner &

Homburg, 1996). **Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)** quantifies the discrepancies between the sample covariances and the implied ones derived from the parameters and values close to zero indicate an acceptable fit level (Cho et al., 2020). **PClose** is the p-value for rejecting the null hypothesis that the model fits the individual subject's data (James et al., 2009). If a PClose value is less than 0.05 this indicates that RMSEA is greater than zero, and therefore the model does not fit (James et al., 2009). If we observe Table 35, we can see that values off all measures (CMIN, RMSEA, CFI, SRMR and PClose) indicate an excellent model fit. To assess the measurement model, the types of relationship between the latent constructs and the indicators were specified and the reflective approach was applied since indicators in the model were considered to reflect their latent variables (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). The measurement model (without control variables) is presented in Figure 13.1 in Appendix 13.

Table 35: Model fit measures for measurement model (without control variables)

Measure	Estimate	Threshold
CMIN	644.529	
DF	358.000	
CMIN/DF	1.800	Between 1 and 3
CFI	0.964	>0.95
SRMR	0.046	<0.08
RMSEA	0.041	<0.06
PClose	0.998	>0.05

Note: CMIN = Chi-square, DF = Degrees of freedom, RMSEA = The root-mean-square error of approximation, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual, PClose = P-value of the null hypothesis

Source: Own work.

8.2.1.2 Assessment of the unidimensionality

The assumptions supporting the reflective and formative models have been extensively discussed in the literature (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Chang et al., 2016; Coltman et al., 2008; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006; Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001) distinguishing between two sets of measurement assumptions. The first set includes reflective items which are dependent on the value of a latent variable, with the latent variable determining the item scores (Cadogan & Lee, 2013). In other words, when measures are used to examine an underlying construct that is unobservable (i.e., a latent variable), they can be referred to as reflective items (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). Additionally, the unobservable construct, which consists of the reflective items is called a reflective construct (MacCallum & Browne, 1993). The second set of measurement assumptions includes formative items which are items that are determinants of the latent variable and are defined by their items (Bagozzi & Fornell,

1982). All the constructs in this research study are reflective and all the items are dependent on the values of latent variables and thus are considered reflective items.

Achieving unidimensionality of measurement items is crucial for any latent variable (scale) (Gefen, 2003) and is defined as the existence of one latent trait underlying the data (Hattie, 1985) in other words, behind every measurement item there should be only one underlying construct (Gorden, 1977; Hattie, 1985; Hattie et al., 1996). Unidimensionality can also be defined as the absence of measurement bias with respect to any variable that might be relevant in whatever context the test is used (Oort, 1992). If unidimensionality is threatened slightly, ignoring this threat does not noticeably alter the structural model and does not change the pattern of important paths among the latent variables. However, if a violation of unidimensionality is large, this may result in false conclusions (Gefen, 2003). All of the constructs in my model are reflective and to improve construct validity without affecting content validity, individual items can be removed (Petter et al., 2007). The constructs in my model are considered reflective since the latent constructs exist independently of the measures (Hanafiah, 2020). Additionally, they are considered reflective because causality flows from the constructs to the indicators which means that changes in constructs cause changes in the indicators (Hanafiah, 2020).

8.2.1.3 Assessment of reliability and validity

The next step after assessing unidimensionality is observing the reliability of each construct. It is important to assess reliability in this step because when assessing reliability, assuming the items are already unidimensional. Internal consistency is important for reflective constructs and thus reliability measures, such as Cronbach's alpha, are used to ensure the measures are reliable (Gefen, 2003). Reliability is assessed through composite reliability (CR) and convergent validity through an average variance extracted (AVE). Recommended thresholds for these indicators as set in the literature are above 0.5 for average variance extracted (AVE) and above 0.7 for composite reliability (CR) (Awang et al., 2015; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2017). The results show good composite reliability across all constructs, mindfulness, sustainable consumption purchase, second-hand, vintage and rental consumption, consumer happiness, green warm glow and satisfaction with life (see Table 36).

Table 36: Item and composite reliability

Construct	Factor	Items	T- value	St. loadings	CR	AVE
Mindfulness (M)	LMS (NP)*	I make many novel contributions. (LMS3)	-	0.732	0.900	0.564
		I am very creative. (LMS6)	15.851	0.809		
		I find it easy to create new and effective ideas. (LMS11)	15.303	0.773		
	LMS (NS)**	I like to investigate things. (LMS1)	-	0.817		
		I am very curious. (LMS7)	15.291	0.708		
		I like to be challenged intellectually. (LMS10)	14.699	0.683		
		I like to figure out how things work. (LMS13)	15.503	0.717		
Sustainable consumption purchase (SCB)		I buy fairly produced clothes. (SCB4)	-	0.739	0.818	0.529
		I buy ecologically produced clothes from organic materials (e.g., organic cotton) (SCB7)	13.519	0.700		
		I buy clothes with labels that guarantee they are free from chemicals. (SCB12)	13.760	0.715		
		I buy high quality, long-lasting clothes. (SCB13)	14.358	0.755		
Second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR)		I consider a secondhand clothing firstly when buying a garment. (SVR1)	-	0.848	0.859	0.672
		I often purchase an old or a vintage garment. (SVR2)	19.405	0.887		
		I often use clothing rental services. (SVR3)	16.655	0.715		
Consumer Happiness (CH)	Consumer happiness - buying (BUYH)	How much do you think the latest purchase of an apparel item has made you happy? (BUYH1)	-	0.912	0.955	0.779
		How much do you think the latest purchase of an apparel item has contribute to your overall happiness in life? (BUYH2)	32.013	0.914		
		How much do you think the latest purchase of an apparel item has increased the quality of my life? (BUYH3)	31.647	0.910		
	Consumer happiness - general (HC)	How much do clothing items generally contribute to your happiness? (HC1)	-	0.845		
		How much had clothing items generally contributed to your overall life's happiness? (HC2)	22.073	0.842		
		How much do you think clothing items have generally increased your overall life satisfaction? (HC3)	23.029	0.868		

To be continued

Table 36: Item and composite reliability (cont.)

Construct	Factor	Items	T- value	St. loadings	CR	AVE
Green Warm Glow (GWG)		Doing something good for the environment would make me feel positive about myself. (GWG1)	-	0.854	0.904	0.704
		I expect to feel good when I behave environmentally friendly. (GWG2)	25.383	0.915		
		I anticipate that I would feel good when I do something to help the environment. (GWG3)	24.241	0.890		
		I'd feel guilty if I did NOT behave environmentally friendly. (GWG4)	16.265	0.677		
Satisfaction with life (SWL)		In most ways my life is close to my ideal. (SWL1)	-	0.829	0.882	0.599
		The conditions of my life are excellent. (SWL2)	19.203	0.794		
		I am satisfied with my life. (SWL3)	19.798	0.813		
		So far I have gotten the important things I want in life. (SWL4)	17.472	0.738		
		If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing. (SWL5)	15.975	0.688		

Note: * LMS (NP) = the novelty-producing factor of Mindfulness construct; ** LMS (NS) = the novelty-seeking factor of Mindfulness construct; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; St. loadings = Standardized regression weights;

Source: Own work.

I have checked for common method bias with Harman's single factor test in IBM SPSS Statistics 26. A full measurement model was estimated using all items and variables included in the model. The total variance extracted by one factor was 18.411% which is far less than the recommended threshold of 50%, thus the model fits were unacceptable. Based on the results of Harman's test I concluded that it is not likely that my data has a common method bias. As a post-hoc assessment of common method bias, I applied the marker variable technique (Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010). The variable used as a marker variable was "In my spare time, I like listening to music." (see Appendix 14). Based on theoretical and practical considerations, the marker-variable technique seems to be an appealing method to assess the common method variance (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Because the marker variable is assumed to have no relationship with one or more variables in the study, common method variance can be assessed based on the correlation between the marker variable and the theoretically unrelated variable. As shown in Appendix 14 in Table 14.1 the results indicated that a majority of the originally significant correlations remained significant even after controlling for common method variance. As a marker variable did not significantly affect the correlations, I concluded that common method bias is not a threat to the validity

of this study. My findings are consistent with other studies (e.g. Crampton & Wagner III, 1994; Malhotra et al., 2006) in suggesting that method biases are not necessarily present in research design.

In general, a measuring instrument may be reliable but not necessarily valid, however, if a measuring instrument is valid, it is likely to be reliable (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020). Additionally, reliability alone is not sufficient to ensure validity and thus researchers must test the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020).

Construct validity refers to the degree of correspondence between constructs and their measures (Peter, 1981) and refers to whether the measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020). In other words, it is a measure of how well the measuring instrument performs its function (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). Two of the most widely examined aspects of construct validity are convergent validity and discriminant validity (Gefen, 2003) discussed below. The use of a validated measuring instrument ensures that the findings of the study analyses are valid (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020). According to Gefen (2003), convergent validity examines the degree of association between measurement items of a construct, it measures the psychometric accuracy of the latent variable by examining its association with other latent variables.

Discriminant validity, on the other hand, is the degree of uniqueness achieved by item measures in defining a latent construct (Churchill Jr, 1979). Discriminant validity is used to ensure that the observed variables used in the measurement model measure the latent variable (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020). A commonly accepted approach to assessing convergent and discriminant validity is based on the average explained variance (AVE) value for each latent variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). To demonstrate the discriminant validity of a construct, the square root of its AVE must be smaller than its correlation coefficients with other constructs in the measurement model. To establish the convergent validity of a construct, its AVE must be greater than 0.5 (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020). The AVE and CR values of this study are presented in Table 37, which shows that there are no validity concerns in my measurement model. Convergent validity is supported by results reported in Table 37, which shows that all composite reliabilities (CR) exceed the value of 0.8 and the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeds the value of 0.5. Furthermore, the results exhibit support for the discriminant validity for all measures used in this study since the square roots of AVE for all constructs are greater than any of the inter-constructs correlations (Fornell & Lacker, 1981). These results imply that conceptualizations of my six constructs capture different phenomena and provide empirical support for the distinctions between the concepts.

I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which supports the discriminant validity and convergent measurement validity (see Appendix 15). The final measurement model was tested for internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity, all of which were confirmed (Table 37).

Table 37: Convergent validity and discriminant validity results

	CR	AVE	SVR	SCB	GWG	SWL	CH	M
SVR	0.860	0.673	0.820					
SCP	0.818	0.529	0.332***	0.727				
GWG	0.904	0.704	0.134**	0.329***	0.839			
SWL	0.882	0.599	0.105*	0.233***	0.293***	0.774		
CH	0.926	0.864	-0.029	0.160**	0.296***	0.196***	0.930	
M	0.874	0.782	0.178***	0.310***	0.407***	0.397***	0.197***	0.884

The square root of AVE in bold on the diagonal, inter-construct correlations below the diagonal. Significance of the correlations: * $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$; M = Mindfulness, SCB = Sustainable consumption behaviour, SVR = Second-hand vintage and rental consumption, CH = Consumer Happiness, GWG = Green Warm Glow, SWL = Satisfaction with life

Source: Own work.

Indicators for all constructs that were included in the questionnaire were based on existing measurement scales that have been used by other researchers in consumer behaviour research (see Chapter 7). The construct of sustainable consumption (purchase) has been measured by Geiger's SCB acquisition scale (Geiger et al., 2018) (Sustainable consumption purchase, SCP) and Second-hand, vintage and rental scale (SVR) where all items from both scales were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale. The model includes the two dimensions (SCP and SVR) separately where they both reflect the construct of sustainable consumption behaviour. The construct of mindfulness (M) was measured by the Langer mindfulness scale (Pirson et al., 2012), including two dimensions: the novelty-producing factor (NP) and the novelty-seeking factor (NS) as a second-order multidimensional construct where all items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale. Furthermore, the second-order multidimensional construct of consumer happiness (CH) was measured with the scale Level of happiness that clothes bring (Li & Atkinson, 2020) and the Consumer Happiness Regarding the Experience of Buying (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003) where all items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale. The construct of Green warm glow (GWG) was measured with the Green warm glow scale (Jia & van der Linden, 2020) and the construct of Life satisfaction (SWL) was measured with the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985) where items from both scales were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale. For more details about the measurements see Chapter 7.

8.2.2 Structural model testing

In the previous section (8.2.1), the relevant measurement model was examined, which will now be followed by estimating the structural model and testing the research hypotheses following the steps proposed by Gerbing & Anderson (1988). First, I tested my initial model (without control variables) and in the second phase, I added control variables and tested my final model (with control variables). Finally, I present and discuss the results obtained with structural equation modelling assessment for the final model with control variables.

Table 38: Hypothesis overview of the initial model (without control variables) – standardized regression weights

Relationship	St. Estimate (P- value)	Hypothesis	Result
<i>Basic construct relationships</i>			
Mindfulness → Sustainable consumption purchase	0.216 (***)	H1a	Supported
Mindfulness → Second-hand vintage and rental consumption	0.156 (0.007)	H1b	Supported
Mindfulness → Consumer happiness	0.089 (0.103)	H3	Not supported
Sustainable consumption purchase → Consumer happiness	0.081 (0.137)	H2a	Not supported
Second-hand vintage and rental consumption → Consumer Happiness	-0.102 (0.039)	H2b	Not supported
<i>Additional construct relationships</i>			
Green warm glow → Sustainable consumption purchase	0.244 (***)	H4a	Supported
Green warm glow → Second-hand vintage and rental consumption	0.076 (0.175)	H4b	Not supported
Green warm glow → Consumer happiness	0.247 (***)	H5	Supported
Green warm glow → Satisfaction with life	0.118 (0.036)	H7	Supported
Mindfulness → Satisfaction with life	0.300 (***)	H6	Supported
Consumer happiness → Satisfaction with life	0.090 (0.063)	H8	Supported

Significance of the correlations: *p < 0.050, **p < 0.010, ***p < 0.001

Source: Own work.

The initial structural model was estimated with IBM SPSS AMOS 28. Table 38 reproduces the results of the simultaneous test of the hypothesized relationships (without control variables). Results imply that mindfulness is positively associated with sustainable consumption purchase behaviour (SCB) (H1a) and second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR) (H1b). Furthermore, results imply that sustainable consumption purchase (SCP) doesn't have a significant influence on consumer happiness (H2a) and contrary to my hypothesis, second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR) negatively influences consumer happiness (H2b). Therefore, H1a and H1b were confirmed while H2a and H2b were not supported. When it comes to mindfulness having a positive effect on consumer happiness (H3), the relationship was not confirmed. Based on the results of the assessment of the model presented in Table 38, it is evident that hypothesis H3 is not confirmed while H4a is confirmed and H4b is not confirmed. Therefore, green warm glow is positively associated with sustainable consumption purchase (SCP) (H4a), but not with second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR) (H4b). Further, the results indicate that green warm glow has a positive influence on consumer happiness (CH) (H5) and lastly, green warm glow and consumer happiness both have a positive influence on satisfaction with life. Therefore, hypotheses H5, H6, H7 and H8 were supported.

8.2.3 Structural model testing with control variables

To improve the empirical rigour of my model estimation and to rule out endogeneity through omitted variables (Sande & Ghosh, 2018), I included a set of four control variables in my model: age, education, income and gender (see sub-chapter 6.4 for more detail). All the data of the socio-demographic variables were filled out by the participants when they created an online profile on JazVem customer panel. For example, for the age and gender category, participants provided their date of birth and chose between 2 options (female and male). They assessed their average personal income in the last 3 months by choosing one of the 33 available options that spanned from no income to more than 3.000 EUR (e.g. 1.500 EUR to 1.600 EUR), including the answer “I don’t want to answer”. For the education, participants choose one of the 13 options available, from “Primary school – not finished” to “PhD” with the option “I don’t want to answer” included as well (for more details about the socio-demographic questions see subchapter 7.5 Socio-demographic questions) all the questions and answer options are included in Appendix 9.

In the previous subchapter (8.2.1), I tested if my theoretical model is acceptable by reporting several model-fit indexes, where a majority of them indicated an acceptable model. In Table 39 I present model-fit criteria of the final model with control variables. All the presented criteria indicate that my final model with control variables is acceptable. AMOS output of model fit summary (final model with control variables) is included in Appendix 15.

Table 39: Model fit measures – final model with control variables

Measure	Estimate	Threshold
CMIN	806.381	
DF	452.000	
CMIN/DF	1.784	Between 1 and 3
CFI	0.957	>0.95
SRMR	0.052	<0.08
RMSEA	0.041	<0.06
PClose	1.000	>0.05

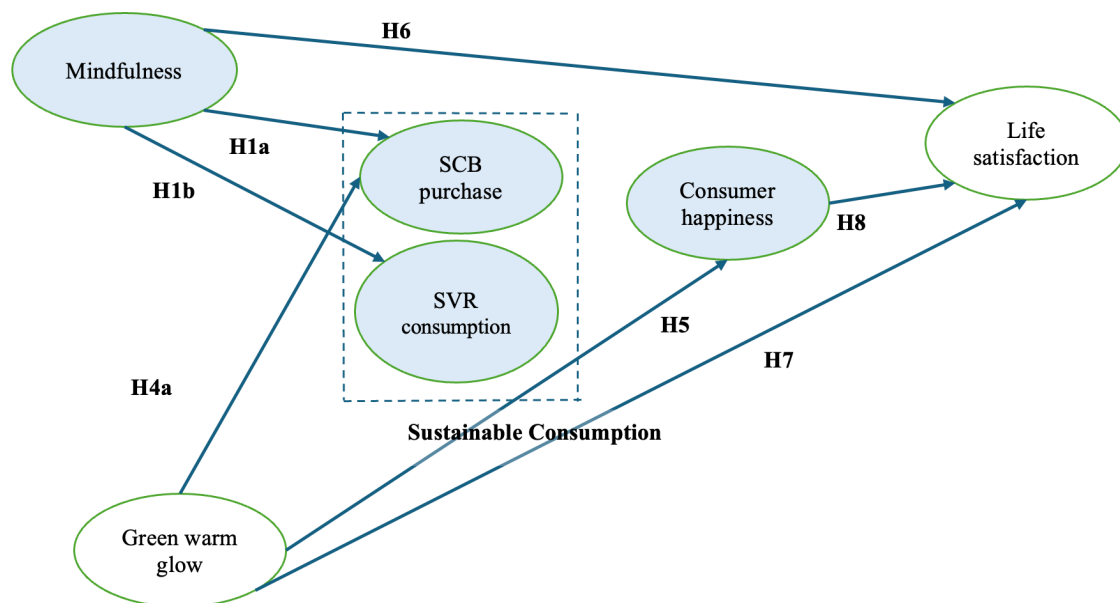
Chi-square (CMIN), Degrees of freedom (DF), The root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), PClose = P-value of the null hypothesis.

Source: Own work.

In my model, I controlled for the effects of age, gender, education and income on four endogenous variables: SCB Purchase, SVR consumption, Consumer happiness and Life Satisfaction where 4 out of 15 relationships were significant for this model (see Table 40). The final model with control variables as tested for model fit is presented in Figure 16.1 in Appendix 16.

The final structural model was estimated with AMOS 28 and Table 40 reproduces the results of the simultaneous test of the hypothesized relationships and paths testing the influence of control variables. Results are similar to the above presented in Table 38 where I tested the model without control variables. From the results resented in Table 40, it is evident that the hypotheses H1a and H1b were supported, while H2a and H2b were not supported. Therefore, mindfulness is positively associated with sustainable consumption purchase (SCP) (H1a) and second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR) (H1b). However, sustainable consumption purchase (SCB) does not influence consumer happiness (H2a) and contrary to my hypothesis, second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR) negatively influences consumer happiness (H2b). The results of CFA also suggest that hypothesis H3 is not supported, indicating that mindfulness does not have a significant effect on consumer happiness. Further, hypotheses H4a is supported and H4b is not supported, indicating that green warm glow is positively associated with sustainable consumption purchase (SCP), but has no significant effect on second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR). Further, hypothesis H5 was supported indicating that green warm glow has a positive influence on consumer happiness. Supported hypothesis H6 indicated that mindfulness has a positive influence on satisfaction with life and supported hypothesis H7 indicated that green warm glow has a positive influence on satisfaction with life. Lastly, the results showed confirmed hypothesis H8, which indicated consumer happiness has a positive effect on satisfaction with life. The empirical model with supported hypotheses is presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Empirical model with supported hypotheses



Source: Own work.

While the effects of gender, age and income were not hypothesized they were controlled for in the analyses. The detailed results focusing on the significant effects are reported in Table 40 after the hypothesized effects under *Control variables*. Key findings are described next.

Table 40: Estimations of the final model with control variables (CFA results with standardized regression weights)

Relationship	St. Estimate (P-value)	Hypothesis	Result
<i>Basic construct relationships</i>			
Mindfulness → SCBpurcahe	0.205 (***)	H1a	Supported
Mindfulness → SVR	0.125 (0.006)	H1b	Supported
Mindfulness → Consumer happiness	0.084 (0.106)	H3	Not supported
SCBpurch → Consumer happiness	0.084 (0.126)	H2a	Not supported
SVR → Consumer happiness	-0.108 (0.029)	H2b	Not supported
<i>Additional construct relationship</i>			
Mindfulness → LifeSatis	0.283 (***)	H6	Supported
Green warm glow → SCBpurch	0.252 (***)	H4a	Supported
Green warm glow → SVR	0.068 (0.222)	H4b	Not supported
Green warm glow → Consumer happiness	0.229 (***)	H5	Supported
Green warm glow → LifeSatis	0.139 (0.012)	H7	Supported
Consumer happiness → LifeSats	0.108 (0.022)	H8	Supported
<i>Unhypothesised relationships</i>			
<i>Control variables</i>			
Age → SCBpurch	0.160 (0.002)	-	Control
Gender → SVR	0.254 (0.059)	-	Control
Income → lifeSatis	0.90 (0.001)	-	Control
Age → lifeSatis	-0.119 (0.010)	-	Control
Education -> SCBPurch	0.035 (0.358)	-	Control
Income -> SCBPurch	0.039 (0.203)	-	Control
Gender -> SCBPurch	0.138 (0.295)	-	Control
Income -> SVR	-0.006 (0.835)	-	Control
Age -> SVR	-0.007 (0.188)	-	Control
Gender -> lifeSatis	0.092 (0.441)	-	Control
Education -> lifeSatis	0.020 (0.563)	-	Control
Gender -> Consumer happiness	0.084 (0.440)	-	Control
Income -> Consumer happiness	-0.032 (0.215)	-	Control
Education -> Consumer happiness	-0.036 (0.250)	-	Control
Age -> Consumer happiness	0.003 (0.465)	-	Control

Significance of the correlations: *p < 0.050, **p < 0.010, ***p < 0.001

Source: Own work.

The results indicate that gender positively and significantly influences second-hand vintage and rental consumption (SVR) which suggests that women are purchasing second-hand and vintage clothes and are using renting services for clothes more than men. Results indicate that age has a positive effect on sustainable consumption purchase (SCB), denoting that older consumers are more likely to engage in sustainable consumption purchases than younger consumers. Further, results show that age negatively and significantly influences satisfaction

with life which suggests that younger consumers experience higher life satisfaction than older consumers. Finally, results indicate that income has a positive effect on satisfaction with life, denoting that consumers with higher incomes experience higher levels of life satisfaction than consumers with lower incomes. The results are presented in Table 40.

8.2.4 Mediation tests

In addition to the hypothesised direct effects, this study also examined the presence of indirect or mediating effects and the overall mediation model using the Hayes Process (Hayes, 2018) in SPSS AMOS to estimate regression models and bootstrap 5000 samples to construct 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals. The direct, indirect and total effects of sustainable consumption and consumer happiness on life satisfaction are presented in Table 41. If the 95% confidence interval does not include zero, mediation is present.

Table 41: Direct, indirect and total effects of antecedents on consumer happiness and life satisfaction

Direct effects	CI (LLCI; ULCI)	Estimate (P)
M → ConsumerHappiness	CI [-.016; .245]	.102 (.106)
M → LS	CI [.172; .561]	.371 (***)
GWG → ConsumerHappiness	CI [.112; .457]	.278 (***)
GWG → LS	CI [.021; .343]	.183 (.012)
SCBpurch → LS	CI [-.029 ; .192]	.083 (.127)
SVR → LS	CI [-.082 ; .100]	.008 (.861)
Indirect effects		Estimates (P)
M → SCBpurch, SVR, ConsumerHappiness → LS	CI [.002; .087]	.037 (.040)
GWG → SCBpurch, SVR, ConsumerHappiness → LS	CI [.017; .127]	.063 (.009)
GWG → SCBpurch, SVR → ConsumerHappiness	CI [-.022; .071]	.017 (.353)
M → SCBpurch, SVR → ConsumerHappiness	CI [-.036; .039]	.001 (.957)
SCBpurch → ConsumerHappiness → LS	CI [-.002; .036]	.009 (.130)
SVR → ConsumerHappiness → LS	CI [-.038; .000]	-.011 (.045)
Total effects		Estimates
M → (SCBpurch, SVR, ConsumerHappiness) → LS	CI [.214; .595]	.408
GWG → (SCBpurch, SVR, ConsumerHappiness) → LS	CI [.084; .410]	.246

*Notes: Bias corrected 95% confidence intervals in square brackets. Significance of regression coefficients: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.*

Source: Own work.

Mediation tests show the mediating role of sustainable consumption and consumer happiness in the relationship between green warm glow and life satisfaction and the mediating role of sustainable consumption and consumer happiness in the relationship between mindfulness

and life satisfaction. Moreover, when accounting for the indirect effects of sustainable consumption and consumer happiness, the direct effects of mindfulness on life satisfaction were significant, the direct effect of green warm glow on consumer happiness was significant and the direct effect of green warm glow on life satisfaction was also shown to be significant. Direct relationships, accounting for the indirect effects of sustainable consumption and consumer happiness, between mindfulness and consumer happiness, and sustainable consumption and life satisfaction were not significant because their confidence intervals contained zeros and P values were above 0.05.

8.3 Discussion

The overall aim of this study was to explore the relationships between mindfulness, sustainable consumption, well-being and life satisfaction, and the impact of green warm glow on sustainable consumption and consumer happiness. This chapter aims to increase understanding of these concepts and their relationship. Many important implications arising from this research for businesses, marketers and government officials are presented in this sub-chapter, as well as a call for further research. I tested my framework and confirmed most of my hypothesised relationships, which are further presented in this chapter with the theoretical implications of this study.

The first objective of this dissertation was to examine the relationship between the constructs of mindfulness and sustainable consumption, including, sustainable consumption purchase and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption. The objective has been accomplished by demonstrating that mindfulness positively affects sustainable consumption. **The second objective** was to offer more insights into the relationship between the constructs of sustainable consumption (including, sustainable consumption purchase and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption) and consumer happiness. I have not completed this objective since the results indicate that part of sustainable consumption, that is sustainable purchasing does not have an effect on consumer happiness. Further, I found the support of second-hand, vintage and rental consumption negatively affecting consumer happiness. **The third objective** included examining the relationship between the constructs of mindfulness and consumer happiness. However, this study could not provide evidence of a significant relationship between these two concepts. **The fourth objective** was to offer more insight into how green warm glow affects sustainable consumption. I have partially completed this objective by providing empirical evidence that green warm glow positively influences sustainable purchasing behaviour. However, this study could not provide evidence for a relationship between green warm glow and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption. **The fifth objective** was to offer more insight into how green warm glow affects consumer happiness. The objective has been met by offering more insight into how green warm glow affects consumer happiness and providing evidence that green warm glow positively affects consumer happiness. **The sixth objective** was to offer more insights into the relationship between the constructs of mindfulness and life satisfaction, which has been achieved by

providing evidence that mindfulness has a positive effect on satisfaction with life. The **seventh objective** was to offer more insight into how green warm glow affects life satisfaction. The objective has been accomplished by offering additional insight into how green warm glow affects satisfaction with life by presenting the positive relationship between these two concepts. Lastly, **the eighth objective** included examining the relationship between the constructs of consumer happiness and life satisfaction which was found to be positive.

Mindfulness and sustainable consumption

In line with Hypothesis 1, study findings support that mindfulness is positively associated with sustainable consumption, including sustainable consumption purchase and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of fashion apparel. Thus, more mindful individuals may generally be inclined to purchase apparel that is considered more sustainable (Sheth et al., 2011). This is in line with the notion that mindful individuals pay attention to their consumption choices and are aware of the consequences their consumption has on the natural environment, community, and themselves (Sheth et al., 2011) and might therefore choose not to buy certain products at all, buy less in general (Rosenberg, 2004) or buy products that represent a more sustainable option (Amel et al., 2009).

Sustainable consumption and consumer happiness

Not in line with my expectations stated in Hypothesis 2a, the results imply that consumers who tend to purchase more sustainable apparel options do not report higher levels of consumer happiness. Furthermore, empirical results do not support Hypothesis 2b and on the contrary, indicate the opposite - that consumers who tend to choose to consume more second-hand, vintage and rental apparel report lower consumer happiness. There might be several reasons for these study's results being contrary to the proposed hypothesis, literature and research review.

Researching the relationships between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness in the qualitative study, I found indication that the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness might be bidirectional since some participants of the study mentioned that a happier consumer will more likely act as a sustainable consumer. Considering this finding, consumer happiness might have a positive effect on sustainable consumption. The evidence of bidirectional relationships might explain the lack of support for Hypothesis 2.

Second-hand vintage and rental consumption can be generated by frugality and as a mechanism to control spending, frugality restricts a person's unnecessary spending to achieve long-term goals (Cervellon et al., 2012). This restriction may include buying new clothes (Herjanto et al., 2016). For these individuals, buying new clothes is seen as a violation of economic value consciousness as well as something that may lead them to become materialistic and compulsive (Herjanto et al., 2016). If frugal consumers choose to

buy second-hand, vintage and rental apparel, it might lead them to not feel particularly happy about their purchase as they strive away from materialism and towards anti-consumerism which could explain the reason why this study indicates that second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of apparel is negatively associated with consumer happiness.

Further, I present the second alternative explanation. Originally, researchers believed that the consumption of second-hand vintage and rental apparel items was primarily determined by the financial situation of the consumer (Guiot & Roux, 2008). In reality, the motivations for second-hand vintage and rental apparel items consumption are complex and are caused by various factors that include ethical beliefs, originality, nostalgic pleasure, self-expression, social pressure, treasure hunting, etc., and can generally be categorised into different components, of which the economic component is only one. Some authors (e.g. Hossain, 2005; Parsons, 2000) argue that in situations of economic hardship, income can be the strongest determinant of individual consumption and that people with lower incomes simply cannot afford to buy new clothes and are therefore forced to consume second-hand vintage and rental apparel items. If consumers buy second-hand vintage and rental apparel items because they are forced to, due to their financial situation, they might not be happy with the purchased items which could further explain the reason this study indicates that second-hand, vintage and rental consumption is negatively associated with consumer happiness.

Lastly, I present the third alternative explanation. My qualitative study (introduced in Chapter 5) suggests that there might be a negative relationship between sustainable consumption and well-being of consumers. One participant expressed the opinion that a sustainable consumer is often less happy with the purchase of clothing items because the purchased items need to live up to their personal sustainability standards that not many purchased items meet. Veenhoven (2004) argues that a shift to sustainable consumption may be accompanied by a small temporary reduction in happiness. Happiness is commonly associated with a high material standard of living and many purchases are driven by the expectation that they will make life more satisfying, which is also supported by data showing modest positive effects of material wealth. This view is also echoed in mainstream economic theory, which assumes that people will be happier if they consume more, even though marginal utility may decline. Veenhoven (2004) therefore concludes, that a shift to sustainable consumption will not lead to a greater number of people in the current generation becoming happier, but will at least temporarily involve a modest sacrifice of happiness. This might also explain my results that indicate consumers who consume second-hand vintage and rental fashion apparel report lower consumer happiness.

Green warm glow and sustainable consumption

In line with Hypothesis 4a, study findings show that green warm glow is positively associated with sustainable consumption purchases. However, the findings do not support Hypothesis 4b that green warm glow is positively associated with second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of fashion apparel items. Researchers have demonstrated that acting pro-

environmentally can be psychologically rewarding and green warm glow has been shown to motivate pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003). Green warm glow has also been shown to motivate pro-social behaviour (Chiengkul et al., 2023) such as choosing to purchase a more sustainable option, including fashion apparel made out of ecologically friendly recycled or recyclable material, or made in a socially responsible way which this study supports. However, many consumers exhibit inconsistent attitudes and behaviours towards sustainability (Han, Seo, & Ko, 2017). Studies have shown that while many consumers are aware of the negative social and environmental impacts of clothing production, for many this has little to no impact on their purchasing decisions (Eckhardt et al., 2010; Han et al., 2017; Iwanow, McEachern, & Jeffrey, 2005). This might explain the lack of effect of green warm glow on second-hand, vintage and rental consumption.

Further, some second-hand stores offer only expensive vintage designer apparel (for example, a second-hand store in Ljubljana 2ND CHANCE offering apparel items from fashion brands such as Karl Lagerfeld, Gucci, Louis Vuitton, Valentino...). In addition, some rental services offer only high-fashion designer items that are highly priced which might be an additional barrier to purchasing second-hand and vintage clothing or renting clothes for special occasions. This might also explain the low effect green warm glow has on second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of fashion apparel. Additionally, second-hand stores and rental services are not readily available shopping options in Slovenia. For example, in 2021 in Slovenia, there were approximately 20 physical and online second-hand stores (Veger, 2021) and thus not many consumers choose to buy their clothes in this way. This is also supported by this study's results, showing that approximately 75% of the participants never or very seldom buy second-hand, vintage and rental fashion apparel (Appendix 17). Since many consumers are unwilling to pay a higher price for sustainable products (Schleiden & Neiberger, 2020; Tascioglu et al., 2019) and there might not be enough supply or stores in their vicinity, this might be the reason why this study did not support the positive relationship between green warm glow and second-hand, vintage and rental consumption.

Mindfulness, consumer happiness and life satisfaction

In line with Hypothesis 6, study findings support that mindfulness is positively associated with satisfaction with life. However, I did not find empirical support for Hypothesis 3 that mindfulness is positively associated with consumer happiness, indicating that more mindful consumers are generally more satisfied with their lives but do not report higher consumer happiness. The results of this study thus do not support the notion that mindful consumption can have a great impact on consumer well-being (Bahl et al., 2016). Researching the relationships between mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer happiness in the qualitative study, I find evidence of bidirectional relationships between the concepts. Such as mindfulness can play the role of an antecedent as well as a consequence of consumer happiness. The evidence of bidirectional relationships might explain the lack of support for Hypothesis 3. Mindfulness is also relevant in a variety of consumer behaviour issues, such

as consumer decision-making, marketing communication, and persuasion where it could change consumer behaviour and lead to higher levels of well-being (Brunel & Dong, 2006). Furthermore, mindfulness has been theorized to lead to higher levels of psychological well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995) and improved overall quality of life (Keng et al., 2011) as well as greater life satisfaction (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kong et al., 2014; Stolarski et al., 2016). Studies thus far have established a positive relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction which is supported by this quantitative study.

Green warm glow, consumer happiness and life satisfaction

In line with Hypothesis 5, and Hypothesis 7 study findings support that green warm glow is positively associated with consumer happiness as well as satisfaction with life. Videras and Owen (2006) show that people who contribute to environmental protection are happier and report higher levels of life satisfaction. This positive relationship between environmentally friendly behaviour and well-being as well as satisfaction with life due to green warm glow is also supported by the results of this study.

Consumer happiness and life satisfaction

In line with Hypothesis 8, study findings support that consumer happiness is positively associated with satisfaction with life, indicating that consumers who are happier with their purchase experience and report higher levels of happiness with their apparel items are also experiencing higher life satisfaction. The two concepts, consumer happiness and satisfaction with life are closely related since the pleasure of buying contributes to overall life happiness. This relationship is also seen as individuals experience happiness in different areas of life, including purchasing and consuming products (Andrews et al., 1976) with life satisfaction at the top of the domains (Olsen et al., 2022) which is in line with this study's results.

Income, age and gender

This study revealed that women tend to engage in second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of fashion apparel items more often than men and are using renting services for clothes more often than men. This is somewhat in line with other research that showed women are more likely to engage in ecologically conscious consumption and environmental apparel purchase (Gupta et al., 2019) and engage in sustainable consumption in general (Banytė et al., 2020). Data also shows that women more frequently buy second-hand clothes from online stores (Statista, 2023). A study by Markova and Grajeda (2018) shows that women would more often than men, purchase second-hand clothing through social media or an online presence (Markova & Grajeda, 2018). In line with the research on life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999; Howell & Howell, 2008; Soto & Luhmann, 2013; Zakershaharak et al., 2023), this study results also show that people with higher incomes experience higher life satisfaction. Further, this quantitative study results suggest that younger people experience higher life satisfaction than older people which was also the case in a study by Daig et al. (2009). Further, this study revealed that older people tend to purchase more sustainable

fashion apparel than younger people which is in line with the study examining sustainable consumption of adults where it has been shown that older individuals tend to implement more sustainability-related savings at home in comparison to younger individuals (Banytė et al., 2020).

9 GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This is the last chapter of the dissertation, in which all the research results presented in the previous chapters will be summarised. I will first summarise the main findings, followed by the implications and contributions, including the theoretical and practical implications of my research. Finally, I will outline the main limitations of this research and make suggestions for future research.

9.1 Summary of the main findings

The dissertation is structured into nine different chapters (Figure 7). In the first part of this dissertation, Chapter 2, Chapter 3, and Chapter 4 assert that the relationships between sustainable consumption, mindfulness, consumer well-being, green warm glow, and life satisfaction should be better understood. Consequently, these three chapters lay the foundations for the thesis and begin the process of answering the research questions posed. Chapter 2 explores the sustainability of fashion apparel, operationalises sustainable consumption, and concludes by introducing the concept of warm glow as a precursor to sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction. Chapter 3 introduces the concept of mindfulness, discusses mindfulness in the context of consumption, and concludes with the results of the literature review showing a positive relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption. The final chapter in the first part of this dissertation addresses the concept of consumer happiness or well-being, and lays the groundwork for operationalising this construct. In line with the comprehensive literature review, I show that mindfulness and sustainable consumption have a positive impact on consumer well-being, and conclude the chapter with a presentation and operationalisation of the construct of life satisfaction.

The second part of this research comprises the qualitative study conducted for the purposes of this dissertation, which is presented in Chapter 5. The study uses in-depth interviews with individual consumers to further explain our understanding of the mechanisms of mindfulness and to explore the impact of sustainable consumption on well-being in the context of fashion apparel consumption. The key research questions of the qualitative study were: RQ1. How are the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption connected? RQ2. Does consumer mindfulness reflect consumer happiness or well-being? And RQ3. Is sustainable consumption positively associated with consumer well-being? The findings of the qualitative research complement the conclusions of our literature review. Some of the main conclusions of this chapter illustrate a link between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being,

and point to the connection and overlap between the concepts of mindfulness and sustainable consumption, which I explore further in the subsequent quantitative research. The results also suggest a positive association between mindfulness and overall life satisfaction and the emergence of the green warm glow construct. In addition, the results show the positive effects of sustainable consumption and mindfulness. The findings on the relationships between the construct of mindfulness, sustainable consumption, and consumer well-being add to the current body of knowledge by bridging the gap between mindfulness theory and positive psychology theory.

Figure 7: Summary of research main findings

Dissertation part	Chapter and Title	Main Findings
1.	Chapter 2: Sustainable Consumption of Fashion Apparel – Literature Review Chapter 3: Mindfulness - Literature Review Chapter 4: Consumer Well-Being as a Concept – Literature Review	- Mindfulness is a precursor to sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction. - Warm glow has a positive effect on sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, and life satisfaction. - Sustainable consumption has a positive effect on consumer well-being. - Consumer well-being has a positive effect on life satisfaction.
2.	Chapter 5: Preliminary qualitative research	- A link between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being. - A link between mindfulness and sustainable consumption. - The emergence of the warm glow construct. - Mindfulness is positively related to overall life satisfaction. - Sustainable consumption has a positive effect on mindfulness.
3.	Chapter 6: Hypothesis and Conceptual Model Development Chapter 7: Quantitative Research Methodology Chapter 8: Analysis and Results of Empirical Research	- Mindfulness has a positive effect on sustainable consumption (H1). - Mindfulness has a positive effect on consumer well-being and life satisfaction (H3, H6). - Sustainable consumption is not positively associated with consumer well-being (H2). - Warm glow is positively associated with sustainable consumption (H4a). - Warm glow has a positive effect on second-hand, vintage and rental consumption (H4b). - Warm glow has a positive effect on consumer well-being and life satisfaction (H5, H7). - Consumer well-being has a positive effect on life satisfaction (H8).
4.	Chapter 9: General Discussion and Conclusion	

Source: Own work.

The findings of the qualitative study complement the theoretical framework, help develop the hypotheses presented, and serve as the basis for the quantitative study that follows. I first explore and present the three main underlying theories that run through my research: the Self-Determination theory, the Mindfulness-Sustainability framework, and the Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory. These theoretical perspectives complement our research and can help to better explain the relationship between sustainable consumption, mindfulness, consumer well-being, life satisfaction, and green warm glow. I also present the main conceptual model to be tested in the quantitative study, develop the main research hypotheses and additional hypotheses, and present the control variables (Chapter 6). Further, I aim to improve understanding of the relationships between the constructs of mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, green warm glow and life satisfaction through carefully planned quantitative research. I set out the research questions and propose a research design and methods to be used in the quantitative study. In addition, all operationalisations of all constructs of the conceptual model that need to be tested are presented (Chapter 7).

Through testing the measurement model and analysing the structural model, the results of the quantitative analysis show that there is a positive and significant relationship between mindfulness and the consumption of sustainable fashion, which is in line with the first hypothesis (H1). This is consistent with research showing that mindful individuals pay more attention to their consumption choices and are aware of the consequences of their consumption on the natural environment, the community and themselves (Sheth et al., 2011) and therefore tend to buy more sustainable products (Amel et al., 2009). Furthermore, this hypothesis is also supported by the results of qualitative research, which suggest that mindful consumers tend to be more sustainable consumers.

Based on the qualitative research and the literature review, H2 suggests that sustainable consumption has a positive impact on consumer well-being. On the other hand, H2 could not be confirmed with quantitative research. The results suggest that sustainable consumption is not related to consumer happiness, i.e., consumers who tend to purchase sustainable clothing do not report higher consumer happiness, and consumers who tend to consume more second-hand, vintage, and rental clothing show lower consumer happiness. There might be several reasons why the results of this study contradict the proposed hypothesis. Firstly, the qualitative study provided indication that the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness might be bidirectional. In view of this, consumer happiness might have a positive effect on sustainable consumption and thus explain the lack of a positive relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness in the quantitative study. Secondly, the consumption of second-hand, vintage and rental items as part of sustainable consumption may arise from frugality (Cervellon et al., 2012) and buying new clothes could be seen as something negative, leading to a significant negative relationship between the consumption of second-hand, vintage and rental consumption and consumer happiness. Thirdly, the consumption of second-hand, vintage and rental apparel items might be primarily determined by the consumer's financial situation (Guiot & Roux, 2008). This idea is also in line with the qualitative research in this dissertation, where some participants felt that buying apparel items in second-hand stores is a consequence of the consumer's poor financial situation. Thus, if consumers are forced to buy second-hand clothing, they may not be happy with the items they buy. This could be another explanation for why this quantitative study shows that the consumption of second-hand, vintage and rental items is negatively associated with consumer happiness. Fourthly, my qualitative study suggests that there may even be a negative relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being, as participants argued that a sustainable consumer may be less happy with the items purchased because the items do not meet their sustainability standards. This could also explain the results of my quantitative study, which shows no significant positive relationship between sustainable consumption purchases and consumer happiness and also indicates that consumers who consume second-hand vintage and rental fashion have lower levels of consumer happiness. Fifthly, the lack of evidence found to support the positive relationship between the concepts of sustainable consumption and consumer well-being could also be explained by the theoretical arguments and empirical

evidence of Venhoeven et al. (2013) that sustainable behaviours can both decrease and increase consumer well-being. The authors conclude that pro-environmental behaviour may reduce well-being because a) protecting the environment may be unattainable, making this goal a burden; b) pro-environmental behaviour may imply consuming less and sustainable consumption being less comfortable than environmentally harmful alternatives; c) a decrease in consumption may lead to a decrease in well-being. Additionally, authors conclude that people may still experience a sense of progress towards a pro-environmental goal and thus, pro-environmental behaviour does not necessarily lead to a decrease in well-being. Regarding the relationship between consumption and well-being, reducing or changing consumption for pro-environmental reasons does not necessarily lead to a decrease in well-being. In fact, pro-environmental behaviour can be a source of meaning in life itself and thus directly increase well-being.

The literature review suggests that mindfulness has a positive impact on consumer well-being, which was also supported by the results of my qualitative study. In the study, participants spoke of mindful consumers being happier, more satisfied and more fulfilled with their purchases. However, the results of the quantitative study show that mindfulness is not positively related to consumer well-being (H3), suggesting that more mindful consumers do not tend to have higher consumer well-being. There could be several reasons why the hypothesis was not confirmed in the quantitative study. Firstly, the qualitative study suggests that there may be a bidirectional relationship. Here, mindfulness may play the role of antecedent or a consequence of consumer happiness. Secondly, the qualitative study showed that there could also be negative effects of mindfulness on consumer happiness. Participants in the study spoke of mindful consumers being less happy because they are aware of the negative consequences of their choices when consuming products. Thirdly, the qualitative study shows that mindfulness might have a positive impact on a person's well-being and happiness in the absence of consumption. As the quantitative study focussed on the relationship between mindfulness and consumer happiness and not on overall happiness, this could explain the unsupported hypothesis H3. In line with the literature review and qualitative study, the results of the quantitative study demonstrate that mindfulness is positively related to life satisfaction (H6), suggesting that more mindful consumers are more satisfied with their lives.

Research has shown that green warm glow motivates pro-environmental behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003) and the literature review presented in this dissertation shows that green warm glow positively influences sustainable consumption, which supports hypothesis H4. Furthermore, the results of the quantitative study partially support H4 by showing that green warm glow is positively associated with sustainable consumption, but not with the consumption of second-hand, vintage and rental clothing. One explanation for this non-significant effect of green warm glow on second-hand, vintage and rental clothing consumption might be that second-hand, vintage and rental clothing stores are very rarely visited by Slovenian consumers and the

Slovenian second-hand market is still in the early stages of its development. This is supported by the qualitative and quantitative studies, where only a few participants of the qualitative study (Slovenian consumers) shop in second-hand, vintage or rental stores and about 75 % of the participants of the quantitative study never or very rarely buy second-hand, vintage and rental fashion apparel. In addition, second-hand stores and rental services are not easily accessible shopping options in Slovenia (Veger, 2021). The results of the qualitative study also show that Slovenian consumers either did not know where the second-hand stores were located or that they were too far away. In addition, the participants of the qualitative study stated that people who shop in second-hand stores are in financial need and since they (participants) have enough money to buy new clothes, they do not visit second-hand stores. Participants also mentioned second-hand stores did not have enough to offer, that they were afraid of skin diseases and indicated prejudices against second-hand stores. Finally, the difference between the markets compared to other research on the US market could be the reason why the quantitative study did not find a positive correlation between green warm glow and the consumption of second-hand, vintage and rental apparel. Consumers' motivation for buying second-hand clothing could be psychological, such as morality, image, value, materialism, nostalgia, uniqueness, authenticity and social norms. The decision to purchase or not to purchase second-hand and vintage apparel might also be due to the cultural dimension, which is closely related to the individual's cultural and ethnic ideology that determines the purchase of second-hand and vintage clothing (Herjanto et al., 2016), and the hygienic concerns, stigma or cultural factors could outweigh the benefits of feeling good about doing something good for the planet and people. This could be the third explanation for why this relationship was not found to be significant in the quantitative study. The fourth explanation could be that consumer awareness and information about sustainable fashion are still not very pronounced (Gonzalez, 2015; Ronda, 2023; Saha et al., 2019). This could indicate that some consumers are not fully aware of the environmental benefits of second-hand clothing and therefore do not associate this type of purchase with something good for the environment. Furthermore, this could explain the positive effect of green warm glow on sustainable apparel purchases and not on second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of fashion apparel.

The results of the quantitative study show that green warm glow is positively associated with consumer well-being and life satisfaction, which supports hypotheses H5 and H7. This is consistent with research showing that people who contribute to environmental protection are happier and report higher levels of life satisfaction and well-being (Videras & Owen, 2006; Özer, 2014).

Life satisfaction as a general concept and consumer happiness with a product or service are closely related and can overlap. Based on the bottom-up spillover theory of life satisfaction, researchers (Lee et al. 2014; Sirgy 2012) assume that enjoyment of buying contributes to overall life happiness. Consistent with hypothesis H8, the quantitative study shows that consumer happiness is positively related to life satisfaction. This means that consumers who

are happier with their purchase experience and report higher levels of happiness with their garments also have higher levels of life satisfaction.

The results of qualitative and quantitative studies presented in this dissertation provide us with important insights into the complex relationships between the constructs of mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, green warm glow, and life satisfaction.

9.2 Implications and Contribution

This thesis consists of a literature review of five concepts, a qualitative study, and a quantitative study conducted with the aim of demonstrating the relationships between these areas (i.e., sustainable consumption, mindfulness, consumer well-being, green warm glow, and life satisfaction) in the context of fashion apparel consumption. The following subsections discuss the contributions, implications, and limitations of this research.

9.2.1 Theoretical contributions

This dissertation makes several theoretical contributions. The theoretical contribution of Chapter 2 is the contribution to the literature on sustainable consumption, with a comprehensive overview of the concept of sustainable consumption in the context of fashion apparel. The theoretical contribution of Chapter 3 lies in the comprehensive overview of mindfulness in consumer research in the context of consumption and the literature review on the relationship between concepts of sustainable consumption and mindfulness. Chapter 4 contributes to the literature on consumer well-being with a comprehensive review of the literature on consumer happiness and well-being. In addition, the theoretical contribution in Chapter 4 includes a literature review on the relationship between sustainable consumption, consumer well-being and mindfulness concepts.

The main theoretical contribution of the qualitative study lies in the findings on the relationships between the constructs of sustainable consumption, mindfulness and well-being. The results contribute to current knowledge by bridging the gap between mindfulness theory and positive psychology theory by showing a clear positive as well as an unexpected negative relationship between consumers' mindfulness and their well-being. Furthermore, the qualitative study illustrates a link between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being. With the results presented in the qualitative study, I contribute to the current state of knowledge in consumer behaviour research.

The main theoretical contribution of the quantitative study lies in the proposed theoretical framework for the relationships between consumer mindfulness, sustainable consumption, consumer well-being, individual life satisfaction and green warm glow. The model tested has several important implications and sheds light on how mindfulness and green warm glow

influence sustainable consumption, consumer happiness, and individual life satisfaction. This study contributes to the scientific literature on the role of mindfulness as an antecedent of sustainable consumption and life satisfaction, and on the role of green warm glow as an antecedent of sustainable purchasing behaviour, consumer happiness and life satisfaction. Although previous studies have investigated and explored how mindfulness affects sustainability and pro-environmental behaviour (Bahl et al., 2016; Brown & Kasser, 2005b; Fischer, Böhme, et al., 2017; Geiger et al., 2020b; Rosenberg, 2004; Siqueira & Pitassi, 2016) academic studies on mindfulness remain scarce in terms of sustainability research (Wamsler, 2018). Further, most of the studies done so far found modest positive relationships between different aspects of mindfulness and different types of self-reported sustainable consumption behaviour (Geiger et al., 2020). This dissertation further contributes to a better understanding of the relationship between mindfulness and the sustainable consumption of fashion apparel products, by suggesting that more mindful consumers may be inclined to purchase apparel that is considered more sustainable. Researchers have studied warm glow as an antecedent of a person's well-being, happiness, and emotional benefits (Aknin et al. 2012; Becchetti & Degli Antoni, 2010; Videras & Owen, 2006). In addition, the quantitative study further contributes to the literature on consumer behaviour by showing green warm glow as an antecedent to consumer happiness and life satisfaction.

The literature review on warm glow and sustainable consumption in this dissertation suggests that green warm glow significantly relates to pro-environmental consumer behaviour (e.g. Hartmann et al., 2017; Ahn & Lee, 2019; Chiengkul et al., 2023). Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003). However, the literature review also reveals the underresearched area of the relationship between these two concepts in marketing and consumer behaviour research. The findings of the quantitative study further contribute to the literature on consumer behaviour by showing green warm glow as an antecedent to sustainable consumption behaviour in the context of fashion apparel.

A review of the existing literature on consumer happiness and well-being indicates that there are several competing or alternative models that aim to explore the dynamics of consumer happiness (e.g., El Hedhli et al., 2013; Sheth et al., 2011; Swart & Rothmann, 2012; Yang & Stening, 2012; Yang Zhong & Mitchell, 2013). Namely, several studies and theoretical frameworks conceptualise and study the connections between sustainability and positive psychology as the main disciplines fundamental to the various concepts of well-being (Dettori & Floris, 2019). Nonetheless, the three constructs – sustainable consumption, mindfulness, and consumer well-being - have rarely been combined in a single study. Given the need for a more overarching approach, this study proposes a framework for the relationship between mindfulness, sustainable consumption, and consumer well-being, and additional constructs of green warm glow and life satisfaction. The model shows that consumer mindfulness is positively associated with sustainable consumption and consumer life satisfaction. In addition, the model shows that green warm glow is partially positively

associated with sustainable consumption and positively associated with consumer happiness and life satisfaction. From a theoretical perspective, this is the first attempt to link all five constructs within the parameters of the same model.

Important contributions in consumer research and marketing often arise from pre-existing theoretical perspectives (Dolbec et al., 2021), in this case, Self-determination theory, Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory, and Mindfulness-sustainability framework. This dissertation advances these theories by exploring them in the context of sustainable fashion apparel consumption and further substantiates them by demonstrating the positive impact of mindfulness on individuals' life satisfaction and presenting the positive relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption.

Since many of the theories deployed are not built with marketing management applications in mind, novel combinations of some kind emerge when applied to marketing problems (Dolbec et al., 2021). The novelty of this research thus lies in how we can use Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory and Mindfulness-sustainability framework to enable policymakers and businesses to influence or transform consumption behaviours. The originality of the research idea and the novelty of contributions can also be measured by observing the exchanges that occur among different schools of thought. Such exchanges are a foundation for interdisciplinary dialogue that may be vital to tackling emergent sociocultural problems that span across disciplines (Dolbec et al., 2021). This dissertation offers a novel contribution to consumer research by tightly binding the mindfulness theory with positive psychology theory, thus creating a dialogue between different disciplines, such as psychology, marketing research and environmental research. Additionally, this dissertation offers a novel theoretical contribution by gathering Mindfulness-to-meaning theory, Mindfulness-sustainability framework and Self-Determination theory in one conceptual model.

Considering the absence of studies on mindfulness in the context of sustainable fashion apparel consumption my research studies contribute to the consumer behaviour research field by providing a deeper understanding of the role mindfulness plays in the consumption of sustainable products. Additionally, both qualitative and quantitative studies present findings regarding the second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of fashion apparel. These findings represent a novel contribution to consumer research as they provide a deeper understanding of how consumers perceive second-hand fashion apparel and second-hand stores and products.

Lastly, the empirical model presented and tested in this dissertation includes a construct of green warm glow that is novel to consumer behaviour research, especially in the context of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel products. As the quantitative study shows, green warm glow can have a significantly positive effect on sustainable consumption, consumer happiness and life satisfaction. These findings can make a novel contribution to marketing research by helping to better explain processes that lead to previously under-theorised concepts (e.g. green warm glow, sustainable consumption). In addition, this dissertation

brings together findings from qualitative and quantitative studies to identify important antecedents to sustainable consumption. These findings contribute to consumer research by shedding light on what influences individual's decisions when buying sustainable fashion apparel. In addition, the findings uncover an emerging trend of green warm glow as a precursor to sustainable purchasing behaviour, which may influence the development of marketing strategies for companies producing and/or selling sustainable fashion apparel. In addition, these findings contribute to consumer research by deepening our understanding of consumer instinct motivation to consume sustainable products.

This dissertation contributes to consumer behaviour research by presenting the theoretical framework that implies how sustainable consumer behaviour, consumer happiness, and overall life satisfaction can be influenced. As the fashion industry contributes to environmental degradation and is socially irresponsible, the current socio-environmental crisis requires new strategies to quickly transform our society into a more sustainable one (Milne et al., 2020). This research combines the literature on sustainable consumption with pro-environmental and pro-social behaviour, resulting in the emotional benefit of warm glow leading to increased sustainable consumption. This dissertation provides two possible responses to the unsustainable consumption and overconsumption problem: first, greater consumer mindfulness, and second, a deeper understanding of how green warm glow promotes more sustainable consumption, happier consumers, and greater life satisfaction for people. In addition, this study shows how more sustainable consumption can be promoted by individuals adopting a mindful attitude. This dissertation makes an important contribution by highlighting the usefulness of mindfulness for buying sustainable clothing items, as well as for second-hand, vintage, and rental clothing consumption.

The main contribution of this thesis lies in the establishment of theoretically supported links based on Self-Determination theory, Mindfulness-Sustainability framework and Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory. In the following sections, I present suggestions for theory building related to the findings of the qualitative and quantitative studies in this dissertation.

Self-Determination theory (SDT) is a comprehensive theory of human motivation, personality development and well-being, as it assumes that the fulfilment of certain needs promotes well-being (Kim et al., 2016). Based on the SDT, I propose a conceptual model that includes sustainable consumption as part of universal basic psychological needs and as the SDT assumes, the fulfilment of these needs will promote well-being (Kim et al., 2016). The conceptual model thus includes a positive relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness and between consumer happiness and life satisfaction, which is in line with other research frameworks based on this theory (e.g. Kim, Manchiraju, May, & Fincham, 2016). With this research, I add to the SDT by showing its application in the context of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel.

The Self-Determination theory (SDT), one of the most widely researched and applied theories in psychology today, is relevant to both the basic science of motivation and

development as well as applied fields such as parenting, education, organisations, sport, healthcare and technology (Ryan & Deci, 2019). SDT has been applied in various industry and geographic contexts. In the context of the Slovenian population, SDT has been applied in areas such as education (Bardorfer & Dolenc, 2022; Erpič, 2013), management (Gorenšek, 2020; Šarotar Žižek et al., 2017), parenting (Vodopivec, 2017; Zupančič et al., 2014) and consumer studies (Grum & Grum, 2014; Šumak et al., 2014). In studies conducted outside Slovenia, it has been applied in the aforementioned areas and various industry contexts, including technology (Wang & Li, 2014), consumer studies (Ábrahám et al., 2012; Lau & Ki, 2021), sustainable consumer behaviour studies (D'Angelo et al., 2023; Gilal et al., 2020; Ki & Kim, 2016; Olanipekun et al., 2018; Prothero et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2021; Webb et al., 2013) as well as fashion industry context (Ki & Kim, 2016). Following the contrasting theory elaboration approach by Fisher and Aguinis (2017), I have advanced the SDT theory by presenting the SDT theoretical constructs and relationships in the context of Slovenian consumers and the context of sustainable fashion apparel. Theory elaboration is the process of using pre-existing conceptual ideas as a basis for developing new theoretical insights by contrasting, specifying or structuring theoretical constructs and relationships to explain and account for empirical observations (Fisher & Aguinis, 2017). My qualitative study points to a positive effect of sustainable consumption on consumer happiness and thus supports the generalizability of SDT and develops a deeper understanding of the nature of the theory. However, theories are developed to account for how and why certain things happen in a certain way and an additional fruitful setting for theory elaboration is to explain phenomena that work differently from what is typically considered or evaluated (Fisher & Aguinis, 2017). Surprisingly, the qualitative study shows both, a negative relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness as well as a positive relationship between these two constructs. The quantitative study also found a partially negative relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness. These results may suggest that the SDT needs to be modified for the context of Slovenian consumers and sustainable fashion consumption, although it is a well-established theory consistent across time and different contexts. The construct of green warm glow has been used in the SDT and applied to the context of consumer experience (Alhouthi et al., 2021) and the context of consumer behaviour (Guanyu & Shumin, 2021). However, to the best of my knowledge, the construct of green warm glow has not been used in the SDT in the context of sustainable consumption of fashion apparel. Applying SDT with the construct of green warm glow in a different context adds to the generalizability of the theory.

Mindfulness diffuses through critical components of SDT and is considered an essential part of well-being (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). The conceptual model of this research is heavily related to the SDT as I try to understand how mindfulness relates to sustainable consumption of apparel products as well as how mindfulness relates to life satisfaction. When awareness of circumstances is heightened, people are better able to pay attention to the impulses arising from basic needs and to consciously regulate their actions thus increasing their overall well-being in life (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). Further, mindfulness contributes to the vividness of

present experience (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kabat-Zinn, 2005) and becomes a central tool for an autonomous, vital life (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). This research adds to this theory by validating the existence of the positive relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption and the positive relationship between mindfulness and overall life satisfaction.

The Mindfulness-Sustainability framework (MSF) analyses the link between mindfulness and sustainability, including subjective well-being, consumption and sustainable behaviour, social activism and conscious, flexible and adaptive responses to climate change (Geiger, Fischer, & Schrader, 2018). MSF has been applied across different industries, geographic contexts, and consumer research contexts (Frank et al., 2021; Geiger et al., 2019; Helm & Subramaniam, 2019; Thiermann & Sheate, 2021). As far as my knowledge goes, there is no application of the MSF in the context of Slovenian consumers, nor are there any studies applying this framework in the context of sustainable fashion consumption. The results of my qualitative and quantitative studies show a positive relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption in the context of sustainable fashion apparel consumption among Slovenian consumers, adding to the generalisability of this theory. However, the inclusion of the construct of consumer well-being or happiness points to an aspect of this theory that could be context-specific. Namely, the qualitative study suggests a negative relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness and a negative relationship between mindfulness and consumer happiness. With these findings, I offer a deeper understanding of how the elements of a theory vary when applied in a different context. Following Fisher and Aguinis' (2017) construct specification approach, I further developed the MSF by identifying and defining a construct not previously considered in existing theory – the construct of green warm glow. Another approach to improve or advance a theory is to identify and describe specific relationships between constructs that have not been previously described (Fisher & Aguinis, 2017). The qualitative study presented in this dissertation shows a bidirectional relationship between sustainable consumption and mindfulness, as well as a negative relationship between these two constructs. These findings may suggest that the MSF needs to be adapted for the context of sustainable fashion consumption or the context of Slovenian consumers. As sound theories remain consistent across time and space, and researchers are often too quick to adapt theories for new contexts (Pfeffer, 2013), further studies applying the MSF in the context of sustainable fashion apparel consumption and/or among Slovenian consumers are needed.

Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory (MMT) provides a detailed process model of the mechanisms by which mindfulness may promote well-being (Garland & Fredrickson, 2019). In my research, I adopt the notion of MMT by including the concepts of mindfulness, consumer well-being and general life satisfaction in the conceptual model. I explore how mindfulness relates to consumer happiness and people's life satisfaction. MMT has been applied across different research fields and contexts, including psychology (Garland et al., 2017), clinical studies (Carlson, 2015; Williams et al., 2021), addiction (Garland & Fredrickson, 2019), life satisfaction studies (Cheung & Lau, 2021; Lee & Ling, 2023; Li et

al., 2022), meaning in life (Chu & Mak, 2020; Klussman et al., 2022) and well-being (Crego et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023). To advance a theory, one can examine how it fits or explains data collected in a different context (Vaughan, 1992). To the best of my knowledge, there is no application of MMT in the context of Slovenian consumers, nor are there any studies that apply this framework in the context of the sustainable fashion industry. I have further developed MMT by applying it to the context of sustainable consumption and further proving its generalisability. The emergence of a new research context also provides a fruitful opportunity for theorising (Fisher & Aguinis, 2017). Following the construct specification approach, I further developed MMT by defining a GWG construct that, to my knowledge, has not yet been considered in MMT theory.

9.2.2 Practical implications

This study offers important practical implications for apparel brands and retailers offering sustainable, environmentally and socially responsible apparel products to encourage consumers to choose a more sustainable product over alternatives. As this study's findings suggest, more mindful consumers will engage in more sustainable consumption, such as bearing in mind the environmental and social impact of the purchase. Consequently, apparel brands could encourage consumers to choose the option that is either more environmentally-friendly, more worker-friendly, or both, by providing transparent information about the production and materials used in each product, as well as credible certifications. The extensive literature review on sustainable consumption as well as the qualitative study results show that sustainable consumers often choose apparel items that will last a long time, namely high-quality and classic apparel items that do not go out of fashion. Accordingly, apparel brands could produce products that focus on durability and longevity (e.g. high-quality materials or easily repairable items), classic or minimalist designs so that the garments do not become outdated too quickly, and materials that are easy to recycle. Further, clothing brands and retailers could promote the slow fashion philosophy as an alternative to the fast fashion industry by highlighting timeless designs and encouraging consumers to accept higher prices for items they can use for a long time.

Policymakers can apply the carrot and stick approach in the form of “carrots” (subsidies) and “sticks” (bans and taxes) (European Economic and Social Committee, 2022). The simultaneous integration of incentives and penalties reflects a combination of instruments to achieve green development (Acemoglu et al., 2012). On the one hand, subsidies and tax concessions can encourage the adoption of environmentally friendly behaviour (carrots) (Yang et al., 2023). On the other hand, bans, penalties, environmental pollution taxes and fees, can increase costs (sticks) (Yang et al., 2023). Financial incentives to encourage pro-environmental behaviours can be effective, but also have some disadvantages - they are costly, they may further contribute to greater pollution and they may discourage non-incentivized pro-environmental behaviour (Kirakozian, 2016). However, many individuals act pro-environmentally without external incentives (Pugno & Sarracino, 2021). These

intrinsically motivated individuals choose to behave in a pro-environmental way because they expect to enjoy it (Pugno & Sarracino, 2021). This notion is in line with the quantitative results of the study presented in this dissertation, where green warm glow can be perceived as an intrinsic reward.

The findings of the quantitative study provide valuable insights for administrators and marketing practitioners, enabling them to better understand consumers' incentives to purchase sustainable fashion apparel. The study shows that consumers who feel good about helping the environment (green warm glow) are more inclined to buy sustainable clothing items. Offering rewards such as coupons, discounts, or bonuses may even reduce the intention of self-motivated consumers to buy such products (Ali et al., 2020). Thus, when developing communication strategies, besides external promotions and rewards, it is crucial to consider consumers' intrinsic motivations as well (Duong et al., 2023). Recognizing the significance of GWG in driving sustainable consumption, companies should foster a sense of personal satisfaction and environmental consciousness among consumers. One effective approach is to create advertisements or marketing campaigns emphasising the intrinsic benefits of choosing to buy environmentally friendly products, such as feeling good about contributing to a better planet (Duong et al., 2023). Clothing brands and retailers could reinforce this behaviour with a simple note or message about how consumers have helped the environment and/or workers with their purchase decisions. This message could be included on the invoice, in an order confirmation email, on a card in the shopping bag, or in a package received by mail.

The implications of this research are important not only for the fashion industry but for other industries as well. Especially for the brands that are transitioning to sustainable fashion and for governments trying to protect the natural environment, be socially responsible, and provide for future generations. Doung et al. (2023) recommend that marketers should aim to enhance consumers' perception and awareness of the current environmental degradation through their emotions intrinsically. Thus, it is important to focus on the green warm glow effect - feeling pleasure and gratification - when buying sustainable products in order to effectively promote the adoption of sustainable products. Therefore, a practical implication for policymakers, administrators, and marketing practitioners would be to invest more in advancing and fostering consumers' green warm glow as an instinct motivator for sustainable consumption behaviour.

Both qualitative and quantitative studies, as well as an extensive literature review, show a clear positive relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption. With that in mind, this research can offer specific implications for marketers and policymakers to promote mindfulness techniques, which can be a useful tactic for promoting long-term sustainable behaviour (Kaur & Luchs, 2022). Mindfulness techniques used by policymakers may include mindfulness breaks, which encourage users to think specifically about their values in order to realign their focus (Kaur & Luchs, 2022). They might also be used by marketers as lifestyle enhancements in product and brand advertising campaigns.

In addition, findings offer important practical advice for second-hand, vintage and rental stores on how they can promote consumer mindfulness and use the green warm glow to encourage consumers to buy second-hand clothes or rent them for a special occasion, instead of buying a new product. This study's qualitative results and extensive literature review suggest that second-hand and rental stores are an important part of sustainable consumption. However, our quantitative study results show that not many consumers engage in this sort of consumption. Thus, I suggest that second-hand, vintage, and rental shops highlight in their communication with customers and potential customers the value consumers get from buying or renting a second-hand product, such as high quality at lower prices, unique items, contributing to environmental protection by reducing waste, and reducing production costs for the environment and workers.

The quantitative study showed the difference between gender, age and income. It showed that women tend to engage in second-hand, vintage and rental consumption more often than men. Additionally, it showed that older consumers tend to purchase more sustainable fashion apparel than younger consumers and that younger consumers tend to have higher life satisfaction than older consumers. These findings could be useful for businesses and marketers as they can influence market segmentation by identifying consumer groups based on age, gender and income to tailor marketing strategies and offers and maximise the effectiveness of their marketing efforts. By examining the antecedents of sustainable consumption, this dissertation can help businesses and policymakers understand how to appeal to more mindful consumers and promote more sustainable consumption practices. By examining the impact of sustainable consumption on consumer happiness and the impact of consumer happiness on life satisfaction, this study can also provide insights to promote consumer well-being and life satisfaction.

Policymakers will benefit from this research by better understanding the importance of promoting mindfulness. Promotion to educate mindful consumers can start in schools, in continuing education programmes, and with adults through various programmes. These programmes could be mindfulness classes, subsidised mindfulness programmes at non-profit organizations, and at commercial service providers and workplaces. As the findings of this dissertation suggest, more mindful consumers will engage in more sustainable behaviour and have higher well-being and life satisfaction, creating a more environmentally and socially responsible culture. In addition, policymakers will benefit from this research as it helps them to better understand the importance of educating and communicating with consumers about the available sustainable options. As the warm glow can take on the role of both a behavioural antecedent and a behavioural consequence, it further reinforces environmentally friendly behaviour (Hartmann et al., 2017). Educational content and notification programmes could be promoted through television and internet advertising, in-store notices, and product label references to help consumers understand how they are helping the planet and people by choosing more sustainable options.

Since the government is responsible for supporting green and sustainable development initiatives, it should spread awareness about environmental issues among the general public and in the business sector (Bazaraa et al., 2022). For example, the government could invest in education about how consumption choices influence our environment and society through different school programs, and sustainability training for businesses, management, and employees. Further, the government could, for example, encourage companies and organizations to carry out environmentally-friendly projects with incentives to encourage these kinds of efforts (e.g. financial assistance, soft loans or tax incentives, awards, and public praise) (Bazaraa et al., 2022). Lastly, Bazaraa et al. (2022) also suggest governments consider fines, for example, evaluating new businesses when giving licences and ensuring that existing businesses follow the required sustainable standards, as well as imposing heavy fines on companies violating these standards.

9.3 Study limitations and future research opportunities

With regard to the interpretation of this study's results, some limitations should be mentioned. First, the drawbacks of self-report measures on intentions and behaviours in mindfulness studies (Baer et al., 2006) and pro-environmental behaviour research (Kormos & Gifford, 2014) should not be ignored. Further, the general limitations of cross-sectional data (Geiger et al., 2019) where the research data is collected at a single point in time should be noted. However, this study has offered a comprehensive robustness check to omit this limitation. I employed a study design consistent with other research on mindfulness and sustainable consumption behaviours (Fischer et al., 2017; Helm & Subramaniam, 2019), consumer happiness (Shafqat et al., 2023), and life satisfaction (Chen et al., 2020). Sauer et al. (2013) stated that most published studies find self-report measures to deliver theory-conforming measurement effects for mindfulness. Nevertheless, future research should collect longitudinal data, or use multiple data sources to address these concerns (Helm & Subramaniam, 2019). Furthermore, there is a possibility that social desirability biases might play a role in the associations reported in this study.

When conducting and designing the in-depth interviews and the online survey, some necessary steps were taken to ensure minimal social desirability bias. However, social desirability bias may still occur. Social desirability bias is most likely to occur in situations where questions relate to widely accepted attitudes, behaviours or social norms, such as discussions about environmental protection. This bias is most evident when the data is collected in person and the respondent can be easily identified, such as in in-depth interviews (Bernardi & Nash, 2023). Despite all the necessary measures to avoid this bias, some respondents might have not been entirely convinced that their anonymity would be preserved and therefore might have been reluctant to answer some questions truthfully. In addition, due to a lack of experience with interviews, the researcher may inadvertently make verbal and/or non-verbal comments that signal agreement or disagreement to the respondent, causing them to respond differently. Social desirability bias could also occur because the

environment was not always free of interruptions. In addition, the bias could be due to the fact that some questions were not phrased in a completely objective manner and thus could suggest what the researcher expected to hear. Finally, the researcher may not have been able to observe and recognise biased responses due to their lack of experience and therefore could not encourage interviewees to answer truthfully.

Social desirability bias, although to a lesser extent, also occurs in online surveys. Controlling for bias by simply guaranteeing anonymity in an online survey is insufficient; individuals tend to respond in socially desirable ways even when completing anonymous questionnaires (Fernandes & Randall, 1992; Yang et al., 2017). In preparing the survey design for the quantitative study in this dissertation, some measures were taken to minimise this bias. However, the survey did not include the direct measure of social desirability, which measures social desirability bias (Grimm, 2010; Bernardi & Nash, 2023). Finally, the survey used for the quantitative research failed to include indirect questioning, which Bernardi and Nash (2023) consider as one approach to control for social desirability bias. Future research should include a direct measure of social desirability and some indirect questions to control for the social desirability bias.

Secondly, authors and researchers use many ways to describe sustainable consumer behaviour (Balderjahn et al., 2013). From a measurement point of view, many scales capture one dimension (e.g. environmental), some capture three dimensions together (e.g. environmental, social and economic) (Balderjahn et al., 2013) and some use two-dimensional operationalisation of sustainable consumption (such as environmental and social) (Geiger et al., 2018) and include one or several stages of consumption. Since researchers use different definitions and different measurements for the construct of sustainable consumption, no one measure is universally acceptable. This research focused on one stage of consumption, which was purchase, and included environmental and social dimensions when operationalising sustainable consumption. Further research should try to include additional consumption dimensions, such as disposal, in their research on sustainable consumption; and choose to include only one dimension, for example, environmental. Choosing a different measurement tool to operationalise sustainable consumption might give different results, thus further research on how mindfulness and warm glow influence sustainable consumption should be done with different measurement tools.

Thirdly, in marketing research, it is not uncommon for new scales to be created that measure the same construct (Bruner 2003). This leads to a gap in the consumer literature where researchers develop measures that claim to measure the same construct (Gligor et al., 2023). This gap represents a limitation of this research as there exist multiple measures that measure consumer happiness (either from a more hedonic or eudaemonic perspective, focusing on a specific product or more generally measuring consumer happiness). Another gap arises when researchers use terms interchangeably (Gligor et al., 2023), as is the case with consumer happiness and consumer well-being. As the terms consumer happiness and consumer well-being can sometimes measure different constructs, this may present another limitation of this

research. The consumer happiness measured in the quantitative study focussed on the happiness that a product or product group (in this case clothing) brings to the consumer. Had the operationalisation of this construct been more general, such as a measure of general consumer well-being, the results might have been different. I, therefore, suggest that future research include a different operationalisation of consumer happiness or well-being in their empirical model.

Fourthly, the results of this study are limited by the size of the survey sample. The JazVem samples allow for a representative population sample targeting consumers in Slovenia, and have proven to be a high-quality source of participants in behavioural-science studies used in other research involving Slovenian consumers (e.g. Cugmas et al., 2021; Faganel et al., 2022). However, the question of generalisability arises in view of different countries and the resulting changing contingencies, such as culture and framework conditions. In general, future research needs to use alternative sampling strategies and include participants from other countries.

The quantitative study in this dissertation fails to support the positive effect of mindfulness on consumer happiness as well as the positive effect of sustainable consumption on consumer happiness. Further, the qualitative study provides some indication of a bidirectional relationship between mindfulness and consumer happiness and between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness. Both findings present a novel idea for future research where authors could further explore the bidirectional relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness as well as further explore bidirectional relationships between mindfulness and consumer happiness using experimental study to demonstrate causation between variables by manipulating an independent variable. Additionally, qualitative and quantitative studies present findings regarding the second-hand, vintage and rental consumption of fashion apparel, the findings can help marketers develop appropriate strategies to change consumer perceptions of second-hand fashion apparel and educate them about the positive impact of second-hand consumption on the environment.

The unsupported hypotheses of this quantitative study offer new ideas for future research. First, although indicated in the qualitative study, the quantitative study could not find sufficient evidence that sustainable consumption has a positive impact on consumer happiness. First, future research could investigate the bidirectional relationship between mindfulness and consumer happiness which has been found in the qualitative study. Second, future research could investigate the bidirectional relationship between mindfulness and sustainable consumption. Third, future research studies could investigate the relationship between green warm glow and the consumption of second-hand, vintage and rental clothing, which was not supported by this quantitative study. Fourth, studies could investigate markets with a more developed second-hand, vintage and rental fashion industry or focus on consumer knowledge of the benefits of second-hand, vintage and rental fashion consumption and its impact on the environment and society. Fifth, future studies could investigate the

effect of moderators (such as age and gender) on the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness.

I suggest that future research focus on expanding the insufficient knowledge of how green warm glow can be used to promote more sustainable consumption of fashion items. The lack of research on green warm glow in the context of fashion apparel could be a great reason for future studies to explore warm glow in the context of the sustainable consumption of fashion apparel, and also to include additional variables to reveal the causes and effects of green warm glow. Further studies could, for example, examine the effectiveness of government education and information programmes. In addition, I suggest further studies to address green warm glow as an outcome of environmentally-friendly behaviour.

Despite recent research showing a positive relationship between the concepts of sustainable consumption and consumer well-being (e.g. Brown & Kasser, 2005b; Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2022; Sudbury-Riley & Kohlbacher, 2016), the results of this study show that sustainable consumption is not positively related to consumer well-being. Additional studies researching the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness or well-being could explain the contradictory findings. Additionally, future research should unveil the key constructs that could moderate the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer well-being. Building on this study's results on the lack of impact of sustainable consumption on consumer well-being, this relationship thus requires further investigation. Future research could further investigate different sustainable consumption practices and their impact on consumer well-being in different cultural settings.

Although the qualitative study suggests several possible bidirectional relationships, namely the relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness as well as mindfulness and consumer happiness, the quantitative study did not further investigate the existence of bidirectional relationships. Thus, studies in this dissertation fail to further investigate and explain the bidirectional relationships between the concepts of mindfulness, sustainable consumption and consumer happiness, which in turn provides an opportunity for future research studies. In addition, the qualitative study revealed two negative relationships, namely between mindfulness and consumer happiness and between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness. However, no significant relationship between mindfulness and consumer happiness was found in the quantitative study. In addition, the quantitative study shows a partially negative relationship between sustainable consumption and consumer happiness, namely between second-hand, vintage and rental consumption and consumer happiness. The theories on which the empirical model is based could not predict or explain the negative relationships mentioned above and could consequentially represent a novel future research idea.

REFERENCE LIST

1. Ábrahám, J., Velenczei, A., & Szabo, A. (2012). Perceived Determinants of Well-Being and Enjoyment Level of Leisure Activities. *Leisure Sciences*, 34(3), 199–216. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01490400.2012.669677>
2. Abrahamson, E. (2011). The Iron Cage: Ugly, Uncool, and Unfashionable. *Organization Studies*, 32(5), 615–629. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0170840611405425>
3. Acemoglu, D., Aghion, P., Bursztyn, L., & Hemous, D. (2012). The environment and directed technical change. *American Economic Review*, 102(1), 131–166.
4. Agarwal, R., Mehrotra, A., & Misra, D. (2022). Customer happiness as a function of perceived loyalty program benefits - A quantile regression approach. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 64, 102770. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2021.102770>
5. Agnew, C., & Gervais, E. (2023, August 14). *The Top Fashion Trends for Fall-Winter 2023-2024*. [Elle Canada] <https://www.ellecanada.com/fashion/trends/the-top-fashion-trends-for-fall-winter-2023-2024>
6. Ahn, Y., & Lee, J. (2019). The effect of participation effort on CSR participation intention: The moderating role of construal level on consumer perception of warm glow and perceived costs. *Sustainability*, 12(1), 83.
7. Ahuvia, A. C., & Wong, N. Y. (2002). Personality and values based materialism: Their relationship and origins. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 12(4), 389–402.
8. Aji, H. M., & Sutikno, B. (2015). The extended consequence of greenwashing: Perceived consumer skepticism. *International Journal of Business and Information*, 10(4), 433–468.
9. Aknin, L. B., Hamlin, J. K., & Dunn, E. W. (2012). Giving leads to happiness in young children. *PLoS ONE*, 7(6). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0039211>
10. Akturan, U., & Tezcan, N. (2019). How do firms' actions impact green scepticism? The effects of green brand associations, green brand equity and greenwashing. *Journal of Management Marketing and Logistics*, 6(4), 204–211.
11. Al Mandil, K. (2016). *Modelling the relationship between brand experience dimensions and the antecedents of happiness within the context of dining services* [PhD Thesis]. Brunel University London.
12. Alessi, Edward J., & Martin, J. I. (2010). Conducting an Internet-based Survey: Benefits, Pitfalls, and Lessons Learned. *Social Work Research*, 34(2), 122–128. <https://doi.org/10.1093/swr/34.2.122>
13. Alexander, C. N., & Langer, E. J. (Eds.). (1990). *Higher stages of human development: Perspectives on adult growth* (pp. viii, 406). Oxford University Press.
14. Alexander, C. N., Langer, E. J., Newman, R. I., Chandler, H. M., & Davies, J. L. (1989). Transcendental meditation, mindfulness, and longevity: an experimental study with the elderly. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 57(6), 950.

15. Alexander, R., Aragón, O. R., Bookwala, J., Cherbuin, N., Gatt, J. M., Kahrilas, I. J., Kästner, N., Lawrence, A., Lowe, L., Morrison, R. G., Mueller, S. C., Nusslock, R., Papadelis, C., Polnaszek, K. L., Helene Richter, S., Silton, R. L., & Styliadis, C. (2021). The neuroscience of positive emotions and affect: Implications for cultivating happiness and wellbeing. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 121, 220–249. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2020.12.002>
16. Alhouti, S., Wright, S. A., & Baker, T. L. (2021). Customers need to relate: The conditional warm glow effect of CSR on negative customer experiences. *Journal of Business Research*, 124, 240–253. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.11.047>
17. Ali, F., Ashfaq, M., Begum, S., & Ali, A. (2020). How “Green” thinking and altruism translate into purchasing intentions for electronics products: The intrinsic-extrinsic motivation mechanism. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, 24, 281–291.
18. Allwood, J. M., Laursen, S. E., De Rodríguez, C. M., & Bocken, N. M. (2006). Well dressed. *The present and future sustainability of clothing and textiles in the United Kingdom*, 1.
19. Amed, I., André, S., Balchandani, A., Berg, A., & Rölkens, F. (2022, November 29). *State of Fashion: Holding onto growth as global clouds gather*. <https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/retail/our-insights/state-of-fashion-archive>
20. Amel, E. L., Manning, C. M., & Scott, B. A. (2009). Mindfulness and Sustainable Behavior: Pondering Attention and Awareness as Means for Increasing Green Behavior. *Ecopsychology*, 1(1), 14–25. <https://doi.org/10.1089/eco.2008.0005>
21. Anālayo, B. (2020). Attention and Mindfulness. *Mindfulness*, 11(5), 1131–1138. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-019-01286-5>
22. Anastasi, A., & Urbina, S. (1997). *Psychological testing* (7th ed.). Prentice Hall/Pearson Education.
23. Andrei, F., Vesely, A., & Siegling, A. (2016). An Examination of Concurrent and Incremental Validity of Four Mindfulness Scales. *Journal of Psychopathology & Behavioral Assessment*, 38(4), 559–571. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10862-016-9546-x>
24. Andreoni, J. (1989). Giving with impure altruism: Applications to charity and Ricardian equivalence. *Journal of Political Economy*, 97(6), 1447–1458.
25. Andreoni, J. (1990). Impure altruism and donations to public goods: A theory of warm-glow giving. *The Economic Journal*, 100(401), 464–477.
26. Andrews, M., Luo, X., Fang, Z., & Aspara, J. (2014). Cause marketing effectiveness and the moderating role of price discounts. *Journal of Marketing*, 78(6), 120–142.
27. Andrews, F. M., Withey, S. B., Andrews, F. M., & Withey, S. B. (1976). Measuring global well-being. *Social Indicators of Well-Being: Americans' Perceptions of Life Quality*, 63-106.
28. Apple, J. B. (2015). Mindfulness and Vigilance in Tsong-kha-pa's Great Treatise on the Stages of the Path to Enlightenment. In E. Shonin, W. Van Gordon, & N. N. Singh (Eds.), *Buddhist Foundations of Mindfulness* (pp. 245–266). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-18591-0_12

29. Arch, J. J., & Craske, M. G. (2006). Mechanisms of mindfulness: Emotion regulation following a focused breathing induction. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 44(12), 1849–1858.
30. Armstrong, A. (2012). *Mindfulness and consumerism: A social psychological investigation*. University of Surrey (United Kingdom).
31. Armstrong, A., & Jackson, T. (2015). *The Mindful Consumer: Mindfulness training and the escape from consumerism*. Research Gate. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.31885.77287>
32. Arrindell, W. A., Checa, I., Espejo, B., Chen, I. H., Carrozzino, D., Vu-Bich, P., Dambach, H., & Vagos, P. (2022). Measurement Invariance and Construct Validity of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) in Community Volunteers in Vietnam. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(6), 3460.
33. Aşık, E., & Albayrak, S. (2022). The effect of mindfulness levels on the life satisfaction of nursing students. *Perspectives in Psychiatric Care*, 58(3), 1055–1061. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ppc.12898>
34. Assoune, A. (n.d.). *How Does Fast Fashion Affect The Economy* [Published on blog] Retrieved 10 May 2023, from <https://www.panaprium.com/blogs/i/how-does-fast-fashion-affect-the-economy>
35. Atoy, M. B., Garcia, F. R. O., Cadungog, R. R., Cua, J. D. O., Mangunay, S. C., & Guzman, A. B. de. (2020). Linking digital literacy and online information searching strategies of Philippine university students: The moderating role of mindfulness. *Journal of Librarianship and Information Science*, 52(4), 1015-1027. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0961000619898213>
36. Awang, Z., Afthanorhan, A., & Asri, M. A. M. (2015). Parametric and non parametric approach in structural equation modeling (SEM): The application of bootstrapping. *Modern Applied Science*, 9(9), 58.
37. Baer, R. A. (2003). Mindfulness training as a clinical intervention: A conceptual and empirical review. *Clinical psychology: Science and practice*, 10(2), 125.
38. Baer, R. A., Smith, G. T., & Allen, K. B. (2004). Assessment of mindfulness by self-report: The Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills. *Assessment*, 11(3), 191-206.
39. 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.
40. Baer, R. A., Smith, G. T., Lykins, E., Button, D., Krietemeyer, J., Sauer, S., Walsh, E., Duggan, D., & Williams, J. M. G., (2008). Construct Validity of the Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire in Meditating and Nonmeditating Samples. *Assessment*, 15(3), 329-342.
41. Bagozzi, R. P., & Fornell, C. (1982). Theoretical concepts, measurements, and meaning. *A second generation of multivariate analysis*, 2(2), 5-23.
42. Bahl, S., Milne, G. R., Ross, S. M., & Chan, K. (2013). Mindfulness: A Long-Term Solution for Mindless Eating by College Students. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 32(2), 173–184. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jppm.11.008>

43. Bahl, S., Milne, G. R., Ross, S. M., Mick, D. G., Grier, S. A., Chugani, S. K., Chan, S. S., Gould, S., Cho, Y.N., Dorsey, J. D., Schindler, R. M., Murdock, M. R., & Boesen-Mariani, S. (2016). Mindfulness: Its Transformative Potential for Consumer, Societal, and Environmental Well-Being. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 35(2), 198–210. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jppm.15.139>
44. Balderjahn, I., Hoffmann, S., & Hüttel, A. (2023). How empowerment and materialism contribute to anti-consumers' well-being. *European Journal of Marketing*, 57(4), 1186–1218. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-04-2020-0284>
45. Balderjahn, I., Peyer, M., & Paulssen, M. (2013). Consciousness for fair consumption: Conceptualization, scale development and empirical validation: Consciousness for fair consumption. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 37(5), 546–555. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12030>
46. Baltaci, D. (2018, December 11). *Overconsumption in Fashion Industry*. <https://medium.com/@didem.demirci/overconsumption-in-fashion-industry-3cd58ec84020>
47. Banytė, J., Šalčiuvienė, L., Dovalienė, A., Piligrimienė, Ž., & Sroka, W. (2020). Sustainable Consumption Behavior at Home and in the Workplace: Avenues for Innovative Solutions. *Sustainability*, 12(16), Article 16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12166564>
48. Barber, N. A., & Deale, C. (2014). Tapping Mindfulness to Shape Hotel Guests' Sustainable Behavior. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 55(1), 100–114. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965513496315>
49. Bardorfer, A., & Dolenc, P. (2022). *Teacher-student rapport as predictor of learning motivation within higher education: The self-determination theory perspective*.
50. Bargh, J. A., & Chartrand, T. L. (1999). The unbearable automaticity of being. *American Psychologist*, 45(7), 462–479.
51. Barnes, L., & Lea-Greenwood, G. (2006). Fast fashioning the supply chain: Shaping the research agenda. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*.
52. Barrera-Verdugo, G., & Villarroel-Villarroel, A. (2022). Influence of product selection criteria on clothing purchase and post-purchase behaviours: A gender and generational comparison. *PLoS ONE*, 17(6), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0267783>
53. Batool, N., Wani, M. D., Shah, S. A., & Dada, Z. A. (2023). Theory of planned behavior and value-belief norm theory as antecedents of pro-environmental behaviour: Evidence from the local community. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2023.2205912>
54. Bauck, W. (2017, May 10). *Do the H&M Conscious and Asos Made in Kenya Collections Count as Ethical Fashion?* [Fashionista]. <https://fashionista.com/2017/05/hm-conscious-asos-kenya-ethical-fashion>
55. Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., Aaker, J. L., & Garbinsky, E. N. (2013). Some key differences between a happy life and a meaningful life. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(6), 505–516.

56. Baumgartner, H., & Homburg, C. (1996). Applications of structural equation modeling in marketing and consumer research: A review. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 13(2), 139–161. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-8116\(95\)00038-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-8116(95)00038-0)
57. Bayuk, J., Lee, H. C., Park, J., Saka, S., Talukdar, D., & Sinha, J. (2022). Mindfully aware and open: Mitigating subjective and objective financial vulnerability via mindfulness practices. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 56(3), 1284–1311. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12474>
58. Bazaraa, D. A., Mahrous, A. A., & Elsharnouby, M. H. (2022). How manipulating incentives and participation in green programs affect satisfaction: The mediating role of warm glow. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 362, 132306. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2022.132306>
59. Becchetti, L., & Degli Antoni, G. (2010). The sources of happiness: Evidence from the investment game. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 31(4), 498–509. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joep.2010.03.011>
60. Becker, G. S. (1974). A Theory of Social Interactions. *Journal of Political Economy*, 82(6), 1063–1093.
61. Bendayan, R., Blanca, M. J., Fernandez-Baena, J. F., Escobar, M., & Trianes, M. V. (2013). New empirical evidence on the validity of the Satisfaction with Life Scale in early adolescents. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*.
62. Benett, A., & O'Reilly, A. (2010). *Consumed: Rethinking business in the era of mindful spending*. Macmillan.
63. Benson, S. (2022, August 2). Fast Fashion Brands Launching Resale Platforms: Circular or Cynical? [GoodOnYou] <https://goodonyou.eco/fast-fashion-resale/>
64. Bentham, J. (1996). *The collected works of Jeremy Bentham: An introduction to the principles of morals and legislation*. Clarendon Press.
65. Bentley, M. (2008). *Planning for change: Guidelines for national programmes on sustainable consumption and production*. United Nations Environment Programme.
66. Berger-Grabner, D. (2018). Sustainability in fashion: An oxymoron? *Innovation Management and Corporate Social Responsibility: Social Responsibility as Competitive Advantage*, 171–180.
67. Bernardi, R. A., & Nash, J. (2023). The importance and efficacy of controlling for social desirability response bias. *Ethics & Behavior*, 33(5), 413–429. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10508422.2022.2093201>
68. Bianchi, C., & Birtwistle, G. (2010). Sell, give away, or donate: An exploratory study of fashion clothing disposal behaviour in two countries. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 20(3), 353–368. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593969.2010.491213>
69. Bianchi, C., & Gonzalez, M. (2021). Exploring sustainable fashion consumption among eco-conscious women in Chile. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 31(4), 375–392. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593969.2021.1903529>
70. Bispo, J. P. (2022). Social desirability bias in qualitative health research. *Revista de Saúde Pública*, 56, 101. <https://doi.org/10.11606/s1518-8787.2022056004164>

71. Bjørnskov, C., Dreher, A., & Fischer, J. A. (2008). Cross-country determinants of life satisfaction: Exploring different determinants across groups in society. *Social Choice and Welfare*, 30(1), 119–173.
72. Black, I. R., & Cherrier, H. (2010). Anti-consumption as part of living a sustainable lifestyle: Daily practices, contextual motivations and subjective values. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 9(6), 437–453.
73. Blazquez, M., Henninger, C. E., Alexander, B., & Franquesa, C. (2020). Consumers' knowledge and intentions towards sustainability: A Spanish fashion perspective. *Fashion Practice*, 12(1), 34–54.
74. Bly, S., Gwozdz, W., & Reisch, L. A. (2015). Exit from the high street: An exploratory study of sustainable fashion consumption pioneers: Sustainable fashion consumption pioneers study. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 39(2), 125–135. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12159>
75. Bodhi, B. (Ed.). (2003). *A Comprehensive Manual of Abhidhamma* (Buddhist Publication Society, Sri Lanka edition). Pariyatti Publishing.
76. Böhme, T., Stanzus, L. S., Geiger, S. M., Fischer, D., & Schrader, U. (2018). Mindfulness Training at School: A Way to Engage Adolescents with Sustainable Consumption? *Sustainability*, 10(10), Article 10. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10103557>
77. Bollen, K., & Lennox, R. (1991). Conventional wisdom on measurement: A structural equation perspective. *Psychological Bulletin*, 110(2), 305.
78. Brandão, A., & da Costa, A. G. (2021). Extending the theory of planned behaviour to understand the effects of barriers towards sustainable fashion consumption. *European Business Review*, 33(5), 742–774. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-11-2020-0306>
79. Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101.
80. Brewer, M. K. (2019). Slow Fashion in a Fast Fashion World: Promoting Sustainability and Responsibility. *Laws*, 8(4), 24.
81. Brinkerhoff, M. B., & Jacob, J. C. (1999). Mindfulness and quasi-religious meaning systems: An empirical exploration within the context of ecological sustainability and deep ecology. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 524–542.
82. Broderick, P. C. (2005). Mindfulness and coping with dysphoric mood: Contrasts with rumination and distraction. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 29, 501–510.
83. Brown, B. S., Emmett, D., & Chandra, A. (2009). Attitudes and Behavior of African-Americans Regarding the Consumption of Herbal Products—An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Hospital Marketing & Public Relations*, 19(1), 40–51. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15390940802581655>
84. Brown, K. W., & Kasser, T. (2005). Are Psychological and Ecological Well-Being Compatible? The Role of Values, Mindfulness, and Lifestyle. *Social Indicators Research*, 74(2), 349–368.
85. Brown, K. W., Kasser, T., Ryan, R. M., Alex Linley, P., & Orzech, K. (2009). When what one has is enough: Mindfulness, financial desire discrepancy, and subjective well-

- being. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43(5), 727–736.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2009.07.002>
86. Brown, K. W., Kasser, T., Ryan, R. M., & Konow, J. (2016). Materialism, spending, and affect: An event-sampling study of marketplace behavior and its affective costs. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 17, 2277–2292.
 87. 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. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.4.822>
 88. 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. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10478400701598298>
 89. Brown, K. W., West, A. M., Loverich, T. M., & Biegel, G. M. (2011). Assessing adolescent mindfulness: Validation of an Adapted Mindful Attention Awareness Scale in adolescent normative and psychiatric populations. *Psychological Assessment*, 23(4), 1023–1033. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021338>
 90. Brunel, F. & Dong, W. (2006). The Role of Mindfulness in Consumer Behavior. *NA - Advances in Consumer Research* 33, 276-278.
 91. Bruner, G. C. (2003). Combating scale proliferation. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 11(4), 362–372.
<https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jt.5740091>
 92. BSR. (2012, October). *Sustainable Fashion Design: Oxymoron No More?* [Report]
https://www.bsr.org/reports/BSR_Sustainable_Fashion_Design.pdf
 93. Burroughs, J. E., & Rindfleisch, A. (2002). Materialism and well-being: A conflicting values perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29(3), 348–370.
 94. Butler, S. M., & Francis, S. (1997). The effects of environmental attitudes on apparel purchasing behavior. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 15(2), 76-85.
 95. Cadogan, J. W., & Lee, N. (2013). Improper use of endogenous formative variables. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(2), 233–241.
 96. Caniato, F., Caridi, M., Crippa, L., & Moretto, A. (2012). Environmental sustainability in fashion supply chains: An exploratory case based research. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 135(2), 659–670.
 97. Cardaciotto, L., Herbert, J. D., Forman, E. M., Moitra, E., & Farrow, V. (2008). The assessment of present-moment awareness and acceptance: The Philadelphia Mindfulness Scale. *Assessment*, 15(2), 204-223.
 98. Carey, L., & Cervellon, M.C. (2014). Ethical fashion dimensions: Pictorial and auditory depictions through three cultural perspectives. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 18(4), 483-506.
 99. Carlson, L. E. (2015). The Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory: Putting a Name to Clinical Observations. *Psychological Inquiry*, 26(4), 322–325.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/1047840X.2015.1075353>
 100. Carmody, J., & Baer, R. A. (2008). Relationships between mindfulness practice and levels of mindfulness, medical and psychological symptoms and well-being in a

- mindfulness-based stress reduction program. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 31(1), 23–33.
101. Carrero, I., Valor, C., & Redondo, R. (2020). Do All Dimensions of Sustainable Consumption Lead to Psychological Well-Being? Empirical Evidence from Young Consumers. *Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics*, 33(1), 145–170. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10806-019-09818-8>
 102. Carter, T. J., & Gilovich, T. (2010). The relative relativity of material and experiential purchases. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98(1), 146–159. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017145>
 103. Cervellon, M. C., Carey, L., & Harms, T. (2012). Something old, something used: Determinants of women's purchase of vintage fashion vs second-hand fashion. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 40(12), 956–974.
 104. Cervellon, M.C., Hjerth, H., Ricard, S., & Carey, L. (2010). *Green in fashion. An Exploratory Study of National Differences in Consumers Concern for Eco-Fashion*.
 105. Chan, S. S., Van Solt, M., Cruz, R. E., Philp, M., Bahl, S., Serin, N., Amaral, N. B., Schindler, R., Bartosiak, A., Kumar, S., & Canbulut, M. (2022). Social media and mindfulness: From the fear of missing out (FOMO) to the joy of missing out (JOMO). *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 56(3), 1312–1331. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12476>
 106. Cheung, R. Y., & Lau, E. N.-S. (2021). Is mindfulness linked to life satisfaction? Testing savoring positive experiences and gratitude as mediators. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 591103.
 107. Leong, C. T., & Rasli, A. (2013). Investigation of the Langer's mindfulness scale from an industry perspective and an examination of the relationship between the variables. *American J Econ*, 3, 74–81.
 108. Chang, H. J., & Watchravesringkan, K. T. (2018). Who are sustainably minded apparel shoppers? An investigation to the influencing factors of sustainable apparel consumption. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 46(2), 148–162.
 109. Chang, W., Franke, G. R., & Lee, N. (2016). Comparing reflective and formative measures: New insights from relevant simulations. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(8), 3177–3185. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.12.006>
 110. Chang, W. Y., Taecharungroj, V., & Kapasuwan, S. (2022). Sustainable Luxury Consumers' Preferences and Segments: Conjoint and Cluster Analyses. *Sustainability*, 14(15), Article 15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14159551>
 111. Charoensukmongkol, P., & Suthatorn, P. (2018). Salespeople's trait mindfulness and emotional exhaustion: The mediating roles of optimism, resilience, and self-efficacy. *International Journal of Services, Economics and Management*, 9(2), 125–142.
 112. Chaturvedi, P., Kulshreshtha, K., & Tripathi, V. (2020). Investigating the determinants of behavioral intentions of generation Z for recycled clothing: An evidence from a developing economy. *Young Consumers*, 21(4), 403–417.
 113. Chaudhary, A. (2022, February 27). *The Economics Behind Fast Fashion – UW Economics Society*. <https://uweconsoc.com/the-economics-behind-fast-fashion/>

114. Chen, F., Lu, J., Li, J., Wang, W., & Bissielou, H. (2020a). Sustainable financial education and consumer life satisfaction. *Sustainability*, 12(3), 1150.
115. Chen, M., Zhang, J., Xie, Z., & Niu, J. (2021). Online low-key conspicuous behavior of fashion luxury goods: The antecedents and its impact on consumer happiness. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 20(1), 148. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.1863>
116. Chen, T., Dodds, S., Finsterwalder, J., Witell, L., Cheung, L., Falter, M., Garry, T., Snyder, H., & McColl-Kennedy, J. R. (2020b). Dynamics of wellbeing co-creation: A psychological ownership perspective. *Journal of Service Management*, 32(3), 383–406.
117. Chen, Y., & Li, X. R. (2018). Does a happy destination bring you happiness? Evidence from Swiss inbound tourism. *Tourism Management*, 65, 256–266.
118. Chen, Y. S., & Chang, C. H. (2013). Greenwash and Green Trust: The Mediation Effects of Green Consumer Confusion and Green Perceived Risk. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 114(3), 489–500. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1360-0>
119. Cherrier, H. (2009). Anti-consumption discourses and consumer-resistant identities. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(2), 181–190.
120. Chiengkul, W., Mahasuweerachai, P., & Suttikun, C. (2023). Why do self-identity and efficacy matter for enjoying participation in charity sports events? The role of the warm glow feeling. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 14(1), 92–112. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEFM-08-2022-0062>
121. Cho, G., Hwang, H., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2020). Cutoff criteria for overall model fit indexes in generalized structured component analysis. *Journal of Marketing Analytics*, 8(4), 189–202. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41270-020-00089-1>
122. Chou, C. Y., Leo, W. W. C., Tsarenko, Y., & Chen, T. (2022). When feeling good counts! Impact of consumer gratitude and life satisfaction in access-based services. *European Journal of Marketing*, 57(2), 626–652. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-08-2021-0655>
123. Chu, S. T.W., & Mak, W. W. S. (2020). How Mindfulness Enhances Meaning in Life: A Meta-Analysis of Correlational Studies and Randomized Controlled Trials. *Mindfulness*, 11(1), 177–193. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-019-01258-9>
124. Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16(1), 64–73.
125. Cimatti, B., Campana, G., & Carluccio, L. (2017). Eco Design and Sustainable Manufacturing in Fashion: A Case Study in the Luxury Personal Accessories Industry. *Procedia Manufacturing*, 8, 393–400. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.promfg.2017.02.050>
126. Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). Routledge.
127. Cohn, M. A., Fredrickson, B. L., Brown, S. L., Mikels, J. A., & Conway, A. M. (2009). Happiness unpacked: Positive emotions increase life satisfaction by building resilience. *Emotion*, 9(3), 361–368. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015952>
128. Coltman, T., Devinney, T. M., Midgley, D. F., & Venaik, S. (2008). Formative versus reflective measurement models: Two applications of formative measurement. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(12), 1250–1262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.013>

129. Connell, K. Y. H., & Kozar, J. M. (2014). Environmentally Sustainable Clothing Consumption: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Behavior. In S. S. Muthu (Ed.), *Roadmap to Sustainable Textiles and Clothing* (pp. 41–61). Springer Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-110-7_2
130. Coo, C., & Salanova, M. (2018). Mindfulness Can Make You Happy-and-Productive: A Mindfulness Controlled Trial and Its Effects on Happiness, Work Engagement and Performance. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 19(6), 1691–1711. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-017-9892-8>
131. Corral Verdugo, V. (2012). The positive psychology of sustainability. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 14(5), 651–666. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-012-9346-8>
132. Crampton, S. M., & Wagner III, J. A. (1994). Percept-percept inflation in microorganizational research: An investigation of prevalence and effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(1), 67.
133. Crego, A., Yela, J. R., Gómez-Martínez, M. Á., & Karim, A. A. (2020). The Contribution of Meaningfulness and Mindfulness to Psychological Well-Being and Mental Health: A Structural Equation Model. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 21(8), 2827–2850. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-019-00201-y>
134. Cugmas, M., Ferligoj, A., Kogovšek, T., & Batagelj, Z. (2021). The social support networks of elderly people in Slovenia during the Covid-19 pandemic. *PLoS One*, 16(3), e0247993.
135. Culiberg, B., & Mihelič, K. K. (2020). The impact of mindfulness and perceived importance of peer reporting on students' response to peers' academic dishonesty. *Ethics & Behavior*, 30(5), 385–399. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10508422.2019.1628644>
136. Dabas, C. S., & Whang, C. (2022). A systematic review of drivers of sustainable fashion consumption: 25 years of research evolution. *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing*, 13(2), 151–167. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20932685.2021.2016063>
137. Daig, I., Herschbach, P., Lehmann, A., Knoll, N., & Decker, O. (2009). Gender and Age Differences in Domain-Specific Life Satisfaction and the Impact of Depressive and Anxiety Symptoms: A General Population Survey from Germany. *Quality of Life Research*, 18(6), 669–678. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-009-9481-3>
138. Dangelico, R. M., Alvino, L., & Fraccascia, L. (2022). Investigating the antecedents of consumer behavioral intention for sustainable fashion products: Evidence from a large survey of Italian consumers. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 185, 122010. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2022.122010>
139. D'Angelo, V., Cappa, F., & Peruffo, E. (2023). Green manufacturing for sustainable development: The positive effects of green activities, green investments, and non-green products on economic performance. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 32(4), 1900–1913. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.3226>
140. Danish, R. Q., Shahid, R., & Ali, H. F. (2019). Factors Affecting life Satisfaction of Employees under Financial Threat. *SEISENSE Journal of Management*, 2(1), 85–98. <https://doi.org/10.33215/sjom.v2i1.82>

141. Das, L. S. (1997). *Awakening the Buddha within: Tibetan wisdom for the Western World*.
142. Daskalopoulou, I. (2014). Consumer Well-Being. In A. C. Michalos (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research* (pp. 1221–1223). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5_547
143. De Groot, J. I. M., & Steg, L. (2008). Value Orientations to Explain Beliefs Related to Environmental Significant Behavior: How to Measure Egoistic, Altruistic, and Biospheric Value Orientations. *Environment and Behavior*, 40(3), 330–354. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013916506297831>
144. De Keyser, A., & Lariviere, B. (2014). How technical and functional service quality drive consumer happiness: Moderating influences of channel usage. *Journal of Service Management*, 25(1), 30–48.
145. De Sousa, A. (2013). Towards An Integrative Theory Of Consciousness: Part 1 (Neurobiological And Cognitive Models). *Mens Sana Monographs*, 11(1), 100–150. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-1229.109335>
146. *Deadly costs of 'fast fashion'*. (2017, December 19). Textile News, Apparel News, RMG News, Fashion Trends. <https://www.textiletoday.com.bd/deadly-costs-fast-fashion/undefineddeadly-costs-fast-fashion>
147. Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Conceptualizations of Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination. In Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (Eds.), *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior* (pp. 11–40). Springer US. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-2271-7_2
148. Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Hedonia, eudaimonia, and well-being: An introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9, 1–11.
149. Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2012). *Motivation, personality, and development within embedded social contexts: An overview of self-determination theory*.
150. Delmas, M. A., & Burbano, V. C. (2011). The Drivers of Greenwashing. *California Management Review*, 54(1), 64–87. <https://doi.org/10.1525/cmr.2011.54.1.64>
151. Dermody, J., Koenig-Lewis, N., Zhao, A. L., & Hanmer-Lloyd, S. (2018). Appraising the influence of pro-environmental self-identity on sustainable consumption buying and curtailment in emerging markets: Evidence from China and Poland. *Journal of Business Research*, 86, 333–343. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.09.041>
152. Dermody, J., Koenig-Lewis, N., Zhao, A. L., & Hanmer-Lloyd, S. (2021). Critiquing a Utopian Idea of Sustainable Consumption: A Post-Capitalism Perspective. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 41(4), 626–645. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146720979148>
153. Desmeules, R. (2002). The impact of variety on consumer happiness: Marketing and the tyranny of freedom. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 12(1), 1–18.
154. Dettori, A., & Floris, M. (2019). Sustainability, Well-Being, and Happiness: A co-word Analysis. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 10(10). <https://doi.org/10.30845/ijbss.v10n10a5>

155. Dhandra, T. K. (2019). Achieving triple dividend through mindfulness: More sustainable consumption, less unsustainable consumption and more life satisfaction. *Ecological Economics*, 161, 83–90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2019.03.021>
156. Diamantopoulos, A., & Siguaw, J. A. (2006). Formative Versus Reflective Indicators in Organizational Measure Development: A Comparison and Empirical Illustration. *British Journal of Management*, 17(4), 263–282. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2006.00500.x>
157. Diamantopoulos, A., & Winklhofer, H. M. (2001). Index construction with formative indicators: An alternative to scale development. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38(2), 269–277.
158. Dickens, C., Smakhtin, V., McCartney, M., O'Brien, G., & Dahir, L. (2019). Defining and quantifying national-level targets, indicators and benchmarks for management of natural resources to achieve the sustainable development goals. *Sustainability*, 11(2), 462.
159. Dickson-Waiko, A. (2001). Women, individual human rights, community rights: tensions within the Papua New Guinea state. In *Women's Rights and Human Rights: International Historical Perspectives* (pp. 49-70). London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.
160. Diddi, S., Yan, R. N., Bloodhart, B., Bajtelsmit, V., & McShane, K. (2019). Exploring young adult consumers' sustainable clothing consumption intention-behavior gap: A Behavioral Reasoning Theory perspective. *Sustainable production and consumption*, 18, 200-209.
161. Diener, E. (1994). Assessing subjective well-being: Progress and opportunities. *Social Indicators Research*, 31(2), 103–157. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01207052>
162. Diener, E. (1996). Traits can be powerful, but are not enough: Lessons from subjective well-being. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 30(3), 389–399.
163. Diener, E. (2000). Subjective Well-Being: The Science of Happiness and a Proposal for a National Index. *The American Psychologist*, 55(1). <http://nukweb.nuk.uni-lj.si/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsbig&AN=edsbig.A63492166&lang=sl&site=eds-live>
164. Diener, E. D., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1), 71–75.
165. Diener, E., & Lucas, R. E. (2000). Explaining differences in societal levels of happiness: Relative standards, need fulfillment, culture, and evaluation theory. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 1, 41–78.
166. Diener, E., Lucas, R. E., & Oishi, S. (2002). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and life satisfaction. *Handbook of Positive Psychology*, 2, 63–73.
167. Diener, E., Ng, W., Harter, J., & Arora, R. (2010). Wealth and happiness across the world: Material prosperity predicts life evaluation, whereas psychosocial prosperity predicts positive feeling. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 99, 52–61. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018066>

168. Diener, E., Sandvik, E., Seidlitz, L., & Diener, M. (1993). The relationship between income and subjective well-being: Relative or absolute? *Social Indicators Research*, 28(3), 195–223. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01079018>
169. Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(2), 276.
170. Diener, E., & Tov, W. (2007). Subjective well-being and peace. *Journal of Social Issues*, 63(2), 421–440.
171. Dimitrova, T., Ilieva, I., & Angelova, M. (2022). Exploring Factors Affecting Sustainable Consumption Behaviour. *Administrative Sciences*, 12(4), Article 4. <https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci12040155>
172. Djikic, M., & Langer, E. J. (2007). Toward mindful social comparison: When subjective and objective selves are mutually exclusive. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 25(3), 221–232.
173. Dolbec, P.Y., Fischer, E., & Canniford, R. (2021). Something old, something new: Enabled theory building in qualitative marketing research. *Marketing Theory*, 21(4), 443–461. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14705931211032257>
174. dos Santos, C. H., Gabriel, G. T., do Amaral, J. V. S., Montevechi, J. A. B., & de Queiroz, J. A. (2021). Decision-making in a fast fashion company in the Industry 4.0 era: A Digital Twin proposal to support operational planning. *The International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology*, 116(5–6), 1653–1666. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00170-021-07543-z>
175. Du, J., Kerkhof, P., & van Koningsbruggen, G. M. (2021). The reciprocal relationships between social media self-control failure, mindfulness and wellbeing: A longitudinal study. *PLoS ONE*, 16(8), 1–25. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0255648>
176. Dunn, E. W., Aknin, L. B., & Norton, M. I. (2008). Spending Money on Others Promotes Happiness. *Science, New Series*, 319(5870), 1687–1688.
177. Dunn, E. W., Gilbert, D. T., & Wilson, T. D. (2011). If money doesn't make you happy, then you probably aren't spending it right. *Journal of consumer psychology*, 21(2), 115–125.
178. Duong, C. D., Nguyen, T. H., & Nguyen, H. L. (2023). How green intrinsic and extrinsic motivations interact, balance and imbalance with each other to trigger green purchase intention and behavior: A polynomial regression with response surface analysis. *Heliyon*, 9(10), e20886. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e20886>
179. Durak, M., Senol-Durak, E., & Gencoz, T. (2010). Psychometric properties of the satisfaction with life scale among Turkish university students, correctional officers, and elderly adults. *Social Indicators Research*, 99, 413–429.
180. Durayappah, A. (2011). The 3P Model: A general theory of subjective well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 12, 681–716.
181. Duval, S., & Wicklund, R. A. (1972). A theory of objective self awareness.

182. Ebbes, P., Papies, D., & van Heerde, H. J. (2021). Dealing with endogeneity: A nontechnical guide for marketing researchers. In *Handbook of market research* (pp. 181–217). Springer.
183. Eckhardt, G. M., Belk, R., & Devinney, T. M. (2010). Why don't consumers consume ethically? *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 9(6), 426–436.
184. Edwards, J. R., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2000). On the nature and direction of relationships between constructs and measures. *Psychological methods*, 5(2), 155.
185. Ehlers, S. (2016, September 20). *Zara goes sustainable with new Join Life initiative..* [FashionUnited] <https://fashionunited.uk/news/fashion/zara-goes-sustainable-with-new-join-life-initiative/2016092021831>
186. Ekici, A., Joseph Sirgy, M., Lee, D. J., Yu, G. B., & Bosnjak, M. (2018). The Effects of Shopping Well-Being and Shopping Ill-Being on Consumer Life Satisfaction. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 13(2), 333–353. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-017-9524-9>
187. Ekici, A., & Watson, F. (2022). A model of consumer life-satisfaction amidst the COVID-19 pandemic: Evidence and policy implications. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 56(1), 158–179. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12393>
188. Ekström, K. M., & Salomonson, N. (2014). Reuse and Recycling of Clothing and Textiles—A Network Approach. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 34(3), 383–399. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146714529658>
189. Elgin, J. E. (2010). *The Impact of Neighbourhood Characteristics and Support on Well-being, Housing Satisfaction, and Residential Stability for People with a Mental Illness* (doctoral thesis). The Faculty of Economics, University of Ljubljana.
190. Elgin, D. (2010). *Voluntary Simplicity Second Revised Edition*. HarperCollins. <https://www.harpercollins.com/products/voluntary-simplicity-second-revised-edition-duane-elgin>
191. El Hedhli, K., Chebat, J. C., & Sirgy, M. J. (2013). Shopping well-being at the mall: Construct, antecedents, and consequences. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(7), 856–863. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.06.011>
192. Elhoushy, S., & Lanzini, P. (2020). Factors Affecting Sustainable Consumer Behavior in the MENA Region: A Systematic Review. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 33, 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530.2020.1781735>
193. Elkington, J. (2013). Enter the triple bottom line. In *The triple bottom line* (pp. 1–16). Routledge. <https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9781849773348-1/enter-triple-bottom-line-john-elkington>
194. Ellevete. (n.d.). *Why Sustainable Fashion Matters*. Forbes. Retrieved 15 March 2023 from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/ellevete/2019/10/07/why-sustainable-fashion-matters/>
195. Elo, S., E., S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1), 107–115.
196. Emerson, S. D., Guhn, M., & Gadermann, A. M. (2017). Measurement invariance of the Satisfaction with Life Scale: Reviewing three decades of research. *Quality of Life Research*, 26(9), 2251–2264.

197. Ericson, T., Kjønsstad, B. G., & Barstad, A. (2014). Mindfulness and sustainability. *Ecological Economics*, 104, 73–79.
198. Erpič, S. C. (2013). The role of teachers in promoting students' motivation for physical education and physical activity: A review of the recent literature from a self-determination perspective. *International Journal of Physical Education*, 50(2), 2–12. <https://doi.org/10.5771/2747-6073-2013-2-2>
199. Eshaghi, M. S., Ranjbarian, B., & Ansari, A. (2021). The image and customer well-being stems from banking activities. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 13(8), 1807–1825. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JIMA-10-2020-0314>
200. Etkin, J., & Mogilner, C. (2016). Does variety among activities increase happiness? *Journal of Consumer Research*, 43(2), 210–229.
201. European Economic and Social Committee. (2022). *European Consumer Day 2022: Empowering consumers for a more sustainable world*. <https://www.eesc.europa.eu/sites/default/files/files/qe-07-23-032-en-n.pdf>
202. Faganel, A., Jecl, I., & Baruca, A. (2022). The main growth strategies of telecommunication operators in the segment of SOHOs. *Strategic Management-International Journal of Strategic Management and Decision Support Systems in Strategic Management*, 27(3), 004-016.
203. Freestone, O. M., & McGoldrick, P. J. (2008). Motivations of the ethical consumer. *Journal of business ethics*, 79, 445-467.
204. Fei, S., Zeng, J. Y., & Jin, C. H. (2022). The Role of Consumer' Social Capital on Ethical Consumption and Consumer Happiness. *SAGE Open*, 12(2), 21582440221095026. <https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440221095026>
205. Feldman, G., Hayes, A., Kumar, S., Greeson, J., & Laurenceau, J. P. (2007). Mindfulness and emotion regulation: The development and initial validation of the Cognitive and Affective Mindfulness Scale-Revised (CAMS-R). *Journal of psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 29, 177-190.
206. Felix, A. T., Asuamah, S. Y., & Darkwa, B. (2013). Are demographic variables determinants of recycling behaviour in Ghana. *International Journal of Innovative Research & Development*, 2(7), 381–387.
207. Fernandes, M. F., & Randall, D. M. (1992). The nature of social desirability response effects in ethics research. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 183–205.
208. Ferreira de Araújo, M. K., Fernandes de Mesquita, R., Ney Matos, F. R., & do Carmo Sobreira, M. (2022). Fashion Consumption Practices of Millennials Women: Between Fast and Slow Fashion. *Brazilian Journal of Management / Revista de Administração Da UFSM*, 15(4), 615–633. <https://doi.org/10.5902/1983465970206>
209. Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics using SPSS* (Third). Sage Publications Ltd.
210. Fiol, C. M., & O'Connor, E. J. (2003). Walking up! Mindfulness in the face of bandwagons. *Academy of Management Review*, 28, 54–70.
211. Fischer, D., Böhme, T., & Geiger, S. M. (2017). Measuring young consumers' sustainable consumption behavior: Development and validation of the YCSCB scale. *Young Consumers*, 18(3), 312–326. <https://doi.org/10.1108/YC-03-2017-00671>

212. Fischer, D., Stanszus, L., Geiger, S., Grossman, P., & Schrader, U. (2017). Mindfulness and sustainable consumption: A systematic literature review of research approaches and findings. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 162, 544–558.
213. Fisher, G., & Aguinis, H. (2017). Using Theory Elaboration to Make Theoretical Advancements. *Organizational Research Methods*, 20(3), 438–464. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428116689707>
214. Fletcher, K. (2008). *Sustainable fashion and textiles: Design journeys* (NTFOT). Earthscan.
215. Fletcher, K. (2013). *Sustainable fashion and textiles: Design journeys*. Routledge.
216. Follette, V. M., & Hazlett-Stevens, H. (2016). Mindfulness and acceptance theories. In *APA handbook of clinical psychology: Theory and research*, Vol. 2 (pp. 273–302). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/14773-010>
217. Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39–50. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800104>
218. Fox-Suliaman, J. (2023, November 15). *Long-Haul Report: 10 Fall Trends That Will Be Around Well Into 2024*. [Who What Wear UK]. <https://www.whowhatwear.co.uk/longterm-fashion-trends-fall-to-spring-2024>
219. Frank, P., Fischer, D., Stanszus, L., Grossman, P., & Schrader, U. (2021). Mindfulness as self-confirmation? An exploratory intervention study on potentials and limitations of mindfulness-based interventions in the context of environmental and sustainability education. *The Journal of Environmental Education*, 52(6), 417–444. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00958964.2021.1966352>
220. Fredrickson, Barbara. (2011). *Positivity: Groundbreaking research to release your inner optimist and thrive*. Oneworld.
221. Friese, M., & Hofmann, W. (2016). State mindfulness, self-regulation, and emotional experience in everyday life. *Motivation Science*, 2(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1037/mot0000027>
222. Fu, S. Y. K., Anderson, D., Courtney, M., & McAvan, B. (2006). The relationship between country of residence, gender and the quality of life in Australian and Taiwanese midlife residents. *Social Indicators Research*, 79, 25–49.
223. Gadermann, A. M., Schonert-Reichl, K. A., & Zumbo, B. D. (2010). Investigating validity evidence of the satisfaction with life scale adapted for children. *Social Indicators Research*, 96, 229–247.
224. Galbreth, M. R., & Ghosh, B. (2013). Competition and Sustainability: The Impact of Consumer Awareness. *Decision Sciences*, 44(1), 127–159. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-5915.2012.00395.x>
225. Garcia-Torres, S., Rey-Garcia, M., & Albareda-Vivo, L. (2017). Effective disclosure in the fast-fashion industry: From sustainability reporting to action. *Sustainability*, 9(12), 2256.

226. Garland, E. L., Farb, N. A., Goldin, P. R., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2015a). Mindfulness broadens awareness and builds eudaimonic meaning: A process model of mindful positive emotion regulation. *Psychological Inquiry*, 26(4), 293–314.
227. Garland, E. L., Farb, N. A., Goldin, P. R., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2015b). The mindfulness-to-meaning theory: Extensions, applications, and challenges at the attention–appraisal–emotion interface. *Psychological Inquiry*, 26(4), 377–387.
228. Garland, E. L., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2019). Positive psychological states in the arc from mindfulness to self-transcendence: Extensions of the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory and applications to addiction and chronic pain treatment. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 28, 184–191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2019.01.004>
229. Garland, E. L., Hanley, A. W., Goldin, P. R., & Gross, J. J. (2017). Testing the mindfulness-to-meaning theory: Evidence for mindful positive emotion regulation from a reanalysis of longitudinal data. *PLOS ONE*, 12(12), e0187727. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0187727>
230. Garner, B., Thornton, C., Luo Pawluk, A., Mora Cortez, R., Johnston, W., & Ayala, C. (2022). Utilizing text-mining to explore consumer happiness within tourism destinations. *Journal of Business Research*, 139, 1366–1377. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.08.025>
231. Gaston-Breton, C., Sørensen, E. B., & Thomsen, T. U. (2020). “I want to break free!” How experiences of freedom foster consumer happiness. *Journal of Business Research*, 121, 22–32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.07.035>
232. Gatersleben, B., Meadows, J., Abrahamse, W., & Jackson, T. (2008). Materialistic and environmental values of young volunteers in nature conservation projects. *RESOLVE Working Paper Series 07/08*. Guildford: University of Surrey.
233. Geer, J. H., Davison, G. C., & Gatchel, R. I. (1970). Reduction of stress in humans through nonveridical perceived control of aversive stimulation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 16(4), 731.
234. Gefen, D. (2003). Assessing Unidimensionality Through LISREL: An Explanation and an Example. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 12. <https://doi.org/10.17705/1CAIS.01202>
235. Gefen, D., Straub, D., & Boudreau, M.-C. (2000). Structural equation modeling and regression: Guidelines for research practice. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 4(1), 7.
236. Geiger, S. M., Fischer, D., & Schrader, U. (2018). Measuring What Matters in Sustainable Consumption: An Integrative Framework for the Selection of Relevant Behaviors. *Sustainable Development*, 26(1), 18–33. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.1688>
237. Geiger, S. M., Fischer, D., Schrader, U., & Grossman, P. (2020). Meditating for the Planet: Effects of a Mindfulness-Based Intervention on Sustainable Consumption Behaviors. *Environment and Behavior*, 52(9), 1012–1042. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013916519880897>
238. Geiger, S. M., Grossman, P., & Schrader, U. (2019). Mindfulness and sustainability: Correlation or causation? *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 28, 23–27.

239. Generation Z. In Wikipedia. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Generation_Z
240. Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J. C. (1988). An Updated Paradigm for Scale Development Incorporating Unidimensionality and Its Assessment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25(2), 186–192. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378802500207>
241. Giebelhausen, M., Chun, H. H., Cronin, J. J., & Hult, G. T. M. (2016). Adjusting the Warm-Glow Thermostat: How Incentivizing Participation in Voluntary Green Programs Moderates Their Impact on Service Satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 80(4), 56–71. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.14.0497>
242. Gilal, F. G., Chandani, K., Gilal, R. G., Gilal, N. G., Gilal, W. G., & Channa, N. A. (2020). Towards a new model for green consumer behaviour: A self-determination theory perspective. *Sustainable Development*, 28(4), 711–722. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.2021>
243. Gilman, R., & Huebner, E. S. (2000). Review of Life Satisfaction Measures for Adolescents. *Behaviour Change*, 17(3), 178–195. <https://doi.org/10.1375/behc.17.3.178>
244. Glaesmer, H., Grande, G., Braehler, E., & Roth, M. (2011). The German Version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS). *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 27(2), 127–132. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759/a000058>
245. Gligor, D., Bozkurt, S., & Welch, E. (2023). Building theoretical sand castles: The case of customer brand engagement. *Journal of Marketing Analytics*, 11(3), 297–316. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41270-023-00227-5>
246. Goldstein, J. (2016). *Mindfulness: A Practical Guide to Awakening*.
247. Gomes de Oliveira, L., Miranda, F. G., & de Paula Dias, M. A. (2022). Sustainable practices in slow and fast fashion stores: What does the customer perceive? *Cleaner Engineering and Technology*, 6, 100413. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clet.2022.100413>
248. Gonzalez, N. (2015). *Why is Slow Fashion So Slow to Catch On?* <https://www.triplepundit.com/story/2015/why-slow-fashion-so-slow-catch/58091>
249. Gorden, R. L. (1977). *Unidimensional Scaling of Social Variables: Concepts and Procedures*. The Free Press.
250. Gorenšek, M. (2020). Employee Motivation at the Workplace: Case Study of Slovenian Company. *ENTRENOVA-Enterprise Research Innovation*, 6(1), 291–297.
251. Goworek, H., Oxborrow, L., Claxton, S., McLaren, A., Cooper, T., & Hill, H. (2020). Managing sustainability in the fashion business: Challenges in product development for clothing longevity in the UK. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 629–641.
252. Granskog, A., Lee, L., Magnus, K. H., & Sawers, C. (2020). Survey: Consumer sentiment on sustainability in fashion. *McKinsey & Company*, 17.
253. Greenglass, E. R., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2009). Proactive coping, positive affect, and well-being: Testing for mediation using path analysis. *European Psychologist*, 14(1), 29–39.
254. Griffith, D. A., Lee, H. S., & Yalcinkaya, G. (2022). The use of social media and the prevalence of depression: A multi-country examination of value co-creation and consumer well-being. *International Marketing Review*, 39(1), 1–31. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IMR-07-2021-0214>

255. Grimm, P. (2010). Social desirability bias. *Wiley International Encyclopedia of Marketing*. https://oj8k.gitee.io/knowledge_management/files/readings/sdb_intro.pdf
256. Grossman, P. (2010). Mindfulness for psychologists: Paying kind attention to the perceptible. *Mindfulness*, 1(2), 87–97.
257. Grossman, P., Niemann, L., Schmidt, S., & Walach, H. (2004). Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health benefits: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 57(1), 35–43.
258. Grum, D. K., & Grum, B. (2014). *Relation between expectations of real estate buyers and their motivational and emotional characteristics*. SciencePark Research, Academic World Education & Research Centre.
259. Guanyu, Y., & Shumin, L. I. (2021). Research on the influence of environmental self-identity on low-carbon behaviors among university students. *Studies of Psychology and Behavior*, 19(3), 410.
260. Guevarra, D. A., & Howell, R. T. (2015). To have in order to do: Exploring the effects of consuming experiential products on well-being. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 25(1), 28–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2014.06.006>
261. Guillen-Royo, M. (2019). Sustainable consumption and wellbeing: Does on-line shopping matter? *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 229, 1112–1124. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.05.061>
262. Roux, D., & Guiot, D. (2008). Measuring second-hand shopping motives, antecedents and consequences. *Recherche et Applications En Marketing (English Edition)*, 23(4), 63-91.
263. Gunaratana, V. H. M. (2002). Mindfulness in Plain English. 1990. *Wisdom, Berkeley, CA, USA*.
264. Gupta, S., Gwozdz, W., & Gentry, J. (2019). The role of style versus fashion orientation on sustainable apparel consumption. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 39(2), 188–207.
265. Gwilt, A., & Rissanen, T. (Eds.). (2011). *Shaping Sustainable Fashion: Changing the Way We Make and Use Clothes*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203126172>
266. Gwozdz, W., Nielsen, K., & Mueller, T. (2017). An Environmental Perspective on Clothing Consumption: Consumer Segments and Their Behavioral Patterns. *Sustainability*, 9(5), 762. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su9050762>
267. Ha-Brookshire, J. E., & Hodges, N. N. (2009). Socially responsible consumer behavior? Exploring used clothing donation behavior. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 27(3), 179–196.
268. Haigh, E. A. P., Moore, M. T., Kashdan, T. B., & Fresco, D. M. (2011). Examination of the Factor Structure and Concurrent Validity of the Langer Mindfulness/Mindlessness Scale. *Assessment*, 18(1), 11–26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191110386342>
269. Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., & Thiele, K. O. (2017). Mirror, mirror on the wall: A comparative evaluation of composite-based structural equation modeling methods. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 45(5), 616–632. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-017-0517-x>

270. Hall, J. (2018). Digital kimono: Fast fashion, slow fashion? *Fashion Theory*, 22(3), 283–307.
271. Haller, C. S. (2015). Mindful Creativity Scale (MCS): Validation of a German version of the Langer Mindfulness Scale with patients with severe TBI and controls. *Brain Injury*, 29(4), 517–526. Scopus. <https://doi.org/10.3109/02699052.2014.989906>
272. Han, J., Seo, Y., & Ko, E. (2017). Staging luxury experiences for understanding sustainable fashion consumption: A balance theory application. *Journal of Business Research*, 74, 162–167. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.10.029>
273. Hanafiah, M. H. (2020). Formative Vs. Reflective Measurement Model: Guidelines for Structural Equation Modeling Research. *International Journal of Analysis and Applications*, 18(5), Article 5.
274. Hanna, R. C., Weinberg, B., Dant, R. P., & Berger, P. D. (2005). Do internet-based surveys increase personal self-disclosure? *Journal of Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management*, 12(4), 342–356. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.dbm.3240270>
275. Harris, F., Roby, H., & Dibb, S. (2016). Sustainable clothing: Challenges, barriers and interventions for encouraging more sustainable consumer behaviour. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 40(3), 309–318. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12257>
276. Hartmann, P., & Apaolaza-Ibáñez, V. (2012). Consumer attitude and purchase intention toward green energy brands: The roles of psychological benefits and environmental concern. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(9), 1254–1263.
277. Hartmann, P., Eisend, M., Apaolaza, V., & D'Souza, C. (2017). Warm glow vs. altruistic values: How important is intrinsic emotional reward in proenvironmental behavior? *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 52, 43–55. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2017.05.006>
278. Hassan, L. M., Shiu, E., & Shaw, D. (2016). Who Says There is an Intention–Behaviour Gap? Assessing the Empirical Evidence of an Intention–Behaviour Gap in Ethical Consumption. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 136(2), 219–236. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2440-0>
279. Hattie, J. (1985). Methodology review: Assessing unidimensionality of tests and items. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, 9(2), 139–164.
280. Hattie, J., Krakowski, K., Jane Rogers, H., & Swaminathan, H. (1996). An assessment of Stout's index of essential unidimensionality. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, 20(1), 1–14.
281. Hayes, A. F. (2018). Partial, conditional, and moderated moderated mediation: Quantification, inference, and interpretation. *Communication Monographs*, 85(1), 4–40. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637751.2017.1352100>
282. Hayes, S. C., Strosahl, K. D., & Wilson, K. G. (1999). *Acceptance and commitment therapy*. Guilford press New York.
283. Headey, B., Holmstrom, E., & Wearing, A. (1985). Models of well-being and ill-being. *Social Indicators Research*, 17, 211–234.
284. Hedegård, L., Gustafsson, E., & Paras, M. K. (2020). Management of sustainable fashion retail based on reuse– A struggle with multiple logics. *The International Review*

- of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 30(3), 311–330.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09593969.2019.1667855>
285. Hefferon, K., & Boniwell, I. (2011). *Positive psychology: Theory, research and applications*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
 286. Hellén, K., & Sääksjärvi, M. (2011). Happiness as a predictor of service quality and commitment for utilitarian and hedonic services. *Psychology & Marketing*, 28(9), 934–957.
 287. Helm, S., & Subramaniam, B. (2019). Exploring Socio-Cognitive Mindfulness in the Context of Sustainable Consumption. *Sustainability*, 11(13), Article 13.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/su11133692>
 288. Henkens, B., Verleye, K., & Larivière, B. (2021). The smarter, the better?! Customer well-being, engagement, and perceptions in smart service systems. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 38(2), 425–447.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2020.09.006>
 289. Henninger, C. E., Alevizou, P. J., & Oates, C. J. (2016). What is sustainable fashion? *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 20(4), 400–416.
 290. Henninger, C. E., Bürklin, N., & Niinimäki, K. (2019). The clothes swapping phenomenon—when consumers become suppliers. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 23(3), 327–344.
 291. Henriques, G. (2015, February 6). *What Is Mindfulness and How Does It Work?* | *Psychology Today* [published on blog]
<https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/theory-knowledge/201502/what-is-mindfulness-and-how-does-it-work>
 292. Herjanto, H., Scheller-Sampson, J., & Erickson, E. (2016). The increasing phenomenon of second-hand clothes purchase: insights from the literature. *Jurnal Manajemen Dan Kewirausahaan*, 18(1), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.9744/jmk.18.1.1-15>
 293. Herziger, A., Claborn, K. A., & Brooks, J. S. (2020). Is There Hope for the Double Dividend? How Social Context Can Shape Synergies and Tradeoffs between Sustainable Consumption and Well-Being. *Ecological Economics*, 176, 106736.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2020.106736>
 294. Higgins, E. T., & Scholer, A. A. (2009). Engaging the consumer: The science and art of the value creation process. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 19(2), 100–114.
 295. Hill, J., & Lee, H.H. (2012). Young Generation Y consumers' perceptions of sustainability in the apparel industry. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 16(4), 477–491.
 296. Hill, M. (2023, July 3). What Is Slow Fashion? [GoodOnYou].
<https://goodonyou.eco/what-is-slow-fashion/>
 297. Hiller Connell, K. Y. (2011). Exploring consumers' perceptions of eco-conscious apparel acquisition behaviors. *Social Responsibility Journal*, 7(1), 61–73.

298. Hiller Connell, K. Y., & Kozar, J. M. (2009). Students' attitude-behavior gap on issues of labor exploitation. In ITAA 2009 Proceedings# 66. *International Textile and Apparel Association, Inc.*.
299. Kozar, J. M., & Hiller Connell, K. Y. (2010). Socially responsible knowledge and behaviors: Comparing upper-vs. lower-classmen. *College Student Journal*, 44(2), 279-293.
300. Ho, C. W., Wu, C. C., & Hsieh, M. T. (2023). The Impact of Awareness for the Consequences from Adopting Electric Scooters—The Crucial Role of Warm Glow and Extrinsic Appeal. *Energies*, 16(3), 1062. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en16031062>
301. Holland, R. W., Aarts, H., & Langendam, D. (2006). Breaking and creating habits on the working floor: A field- experiment on the power of implementation intentions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 42(6), 776–783.
302. Hollebeek, L., & Belk, R. (2018). Engagement-facilitating technology and stakeholder wellbeing, call for special issue. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*.
303. Hossain, S. (2005). Poverty, household strategies and coping with urban life: Examining 'livelihood framework' in Dhaka City, Bangladesh. *Bangladesh E-Journal of Sociology*, 2(1), 1–8.
304. Hosta, M., & Zabkar, V. (2021). Antecedents of Environmentally and Socially Responsible Sustainable Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 171(2), 273–293. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04416-0>
305. Hou, C., & Sarigollu, E. (2022). Is bigger better? How the scale effect influences green purchase intention: The case of washing machine. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 65, 102894. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2021.102894>
306. Howell, A. J., Dopko, R. L., Passmore, H.-A., & Buro, K. (2011). Nature connectedness: Associations with well-being and mindfulness. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(2), 166–171.
307. Howell, R. T., & Howell, C. J. (2008). The relation of economic status to subjective well-being in developing countries: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 134(4), 536.
308. Hsee, C. K., Yang, Y., Li, N., & Shen, L. (2009). Wealth, warmth, and well-being: Whether happiness is relative or absolute depends on whether it is about money, acquisition, or consumption. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 46(3), 396–409.
309. Hsieh, Y. C., Chiu, H. C., Tang, Y. C., & Lin, W. Y. (2018). Does Raising Value Co-creation Increase All Customers' Happiness? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 152(4), 1053–1067. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3293-5>
310. Huang, M.H., & Rust, R. T. (2011). Sustainability and consumption. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39(1), 40–54. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-010-0193-6>
311. Hulme, D., & Toye, J. (2013). *Understanding Poverty and Well-Being: Bridging the Disciplines*. Routledge.

312. Huta, V., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Pursuing pleasure or virtue: The differential and overlapping well-being benefits of hedonic and eudaimonic motives. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 11, 735–762.
313. Hwang, K., & Kim, H. (2018). Are Ethical Consumers Happy? Effects of Ethical Consumers' Motivations Based on Empathy Versus Self-orientation on Their Happiness. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 151(2), 579–598. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3236-1>
314. Insight, F. (n.d.). *The State of Consumer Spending: Gen Z Shoppers Demand Sustainable Retail*. Retrieved March 24, 2023 from <https://www.firstinsight.com/white-papers-posts/gen-z-shoppers-demand-sustainability>
315. Iran, S., & Schrader, U. (2017). Collaborative fashion consumption and its environmental effects. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 21(4), 468–482.
316. Isen, A. M. (1970). Success, failure, attention, and reaction to others: The warm glow of success. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 15(4), 294.
317. Isen, A. M., Labroo, A. A., & Durlach, P. (2004). An influence of product and brand name on positive affect: Implicit and explicit measures. *Motivation and Emotion*, 28, 43–63.
318. Ivanova, D., Stadler, K., Steen-Olsen, K., Wood, R., Vita, G., Tukker, A., & Hertwich, E. G. (2016). Environmental impact assessment of household consumption. *Journal of Industrial Ecology*, 20(3), 526–536.
319. Ivens, J. (2007). *The Development of a Happiness Measure for Schoolchildren*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02667360701507301>
320. Ivtzan, I., Gardner, H. E., & Smailova, Z. (2011). Mindfulness meditation and curiosity: The contributing factors to wellbeing and the process of closing the self-discrepancy gap. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 1(3), Article 3. <https://internationaljournalofwellbeing.org/index.php/ijow/article/view/60>
321. Ivtzan, I., Young, T., Martman, J., Jeffrey, A., Lomas, T., Hart, R., & Eiroa-Orosa, F. J. (2016). Integrating Mindfulness into Positive Psychology: A Randomised Controlled Trial of an Online Positive Mindfulness Program. *Mindfulness*, 7(6), 1396–1407. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-016-0581-1>
322. Iwanow, H., McEachern, M. G., & Jeffrey, A. (2005). The influence of ethical trading policies on consumer apparel purchase decisions: A focus on The Gap Inc. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 33(5), 371–387.
323. Iwata, O. (2001). Attitudinal determinants of environmentally responsible behavior. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 29(2), 183–190.
324. Jackson, T. (2005). Live Better by Consuming Less? Is There a “Double Dividend” in Sustainable Consumption? *Journal of Industrial Ecology*, 9(1-2), 19-36. <https://doi.org/10.1162/1088198054084734>
325. Jackson, T., & Marks, N. (1999). Consumption, sustainable welfare and human needs—with reference to UK expenditure patterns between 1954 and 1994. *Ecological economics*, 28(3), 421-441.

326. Jackson, T., & Michaelis, L. (2003). Policies for sustainable consumption. Sustainable Development Commission
327. Jacob, J. C., & Brinkerhoff, M. B. (1999). Mindfulness and Subjective Well-being in the Sustainability Movement: A Further Elaboration of Multiple Discrepancies Theory. *Social Indicators Research*, 46(3), 341–368. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006941403481>
328. Jacob, J., Jovic, E., & Brinkerhoff, M. B. (2009). Personal and Planetary Well-being: Mindfulness Meditation, Pro-environmental Behavior and Personal Quality of Life in a Survey from the Social Justice and Ecological Sustainability Movement. *Social Indicators Research*, 93(2), 275–294. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-008-9308-6>
329. Jain, S. (2019). Factors affecting sustainable luxury purchase behavior: A conceptual framework. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 31(2), 130–146.
330. James, A. M., & Montgomery, B. (2017). The role of the retailer in socially responsible fashion purchasing. *Textiles and Clothing Sustainability: Sustainable Fashion and Consumption*, 1–40.
331. James, G. A., Kelley, M. E., Craddock, R. C., Holtzheimer, P. E., Dunlop, B., Nemeroff, C., Mayberg, H. S., & Hu, X. P. (2009). Exploratory Structural Equation Modeling of Resting-state fMRI: Applicability of group models to individual subjects. *NeuroImage*, 45(3), 778–787. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2008.12.049>
332. Jang, W. (Eric), Wann, D. L., & Ko, Y. J. (2018). Influence of team identification, game outcome, and game process on sport consumers' happiness. *Sport Management Review*, 21(1), 63–71. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2017.03.002>
333. Jensen, M. L., Dinger, M., Wright, R. T., & Thatcher, J. B. (2017). Training to mitigate phishing attacks using mindfulness techniques. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 34(2), 597–626.
334. Jia, L., & van der Linden, S. (2020). Green but not altruistic warm-glow predicts conservation behavior. *Conservation Science and Practice*, 2(7), e211. <https://doi.org/10.1111/csp2.211>
335. Jin Gam, H. (2011). Are fashion-conscious consumers more likely to adopt eco-friendly clothing? *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 15(2), 178–193. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13612021111132627>
336. Jonker, J., & Pennink, B. (2010). *The essence of research methodology: A concise guide for master and PhD students in management science*. Springer Science & Business Media.
337. Jordan, C. H., Wang, W., Donatoni, L., & Meier, B. P. (2014). Mindful eating: Trait and state mindfulness predict healthier eating behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 68, 107–111. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.04.013>
338. Josephson, A. (2023, March 31). *The Economics of Fast Fashion*. SmartAsset. <https://smartasset.com/credit-cards/the-economics-of-fast-fashion>
339. Joshanloo, M., & Jovanović, V. (2020). The relationship between gender and life satisfaction: Analysis across demographic groups and global regions. *Archives of Women's Mental Health*, 23(3), 331–338. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00737-019-00998-w>

340. Joy, A., Sherry, J. F., Venkatesh, A., Wang, J., & Chan, R. (2012). Fast Fashion, Sustainability, and the Ethical Appeal of Luxury Brands. *Fashion Theory*, 16(3), 273–295. <https://doi.org/10.2752/175174112X13340749707123>
341. Junça Silva, A., & Caetano, A. (2021). Validation of the Portuguese version of the Langer Mindfulness Scale and its relations to quality of work life and work-related outcomes. *TPM*, 28(3), 371–389.
342. Kabat-Zinn, J. (1990). *Full catastrophe living: Using the wisdom of your body and mind to face stress, pain, and illness*. Delacorte Press.
343. Kabat-Zinn, J. (1994). *Wherever you go, there you are: Mindfulness meditation in everyday life*. NY: Hyperion Books.
344. Kabat-Zinn, J. (2003). Mindfulness-based interventions in context: Past, present, and future. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 10, 144–156.
345. Kabat-Zinn, J. (2005). *Coming to Our Senses: Healing Ourselves and the World Through Mindfulness*. Piatkus Books.
346. Kabderian Dreyer, J., Sharma, V., & Smith, W. (2023). Warm-glow investment and the underperformance of green stocks. *International Review of Economics & Finance*, 83, 546–570. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iref.2022.10.006>
347. Kadić-Magalajlić, S., & Vida, I. (2013). *The role of moral judgement and emotional intelligence in salesperson behavior and performance* (doctorial thesis). Univerza v Ljubljani, Ekonomska fakulteta.
348. Kahneman, D., Diener, E., & Schwarz, N. (1999). *Well-being: Foundations of hedonic psychology*. Russell Sage Foundation.
349. Kahneman, D., & Knetsch, J. L. (1992). Valuing public goods: The purchase of moral satisfaction. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 22(1), 57–70. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0095-0696\(92\)90019-S](https://doi.org/10.1016/0095-0696(92)90019-S)
350. Kahneman, D., & Krueger, A. B. (2006). Developments in the Measurement of Subjective Well-Being. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 20(1), 3–24. <https://doi.org/10.1257/089533006776526030>
351. Kang, J., Liu, C., & Kim, S.H. (2013). Environmentally sustainable textile and apparel consumption: The role of consumer knowledge, perceived consumer effectiveness and perceived personal relevance. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 37(4), 442–452.
352. Kang, W., & Shao, B. (2023). The impact of voice assistants' intelligent attributes on consumer well-being: Findings from PLS-SEM and fsQCA. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 70, 103130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2022.103130>
353. Karaosman, H., Brun, A., & Morales-Alonso, G. (2017). Vogue or vague: sustainability performance appraisal in luxury fashion supply chains. *Sustainable management of luxury*, 301–330.
354. Karpen, I. O., & Conduit, J. (2020). Engaging in times of COVID-19 and beyond: Theorizing customer engagement through different paradigmatic lenses. *Journal of Service Management*, 31(6), 1163–1174.

355. KAS. (2015, October 4). *The Partnership for Sustainable Textiles* [Foundation Office India] <https://www.kas.de/en/web/indien/veranstaltungsberichte/detail/-/content/partnerschaft-fuer-nachhaltige-textilien1>
356. Kashdan, T. B., & Breen, W. E. (2007). Materialism and diminished well-being: Experiential avoidance as a mediating mechanism. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 26(5), 521–539.
357. Kasser, T., & Ahuvia, A. (2002). Materialistic values and well-being in business students. *European journal of social psychology*, 32(1), 137-146.
358. Kaur, T., & Luchs, M. G. (2022). Mindfulness enhances the values that promote sustainable consumption. *Psychology & Marketing*, 39(5), 990–1006. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.21636>
359. Kaya, G., & Zeren, M. (2022). Age-related differences in functional capacity, physical activity, life satisfaction, well-being and quality of life in Turkish adult population during COVID-19. *Journal of Basic and Clinical Health Sciences*, 6(1), 128–138. <https://doi.org/10.30621/jbachs.1000969>
360. Kelley, K., & Lai, K. (2011). Accuracy in Parameter Estimation for the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation: Sample Size Planning for Narrow Confidence Intervals. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 46, 1–32.
361. Kempf-Leonard, K. (2004). *Encyclopedia of social measurement*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, 2004.
362. Keng, S. L., Smoski, M. J., & Robins, C. J. (2011). Effects of mindfulness on psychological health: A review of empirical studies. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 31, 1041–1056.
363. Khan, A. (2022). *Types of Research Design*. Retrieved June 25, 2023 from <https://westernsydney.pressbooks.pub/customerinsights/chapter/chapter-6-types-of-research-design/>
364. Khare, A. (2023). Green apparel buying: Role of past behavior, knowledge and peer influence in the assessment of green apparel perceived benefits. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 35(1), 109–125.
365. Ki, C., & Kim, Y. (2016). Sustainable Versus Conspicuous Luxury Fashion Purchase: Applying Self-Determination Theory. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 44(3), 309–323. <https://doi.org/10.1111/fcsr.12147>
366. Kim, E., & Koh, E. (2018). Avoidant attachment and smartphone addiction in college students: The mediating effects of anxiety and self-esteem. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 84, 264–271. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.02.037>
367. Kim, E., Manchiraju, S., May, R., & Fincham, F. (2016, November). Sustainable Fashion Consumption and Happiness: A Self-Determination Theory Perspective. *International Textile and Apparel Association Annual Conference Proceedings* 73(1).
368. Kim, H. S., & Damhorst, M. L. (1998). Environmental concern and apparel consumption. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 16(3), 126-133.
369. Kim, H. Y., & Lee, Y. (2020). The effect of online customization on consumers' happiness and purchase intention and the mediating roles of autonomy, competence, and

- pride of authorship. *International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction*, 36(5), 403–413. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10447318.2019.1658375>
370. Kim, S. Y., Yeo, J., Sohn, S. H., Rha, J. Y., Choi, S., Choi, A. Young, & Shin, S. (2012). Toward a composite measure of green consumption: An exploratory study using a Korean sample. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 33, 199–214.
 371. Kirakozian, A. (2016). The determinants of household recycling: Social influence, public policies and environmental preferences. *Applied Economics*, 48(16), 1481–1503. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00036846.2015.1102843>
 372. Klarmann, M., & Feurer, S. (2018). Control Variables in Marketing Research. *Marketing ZFP*, 40(2), 26–40. <https://doi.org/10.15358/0344-1369-2018-2-26>
 373. Klussman, K., Nichols, A. L., Langer, J., Curtin, N., & Lindeman, M. I. H. (2022). The Relationship between Mindfulness and Subjective Well-Being: Examining the Indirect Effects of Self-Connection and Meaning in Life. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 17(4), 2423–2443. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-021-10025-9>
 374. Kollmuss, A., & Agyeman, J. (2002). Mind the Gap: Why do people act environmentally and what are the barriers to pro-environmental behavior? *Environmental Education Research*, 8(3), 239–260. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13504620220145401>
 375. Kołtuniuk, A., Witczak, I., Młynarska, A., Czajor, K., & Uchmanowicz, I. (2021). Satisfaction with life, satisfaction with job, and the level of care rationing among Polish nurses - A cross-sectional study. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 1-9.
 376. Kong, F., Wang, X., & Zhao, J. (2014). Dispositional mindfulness and life satisfaction: The role of core self-evaluations. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 56, 165–169.
 377. Koo, S., & Chae, Y. (2022). Wearable Technology in Fashion. In Y. A. Lee (Ed.), *Leading Edge Technologies in Fashion Innovation: Product Design and Development Process from Materials to the End Products to Consumers* (pp. 35–57). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-91135-5_3
 378. Kormos, C., & Gifford, R. (2014). The validity of self-report measures of proenvironmental behavior: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 40, 359–371. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2014.09.003>
 379. Koszewska, M. (2018). Circular economy—Challenges for the textile and clothing industry. *Autex Research Journal*, 18(4), 337–347.
 380. Kozłowski, A., Searcy, C., & Bardecki, M. (2018). The reDesign canvas: Fashion design as a tool for sustainability. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 183, 194–207.
 381. Kumar, A., Prakash, G., & Kumar, G. (2021). Does environmentally responsible purchase intention matter for consumers? A predictive sustainable model developed through an empirical study. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 58, 102270.
 382. Kursan Milaković, I., & Miočević, D. (2022). Consumer's transition to online clothing buying during the COVID-19 pandemic: Exploration through protection motivation theory and consumer well-being. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and*

- Management: An International Journal*, 27(1), 21–41. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-04-2021-0105>
383. Kusier, A. O., & Folker, A. P. (2021). The satisfaction with life scale: Philosophical foundation and practical limitations. *Health Care Analysis*, 29, 21–38.
 384. Kühne, S. (2018). From Strangers to Acquaintances? Interviewer Continuity and Socially Desirable Responses in Panel Surveys. *Survey Research Methods*, 12(2), Article 2. <https://doi.org/10.18148/srm/2018.v12i2.7299>
 385. Kütük, H., Hatun, O., Ekşi, H., & Ekşi, F. (2022). Investigation of the Relationships Between Mindfulness, Wisdom, Resilience and Life Satisfaction in Turkish Adult Population. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10942-022-00468-w>
 386. La Guardia, J. G., Ryan, R. M., Couchman, C. E., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Within-person variation in security of attachment: A self-determination theory perspective on attachment, need fulfillment, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79(3), 367.
 387. Laitala, K., Boks, C., & Klepp, I. G. (2011). Potential for environmental improvements in laundering. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 35(2), 254–264.
 388. Lam, L. H., & Watkins, J. (2022). Pre-owned fashion as sustainable consumerism? Opportunities and challenges in the Vietnam market. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, ahead-of-print(ahead-of-print), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-03-2022-0067>
 389. Landes, X. (2015). *Sustainable Happiness: Why Waste Prevention May Lead to an Increase in Quality of Life*.
 390. Lang, C., Seo, S., & Liu, C. (2019). Motivations and obstacles for fashion renting: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 23(4), 519–536.
 391. Langer, E., 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, 635.
 392. Langer, E. J. (1989). *Mindfulness* (pp. xiv, 234). Addison-Wesley/Addison Wesley Longman.
 393. Langer, E. J. (1992). Matters of mind: Mindfulness/mindlessness in perspective. *Consciousness and Cognition*, 1(3), 289–305. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-8100\(92\)90066-J](https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-8100(92)90066-J)
 394. Langer, E. J. (1993). A Mindful Education. *Educational Psychologist*, 28(1), 43–50. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2801_4
 395. Langer, E. J. (1997). *The power of mindful learning*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
 396. Langer, E. J. (2016). *The power of mindful learning*. Hachette UK.
 397. Langer, E. J., Blanger, E. J. (2000). Mindful learning. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9(6), 220–223.

398. Langer, E., 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, 635.
399. Langer, E. J. (2005). *On Becoming an Artist: Reinventing Yourself Through Mindful Creativity*. Ballantine Books.
400. Langer, E. J., Heffernan, D., & Kiester, M. (1988). Reducing burnout in an institutional setting: An experimental investigation. *Unpublished manuscript, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA*.
401. Langer, E. J., Janis, I. L., & Wolfer, J. A. (1975). Reduction of psychological stress in surgical patients. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 11(2), 155-165.
402. Langer, E. J., & Moldoveanu, M. (2000). Mindfulness Research and the Future. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(1), 129–139. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00155>
403. Langer, E. J., & Ngnoumen, C. (2002). Well-Being: Mindfulness versus Positive Evaluation. In *The Oxford Handbook of Positive Psychology, 3rd Edition*: Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199396511.013.23>
404. Langer, E., & Moldoveanu, M. (2000). The construct of mindfulness. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56, 1–9.
405. Langer, E. J., & Piper, A. I. (1987). The prevention of mindlessness. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 53(2), 280.
406. Lastovicka, J. L., Bettencourt, L. A., Hughner, R. S., & Kuntze, R. J. (1999). Lifestyle of the tight and frugal: Theory and measurement. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26(1), 85–98.
407. Lau, M. A., Bishop, S. R., Segal, Z. V., Buis, T., Anderson, N. D., Carlson, L., Shapiro, S., Carmody, J., Abbey, S. & Devins, G. (2006). The Toronto mindfulness scale: Development and validation. *Journal of clinical psychology*, 62(12), 1445-1467.
408. Lau, O., & Ki, C. W. (2021). Can consumers’ gamified, personalized, and engaging experiences with VR fashion apps increase in-app purchase intention by fulfilling needs? *Fashion and Textiles*, 8(1), 36. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40691-021-00270-9>
409. Lavuri, R., Jindal, A., Akram, U., Naik, B. K. R., & Halibas, A. S. (2023). Exploring the antecedents of sustainable consumers’ purchase intentions: Evidence from emerging countries. *Sustainable Development*, 31(1), 280–291. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.2389>
410. Lazaridou, A., & Kalogianni, C. (2013). Mindfulness and sexuality. *Sexual & Relationship Therapy*, 28(1/2), 29–38. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14681994.2013.773398>
411. Leach, A. M., Majidi, A. N., Galloway, J. N., & Greene, A. J. (2013). Toward Institutional Sustainability: A Nitrogen Footprint Model for a University. *Sustainability: The Journal of Record*, 6(4), 211–219. <https://doi.org/10.1089/SUS.2013.9852>
412. Leconte, J. (2023). *Top fashion trends for Fall-Winter 2023-2024*. Justine Leconte. <https://www.justineleconte.com/blogs/news/fashion-trends-fall-winter-2023-2024>
413. Lee, D. J., Sirgy, M. J., Larsen, V., & Wright, N. D. (2002). Developing a Subjective Measure of Consumer Well-Being. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 22(2), 158–169. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146702238219>

414. Lee, J., Weiss, A., Ford, C. G., Conyers, D., & Shook, N. J. (2023). The indirect effect of trait mindfulness on life satisfaction through self-esteem and perceived stress. *Current Psychology*, 42(16), 13333–13345. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-02586-7>
415. Lee, M. S. W., & Ahn, C. S. Y. (2016). Anti-consumption, Materialism, and Consumer Well-being. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 50(1), 18–47. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12089>
416. Lee, Z. T., & Ling, K. K. (2023). Relationship between dispositional mindfulness and life satisfaction among undergraduate students in Malaysia: Cognitive reappraisal as the mediator. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 33–72.
417. Leonard-Barton, D. (1981). Voluntary simplicity lifestyles and energy conservation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 8(3), 243–252.
418. Leong, C. T., & Rasli, A. (2013). Investigation of the Langer's mindfulness scale from an industry perspective and an examination of the relationship between the variables. *American Journal of Economics*, 3, 74–81.
419. Leonidou, C. N., & Skarmas, D. (2017). Gray shades of green: Causes and consequences of green skepticism. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 144(2), 401–415.
420. Leonidou, L. C., Leonidou, C. N., & Kvasova, O. (2010). Antecedents and outcomes of consumer environmentally friendly attitudes and behaviour. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 26(13–14), 1319–1344. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257X.2010.523710>
421. Lewin, C., & Somekh, B. (2011). Theory and methods in social research. *Theory and Methods in Social Research*, 1–368.
422. Lewis, S., & Cooper, C. L. (1999). The Work–Family Research Agenda in Changing Contexts. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4(4), 382–393. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.4.4.382>
423. Li, D., & Atkinson, L. (2020). The role of psychological ownership in consumer happiness. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 37(6), 629–638. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-09-2019-3420>
424. Li, X., Ma, L., & Li, Q. (2022). How Mindfulness Affects Life Satisfaction: Based on the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 887940. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.887940>
425. Liang, J., & Xu, Y. (2018). Second-hand clothing consumption: A generational cohort analysis of the Chinese market. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 42(1), 120–130.
426. Liang, S., Dong, M., Zhao, H., Song, Y., & Yang, A. (2022). Mindfulness and life satisfaction: The moderating effect of self-control and the moderated moderating effect of resilience. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 185, 111241. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2021.111241>
427. Lim, S. H., & Kim, D. J. (2022). The effect of unmindfulness on impulse purchasing behaviours in the context of online shopping from a classical attitude theory perspective. *Behaviour & Information Technology*, 41(16), 3432–3449. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929X.2021.1996630>

428. Lim, W. M. (2017). Inside the sustainable consumption theoretical toolbox: Critical concepts for sustainability, consumption, and marketing. *Journal of Business Research*, 78, 69–80. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.05.001>
429. Lin, P. C., & Huang, Y. H. (2012). The influence factors on choice behavior regarding green products based on the theory of consumption values. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 22(1), 11–18.
430. Lindell, M. K., & Whitney, D. J. (2001). Accounting for common method variance in cross-sectional research designs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 114.
431. Liu, A., Baines, E., & Ku, L. (2022). Slow Fashion Is Positively Linked to Consumers' Well-Being: Evidence from an Online Questionnaire Study in China. *Sustainability*, 14(13990), 13990. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su142113990>
432. Liu, W., Oosterveer, P., & Spaargaren, G. (2016). Promoting sustainable consumption in China: A conceptual framework and research review. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 134, 13–21.
433. Long, D. G. (2017). 'Utility' and the 'Utility Principle': Hume, Smith, Bentham, Mill. In *Jeremy Bentham* (pp. 3–30). Routledge.
434. López, T., Riedler, T., Köhnen, H., & Fütterer, M. (2022). Digital value chain restructuring and labour process transformations in the fast-fashion sector: Evidence from the value chains of Zara & H&M. *Global Networks*, 22(4), 684–700. <https://doi.org/10.1111/glob.12353>
435. López-Ortega, M., Torres-Castro, S., & Rosas-Carrasco, O. (2016). Psychometric properties of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS): Secondary analysis of the Mexican Health and Aging Study. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 14, 1–7.
436. Lorek, S., & Spangenberg, J. H. (2001). Indicators for environmentally sustainable household consumption. *International Journal of Sustainable Development*, 4(1), 101–120.
437. Lovelace, M., & Brickman, P. (2013). Best practices for measuring students' attitudes toward learning science. *CBE—Life Sciences Education*, 12(4), 606–617.
438. Lundblad, L., & Davies, I. A. (2016). The values and motivations behind sustainable fashion consumption. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 15(2), 149–162. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.1559>
439. Lynch, T. R., Chapman, A. L., Rosenthal, M. Z., Kuo, J. R., & Linehan, M. M. (2006). Mechanisms of change in dialectical behavior therapy: Theoretical and empirical observations. *Journal of clinical psychology*, 62(4), 459–480.
440. Lyubomirsky, S. (2012). *Hedonic Adaptation to Positive and Negative Experiences*. In *The Oxford Handbook of Stress, Health, and Coping*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780195375343.013.0011>
441. Lyubomirsky, S., Dickerhoof, R., Boehm, J. K., & Sheldon, K. M. (2011). Becoming happier takes both a will and a proper way: An experimental longitudinal intervention to boost well-being. *Emotion*, 11(2), 391–402. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022575>

442. Lyubomirsky, S., King, L., & Diener, E. (2005). The Benefits of Frequent Positive Affect: Does Happiness Lead to Success? *Psychological Bulletin*, 131(6), 803–855. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.131.6.803>
443. Lyubomirsky, S., & Lepper, H. S. (1999). A measure of subjective happiness: Preliminary reliability and construct validation. *Social Indicators Research*, 46, 137–155.
444. MacCallum, R. C., & Browne, M. W. (1993). The use of causal indicators in covariance structure models: some practical issues. *Psychological bulletin*, 114(3), 533.
445. Machado, M. A. D., Almeida, S. O. de, Bollick, L. C., & Bragagnolo, G. (2019). Second-hand fashion market: Consumer role in circular economy. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 23(3), 382–395. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-07-2018-0099>
446. MacInnis, D. J., & Folkes, V. S. (2010). The disciplinary status of consumer behavior: A sociology of science perspective on key controversies. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(6), 899–914.
447. Malhotra, N. K. (2010). Introduction: Analyzing Accumulated Knowledge and Influencing future Research. *Review of Marketing Research* 7, xiii–xxviii. [https://doi.org/10.1108/S1548-6435\(2010\)0000007004](https://doi.org/10.1108/S1548-6435(2010)0000007004)
448. Malhotra, N. K., Kim, S. S., & Patil, A. (2006). Common Method Variance in Is Research: A Comparison of Alternative Approaches and a Reanalysis of past Research. *Management Science*, 52(12), 1865–1883. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.1060.0597>
449. Maloney, J., Lee, M.Y., Jackson, V., & Miller-Spillman, K. A. (2014). Consumer willingness to purchase organic products: Application of the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing*, 5(4), 308–321.
450. Maltby, J., & Day, L. (2001). The Relationship Between Exercise Motives and Psychological Well-Being. *The Journal of Psychology*, 135(6), 651–660. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980109603726>
451. Manchanda, R. (2017). Consumer well-being–Contemporary conceptualization. *Indian Journal of Economics and Development*, 5(1), 1–4.
452. Markova, I., & Grajeda, J. (2018). *Consumer Attitudes and Purchase Intentions toward Second-hand Clothing Online and through Social Media Platforms: Does Gender and Income Matter?*
453. McDonough, W., & Braungart, M. (2002). Design for the triple top line: new tools for sustainable commerce. *Corporate Environmental Strategy*, 9(3), 251–258.
454. McLean, G., Al Yahya, M., Barhorst, J. B., & Osei-Frimpong, K. (2023). Examining the influence of virtual reality tourism on consumers' subjective wellbeing. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 46, 101088. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2023.101088>
455. McNeill, L., & Moore, R. (2015). Sustainable fashion consumption and the fast fashion conundrum: Fashionable consumers and attitudes to sustainability in clothing choice. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 39(3), 212–222. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12169>

456. Meet the 'Conscious Consumer'. (2019, January 21). Euromonitor. <https://www.euromonitor.com/article/meet-the-conscious-consumer>
457. Mont, O., & Plepys, A. (2008). Sustainable consumption progress: Should we be proud or alarmed? *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 16(4), 531–537. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2007.01.009>
458. 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. [https://doi.org/10.21511/im.16\(4\).2020.03](https://doi.org/10.21511/im.16(4).2020.03)
459. Michalos, A. C. (1985). Multiple discrepancies theory (MDT). *Social Indicators Research*, 347–413.
460. Mick, D. G. (2012). *Transformative consumer research for personal and collective well-being*. Routledge.
461. Milne, G. R., Villarroel Ordenes, F., & Kaplan, B. (2020). Mindful consumption: Three consumer segment views. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, 28(1), 3–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ausmj.2019.09.003>
462. Minton, A. P., & Rose, R. L. (1997). The effects of environmental concern on environmentally friendly consumer behavior: An exploratory study. *Journal of Business Research*, 40(1), 37–48.
463. Minton, E. A. (2022). Pandemics and consumers' mental well-being. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 56(1), 5–14. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12444>
464. Minton, E. A., Jeffrey Xie, H., Gurel-Atay, E., & Kahle, L. R. (2018). Greening up because of god: The relations among religion, sustainable consumption and subjective well-being. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 42(6), 655–663. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12449>
465. Miotto, G., & Youn, S. (2020). The impact of fast fashion retailers' sustainable collections on corporate legitimacy: Examining the mediating role of altruistic attributions. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 19(6), 618. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cb.1852>
466. Miralles-Armenteros, S., Chiva-Gómez, R., Rodríguez-Sánchez, A., & Barghouti, Z. (2021). Mindfulness and academic performance: The role of compassion and engagement. *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 58(1), 3–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2019.1676284>
467. Moafian, F., Pagnini, F., & Khoshshima, H. (2017). Validation of the Persian Version of the Langer Mindfulness Scale. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8. <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00468>
468. Mogilner, C., & Aaker, J. (2009). "The time vs. money effect": Shifting product attitudes and decisions through personal connection. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(2), 277–291.
469. Mogilner, C., Aaker, J., & Kamvar, S. D. (2012). How Happiness Affects Choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39(2), 429–443. <https://doi.org/10.1086/663774>
470. Mohr, L. A., Webb, D. J., & Harris, K. E. (2001). Do Consumers Expect Companies to be Socially Responsible? The Impact of Corporate Social Responsibility on Buying

- Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 35(1). <http://nukweb.nuk.uni-lj.si/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsbig&AN=edsbig.A74584854&lang=sl&site=eds-live>
471. Moon, K. K. L., Lai, C. S. Y., Lam, E. Y. N., & Chang, J. M. T. (2015). Popularization of sustainable fashion: Barriers and solutions. *The Journal of The Textile Institute*, 106(9), 939–952. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405000.2014.955293>
 472. Moon, K. K. L., Youn, C., Chang, J. M. T., & Yeung, A. W. (2013). Product design scenarios for energy saving: A case study of fashion apparel. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 146(2), 392–401. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2013.02.024>
 473. Moreta-Herrera, R., Perdomo-Pérez, M., Reyes-Valenzuela, C., Gavilanes-Gómez, D., Rodas, J. A., & Rodríguez-Lorenzana, A. (2023). Analysis from the classical test theory and item response theory of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) in an Ecuadorian and Colombian sample. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2023.2187915>
 474. Morgan, L. R., & Birtwistle, G. (2009). An investigation of young fashion consumers' disposal habits. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 33(2), 190–198.
 475. Moulds, J. (n.d.). *Child labour in the fashion supply chain* [unicef]. Retrieved March 10, 2023 from <https://labs.theguardian.com/unicef-child-labour/>
 476. Mruk, C. J. (2013). *Self-esteem and positive psychology: Research, theory, and practice*. Springer Publishing Company.
 477. Mukendi, A., Davies, I., Glozer, S., & McDonagh, P. (2020). Sustainable fashion: Current and future research directions. *European Journal of Marketing*.
 478. Mukherjee, S. (2015). Environmental and social impact of fashion: Towards an eco-friendly, ethical fashion. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary Studies*, 2(3), 22-35.
 479. Munasinghe, P. D., Dissanayake, D. G. K., & Druckman, A. (2021). An investigation of the mass-market fashion design process. *Research Journal of Textile and Apparel*, 26(4), 323–342. <https://doi.org/10.1108/RJTA-08-2020-0089>
 480. Na'amneh, M. M., & Al Husban, A. K. (2012). Identity in old clothes: The socio-cultural dynamics of second-hand clothing in Irbid, Jordan. *Social Identities*, 18(5), 609–621.
 481. Nagpaul, T., & Pang, J. S. (2017). Materialism lowers well-being: The mediating role of the need for autonomy – correlational and experimental evidence. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 20(1), 11–21. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ajsp.12159>
 482. Nagurney, A., & Yu, M. (2012). Sustainable fashion supply chain management under oligopolistic competition and brand differentiation. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 135(2), 532-540.
 483. Nicolao, L., Irwin, J. R., & Goodman, J. K. (2009). Happiness for Sale: Do Experiential Purchases Make Consumers Happier than Material Purchases? *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(2), 188–198. <https://doi.org/10.1086/597049>

484. Nakano, N., MacDonald, M., & Douthitt, R. (1995). Toward consumer well-being: Consumer socialization effects of work experience. *New dimensions of marketing/quality-of-life research*, 4, 151-175.
485. Farra, E. (2020, October 5). *Levi's Launches Its Own Recommerce Site and Buyback Program, Levi's Secondhand* [Vogue]. <https://www.vogue.com/article/levis-secondhand-launch-vintage-denim-sustainability>
486. Ray, P. (2020, December 2). *Hablemos del slow fashion y cómo este modelo es la (gran) la solución que la moda busca* [Vogue]. <https://www.vogue.mx/moda/articulo/slow-fashion-que-es-definicion>
487. Feroldi, G. (2022, December 14). *Valentino Launches a New Sustainable Fashion Initiative, "Valentino Sleeping Stock"* [Vogue]. <https://www.vogue.com/article/valentino-sleeping-stock-sustainable-fashion>
488. Ndubisi, N. O. (2012a). Mindfulness, reliability, preemptive conflict handling, customer orientation and outcomes in Malaysia's healthcare sector. *Journal of Business Research*, 65, 537–546.
489. Ndubisi, N. O. (2012b). Relationship quality: Upshot of mindfulness-based marketing strategy in small organizations. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 29, 626–641.
490. Ndubisi, N. O. (2014). Consumer Mindfulness and Marketing Implications: Consumer Mindfulness and Marketing Implications. *Psychology & Marketing*, 31(4), 237–250. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20691>
491. Neal, J. D., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2007). The effect of tourism services on travelers' quality of life. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), 154–163.
492. Nell, W. (2016). Mindfulness and psychological well-being among black South African university students and their relatives. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 26, 485–490. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2016.1250419>
493. Neto, F. (1993). The satisfaction with life scale: Psychometrics properties in an adolescent sample. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 22(2), 125–134.
494. Nicolao, L., Irwin, J. R., & Goodman, J. K. (2009). Happiness for sale: Do experiential purchases make consumers happier than material purchases?. *Journal of consumer research*, 36(2), 188-198.
495. Niebank, J. C. (2018). *Bringing human rights into fashion: Issues, challenges and underused potentials in the transnational garment industry*. DEU.
496. Nielsen, B. B., & Raswant, A. (2018). The selection, use, and reporting of control variables in international business research: A review and recommendations. *Journal of World Business*, 53(6), 958–968. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2018.05.003>
497. Niinimäki, K. (2010). Eco-clothing, consumer identity and ideology. *Sustainable Development*, 18(3), 150–162. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.455>
498. Norwegian Ministry of the Environment. (1994). 1.2 Defining sustainable consumption. [Oslo Roundtable] Retrieved August 16, 2021, from IISD website <https://enb.iisd.org/consume/oslo004.html>

499. Nunes, P. A., & Schokkaert, E. (2003). Identifying the warm glow effect in contingent valuation. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 45(2), 231–245.
500. Olanipekun, A. O., Chan, A. P. C., Xia, B., & Adedokun, O. A. (2018). Applying the self-determination theory (SDT) to explain the levels of motivation for adopting green building. *International Journal of Construction Management*, 18(2), 120–131. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15623599.2017.1285484>
501. Oliver, R. L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*. McGraw Hill.
502. Olsen, S. O., Khoi, N. H., & Tuu, H. H. (2022). The “Well-Being” and “Ill-Being” of Online Impulsive and Compulsive Buying on Life Satisfaction: The Role of Self-Esteem and Harmony in Life. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 42(1), 128–145. <https://doi.org/10.1177/02761467211048751>
503. Online Monitor. (2020). *Handelsverband Deutschland HDE* [Report]. <https://einzelhandel.de/online-monitor>
504. Oort, F. J. (1992). *Using Restricted Factor Analysis in Test Construction*. ERIC, Amsterdam
505. Overeem, P. (2009, October). Reset: Corporate social responsibility in the global electronics supply chain. [MVO Platform]. <https://goodelectronics.org/wp-content/uploads/sites/3/2009/10/Reset.pdf>
506. Ozdamar Ertekin, Z., & Atik, D. (2015). Sustainable markets: Motivating factors, barriers, and remedies for mobilization of slow fashion. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 35(1), 53–69.
507. Özer, Z. Ö. (2014). *Life Satisfaction and Donation to Charitable Organizations* (master's thesis). Department of Economics, Bilkent University.
508. Paço, A., Leal Filho, W., Ávila, L. V., & Dennis, K. (2021). Fostering sustainable consumer behavior regarding clothing: Assessing trends on purchases, recycling and disposal. *Textile Research Journal*, 91(3–4), 373–384. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0040517520944524>
509. Pagnini, F., Bercovitz, K. E., & Phillips, D. (2018). Langerian mindfulness, quality of life and psychological symptoms in a sample of Italian students. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 16(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12955-018-0856-4>
510. Pagnini, F., & Langer, E. (2015). Mindful Reappraisal: Comment on “Mindfulness Broadens Awareness and Builds Eudaimonic Meaning: A Process Model of Mindful Positive Emotion Regulation”. *Psychological Inquiry*, 26(4), 365–367. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1047840X.2015.1073660>
511. Pagnini, F., & Phillips, D. (2015). Being mindful about mindfulness. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 2, 288–289. [https://doi.org/S2215-0366\(15\)00041-3](https://doi.org/S2215-0366(15)00041-3)
512. Pantelic, D., Sakal, M., & Zehetner, A. (2016). Marketing and sustainability from the perspective of future decision makers. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 47(1), 37–48. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajbm.v47i1.51>

513. Park, H., & Kim, Y. K. (2016). An empirical test of the triple bottom line of customer-centric sustainability: The case of fast fashion. *Fashion and Textiles*, 3(1), 1–18.
514. Park, S., & Lee, Y. (2021). Scale Development of Sustainable Consumption of Clothing Products. *Sustainability*, 13(1), Article 1. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13010115>
515. Parker-Strak, R., Barnes, L., Studd, R., & Doyle, S. (2020). Disruptive product development for online fast fashion retailers. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 24(3), 517–532. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-08-2019-0170>
516. Parsons, L. (2000). New goods, old records and second-hand suits: Charity shopping in South-West England. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 5(2), 141–151. <https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.106>
517. Passariello, C. (2008, June 27). Logistics Are in Vogue With Designers. *Wall Street Journal*. <https://www.wsj.com/articles/SB121451654414108561>
518. Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (2008). The satisfaction with life scale and the emerging construct of life satisfaction. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 3(2), 137–152.
519. Peattie, K. (2010). Green consumption: Behavior and norms. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 35, 195–228.
520. Pelikšienė, R. (2023). Sociology and Veganism: A Systematic Literature Review: *Filosofija, Sociologija. Filosofija, Sociologija*, 4, 444–453. <https://doi.org/10.6001/fil-soc.2023.34.4.10>
521. Penz, E., & Drewes, K. L. (2022). What Shapes Pro-Environmental Attitudes and Intention for Sustainable Fashion Consumption during a Stressful Time Event?. *Sustainability*, 14(22), 15331.
522. Pepper, M., Jackson, T., & Uzzell, D. (2009). An examination of the values that motivate socially conscious and frugal consumer behaviours. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 33(2), 126–136.
523. Pepping, C. A., O'Donovan, A., & Davis, P. J. (2013). The positive effects of mindfulness on self-esteem. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(5), 376–386. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2013.807353>
524. Pereira, M. C., & Coelho, F. (2019). Mindfulness, Money Attitudes, and Credit. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 53(2), 424–454. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12197>
525. Perry, P. (2018). *The environmental costs of fast fashion*. The Independent. <https://www.independent.co.uk/climate-change/sustainable-living/environment-costs-fast-fashion-pollution-waste-sustainability-a8139386.html>
526. Peter, J. P. (1981). Construct validity: A review of basic issues and marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(2), 133–145.
527. Petter, S., Straub, D., & Rai, A. (2007). Specifying Formative Constructs in Information Systems Research. *MIS Quarterly*, 31(4), 623–656. <https://doi.org/10.2307/25148814>

528. Phau, I., & Woo, C. (2008). Understanding compulsive buying tendencies among young Australians: The roles of money attitude and credit card usage. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 26(5), 441–458. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02634500810894307>
529. Piligrimienė, Ž., Žukauskaitė, A., Korzilius, H., Banytė, J., & Dovalienė, A. (2020). Internal and External Determinants of Consumer Engagement in Sustainable Consumption. *Sustainability*, 12(4), Article 4. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12041349>
530. Pipoli de Azambuja, G., Rodríguez Peña, G., & Tarazona Vargas, E. (2023). Marketing of Happiness: The Role of Customer Loyalty on Happiness. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 29(2), 228–258. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10496491.2022.2143983>
531. 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(3), 168–185. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10804-018-9282-4>
532. Pirson, M., Langer, E. J., Bodner, T., & Zilcha, S. (2012). The Development and Validation of the Langer Mindfulness Scale—Enabling a Socio-Cognitive Perspective of Mindfulness in Organizational Contexts. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2158921>
533. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879.
534. Pons, D., Atienza, F. L., Balaguer, I., & García-Merita, M. L. (2000). Satisfaction with life scale: Analysis of factorial invariance for adolescents and elderly persons. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 91(1), 62–68.
535. Popoveniuc, B. (2014). Self Reflexivity. The Ultimate End of Knowledge. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 163, 204–213. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.12.308>
536. Prakash, G., Choudhary, S., Kumar, A., Garza-Reyes, J. A., Khan, S. A. R., & Panda, T. K. (2019). Do altruistic and egoistic values influence consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards eco-friendly packaged products? An empirical investigation. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 50, 163-169.
537. Princen, T. (2005). *The logic of sufficiency*. Mit Press.
538. Proctor, C. L., Linley, P. A., & Maltby, J. (2009). Youth Life Satisfaction: A Review of the Literature. *Journal of Happiness Studies: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being*, 10(5), 583–630. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-008-9110-9>
539. Prothero, A., Dobscha, S., Freund, J., Kilbourne, W. E., Luchs, M. G., Ozanne, L. K., & Thøgersen, J. (2011). Sustainable Consumption: Opportunities for Consumer Research and Public Policy: *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jppm.30.1.31>
540. Prudenzi, A., D Graham, C., Flaxman, P. E., & O'Connor, D. B. (2022). Wellbeing, burnout, and safe practice among healthcare professionals: Predictive influences of

- mindfulness, values, and self-compassion: Psychology, health & medicine. *Psychology, Health & Medicine*, 27(5), 1130–1143. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13548506.2021.1898651>
541. Pugno, M., & Sarracino, F. (2021). *Intrinsic vs extrinsic motivation to protect the environment: Correlational and causal evidence*. MPRA, 107143, 1–34.
 542. Qin, B., & Song, G. (2022). Internal Motivations, External Contexts, and Sustainable Consumption Behavior in China—Based on the TPB-ABC Integration Model. *Sustainability*, 14(13), Article 13. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14137677>
 543. Quelch, J. A. (2007). *Greater good: How good marketing makes for better democracy*. Harvard Business Press.
 544. Quelch, J. A., & Jocz, K. E. (2007). *Greater good: How good marketing makes for better democracy*. Harvard Business Press.
 545. Rāhula, W. (1974). *What the Buddha taught* (Vol. 641). Grove Press.
 546. Ramos-Hidalgo, E., Diaz-Carrion, R., & Rodríguez-Rad, C. (2022). Does sustainable consumption make consumers happy? *International Journal of Market Research*, 64(2), 227–248. <https://doi.org/10.1177/14707853211030482>
 547. Ganz, G. (2020, October 25). *How Fast Fashion Causes Environmental Poverty*. [BORGEN Magazine]. <https://www.borgenmagazine.com/fast-fashion-causes-environmental-poverty/>
 548. Rerup, C. (2004). Variations in Organizational Mindfulness. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, B1–B5. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2004.13862717>
 549. Richards, D. (2014). A randomized control study of brief mindfulness with undergraduates on selfcompassion, mindfulness, and thought suppression. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section, A*, 74.
 550. Richins, M. L. (1997). Measuring emotions in the consumption experience. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(2), 127–146.
 551. Richins, M. L., & Dawson, S. (1992). A consumer values orientation for materialism and its measurement: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(3), 303–316.
 552. Ro, C. (2020, March 11). *Can fashion ever be sustainable?* [BBC]. <https://www.bbc.com/future/article/20200310-sustainable-fashion-how-to-buy-clothes-good-for-the-climate>
 553. Roberts, J. A., & Bacon, D. R. (1997). Exploring the subtle relationships between environmental concern and ecologically conscious consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 40(1), 79–89.
 554. Ronda, L. (2023). Overcoming barriers for sustainable fashion: Bridging attitude-behaviour gap in retail. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 52(1), 44–61. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJRDM-02-2023-0056>
 555. Roseman, I. J. (1991). Appraisal determinants of discrete emotions. *Cognition & Emotion*, 5(3), 161–200.
 556. Rosenberg, E. L. (2004). Mindfulness and consumerism. In T. Kasser & A. D. Kanner (Eds.), *Psychology and consumer culture: The struggle for a good life in a*

- materialistic world*. (pp. 107–125). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10658-007>
557. Rosmarin, R. (2020). Sustainability sells: Why consumers and clothing brands alike are turning to sustainability as a guiding light. *Business Insider*.
 558. Roux, D., & Guiot, D. (2008). Measuring Second-Hand Shopping Motives, Antecedents and Consequences. *Recherche et Applications En Marketing (English Edition)*, 23(4), 63–91. <https://doi.org/10.1177/205157070802300404>
 559. Rutter, C., Armstrong, K., & Blazquez Cano, M. (2017). The Epiphanic Sustainable Fast Fashion Epoch: A New Fashion Ethical Fashion Mandate. *Sustainability in Fashion: A Cradle to Upcycle Approach*, 11–30.
 560. Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2019). Brick by brick: The origins, development, and future of self-determination theory. *Advances in motivation science*, 6, 111-156.
 561. Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68.
 562. Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 141–166.
 563. Ryan, R. M., Kuhl, J., & Deci, E. L. (1997). *Nature and autonomy: An organizational view of social and neurobiological aspects of self-regulation in behavior and development*. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0954579497001405>
 564. Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69, 719–727. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.69.4.719>
 565. Salessy, H. (2023). *18 fashion trends to know for Fall/Winter 2023-2024*. Vogue France. <https://www.vogue.fr/fashion/galerie/fashion-week-trends-fall-winter-2023-2024>
 566. Saha, I., Bhandari, U., & Mathew, D. J. (2019). A Study on Consumer Awareness Towards Green Fashion in India. In A. Chakrabarti (Ed.), *Research into Design for a Connected World* (pp. 483–494). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-5974-3_42
 567. Salovaara, A., Lyytinen, K., & Penttinen, E. (2019). *High Reliability in Digital Organizing: Mindlessness, the Frame Problem, and Digital Operations*. <http://hdl.handle.net/10138/303576>
 568. Sande, J. B., & Ghosh, M. (2018). Endogeneity in survey research. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 35(2), 185–204.
 569. Sarwar, M. A., Awang, Z., Habib, M. D., Nasir, J., & Hussain, M. (2022). Why did I buy this? Purchase regret and repeat purchase intentions: A model and empirical application. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 22(1), e2357.
 570. Sauer, S., Walach, H., Schmidt, S., Hinterberger, T., Lynch, S., Büssing, A., & Kohls, N. (2013). Assessment of mindfulness: Review on state of the art. *Mindfulness*, 4(1), 3–17.

571. Schleiden, V., & Neiberger, C. (2020). Does sustainability matter? A structural equation model for cross-border online purchasing behaviour. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 30(1), 46–67.
572. Schmitt, N., & Stults, D. M. (1986). Methodology review: Analysis of multitrait-multimethod matrices. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, 10(1), 1–22.
573. Schneider, W., & Shiffrin, R. M. (1977). Controlled and automatic human information processing: I. Detection, search, and attention. *Psychological Review*, 84(1), 1.
574. Schomburgk, L., & Hoffmann, A. (2022). How mindfulness reduces BNPL usage and how that relates to overall well-being. *European Journal of Marketing*, 57(2), 325–359. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-11-2021-0923>
575. Schor, J. (1999). The new politics of consumption. *Boston Review*, 24(3-4), 4-9.
576. Schultz, P. P., & Ryan, R. M. (2015). The “Why,” “What,” and “How” of Healthy Self-Regulation: Mindfulness and Well-Being from a Self-Determination Theory Perspective. In B. D. Ostafin, M. D. Robinson, & B. P. Meier (Eds.), *Handbook of Mindfulness and Self-Regulation* (pp. 81–94). Springer New York. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-2263-5_7
577. Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2010). *A Beginner’s Guide to Structural Equation Modeling* (Third Edition). Routledge.
578. Schutte, N. S., & Malouff, J. M. (2011). Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between mindfulness and subjective well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 50(7), 1116–1119.
579. Schyns, P. (2000). The relationship between income, changes in income and life-satisfaction in West Germany and the Russian Federation: Relative, absolute, or a combination of both? In E. Diener & D. R. Rahtz (Eds.), *Advances in Quality of Life Theory and Research* (pp. 83–109). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-011-4291-5_5
580. Scott, K., Ummer, O., & LeFevre, A. E. (2021). The devil is in the detail: Reflections on the value and application of cognitive interviewing to strengthen quantitative surveys in global health. *Health Policy and Planning*, 36(6), 982–995. <https://doi.org/10.1093/heapol/czab048>
581. Seegebarth, B., Peyer, M., Balderjahn, I., & Wiedmann, K.-P. (2016). The Sustainability Roots of Anticonsumption Lifestyles and Initial Insights Regarding Their Effects on Consumers’ Well-Being. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 50(1), 68–99. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12077>
582. Segal, Z. V., Teasdale, J. D., Williams, J. M., & Gemar, M. C. (2002). The mindfulness-based cognitive therapy adherence scale: Inter-rater reliability, adherence to protocol and treatment distinctiveness. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy*, 9(2), 131-138.
583. Segars, A. H. (1997). Assessing the unidimensionality of measurement: A paradigm and illustration within the context of information systems research. *Omega*, 25(1), 107–121.

584. 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. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832323.2019.1618233>
585. Serrano, R., Fortunati, L., & Lacerda, D. P. (2021). Wearable technologies in the fashion value ecosystem: A conceptual model. *Innovation & Management Review*, 19(2), 90–105. <https://doi.org/10.1108/INMR-02-2020-0020>
586. Sgherza, T. R., DeMarree, K. G., & Naragon-Gainey, K. (2022). Testing the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory in Daily Life. *Mindfulness*, 13(9), 2324–2336. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-022-01961-0>
587. Shafqat, T., Ishaq, M. I., & Ahmed, A. (2023). Fashion consumption using minimalism: Exploring the relationship of consumer well-being and social connectedness. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 71, 103215. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2022.103215>
588. Shapiro, S. L., Carlson, L. E., Astin, J. A., & Freedman, B. (2006). Mechanisms of mindfulness. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 62(3), 373–386. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20237>
589. Shaw, D., McMaster, R., & Newholm, T. (2016). Care and commitment in ethical consumption: An exploration of the ‘attitude–behaviour gap’. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 136, 251–265.
590. Shen, B., Zheng, J.H., Chow, P.S., & Chow, K.Y. (2014). Perception of fashion sustainability in online community. *The Journal of The Textile Institute*, 105(9), 971–979. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405000.2013.866334>
591. Shen, P., Wan, D., & Li, J. (2022). How human–computer interaction perception affects consumer well-being in the context of online retail: From the perspective of autonomy. *Nankai Business Review International*, 14(1), 102–127. <https://doi.org/10.1108/NBRI-03-2022-0034>
592. Sheth, J. N., Sethia, N. K., & Srinivas, S. (2011). Mindful consumption: A customer-centric approach to sustainability. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39(1), 21–39. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-010-0216-3>
593. Shmelev, S. E., & Shmeleva, I. A. (2018). Global urban sustainability assessment: A multidimensional approach. *Sustainable Development*, 26(6), 904–920. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.1887>
594. Shove, E., & Warde, A. (1997, April). *Consumption, Everyday Life and Sustainability*. <https://www.lancaster.ac.uk/fass/projects/esf/inconspicuous.htm>
595. Si, H., Shi, J., Tang, D., Wu, G., & Lan, J. (2020). Understanding intention and behavior toward sustainable usage of bike sharing by extending the theory of planned behavior. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 152, 104513.
596. Siguaw, J. A., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2000). *Introducing LISREL: A Guide for the Uninitiated* (1st ed.). Sage Publications Ltd.
597. Silvia, P. J., & Duval, T. S. (2001). Objective self-awareness theory: Recent progress and enduring problems. *Personality and social psychology review*, 5(3), 230–241.

598. Şimşek, O. M., Koçak, O., & Younis, M. Z. (2021). The Impact of Interpersonal Cognitive Distortions on Satisfaction with Life and the Mediating Role of Loneliness. *Sustainability*, 13(16), Article 16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13169293>
599. Siqueira, R. P., & Pitassi, C. (2016). Sustainability-oriented innovations: Can mindfulness make a difference? *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 139, 1181–1190. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.08.056>
600. Sirgy, M. J. (2021). Macromarketing metrics of consumer well-being: An update. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 41(1), 124–131.
601. Sirgy, M. J., Lee, D. J., Grzeskowiak, S., Chebat, J. C., Johar, J. S., Hermann, A., Hassan, S., Hegazy, I., Ekici, A., Webb, D., Chenting Su, & Montana, J. (2008). An Extension and Further Validation of a Community-based Consumer Well-being Measure. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 28(3), 243–257. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146708320447>
602. Sirgy, M. J., Lee, D. J., Park, S., Joshanloo, M., & Kim, M. (2020). Work–family spillover and subjective well-being: The moderating role of coping strategies. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 21, 2909–2929.
603. Sirgy, M. J., Lee, D. J., & Rahtz, D. (2007). Research on Consumer Well-Being (CWB): Overview of the Field and Introduction to the Special Issue. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 27(4), 341–349. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146707307212>
604. Smith, C. A., & Ellsworth, P. C. (1985). Patterns of cognitive appraisal in emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48(4), 813.
605. Smith, V. M., Seimon, R. V., Harris, R. A., Sainsbury, A., & da Luz, F. Q. (2019). Less Binge Eating and Loss of Control over Eating Are Associated with Greater Levels of Mindfulness: Identifying Patterns in Postmenopausal Women with Obesity. *Behavioral Sciences* (2076–328X), 9(4), 36. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs9040036>
606. Snyder, H. (2019). Literature review as a research methodology: An overview and guidelines. *Journal of Business Research*, 104, 333–339. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.07.039>
607. Soto, C. J., & Luhmann, M. (2013). Who Can Buy Happiness?: Personality Traits Moderate the Effects of Stable Income Differences and Income Fluctuations on Life Satisfaction. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 4(1), 46–53. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550612444139>
608. Stanszus, L. S., Frank, P., & Geiger, S. M. (2019). Healthy eating and sustainable nutrition through mindfulness? Mixed method results of a controlled intervention study. *Appetite*, 141, 104325. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2019.104325>
609. Statista. (2023). *U.S. online second-hand clothing shoppers by gender 2022*. [Statista]. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/1341970/share-online-second-hand-clothing-shoppers-us-gender/>
610. Steen-Olsen, K., & Hertwich, E. G. (2015). Life cycle assessment as a means to identify the most effective action for sustainable consumption. In *Handbook of research on sustainable consumption* (pp. 131–144). Edward Elgar Publishing.

611. Stella McCartney. (n.d.). *Close-the-Loop parka in ECONYL® yarn. The first luxury garment to close the loop.* Retrieved March 24, 2023 from <https://www.stellamccartney.com/gb/en/sustainability/closed-loop-parka-in-econyl-yarn.html>
612. Sterlacci, F., & Arbuckle, J. (2017). *Historical dictionary of the fashion industry.* Rowman & Littlefield.
613. Stewart, C., & Bower, M. (2019). Novice online educator conceptual frameworks: A mental model exploration of mindful learning design. *Educational Media International*, 56(1), 14–43. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09523987.2019.1583463>
614. Stolarski, M., Vowinckel, J., Jankowski, K. S., & Zajenkowski, M. (2016). Mind the balance, be contented: Balanced time perspective mediates the relationship between mindfulness and life satisfaction. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 93, 27–31.
615. Su, L., Tang, B., & Nawijn, J. (2020). Eudaimonic and hedonic well-being pattern changes: Intensity and activity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 84, 103008.
616. Subramaniam, B. (2016). *Living in Present to Nurture the Future: Investigating the Association Between Mindfulness and Sustainable Consumption Behaviors Using Individuals' Cognitive Personality, Values and Beliefs Variables* (doctoral thesis). The University of Arizona.
617. Sudbury-Riley, L., & Kohlbacher, F. (2016). Ethically minded consumer behavior: Scale review, development, and validation. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(8), 2697–2710.
618. Sun, H., Fang, Y., & Zou, H. (Melody). (2016). Choosing a Fit Technology: Understanding Mindfulness in Technology Adoption and Continuance. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, 17(6). <https://doi.org/10.17705/1jais.00431>
619. Sun, P. C., Wang, H. M., Huang, H. L., & Ho, C. W. (2020). Consumer attitude and purchase intention toward rooftop photovoltaic installation: The roles of personal trait, psychological benefit, and government incentives. *Energy & Environment*, 31(1), 21–39.
620. Sünbül, Z. A., & Özcan, N. A. (2022). The Mediating Role of Negative Mood States and Body Responsiveness in the Associations of Mindfulness and Self-Compassion with Life Satisfaction. *Studia Psychologica*, 64(4), 343–355. <https://doi.org/10.31577/sp.2022.04.858>
621. Surucu, L., & Maslakci, A. (2020). Validity and Reliability in Quantitative Research. *Business and Management Studies: An International Journal*, 8(3), 2694–2726.
622. Sustainability Reporting 2022. (n.d.). *H&M Group*. Retrieved July 31, 2023 from <https://hmgroupprd-app.azurewebsites.net/sustainability/sustainability-reporting/>
623. Swart, J., & Rothmann, S. (2012). Authentic happiness of managers, and individual and organisational outcomes. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 42(4), 492–508.
624. Swatski, A. (2021, June 10). *The Economic Impact of the Fashion Industry—Fashinnovation*. <https://fashinnovation.nyc/the-economic-impact-of-the-fashion-industry/>

625. Sweeny, G. (2015, August 13). *It's the Second Dirtiest Thing in the World—And You're Wearing It*. <https://www.alternet.org/2015/08/its-second-dirtiest-thing-world-and-youre-wearing-it>
626. Szmigin, I., & Carrigan, M. (2005). Exploring the dimensions of ethical consumption. *ACR European Advances*, 7, 608-613.
627. Šarotar Žižek, S., Mulej, M., & Milfelner, B. (2017). Determinants of Subjective Emotional Well-Being and Self-Determination of Employees: Slovene Case. *Naše Gospodarstvo/Our Economy*, 63(4), 54–65. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ngoe-2017-0023>
628. Šumak, B., Pušnik, M., & Heričko, M. (2014). An empirical study of factors affecting the adoption of self-service checkout terminals in Slovenia. *2014 37th International Convention on Information and Communication Technology, Electronics and Microelectronics (MIPRO)*, 453–458. <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/abstract/document/6859610/>
629. Tamir, M., Schwartz, S. H., Oishi, S., & Kim, M. Y. (2017). The secret to happiness: Feeling good or feeling right? *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 146(10), 1448–1459. <https://doi.org/10.1037/xge0000303>
630. Tan, T. M., Makkonen, H., Kaur, P., & Salo, J. (2022). How do ethical consumers utilize sharing economy platforms as part of their sustainable resale behavior? The role of consumers' green consumption values. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 176, 121432. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techfore.2021.121432>
631. Tanaka, A., & Tsubaki, M. (2020). Proposed Methods for Evaluating Customer Well-Being and Store Satisfaction Using Online Product Reviews. *2020 6th International Conference on Information Management (ICIM)*, 88–94. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICIM49319.2020.244676>
632. Tascioglu, M., Eastman, J., Bock, D., Manrodt, K., & Shepherd, C. D. (2019). The impact of retailers' sustainability and price on consumers' responses in different cultural contexts. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 29(4), 430–455.
633. Taute, H., & McQuitty, S. (2004). Feeling Good! Doing Good! An Exploratory Look at the Impulsive Purchase of the Social Good. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 12(2), 16–27.
634. Taylor, E. (2001). Positive psychology and humanistic psychology: A reply to Seligman. *Journal of humanistic psychology*, 41(1), 13-29.
635. Tenenhaus, M., Vinzi, V. E., Chatelin, Y. M., & Lauro, C. (2005). PLS path modeling. *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis*, 48(1), 159–205. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csda.2004.03.005>
636. Terzioğlu, Z. A., Çakır-Çelebi, S. G., & Yıldız, M. (2022). Effect of online mindfulness-based physical exercise program on psychological well-being and life satisfaction during the Covid-19 pandemic. *Current Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-022-04205-5>

637. Teufer, B., & Grabner-Kräuter, S. (2023). How consumer networks contribute to sustainable mindful consumption and well-being. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 57(2), 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joca.12536>
638. Theodorakis, N. D., Kaplanidou, K., Alexandris, K., & Papadimitriou, D. (2019). From sport event quality to quality of life: The role of satisfaction and purchase happiness. *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*, 20(3), 241–260. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15470148.2019.1637805>
639. Thera, N. (1973). *The Heart of Buddhist Meditation: Satipatthna: A Handbook of Mental Training Based on the Buddha's Way of Mindfulness*. Samuel Weiser.
640. World Economic Forum. (2020, January 31). *These facts show how unsustainable the fashion industry is*. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/01/fashion-industry-carbon-unsustainable-environment-pollution/>
641. Thiermann, U. B., & Sheate, W. R. (2021). The Way Forward in Mindfulness and Sustainability: A Critical Review and Research Agenda. *Journal of Cognitive Enhancement*, 5(1), 118–139. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41465-020-00180-6>
642. Thøgersen, J. (1994). A model of recycling behaviour, with evidence from Danish source separation programmes. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 11(2), 145–163.
643. Thøgersen, J. (1996). Recycling and Morality: A Critical Review of the Literature. *Environment and Behavior*, 28(4), 536–558. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013916596284006>
644. Thomas, R., & Millar, M. (2013). The Effects of Material and Experiential Discretionary Purchases on Consumer Happiness: Moderators and Mediators. *The Journal of Psychology*, 147(4), 345–356.
645. Thompson, C. J., & Coskuner-Balli, G. (2007). Countervailing Market Responses to Corporate Co-optation and the Ideological Recruitment of Consumption Communities. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(2), 135–152. <https://doi.org/10.1086/519143>
646. thredUP. (2023). *Resale Report*. <https://www.thredup.com/resale>
647. Timmerman, G. M., & Brown, A. (2012). The Effect of a Mindful Restaurant Eating Intervention on Weight Management in Women. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, 44(1), 22–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneb.2011.03.143>
648. Tomlinson, E. R., Yousaf, O., Vittersø, A. D., & Jones, L. (2018). Dispositional mindfulness and psychological health: A systematic review. *Mindfulness*, 9, 23–43.
649. Tomolillo, D.A.C. and Shaw, D.S. (2004) Undressing the ethical issues in fashion: a consumer perspective. In: C. Moore, M. Bruce and G. Birtwistle (eds) *Cases in International Retail Marketing*, UK: Elsevier.
650. Tran, K., Nguyen, T., Tran, Y., Nguyen, A., Luu, K., & Nguyen, Y. (2022). Eco-friendly fashion among generation Z: Mixed-methods study on price value image, customer fulfillment, and pro-environmental behavior. *PLOS ONE*, 17(8), e0272789. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0272789>
651. Tukker, A., Cohen, M. J., Hubacek, K., & Mont, O. (2010). The impacts of household consumption and options for change. *Journal of Industrial Ecology*, 14(1), 13–30.

652. Uchańska-Bieniusiewicz, A., & Obloj, K. (2023). Disrupting fast fashion: A case study of Shein's innovative business model. *International Entrepreneurship Review*, 9, 47–59. <https://doi.org/10.15678/IER.2023.0903.03>
653. Usley, C., & Erdogan, E. (2014). The mediating role of mindful entrepreneurial marketing (MEM) between production and consumption. *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, 16(1), 47–62. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JRME-11-2013-0034>
654. Vada, S., Prentice, C., & Hsiao, A. (2019). The influence of tourism experience and well-being on place attachment. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 47, 322–330.
655. Valicon. (n.d.). *JazVem.si—Vaše mnenje šteje*. Retrieved November 21, 2023 from <https://www.jazvem.si>
656. Van Boven, L. (2005). Experientialism, Materialism, and the Pursuit of Happiness. *Review of General Psychology*, 9(2), 132–142. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.9.2.132>
657. Van Boven, L., & Gilovich, T. (2003). To Do or to Have? That Is the Question. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 1193–1202. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.6.1193>
658. Van De Veer, E., Van Herpen, E., & Van Trijp, H. C. M. (2016). Body and Mind: Mindfulness Helps Consumers to Compensate for Prior Food Intake by Enhancing the Responsiveness to Physiological Cues. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 42(5), 783–803. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jcr/ucv058>
659. van der Werff, E., Steg, L., & Keizer, K. (2013). It is a moral issue: The relationship between environmental self-identity, obligation-based intrinsic motivation and pro-environmental behaviour. *Global Environmental Change*, 23(5), 1258–1265. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2013.07.018>
660. van Kamp, I., Leidelmeijer, K., Marsman, G., & de Hollander, A. (2003). Urban environmental quality and human well-being: Towards a conceptual framework and demarcation of concepts; a literature study. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 65(1), 5–18. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-2046\(02\)00232-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-2046(02)00232-3)
661. Vaughan, D. (1992). Theory elaboration: The heuristics of case analysis. In C. C. Ragin & H. S. Becker (Eds.), *What is a case? Exploring the foundations of social inquiry* (pp. 173–202). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
662. Veenhoven, R. (2004). Sustainable consumption and happiness. *MPRA*, 11279, 1–32.
663. Veger, N. (2021, September 13). *To so vse trgovine s second hand oblačili v Sloveniji*. [published on blog]. <https://beautyfullblog.si/second-hand-trgovine-v-sloveniji/>
664. Venhoeven, L. A., Bolderdijk, J. W., & Steg, L. (2013). Explaining the paradox: How pro-environmental behaviour can both thwart and foster well-being. *Sustainability*, 5(4), 1372–1386.

665. Venter, K., Merwe, D. van der, Beer, H. de, Kempen, E., & Bosman, M. (2011). Consumers' perceptions of food packaging: An exploratory investigation in Potchefstroom, South Africa. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 35(3), 273–281. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1470-6431.2010.00936.x>
666. Verain, M. C. D., Bartels, J., Dagevos, H., Sijtsema, S. J., Onwezen, M. C., & Antonides, G. (2012). Segments of sustainable food consumers: A literature review. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 36(2), 123–132. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1470-6431.2011.01082.x>
667. Videras, J. R., & Owen, A. L. (2006). Public Goods Provision and Well-Being: Empirical Evidence Consistent with the Warm Glow Theory. *The B.E. Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy*, 5(1). <https://doi.org/10.1515/1538-0645.1531>
668. Vilaça, J. (2022, October 27). *Fast fashion and its social and environmental impact*. <https://fashinnovation.nyc/fast-fashion-and-its-social-and-environmental-impact/>
669. Vodopivec, J. L. (2017). The views of teachers and parents on the tasks of environmental education in the Slovenian preschools. *Peer-Reviewed Academic Journal Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Sciences*. <http://www.iiass.com/pdf/IIASS-volume10-number2-2017.pdf#page=62>
670. Walach, H., Buchheld, N., Büttenmüller, V., Kleinknecht, N., & Schmidt, S. (2006). Measuring mindfulness—the Freiburg mindfulness inventory (FMI). *Personality and individual differences*, 40(8), 1543–1555.
671. Walk Free Foundation. (2018). *Global Slavery Index 2018*. Retrieved July 23, 2023 from <https://www.globalslaveryindex.org/resources/downloads/>
672. Walker, K. L., Milne, G. R., & Weinberg, B. D. (2019). Optimizing the future of innovative technologies and infinite data. In *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing* (Vol. 38, Issue 4, pp. 403–413). SAGE Publications Sage CA: Los Angeles, CA.
673. Walliman, N. (2011). *Research methods: The basics*. Routledge. Routledge.
674. Wamsler, C. (2018). Mind the gap: The role of mindfulness in adapting to increasing risk and climate change. *Sustainability Science*, 13(4), 1121–1135. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11625-017-0524-3>
675. Wang, C., Zhang, J., Yu, P., & Hu, H. (2018). The theory of planned behavior as a model for understanding tourists' responsible environmental behaviors: The moderating role of environmental interpretations. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 194, 425–434.
676. Wang, J., Yang, X., Bailey, A., & Wang, J. (2021). Positive spillover of consumers' sustainable behaviors: The mediating role of self-determination need satisfaction. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 317, 128436.
677. Wang, X., & Chen, Y. H. (2012). Buying an automobile in China: How customer satisfaction is linked to perceived subjective well-being. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 40(1), 147–155.
678. Wang, X., & Li, Y. (2014). Trust, psychological need, and motivation to produce user-generated content: A self-determination perspective. *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research*, 15(3), 241–253.

679. Wang, Y., Garland, E. L., & Farb, N. A. (2023). An experimental test of the mindfulness-to-meaning theory: Casual pathways between decentering, reappraisal, and well-being. *Emotion*. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2023-71145-001>
680. Webb, D., Soutar, G. N., Mazzarol, T., & Saldaris, P. (2013). Self-determination theory and consumer behavioural change: Evidence from a household energy-saving behaviour study. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 35, 59–66.
681. Weber, S., & Weber, O. (2022). How Fashionable Are We? Validating the Fashion Interest Scale through Multivariate Statistics. *Sustainability*, 14(4), Article 4. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14041946>
682. Wei, X., & Jung, S. (2021). Benefit appeals and perceived corporate hypocrisy: Implications for the CSR performance of fast fashion brands. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 31(2), 206–217. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-04-2020-2850>
683. Weinswig, D. (2017, May 19). Fast Fashion Speeding Toward Ultrafast Fashion. *Fung Global Retail & Technology*, 10.
684. Wellman, B. (2004). The three ages of internet studies: ten, five and zero years ago. *New media & society*, 6(1), 123-129.
685. Welters, L., & Lillethun, A. (2018). *Fashion history: A global view*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
686. Westbrook, R. A., & Oliver, R. L. (1991). The dimensionality of consumption emotion patterns and consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18(1), 84–91.
687. Wilber, K. (2000). *Integral psychology: Consciousness, spirit, psychology, therapy*. Shambhala.
688. Wilkinson, D., & Birmingham, P. (2003). *Using research instruments a guide for researchers*. RoutledgeFalmer.
689. Wilkinson, L. A. (2011). *Systems theory. Encyclopedia of child behavior and development*. Springer Boston, MA.
690. Williams, A. D., & Grisham, J. R. (2012). Impulsivity, Emotion Regulation, and Mindful Attentional Focus in Compulsive Buying. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 36(5), 451–457. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10608-011-9384-9>
691. Williams, A., & Hodges, N. (2022). Adolescent Generation Z and sustainable and responsible fashion consumption: Exploring the value-action gap. *Young Consumers*, 23(4), 651–666. <https://doi.org/10.1108/YC-11-2021-1419>
692. Williams, H., Skalisky, J., Erickson, T. M., & Thoburn, J. (2021). Posttraumatic Growth in the Context of Grief: Testing the Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory. *Journal of Loss and Trauma*, 26(7), 611–623. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15325024.2020.1855048>
693. Williams, L. J., Hartman, N., & Cavazotte, F. (2010). Method variance and marker variables: A review and comprehensive CFA marker technique. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13(3), 477–514.
694. Wilson, A. V., & Bellezza, S. (2022). Consumer Minimalism. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 48(5), 796–816. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jcr/ucab038>

695. Wilson, P. M., Rodgers, W. M., Fraser, S. N., & Murray, T. C. (2004). Relationships between Exercise Regulations and Motivational Consequences in University Students. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 75(1), 81–91. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02701367.2004.10609136>
696. Wilson, T. D., & Gilbert, D. T. (2008). Explaining away: A model of affective adaptation. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 3(5), 370–386.
697. Winterich, K. P., & Barone, M. J. (2011). Warm glow or cold, hard cash? Social identity effects on consumer choice for donation versus discount promotions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 48(5), 855–868.
698. World Economic Forum. (2019, September 25). *4 ways to make your wardrobe more sustainable*. World Economic Forum. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/09/make-your-wardrobe-more-sustainable-and-work-harder/>
699. Wüstenhagen, R., & Bilharz, M. (2006). Green energy market development in Germany: effective public policy and emerging customer demand. *Energy policy*, 34(13), 1681-1696.
700. Xiao, J., & Li, H. (2011). Sustainable Consumption and Life Satisfaction. *Social Indicators Research*, 104(2), 323–329. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-010-9746-9>
701. Xiao, Y. Q., & Kan, C.W. (2022). Review on Development and Application of 3D-Printing Technology in Textile and Fashion Design. *Coatings*, 12(2), Article 2. <https://doi.org/10.3390/coatings12020267>
702. Xie, X., Qiao, X., Huang, C. C., & Sitar, S. (2023). Mindfulness, pension, and life satisfaction of retired older adults in China: Mediation effects of positive and negative affect. *Current Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-04899-1>
703. Xu, Y., Chen, Y., Burman, R., & Zhao, H. (2014). Second-hand clothing consumption: A cross-cultural comparison between American and Chinese young consumers. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 38(6), 670–677. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12139>
704. Yang, J., Ming, X., Wang, Z., & Adams, S. M. (2017). Are Sex Effects on Ethical Decision-Making Fake or Real? A Meta-Analysis on the Contaminating Role of Social Desirability Response Bias. *Psychological Reports*, 120(1), 25–48. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033294116682945>
705. Yang, L., Liu, L., Yan, K., Cai, C., & Geng, Y. (2023). “Carrot and stick”: Green fiscal policy, upper echelons expertise, and the green mergers and acquisitions. *Finance Research Letters*, 58, 104650. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.frl.2023.104650>
706. Yang, S., & Stening, B. W. (2012). Cultural and Ideological Roots of Materialism in China. *Social Indicators Research*, 108(3), 441–452.
707. Yang Zhong, J., & Mitchell, V. W. (2013). When having is not enough: Implications of being satisfied. *European Journal of Marketing*, 47(11/12), 1975–2001. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-10-2011-0585>
708. Yarimoglu, E., & Binboga, G. (2019). Understanding sustainable consumption in an emerging country: The antecedents and consequences of the ecologically conscious

- consumer behavior model. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 28(4), 642–651. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.2270>
709. Yoo, J. J., Divita, L., & Kim, H. Y. (2018). Predicting consumer intention to purchase clothing products made from sustainable fabrics: Implications for the fast-fashion industry. *Clothing Cultures*, 5(1), 47–61.
 710. Young, W., Hwang, K., McDonald, S., & Oates, C. J. (2010). Sustainable consumption: green consumer behaviour when purchasing products. *Sustainable development*, 18(1), 20–31.
 711. Yüksel Doğan, R., & Metin, E. N. (2023). Exploring the Relationship between Mindfulness and Life Satisfaction in Adolescents: The Role of Social Competence and Self-Esteem. *Child Indicators Research* 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187-023-10028-y>
 712. Zakershahra, M., Chrisopoulos, S., Luzzi, L., Haag, D., & Brennan, D. (2023). Can low-income people afford life satisfaction? The modifying effect of personality traits, a cross-sectional study. *Current Psychology* 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-023-04827-3>
 713. Zeithaml, V. A. (1985). The New Demographics and Market Fragmentation. *Journal of Marketing*, 49(3), 64–75. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224298504900306>
 714. Zhan, G., & Zhou, Z. (2018). Mobile internet and consumer happiness: The role of risk. *Internet Research*, 28(3), 785–803. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IntR-11-2016-0340>
 715. Zhan, M. X. (2022). Sustainable consumption and the well-being dividend: Insights from the zero-waste movement in Chinese cities. *Sustainability: Science, Practice and Policy*, 18(1), 731–748. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15487733.2022.2111925>
 716. Zhang, D., Huang, G., Yin, X., & Gong, Q. (2015). Residents' waste separation behaviors at the source: Using SEM with the theory of planned behavior in Guangzhou, China. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 12(8), 9475–9491.
 717. Zhang, L., Li, D., Cao, C., & Huang, S. (2018). The influence of greenwashing perception on green purchasing intentions: The mediating role of green word-of-mouth and moderating role of green concern. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 187, 740–750.
 718. Zilcha-Mano, S., & Langer, E. (2016). Mindful Attention to Variability Intervention and Successful Pregnancy Outcomes. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 72(9), 897–907. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.22294>
 719. Zupančič, M., Komidar, L., & Levpušček, M. P. (2014). Individuation in Slovene emerging adults: Its associations with demographics, transitional markers, achieved criteria for adulthood, and life satisfaction. *Journal of Adolescence*, 37(8), 1421–1433.
 720. Zvolensky, M. J., Solomon, S. E., McLeish, A. C., Cassidy, D., Bernstein, A., Bowman, C. J., & Yartz, A. R. (2006). Incremental validity of mindfulness-based attention in relation to the concurrent prediction of anxiety and depressive symptomatology and perceptions of health. *Cognitive Behaviour Therapy*, 35(3), 148–158.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Daljši povzetek (Extended summary in Slovene language)

VPLIV ČUJEČNOSTI NA TRAJNOSTNO POTROŠNJO IN PORABNIKOVO DOBROBIT PRI POTROŠNJI OBLAČIL

Cilj te disertacije je osvetliti, kako lahko čuječnost spodbuja okolju prijazno in družbeno koristno vedenje na ravni posameznega porabnika, ter bolje razumeti, kako čuječnost in trajnostna potrošnja spodbujata dobrobit porabnika in splošno zadovoljstvo z življenjem v povezavi s potrošnjo modnih oblačil. Prav tako je cilj raziskati, kako zelen topli sijaj vpliva na trajnostno potrošnjo, dobrobit porabnika in zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Langer (1989) trdi, da čuječi ljudje upoštevajo edinstvenost situacije, preden se odločijo ukrepati, namesto da bi se prekomerno zanašali na prejšnje izkušnje. Ker so sposobni situacijo pogledati z več zornih kotov, bolje razumejo, kako njihova dejanja vplivajo na druge. Posledično porabniki z višjo ravno čuječnosti posvečajo več pozornosti predstavljenim izbiram in se bolj zavedajo posledic svojih odločitev zase, za druge in okolje. Zato je čuječnost lahko ključnega pomena, da porabniki sprejmejo trajnostno vedenje (Amel in sod., 2009). Prvi cilj te disertacije je zato: *Raziskati odnos med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo.*

Številni raziskovalci so predstavili jasno povezavo med srečo in trajnostno potrošnjo (Brinkerhoff & Jeffrey, 1999; Iwata, 2001; Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007), tako kot Brown in Kasser (2005), ki sta ugotovila, da so bili ljudje, ki so se vedli bolj okoljsko odgovorno, srečnejši in so imeli večji občutek dobrobiti. Podobno so Kim et al. (2016) razvili okvir predlaganih odnosov med trajnostno potrošnjo in srečo. Čeprav so številni raziskovalci razpravljali o pozitivnem razmerju med trajnostno potrošnjo in srečo, so Venhoeven et al. (2013) pregledali teoretične argumente in empirične dokaze, zakaj lahko okolju prijazno vedenje tako zmanjša kot tudi poveča dobrobit porabnikov. Razumevanje razmerja med trajnostno potrošnjo in dobrobitjo je izjemno pomembno, saj lahko pomaga prepoznati vstopne točke za podporo trajnostnim porabnikom in pomaga prepričati več ljudi, da sprejmejo ta življenjski slog (Carrero, Valor, & Redondo, 2020). Zato so potrebne dodatne študije na temo trajnostne potrošnje in sreče porabnikov in tako predstavljam drugi cilj te disertacije: *Raziskati razmerje med trajnostno potrošnjo in dobrobitjo porabnika.*

Čuječnost je pomembna za široko paleto vprašanj glede vedenja porabnikov, kot so odločanje porabnikov, trženjsko komuniciranje in prepričevanje. Med drugim je pomembna tam, kjer bi lahko transformirala vedenje porabnikov in vodila do večje dobrobiti (Bahl et al., 2016; Brunel & Dong, 2006). Ker čuječnost spodbuja subjektivno dobrobit s poudarkom na sedanjem trenutku (Ericson et al., 2014), lahko pomaga tudi porabnikom, da se začnejo vesti bolj trajnostno (Milne et al., 2020). Tretji cilj te disertacije je zato: *Raziskati odnos med čuječnostjo in dobrobitjo porabnika.*

Raziskovalci so preučevali zeleni topli sijaj kot predhodnik, posledico in posrednik prosocialnega in okolju prijaznega vedenja (Bazaraa et al., 2022; Hartmann et al., 2017; Ho et al., 2023). Okolju prijazno vedenje lahko služi kot psihološka nagrada in pretekle študije

so dokazale, da zeleni topli sijaj motivira okolju prijazno vedenje (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003) ter prosocialno vedenje (Chiengkul et al., 2023). Raziskovalci so preučevali zeleni topli sijaj kot predhodnik dobrega počutja, sreče in čustvenih koristi ter zadovoljstva z življenjem (Videras & Owen, 2006). Konstrukt zelenega toplega sijaja v kontekstu potrošnje modnih oblačil ni dobro raziskan, zato je četrti cilj te disertacije: *Raziskati vpliv zelenega toplega sijaja na trajnostno potrošnjo, dobrobit porabnika in zadovoljstvo z življenjem.*

Raziskave v preteklih desetletjih kažejo, da je čuječnost povezana z mnogimi pozitivnimi izidi (npr. Grossman et al., 2004; Pepping et al., 2013; Zvolensky et al., 2006), vključno z zadovoljstvom z življenjem (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kong et al., 2014; Stolarski et al., 2016). Povečanje stopnje čuječnosti in zadovoljstva z življenjem je lahko bistveno za posameznika (Aşık & Albayrak, 2022). Mnoge nedavne študije podpirajo pozitiven odnos med čuječnostjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem ter se osredotočajo na različne posrednike in moderatorje, ki vplivajo na ta odnos. V disertaciji se bom osredotočila na ta odnos v kontekstu slovenskih porabnikov modnih oblačil, saj je odnos med čuječnostjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem v tem posebnem kontekstu večinoma neraziskan. Peti cilj te disertacije je zato: *Raziskati odnos med čuječnostjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem.*

Konstrukt porabnikove dobrobiti kot posebno področje in konstrukt zadovoljstva z življenjem kot bolj splošen koncept sta tesno povezana in se lahko prekrivata. Omejeno število raziskav je ocenjevalo splošno zadovoljstvo z življenjem kot posledico porabnikove dobrobiti (Hsieh et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2002; McLean et al., 2023). Tako je šesti cilj te disertacije: *Raziskati razmerje med porabnikovo dobrobitjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem.*

Kvalitativna raziskava

Kvalitativna raziskava disertacije vključuje koncepte čuječnosti, porabnikove dobrobiti, trajnostne potrošnje in pojav konstrukta toplega sijaja ter raziskuje odnose med koncepti dobrobiti, čuječnosti in trajnostne potrošnje. V študiji uporabim poglobljene intervjuje s posameznimi porabniki, da bi bolje razumela mehanizme čuječnosti porabnikov in raziskala odnos med trajnostno potrošnjo in dobrobitjo v kontekstu potrošnje modnih oblačil. Ugotovitve te študije so v skladu s prejšnjimi raziskavami glede povezave med koncepti čuječnosti, dobrobiti in trajnostne potrošnje (Fredrickson, 2011; Holland et al., 2006; Ivtzan et al., 2011; Iwata, 2001; Langer, 2005; Layous et al., 2014; Thompson & Coskuner-Balli, 2007).

Trajnostna potrošnja. Kvalitativna raziskava nakazuje, da porabniki trajnostno potrošnjo vidijo kot uporabo stvari, ki bodo trajale dolgo časa, recikliranih, predelanih in okolju prijaznih izdelkov, kar je v skladu z definicijo trajnostne potrošnje, sprejete na Simpoziju v Oslu (Norveško ministrstvo za okolje, 1994), in podkrepljeno z drugimi raziskavami, ki opisujejo recikliranje, zmanjševanje odpadkov in minimizacijo uporabe virov kot dejanja, ki negujejo trajnostno potrošnjo (Bentley, 2008). Nadalje so udeleženci raziskave opisali

porabnika trajnostnih modnih oblačil kot nekoga, ki ga skrbi za naravno okolje, je varčen, premišljen, ni zainteresiran za modne trende in ki skrbi za druge ljudi, kar je prav tako v skladu z omenjeno opredelitvijo trajnostne potrošnje in z drugimi raziskavami, ki trajnostno potrošnjo opisujejo kot vrsto potrošnje, ki pogosto vključuje okoljsko, ekonomsko in družbeno dimenzijo (Balderjahn et al., 2013; Huang & Rust, 2011; Lim, 2017). Koncept toplega sijaja se prav tako pojavi v tej kvalitativni študiji. Rezultati te študije nakazujejo, da trajnostna potrošnja vodi do osebnega občutka dosežka in da so porabniki zadovoljni, ker vedo, da s trajnostno potrošnjo pomagajo okolju in družbi. To mnenje je v skladu z raziskavami, ki zeleni topli sijaj predstavljajo kot glavno gonilo okolju prijaznega vedenja, saj ima vlogo tako predhodnika kot posledice vedenja, s čimer krepi okolju prijazna vedenja (Hartmann et al., 2017). Nadalje udeleženci menijo, da trajnostna potrošnja vključuje nakup lokalno proizvedenih izdelkov, nakup v prodajalnah z rabljenimi izdelki in nakup izdelkov, ki jih je mogoče reciklirati.

Porabnikova dobrobit ali sreča. Moja študija pokaže, da udeleženci raziskave razumejo dobrobit porabnika kot srečo pri nakupu ali nošenju oblačil, nekateri pa dobrobit porabnika obravnavajo kot srečo skozi celotno potrošniško izkušnjo. Pri opisovanju sreče ali dobrobiti porabnika so udeleženci uporabljali besede, kot so sreča, zadovoljstvo in dober občutek. Te ugotovitve potrjujejo, da se izraza "sreča" in "dobrobit" lahko uporabljata kot sopomenki.

Odnos med čuječnostjo, dobrobitjo porabnika in trajnostno potrošnjo. Iz te študije je razvidno, da udeleženci raziskave verjamejo, da ima čuječnost učinek na trajnostno potrošnjo. Na primer, čuječ porabnik je verjetno tudi trajnosten porabnik in trajnosten porabnik mora biti čuječ. To podpira osnovno predpostavko te raziskave, namreč, da je povečana raven čuječnosti pozitivno povezana s trajnostnimi vedenji potrošnje posameznika. Ta predpostavka je podprta z ugotovitvami Helm in Subramaniam (2016) o pozitivnem učinku čuječnosti na trajnostno potrošnjo. Udeleženci te študije so prav tako navedli, da so čuječi porabniki srečni ali srečnejši od običajnih porabnikov in da je čuječnost dobra za porabnika na osebni ravni, s čimer podpirajo prejšnje raziskave, ki dokazujejo pozitiven učinek čuječnosti na individualno dobrobit (Bahl et al., 2016; Brown & Kasser, 2005; Brown & Ryan, 2003; Carmody & Baer, 2008; Friese & Hofmann, 2016; Wilber, 2000). Nadalje rezultati te študije ilustrirajo povezavo med trajnostno potrošnjo in dobrobitjo porabnika. Udeleženci so izrazili prepričanje, da trajnostna potrošnja pozitivno vpliva na dobrobit, saj so porabniki srečnejši, ker trošijo trajnostno, kar se sklada s tezo, da je trajnostna potrošnja pozitivno povezana z dobrobitjo porabnika. V nasprotju z mnenji večine udeležencev, nekateri niso videli nobene povezave med tremi preučevanimi koncepti. Nekateri udeleženci so celo navedli, da ima lahko čuječnost negativen učinek na dobrobit, kar bi lahko bil predmet prihodnjih raziskav o negativnem odnosu med čuječnostjo in dobrobitjo.

Nasprotujoči lastnosti trajnostnih postrošnikov in morebitni negativni učinek čuječnost na dobrobit. Ta študija je prinesla tudi nekaj nepričakovanih ugotovitev. Med njimi izstopata dve nasprotujoči si lastnosti porabnikov trajnostnih modnih oblačil, ki so ju

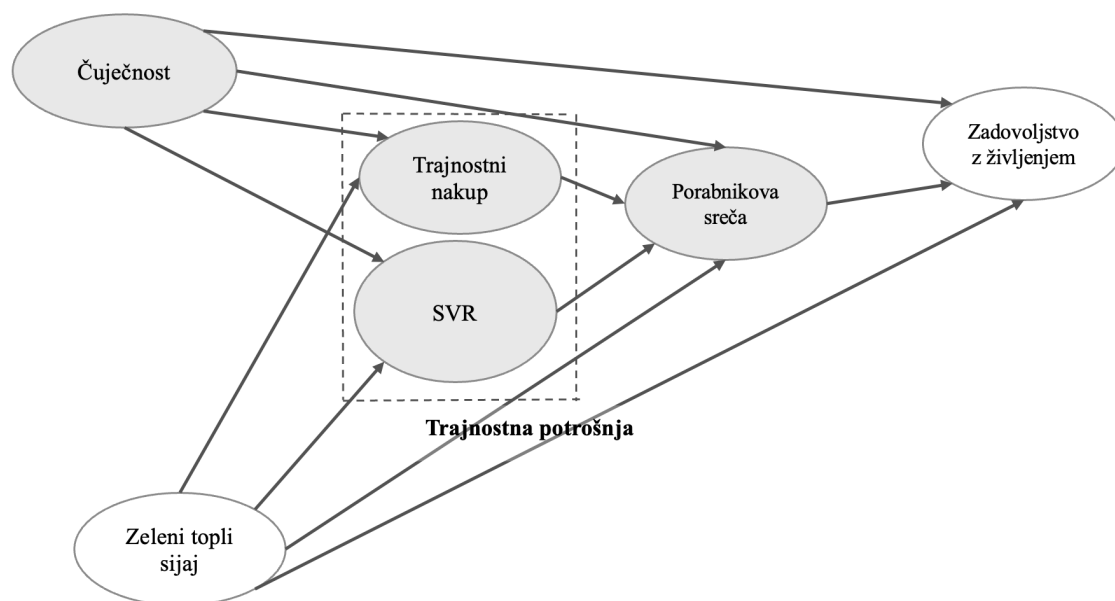
navedli udeleženci kvalitativne raziskave: (a) da porabniki trajnostnih modnih oblačil nimajo interesa za modne trende in (b) da imajo ti porabniki smisel za stil, so modno napredni in se zelo zanimajo za modne trende. Na podlagi pogovorov z udeleženci se zdi, da udeleženci različno razumejo modne trende. Nekateri zeleno in trajnostno modo razumejo kot modni trend, ki so ga sprejele številne blagovne znamke modnih oblačil, od hitre mode do luksuznih znamk, in da bo porabnik, ki sledi modnim trendom, verjetno kupil takšna oblačila. Drugi razumejo modne trende kot smernice posamezne modne sezone. Poleg tega so nekateri udeleženci pri razpravi o povezavi med konceptoma čuječnosti in dobrobiti poudarili, da bi lahko čuječnost imela negativen učinek na dobrobit. To je bilo nepričakovano, saj takšne povezave nisem zasledila pri pregledu literature. Nazadnje je večina udeležencev omenjala pozitiven učinek trajnostne potrošnje na dobrobit v skladu s pregledom literature, a presenetljivo rezultati kažejo, da bi lahko sreča porabnika imela tudi vpliv na trajnostno potrošnjo. To pomeni, da bo srečnejši porabnik bolj verjetno ravnal kot trajnosten porabnik.

Kvantitativna raziskava

Prevladujoča teorija, ki podpira model kvantitativne študije, je teorija samoodločanja (Self-Determination theory - SDT), ki sta jo razvila Ryan in Deci (2000). Poleg tega sem uporabila vpogled iz Okvira čuječnosti in trajnosti (Mindfulness-Sustainability framework - MMF), ki so ga razvili Geiger, Fischer in Schrader (2018), ter Teorijo čuječnosti do smisla (Mindfulness-to-Meaning theory - MMT), ki jo je razvil Garland (2015b). Menim, da so omenjene tri teoretične perspektive ključne za mojo kvantitativno raziskavo in lahko bolje pomagajo razložiti odnos med trajnostno potrošnjo, čuječnostjo, dobrobitjo porabnika kot tudi zadovoljstvom z življenjem in toplim sijajem.

Konceptualni model, predlagan v tej disertaciji (slika 1), je tesno povezan s Teorijo samoodločanja in Teorijo čuječnosti do smisla, saj poskušam razumeti, kako se čuječnost nanaša na trajnostno potrošnjo in kako je povezana z zadovoljstvom z življenjem v kontekstu potrošnje modnih oblačil. Poleg tega sem se opirala na Okvir čuječnosti in trajnosti, da bi bolje razumela konstrukta čuječnosti in trajnostne potrošnje, izhajajoč iz predpostavke, da bo čuječnost pozitivno vplivala na trajnostno potrošnjo modnih oblačil. Konceptualni model je zasnovan na kvalitativni raziskavi in na sintezi literature s področja študij vedenja porabnikov, čuječnosti in trajnosti, kjer so Teorija samoodločanja, Okvir čuječnosti in trajnosti ter Teorija čuječnosti do smisla uporabljeni kot teoretično orodje.

Slika 1: Predlagan konceptualni model



Opombe: SVR = Nakup rabljenih in vintage oblačil ter storitev najema modnih oblačil

Vir: Lastno delo.

Za preverjanje hipotez in konceptualnega modela sem uporabila več različnih statističnih orodij, začnši z opisno statistiko in opisom značilnosti vzorca 474 respondentov. Nadaljevala sem z ocenjevanjem merskega modela, sledilo je ocenjevanje strukturnega modela, kjer so bili predstavljeni odnosi med konstrukti čuječnosti, trajnostne potrošnje, porabnikove sreče, zelenega toplega sijaja in zadovoljstva z življenjem (glej tabelo 1). Uporabila sem tehniko delnih najmanjših kvadratov za modeliranje strukturnih enačb, ki predstavlja zbirko statističnih tehnik za raziskovanje odnosov med eno ali več neodvisnimi spremenljivkami.

Čuječnost in trajnostna potrošnja. Rezultati študije kažejo, da je čuječnost pozitivno povezana s trajnostno potrošnjo. Ta vključuje nakup trajnostnih izdelkov in nakup rabljenih in vintage oblačil ter storitev najema modnih oblačil. Tako so posamezniki, ki so bolj čuječi, na splošno bolj nagnjeni k nakupu oblačil, ki veljajo za bolj trajnostna (Sheth et al., 2011). To je v skladu z idejo, da čuječi posamezniki namenjajo veliko pozornosti izbiri načina potrošnje in se zavedajo posledic svoje potrošnje za naravno okolje, skupnost in za njih same (Sheth et al., 2011). Takšni posamezniki bi se zato lahko odločili, da sploh ne kupijo določenih izdelkov, na splošno kupujejo manj (Rosenberg, 2004) ali kupujejo izdelke, ki predstavljajo bolj trajnostno možnost (Amel et al., 2009).

Tabela 1: Glavni rezultati o razmerjih med posameznimi konstrukti ter med konstrukti in kontrolnimi spremenljivkami

Razmerja	Rezultati
<i>Razmerja med osnovnimi konstrukti</i>	
Čuječnost → Trajnostni nakup (+)	Potrjeno
Čuječnost → SVR (+)	Potrjeno
Čuječnost → Potrošniška sreča (+)	Ni potrjeno
Trajnostni nakup → Potrošniška sreča (+)	Ni potrjeno
SVR → Potrošniška sreča (-)	Ni potrjeno
<i>Razmerja med dodatnimi konstrukti</i>	
Čuječnost → Zadovoljstvo z življenjem (+)	Potrjeno
Zeleni topli sijaj → Trajnostni nakup (+)	Potrjeno
Zeleni topli sijaj → SVR (+)	Ni potrjeno
Zeleni topli sijaj → Potrošniška sreča (+)	Potrjeno
Zeleni topli sijaj → Zadovoljstvo z življenjem (+)	Potrjeno
Potrošniška sreča → Zadovoljstvo z življenjem (+)	Potrjeno
<i>Kontrolne spremenljivke</i>	
Starost → Trajnostni nakup (+)	Potrjeno
Spol → SVR (+)	Potrjeno
Dohodek → Zadovoljstvo z življenjem (+)	Potrjeno
Starost → Zadovoljstvo z življenjem (-)	Potrjeno

Opomba: SVR = Nakup rabljenih in vintage oblačil ter storitev najema modnih oblačil

Vir: Lastno delo.

Trajnostna potrošnja in sreča porabnika. V nasprotju z mojimi pričakovanji rezultati kvantitativne študije kažejo, da porabniki, ki se bolj nagibajo k potrošnji rabljenih, vintage in najetih oblačil, poročajo o manjši porabnikovi sreči. Razlogov za nepričakovane rezultate študije, ki so v nasprotju s predlagano hipotezo, pregledom literature in raziskavami, je lahko več.

Potrošnja rabljenih, vintage in najetih izdelkov je lahko posledica varčnosti in služi kot mehanizem za nadzor nad porabo, saj varčnost omejuje nepotrebne izdatke posameznika za doseganje dolgoročnih ciljev (Cervellon et al., 2012). Ta omejitev lahko vključuje tudi nakup novih oblačil (Herjanto et al., 2016), čeprav so ta iz druge roke. Za te posameznike je nakup novih oblačil videti kot kršitev varčnosti in tudi kot nekaj, kar jih lahko naredi materialistične in kompulzivne (Herjanto et al., 2016). Ta prva alternativna razlaga bi lahko pojasnila, zakaj moja kvantitativna študija nakazuje, da je potrošnja rabljenih, vintage in najetih oblačil negativno povezana s srečo porabnika. Nekateri avtorji (npr. Hossain, 2005; Parsons, 2000) trdijo, da lahko v situacijah ekonomske stiske dohodek predstavlja najmočnejši razlog za individualo potrošnjo in da si ljudje z nižjimi dohodki preprosto ne morejo privoščiti nakupa novih oblačil in so zato prisiljeni v potrošnjo rabljenih, vintage in najetih izdelkov. Če porabniki kupujejo rabljene, vintage in najeta oblačila, ker so v to prisiljeni zaradi svoje finančne situacije, morda niso srečni z nakupljenimi izdelki. Ta druga alternativna razlaga bi lahko dodatno pojasnila, zakaj moja kvantitativna študija nakazuje, da je potrošnja

rabljenih, vintage in najetih izdelkov negativno povezana s srečo porabnika. Tretja alternativna razlaga se skriva v moji kvalitativni študiji, ki nakazuje, da bi lahko obstajal negativen odnos med trajnostno potrošnjo in dobrobitjo porabnika. Eden od udeležencev je izrazil mnenje, da so trajnostni porabniki pogosto manj zadovoljni z nakupom oblačil, ker mora kupljeni izdelki ustrezati njihovim osebnim standardom trajnosti, katerim mnogi kupljeni izdelki enostavno ne zadostijo. Veenhoven (2004) trdi, da bi lahko prehod na trajnostno potrošnjo spremljalo manjše začasno zmanjšanje sreče.

Zeleni topli sijaj in trajnostna potrošnja. Rezultati moje kvantitativne študije kažejo, da je zeleni topli sijaj pozitivno povezan z nakupom trajnostnih oblačil. Vendar ugotovitve ne kažejo pozitivne povezave med zelenim toplim sijajem in potrošnjo rabljenih, vintage in najetih modnih oblačil. Raziskovalci so dokazali, da okolju prijazno delovanje deluje kot psihološka nagrada in da zeleni topli sijaj spodbuja okolju prijazno vedenje (Hartmann et al., 2017; Kahneman & Knetsch, 1992; Nunes & Schokkaert, 2003). Zeleni topli sijaj se je prav tako pokazal kot motivator družbeno odgovornega vedenja (Chiengkul et al., 2023), kot je na primer izbira bolj trajnostne možnosti, vključno z modnimi oblačili iz okolju prijaznih materialov, recikliranih materialov, materialov, ki se reciklirajo ali oblačil izdelanih na družbeno odgovoren način, kar podpira tudi ta študija. Kljub temu mnogi porabniki nimajo usklajenih stališč in vedenja do trajnosti (Han, Seo, & Ko, 2017). Študije so pokazale, da čeprav se mnogi porabniki zavedajo negativnih družbenih in okoljskih vplivov proizvodnje oblačil, za mnoge to malo ali nič ne vpliva na njihove odločitve o nakupu (Eckhardt et. al, 2010; Han et al., 2017; Iwanow, McEachern, & Jeffrey, 2005). To bi lahko pojasnilo pomanjkanje učinka zelenega toplega sijaja na potrošnjo rabljenih, vintage in najetih oblačil.

Nadalje, nekatere prodajalne z rabljenimi izdelki ponujajo samo drage vintage oblikovalske izdelke, nekatere storitve najema pa ponujajo samo oblačila visoke mode z visokimi cenami, kar bi lahko predstavljalo dodatno oviro pri nakupovanju rabljenih in vintage oblačil ali najemu oblačil za posebne priložnosti. Poleg tega možnosti nakupovanja v prodajalnah z rabljenimi izdelki in storitvah najema v Sloveniji niso lahko dostopne. Na primer, leta 2021 je bilo v Sloveniji približno 20 fizičnih in spletnih prodajaln z rabljenimi izdelki (Veger, 2021), zato se porabniki malokrat odločijo za tovrsten nakup oblačil. To podpirajo tudi rezultati moje kvantitativne študije, ki kažejo, da približno 75 % udeležencev nikoli ali zelo redko kupuje rabljena, vintage in najeta modna oblačila. Ker mnogi porabniki niso pripravljeni plačati višje cene za trajnostne izdelke (Schleiden & Neiberger, 2020; Tascioglu et al., 2019) in morda ni dovolj ponudbe ali prodajaln v njihovi bližini, bi to lahko bil razlog, zakaj moja študija ni podprla pozitivnega odnosa med zelenim toplim sijajem in potrošnjo rabljenih, vintage in najetih izdelkov. Poleg tega, da je slovenski trg rabljenih izdelkov še v zgodnji fazi razvoja, bi lahko razlika v trgih v primerjavi z drugimi raziskavami bila razlog, zakaj ta kvantitativna študija ni našla pozitivnega odnosa med zelenim toplim sijajem in potrošnjo rabljenih, vintage in najetih izdelkov. Nadalje, čeprav se trajnostni modi pripisuje vse večji pomen, sta ozaveščenost porabnikov in informiranje o njej še vedno na nezavidljivi ravni (Gonzalez, 2015). To bi lahko nakazovalo, da se nekateri porabniki morda ne zavedajo

v celoti okoljskih koristi rabljenih oblačil in zato te vrste nakupa ne povezujejo z dobrim dejanjem za okolje. Ta alternativna razlaga bi lahko pojasnila pozitiven učinek zelenega toplega sijaja na trajnostne nakupe oblačil in ne na potrošnjo rabljenih, vintage in najetih modnih oblačil.

Čuječnost, sreča porabnikov in zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Rezultati moje kvantitativne študije kažejo, da je čuječnost pozitivno povezana z zadovoljstvom z življenjem. Vendar ugotovitve ne kažejo pozitivne povezave med čuječnostjo in srečo porabnikov. To nakazuje, da so bolj čuječi porabniki na splošno bolj zadovoljni s svojim življenjem, vendar ne poročajo o višji potrošniški sreči. Rezultati moje kvantitativne študije tako ne podpirajo ideje, da bi čuječnost lahko imela velik vpliv na dobrobit porabnikov (Bahl et al., 2016). Nadalje je bila čuječnost teoretično povezana z višjimi ravnmi psihološke dobrobiti (Ryff & Keyes, 1995) in izboljšano splošno kakovostjo življenja (Keng et al., 2011) kot tudi z večjim zadovoljstvom z življenjem (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Kong et al., 2014; Stolarski et al., 2016). Doslej izvedene študije so vzpostavile pozitivno razmerje med čuječnostjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem, kar podpira tudi moja kvantitativna študija.

Zeleni topli sijaj, sreča porabnikov in zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Rezultati moje kvantitativne študije kažejo, da je zeleni topli sijaj pozitivno povezan s srečo porabnikov in tudi z zadovoljstvom z življenjem. Videras in Owen (2006) pokažeta, da so ljudje, ki prispevajo k varstvu okolja, srečnejši in poročajo o višjih ravneh zadovoljstva z življenjem. Ta pozitivna povezava med okolju prijaznim vedenjem in dobrobitjo ter zadovoljstvom z življenjem zaradi zelenega toplega sijaja je podprta tudi z rezultati moje kvantitativne študije.

Sreča porabnikov in zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Rezultati moje kvantitativne študije kažejo, da je sreča porabnikov pozitivno povezana z zadovoljstvom z življenjem, kar nakazuje, da porabniki, ki so srečnejši iz izkušnje nakupa in poročajo o višji ravni sreče z njihovimi oblačili, doživljajo tudi višje zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Oba koncepta, sreča porabnikov in zadovoljstvo z življenjem, sta tesno povezana, saj užitek nakupovanja prispeva k splošni sreči v življenju. Ta povezava je vidna tudi pri posameznikih, ki doživljajo srečo na različnih področjih življenja, vključno z nakupovanjem in potrošnjo izdelkov (Andrews et al., 1976), pri čemer je zadovoljstvo z življenjem ena pomembnejših domen (Olsen et al., 2022), kar je v skladu z rezultati te študije.

Dohodek, starost in spol. Kvantitativna študija je razkrila, da ženske, pogosteje kot moški, kupujejo rabljena in vintage oblačila ter pogosteje uporabljajo storitve najema oblačil. To je v skladu z drugimi raziskavami, ki so pokazale, da so ženske bolj verjetno vključene v ekološko zavedno potrošnjo in pogosteje nakupujejo okolju prijazna oblačila (Gupta et al., 2019) ter se na splošno več ukvarjajo s trajnostno potrošnjo (Banytė et al., 2020). Podatki drugih raziskav prav tako kažejo, da ženske pogosteje kupujejo rabljena oblačila v spletnih prodajalnah (Statista, 2023). Študija Markova in Grajeda (2018) je pokazala, da ženske pogosteje kupujejo rabljena oblačila preko družbenih omrežij ali preko spleta (Markova &

Grajeda, 2018). V skladu z raziskavami o zadovoljstvu z življenjem (Diener et al., 1999; Howell & Howell, 2008; Soto & Luhmann, 2013; Zakersshahrak et al., 2023) rezultati moje študije prav tako nakazujejo, da ljudje z višjimi dohodki poročajo o večjem zadovoljstvu z življenjem. Nadalje rezultati moje kvantitativne študije razkrivajo, da mlajši ljudje doživljajo večje zadovoljstvo z življenjem kot starejši, kar je bilo ugotovljeno tudi v študiji Daiga et al. (2009). Poleg tega je moja študija pokazala, da starejši ljudje kupujejo trajnostna modna oblačila pogosteje kot mlajši, kar je v skladu s študijo, ki je preučevala trajnostno potrošnjo odraslih, kjer je bilo ugotovljeno, da se starejši posamezniki doma vedejo bolj varčno in trajnostno v primerjavi z mlajšimi (Banytė et al., 2020).

Teoretični prispevek disertacije

Pomemben teoretični prispevek te disertacije je v predlaganem teoretičnem okviru, ki opisuje razmerja med porabnikovo čuječnostjo, trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo dobrobitjo, osebnim zadovoljstvom z življenjem in zelenim toplim sijajem. Testirani model ima več pomembnih posledic in osvetljuje, kako čuječnost in zeleni topli sijaj vplivata na trajnostno potrošnjo, porabnikovo srečo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem, kot tudi kako trajnostna potrošnja vpliva na porabnikovo dobrobit in osebno zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Ta študija prispeva k znanstveni literaturi glede vloge čuječnosti kot predhodnika trajnostne potrošnje, porabnikove sreče in zadovoljstva z življenjem, kot tudi vloge zelenega toplega sijaja kot predhodnika trajnostnega nakupovalnega vedenja, porabnikove sreče in zadovoljstva z življenjem. Iz modela je razvidno, da je čuječnost pozitivno povezana s trajnostno potrošnjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem. Poleg tega model prikazuje, da je zeleni topli sijaj delno pozitivno povezan s trajnostno potrošnjo in pozitivno povezan s porabnikovo srečo ali dobrobitjo in zadovoljstvom z življenjem.

Glavni prispevek te disertacije leži v vzpostavitvi teoretično podprtih povezav na podlagi Teorije samoodločanja (SDT), Okvira čuječnosti in trajnosti (MSF) ter Teorije čuječnosti do smisla (MMT). V nadaljevanju predstavljam predloge za razvoj teorije, povezane z ugotovitvami kvalitativne in kvantitativne študije v tej disertaciji.

Teorija samoodločanja (SDT) je obsežna teorija človeške motivacije, razvoja osebnosti in dobrobiti, saj predpostavlja, da izpolnitev določenih potreb spodbuja dobrobit (Kim et al., 2016). Na podlagi SDT disertacija predstavlja konceptualni model, ki vključuje trajnostno potrošnjo kot del osnovnih psiholoških potreb in, kot predvideva SDT, bo izpolnitev teh potreb spodbujala dobrobit (Kim et al., 2016). Konceptualni model tako vključuje pozitiven odnos med trajnostno potrošnjo in srečo potrošnika ter med srečo potrošnika in življenjskim zadovoljstvom, kar je v skladu z drugimi raziskovalnimi okviri, ki temeljijo na tej teoriji (npr. Kim, Manchiraju, May, & Fincham, 2016). S to raziskavo disertacija dopolnjuje SDT s prikazom njene uporabe v kontekstu trajnostne potrošnje modnih oblačil. V kontekstu slovenske populacije je SDT uporabljena na področjih kot so izobraževanje (Bardorfer & Dolenc, 2022; Erpič, 2013), management (Gorenšek, 2020; Šarotar Žižek et al., 2017), starševstvo (Vodopivec, 2017; Zupančič et al., 2014) in potrošniške študije (Grum & Grum,

2014; Šumak et al., 2014). Disertacija SDT dopolne tako, da predstavi teoretične konstrukte SDT in odnose v kontekstu slovenskih potrošnikov ter v kontekstu trajnostne mode. Kvalitativna študija nakazuje na pozitiven učinek trajnostne potrošnje na srečo potrošnika in s tem podpira splošno veljavnost SDT ter poglobi razumevanje narave teorije. Presenetljivo je kvalitativna študija nakazala tako negativno razmerje med trajnostno potrošnjo in srečo potrošnika kot tudi pozitivno razmerje med tema dvema konstruktoma. Kvantitativna študija je nato odkrila delno negativno razmerje med trajnostno potrošnjo in srečo potrošnika. Ti rezultati lahko nakazujejo, da je potrebno SDT prilagoditi za kontekst slovenskih potrošnikov in trajnostne potrošnje mode, čeprav gre za dobro utrjeno teorijo, ki je dosledna skozi čas in različne kontekste.

Konstrukt zelenega toplega sijaja je bil uporabljen v teoriji samodoločanja (SDT) in aplikativno obravnavan v kontekstu potrošniških izkušenj (Alhouti et al., 2021) ter vedenja potrošnikov (Guanyu & Shumin, 2021). Vendar, po mojem najboljšem vedenju, konstrukt zelenega toplega sijaja ni bil uporabljen v SDT v kontekstu trajnostne potrošnje modnih oblačil. Uporaba SDT s konstruktom zelenega toplega sijaja v drugačnem kontekstu povečuje splošno uporabnost teorije.

Čuječnost se razprši skozi ključne komponente teorije samodoločanja (SDT) in je obravnavana kot bistveni del dobrega počutja (Schultz & Ryan, 2015). Konceptualni model predstavljen v tej disertaciji je tesno povezan s SDT, saj poskušam razumeti, kako je čuječnost povezana s trajnostno potrošnjo oblačil in kako se čuječnost nanaša na zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Moja disertacija dopolnjuje to teorijo z validacijo obstoja pozitivnega odnosa med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo ter pozitivnega odnosa med čuječnostjo in splošnim zadovoljstvom z življenjem.

Okvir čuječnosti in trajnosti (MSF) analizira povezavo med čuječnostjo in trajnostjo, vključno s subjektivno dobrobitjo, potrošnjo in trajnostnim vedenjem, socialnim aktivizmom ter zavestnimi, prilagodljivimi in adaptivnimi odzivi na podnebne spremembe (Geiger, Fischer, & Schrader, 2018). MSF se je uporabljal v različnih panogah, geografskih kontekstih in kontekstih raziskav potrošnikov (Frank et al., 2021; Geiger et al., 2019; Helm & Subramaniam, 2019; Thiermann & Sheate, 2021). Kolikor mi je znano, MSF ni bil uporabljen v kontekstu slovenskih potrošnikov, prav tako ne obstajajo študije, ki bi ta okvir uporabljale v kontekstu trajnostne potrošnje modnih oblačil. Rezultati moje kvalitativne in kvantitativne študije kažejo pozitiven odnos med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo v kontekstu trajnostne potrošnje modnih oblačil med slovenskimi potrošniki, s čimer dodajajo k splošni uporabnosti te teorije. Vključitev konstrukta porabnikove dobrobiti ali sreče nakazuje na vidik te teorije, ki bi lahko bil specifičen za določen kontekst. Namreč, kvalitativna študija nakazuje negativno razmerje med trajnostno potrošnjo in porabnikovo srečo ter negativno razmerje med čuječnostjo in porabnikovo srečo. S temi ugotovitvami študija ponuja globlje razumevanje, kako se elementi teorije razlikujejo, kadar so uporabljeni v različnem kontekstu. Po pristopu specifikacije konstrukta Fisherja in Aguinisa (2017), sem MSF nadalje razvila z identifikacijo in opredelitvijo konstrukta, ki prej ni bil upoštevan v

obstoječi teoriji – konstrukt zelenega toplega sijaja. Drug pristop k nadgradnji teorije je identifikacija in opis specifičnih odnosov med konstrukti, ki prej niso bili opisani (Fisher & Aguinis, 2017). Kvalitativna študija, predstavljena v tej disertaciji, kaže dvosmerno razmerje med trajnostno potrošnjo in čuječnostjo, kot tudi negativno razmerje med temi dvema konstrukta. Te ugotovitve bi lahko nakazovale, da je potrebno MSF prilagoditi kontekstu trajnostne potrošnje modnih oblačil ali kontekstu slovenskih potrošnikov. Ker ostanejo trdne teorije dosledne skozi čas in prostor in so raziskovalci pogosto prehitri pri prilagajanju teorij za nove kontekste (Pfeffer, 2013), so potrebne nadaljnje študije, ki bi uporabile MSF v kontekstu trajnostne potrošnje modnih oblačil in/ali med slovenskimi potrošniki.

Teorija čuječnosti do smisla (MMT) ponuja podroben procesni model mehanizmov, s katerimi lahko čuječnost spodbuja dobro počutje (Garland & Fredrickson, 2019). Disertacija uporabi MMT z vključitvijo konceptov čuječnosti, porabnikovega dobrega počutja in splošnega zadovoljstva z življenjem v konceptualni model in raziskuje kako se čuječnost nanaša na srečo potrošnikov in zadovoljstvo ljudi z življenjem. MMT se je uporabljala v različnih raziskovalnih področjih in kontekstih, vključno s psihologijo (Garland et al., 2017), kliničnimi študijami (Carlson, 2015; Williams et al., 2021), zasvojenostjo (Garland & Fredrickson, 2019), študijami zadovoljstva z življenjem (Cheung & Lau, 2021; Lee & Ling, 2023; Li et al., 2022), iskanjem smisla v življenju (Chu & Mak, 2020; Klussman et al., 2022) in dobrega počutja (Crego et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023). Za nadgradnjo teorije lahko preučimo, kako se ujema ali pojasnjuje podatke, zbrane v drugačnem kontekstu (Vaughan, 1992). Kolikor mi je znano, aplikacije MMT v kontekstu slovenskih potrošnikov ni, prav tako ne obstajajo študije, ki bi ta okvir uporabljale v kontekstu trajnostne modne industrije. Disertacija ponudi nadaljnji razvoj MMT tako, da je ta uporabljena v kontekstu trajnostne potrošnje in s tem nadalje dokaže splošno uporabnost te teorije. Pojav novega raziskovalnega konteksta prav tako ponuja plodno priložnost za teoretiziranje (Fisher & Aguinis, 2017). Sledila sem pristopu specifikacije konstrukta in nadalje razvila MMT z opredelitvijo konstrukta zelenega toplega sijaja, ki po mojem vedenju še ni bil upoštevan v teoriji MMT.

Teoretični okvir te disertacije nakazuje, kako je mogoče vplivati na trajnostno vedenje porabnikov, njihovo srečo in splošno zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Ker modna industrija prispeva k uničevanju okolja in velja za družbeno precej neodgovorno, trenutna družbeno-okoljska kriza zahteva nove strategije čim hitrejšega preoblikovanja naše družbe v bolj trajnostno (Milne et al., 2020). Moja disertacija združuje literaturo o trajnostni potrošnji z okolju prijaznim in družbeno odgovornim vedenjem, kar privede do čustvene koristi toplega sijaja, ki vodi do povečane potrošnje trajnostnih izdelkov in storitev. Ta študija predlaga dva možna odziva na problem ne-trajnostne potrošnje in prekomerne potrošnje: prvič, povečati čuječnost porabnikov in drugič, globlje razumeti, kako zelen topli sijaj spodbuja bolj trajnostno potrošnjo, srečnejše porabnike in večje zadovoljstvo z življenjem. Poleg tega disertacija prikazuje, kako je mogoče spodbujati bolj trajnostno potrošnjo z bolj čuječim odnosom posameznikov. Disertacija dodaja pomemben prispevek s poudarkom na

uporabnosti čuječnosti pri nakupu trajnostnih oblačil, kot tudi pri potrošnji rabljenih, vintage in izposojenih oblačil.

Praktične implikacije

Raziskava ponuja pomembne praktične implikacije za blagovne znamke in trgovce, ki ponujajo trajnostna, okolju prijazna in družbeno odgovorna oblačila, da bi spodbudili porabnike k izbiri bolj trajnostnih izdelkov kot alternativo. Kot kažejo ugotovitve te disertacije, bodo bolj čuječi porabniki bolj zavzeti za trajnostno potrošnjo, pri čemer upoštevajo okoljski in družbeni vpliv nakupa. Zato bi blagovne znamke oblačil lahko spodbudile porabnike k izbiri možnosti, ki je bodisi bolj prijazna do okolja, bodisi bolj prijazna do delavcev, ali oboje, z zagotavljanjem transparentnih informacij o proizvodnji in materialih, uporabljenih v izdelku, kot tudi z verodostojnimi certifikati. Obsežen pregled literature o trajnostni potrošnji in rezultati moje kvalitativne študije kažejo, da trajnostni porabniki pogosto izbirajo oblačila, ki jih lahko nosijo dolgo časa, in sicer visokokakovostne izdelke in klasične modele, ki ne gredo iz mode. Posledično bi blagovne znamke oblačil lahko proizvajale izdelke, ki se osredotočajo na vzdržljivost in dolgoživost (npr. visokokakovostni materiali ali izdelki, ki se enostavno popravijo), klasičen ali minimalističen dizajn, tako da oblačilo ne zastara prehitro, in materiali, ki jih je enostavno reciklirati. Poleg tega bi blagovne znamke in trgovci z oblačili lahko promovirali filozofijo počasne mode kot alternativo industriji hitre mode, s poudarkom na brezčasnem dizajnu in spodbujanjem porabnikov k sprejemanju višjih cen za izdelke, ki jih lahko uporabljajo dlje časa. Kvantitativna raziskava disertacije pokaže, da so porabniki, ki se počutijo dobro, ko pomagajo okolju (zeleni topli sijaj), bolj nagnjeni k nakupu trajnostnih oblačil. Ob tem bi blagovne znamke in trgovci z oblačili lahko okrepili to vedenje z enostavnim opomnikom ali sporočilom o tem, kako so porabniki s svojo odločitvijo glede nakupa pomagali okolju in/ali delavcem, ki izdelujejo oblačila. To sporočilo bi lahko bilo vključeno na računu, v elektronski pošti s potrditvijo naročila, na letaku v nakupovalni vrečki ali na letaku v paketu, prejetem po pošti. Spoznanja te disertacije so pomembna za modno industrijo, še posebej za znamke, ki prehajajo na trajnostno modo, in za vlade, ki skušajo zaščititi naravno okolje, biti družbeno odgovorne in zagotoviti blaginjo prihodnjim generacijam.

Tako kvalitativna in kvantitativna študija kot tudi obsežen pregled literature kažejo jasno pozitivno povezavo med čuječnostjo in trajnostno potrošnjo. Upoštevajoč to ugotovitev, lahko ta disertacija ponudi specifične implikacije za tržnike in vlade, da spodbujajo tehnike čuječnosti, ki lahko predstavljajo koristno taktiko za spodbujanje dolgoročnega trajnostnega vedenja (Kaur & Luchs, 2022). Tehnike čuječnosti, ki jih uporabljajo oblikovalci politik, lahko vključujejo odmore za čuječnost, ki uporabnike spodbujajo, da razmislijo o svojih vrednotah in s tem ponovno usmerijo svoj fokus (Kaur & Luchs, 2022). Prav tako jih lahko uporabijo tržniki v oglaševalskih kampanjah izdelkov in blagovnih znamk, kjer spodbujajo izboljšanje življenjskega sloga.

Poleg tega disertacija ponuja pomembne praktične nasvete za prodajalne z rabljenimi in vintage oblačili ter za podjetja, ki ponujajo storitev izposoje izdelkov, glede spodbujanja čuječnosti porabnikov in uporabe zelenega toplega sijaja, da bi porabnike spodbudili k nakupu ali najemu rabljenih oblačil. Kvalitativni rezultati študije in obsežen pregled literature nakazujejo, da so prodajalne z rabljenimi in storitve izposoje pomemben del trajnostne potrošnje. Vendar pa rezultati moje kvantitativne študije kažejo, da se malo porabnikov poslužuje te vrste potrošnje. Zato predlagam, da prodajalne z rabljenimi, vintage oblačili in storitvami izposoje v svoji komunikaciji s strankami in potencialnimi kupci poudarijo vrednost, ki jo porabniki pridobijo z nakupom ali najemom rabljenega izdelka. To so visoka kakovost po nižjih cenah, unikatni izdelki, prispevanje k varovanju okolja z zmanjšanjem odpadkov in zmanjšanje proizvodnih stroškov za okolje in delavce.

Oblikovalci politik lahko na podlagi ugotovitev te disertacije pridobijo boljše razumevanje pomembnosti spodbujanja čuječnosti. Spodbujanje k vzgoji čuječih porabnikov se lahko začne v šolah, v programih nadaljnjega izobraževanja in pri odraslih preko različnih programov. Ti programi bi lahko vključevali subvencionirane programe čuječnosti pri neprofitnih organizacijah, pri komercialnih ponudnikih storitev in na delovnih mestih. Kot nakazujejo ugotovitve te disertacije, bodo bolj čuječi porabniki izkazovali bolj trajnostno vedenje ter imeli višjo dobrobit in življenjsko zadovoljstvo, kar ustvarja bolj okoljsko in družbeno odgovorno kulturo. Poleg tega bo disertacija pomagala oblikovalcem politik bolje razumeti pomembnost izobraževanja in komuniciranja s porabniki o razpoložljivih trajnostnih možnostih. Ker lahko topli sijaj prevzame vlogo tako vedenjskega predhodnika kot posledice, dodatno krepí okolju prijazno vedenje (Hartmann et al., 2017). Izobraževalne vsebine in programi obveščanja bi se lahko promovirali preko televizijskega in spletnega oglaševanja, obvestil v prodajalnah in referenc na etiketah izdelkov, da bi porabniki razumeli, kako pomagajo planetu in ljudem z izbiro bolj trajnostnih možnosti.

Ker je vlada odgovorna za podporo zelenim in trajnostnim pobudam, bi morala med splošno javnostjo in med podjetji širiti zavedanje o okoljskih vprašanjih (Bazaraa et al., 2022). Na primer, vlada bi lahko vlagala v izobraževanje o tem, kako izbira potrošnje vpliva na naše okolje in družbo preko različnih šolskih programov in trajnostnih usposabljanj za vodstvo in zaposlene v podjetjih. Nadalje bi vlada lahko, na primer, spodbujala podjetja in organizacije k izvajanju okolju prijaznih projektov z različnimi prizadevanji (npr. finančna pomoč, ugodna posojila ali davčne olajšave, nagrade in javna priznanja) (Bazaraa et al., 2022). Bazaraa et al. (2022) predlagajo, da vlade razmislijo tudi o kaznih, na primer pri ocenjevanju novih podjetij pri izdajanju licenc in zagotavljanju, da obstoječa podjetja sledijo zahtevanim trajnostnim standardom, kot tudi o nalaganju visokih kazni podjetjem, ki kršijo te standarde.

Appendix 2: Operationalisation of sustainable consumption

Table 2.1: Clothing consumption behaviour measurement

No.	Item
1	I am willing to have a sustainable clothing consumption behaviour.
2	I will try to have a sustainable clothing consumption behaviour.
3	I had a sustainable clothing consumption behaviour.
4	How often do you have sustainable clothing consumption behaviour?
5	I tried to have a sustainable clothing consumption behaviour.

Source: Brandão and Costa (2021).

Table 2.2: Sustainable clothing consumption measurement

No.	Item
Environmental concerns for apparel production	
1	The dye and chemicals used in apparel production can be harmful to the environment.
2	I am concerned about the impact of clothing production on the environment.
3	It is important to have a fair price for environmentally friendly products.
4	More retailers need to sell environmentally friendly products.
Purchase intention of environmentally friendly clothes	
1	I would buy organic clothing to help support organic farming.
2	If you found an organic cotton apparel product the next time you went shopping for apparel, how likely are you to buy it?
3	If available, I would seek out environmentally friendly clothes.
4	I would pay more for environmentally friendly clothes.
5	The next time you go apparel shopping, how likely are you to purchase an organic cotton apparel product?
6	How likely are you to purchase environmentally friendly clothes?
7	Whenever possible, I buy clothing I consider environmentally safe.
8	I am willing to buy environmentally friendly t-shirt.

Source: Gam (2011).

Table 2.3: Environmental Apparel Consumption (EAC) measurement

No.	Item
1	When acquiring clothing items.
2	I Buy clothes with environmentally friendly labelling or packaging techniques.
3	When acquiring clothing items, I buy clothing made from organically grown natural fibres.
4	When acquiring clothing items, I buy second-hand clothes.
5	When acquiring clothing items.
6	I buy clothes with low impact or no dye processing.
7	When acquiring clothing items.
8	I select clothes that you can wear over a longer term compared to trendy clothes that go out of style quickly.
9	When acquiring clothing items, I purposely select fabrics that require cooler washing temperature, shorter drying time, or less ironing.
10	When acquiring clothing items.
11	I avoid clothes products because of environmental concerns.
12	When acquiring clothing items, I buy clothes made from recycled material.

Source: Gwozdz, Nielsen and Muller (2017).

Table 2.4: The General Sustainable Buying Behaviour measurement

No.	Item
1	I buy environmentally friendly products even with higher prices.
2	Stop buying environmentally harmful products.
3	Tell friends to stop using environmentally harmful products

Source: Yoo, Divita, & Kim (2018).

Table 2.5: The eco-friendly buying behaviour of the customer measurement

No.	Item
1	I usually favour buying apparels that make use of eco-friendly material.
2	I usually buy those apparels that can be recycled.
3	I would buy eco-friendly apparel even if it is not from a well-known company.
4	Humans were meant to rule over the rest of nature.

Source: by Prakash, Choudhary, Kumar, Garza-Reyes, Khan, and Panda (2019).

Table 2.6: Environmental consciousness and willingness to pay measurement

No.	Item
1	I am ready to pay more for ecological apparel.
2	I am willing to pay more for conventional cotton apparel if they are made of organic cotton.
3	I am willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products to reduce the usage of cleansing agents and detergents.

Source: Suki (2016).

Table 2.7: Environmentally Responsible Purchase Intention scale

No.	Item
1	I am planning to buy ecological apparel in future.
2	I plan to buy ecological apparel regularly.
3	I will expend more effort on ecological apparel in comparison to traditional apparel.

Source: Wee et al. (2014).

Table 2.8: Intention for sustainable fashion consumption measurement

No.	Item
1	I intend to not buy new clothing items if I already have previous dresses in a good state.
2	I intend to buy clothing that is made out of recycled materials.
3	I intend to buy clothing that is safe for the environment.
4	I intend to buy clothing which can be disposed in an environmentally friendly manner.
5	I intend to buy clothing which is produced in an environmentally friendly manner.
6	I intend to limit my use of clothing which is made of or uses scarce resources.

Scale: Penz and Drewes (2022).

Appendix 3: Sustainable Consumption Scale

Based on the cube model of SCB (Geiger et al., 2017), a scale Items for the assessment of Sustainable Clothes Consumption was developed (Geiger, Fischer, Schrader & Grossman, 2020). Items were assessed on a 7-point frequency scale that had every second option labelled with never (0), sometimes (2), often (4), and always (6). The items of the questionnaire are divided into two parts: items for the assessment of sustainable clothes consumption and items for the assessment of attitude towards sustainable clothes consumption. All the items are presented below.

Items for the assessment of Sustainable Clothes Consumption

Think about last month. How often do you do the following things?

1. I give away or swap clothes I do not wear anymore.
2. I wait until my washing machine is full, before put on the wash.
3. I put clothes I do not wear anymore into collection bins.
4. I buy fairly produced clothes.
5. I air my clothes and decide afterwards if I have to wash them or not.
6. Instead of buying a piece of wardrobe for special occasions, I borrow it.
7. I buy ecologically produced clothes from organic materials (e.g., organic cotton)
8. I use a laundry dryer (-)
9. I make my own clothes (e.g., sowing, knitting)
10. I buy second hand clothes.
11. I avoid clothes from countries with bad working conditions.
12. I buy clothes with labels that guarantee they are free from chemicals (e.g., GERMAN LABEL)
13. I buy high quality, long-lasting clothes.
14. sort out clothes, if they are out of fashion or my taste (-).
15. I repair clothes or let them be repaired.
16. I look for ways of using old, discarded clothes (e.g., for cleaning cloths or recycling projects)

Appendix 4: Warm glow and green warm glow measurements

Table 4.1: Warm glow measurement by Taute & McQuitty, 2004

No.	Item
1	Felt bad about not giving to a charity when I had the chance.
2	Felt you should give to a variety of charities and "spread it around."
3	Felt good about donating to charity.

Source: Taute & McQuitty (2004).

Table 4.2: Green warm glow measurement Hartman (2017)

No.	Item
1	Doing something about climate change gives me a pleasant feeling of personal satisfaction.
2	Reducing my personal carbon emissions, I feel happy contributing to human wellbeing and the quality of the natural environment.
3	Helping to prevent climate change, I feel pleased to be doing something good for our planet.
4	Participating in climate protection makes me feel satisfied, giving something back to society and the environment.

Source: Hartman (2017).

Table 4.3: Green warm glow measurement Ho et al. (2023)

No.	Item
1	An owner of an electric scooter can feel good, because it helps protect the environment.
2	With an electric scooter, I have the feeling of contributing to the well-being of humanity and nature.
3	An owner of an electric scooter can feel better, because it does not harm the environment.

Source: Ho et al. (2023).

Appendix 5: Consumer happiness measurements

Table 5.1: Consumer happiness measurement by De Keyser and Lariviere (2014)

No.	Item
1	When you think about your purchase at company X, how happy does this make you?
2	How much does your purchase at company X contribute to your happiness?
3	To what extent do you think the money spent on this purchase would have been better spent on something else – some other type of purchase that would have made you happier?

Source: De Keyser and Lariviere (2014).

Table 5.2: Consumer happiness Zhan and Zhou (2018)

No.	Item
1	When you think about mobile internet, how happy does it make you?
2	How much does mobile internet contribute to your happiness in life?
3	Using mobile internet makes me happy.

Source: Zhan and Zhou (2018).

Table 5.3: Consumer happiness by Kim and Lee (2020a)

No.	Item
1	After the customization experience, I feel happy now.
2	The customization experience is pleasant for me.
3	The customization experience pleased my daily life.
4	The customization experience has increased my life satisfaction.

Source: Kim and Lee (2020a).

Table 5.4: Consumer happiness measurement by Fei, Zeng and Jin (2022)

No.	Item
1	I am happy to consume the product.
2	Buying the product makes me happy.
3	I'm happier than I was before consuming the product.
4	I think that the purchase of the product makes other people happy.
5	I think that my money was well-spent on purchasing the product.

Source: Fei, Zeng and Jin (2022).

Appendix 6: Life Satisfaction (LS) scale

Table 6.1: Life satisfaction (LS) scale

No.	Item
1	In most ways, my life is close to my ideal.
2	The conditions of my life are excellent.
3	I am satisfied with my life.
4	So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5	I would change almost nothing in my life.

Source: Chou et al. (2022).

Appendix 7: Cover letter

Pozdravljeni,

pred vami je vprašalnik na temo trajnostne potrošnje, namenjen zbiranju podatkov za doktorsko disertacijo, ki jo pripravljam na Ekonomski fakulteti Univerze v Ljubljani. Večina vprašanj bo od vas zahtevala izražanje vaših mnenj na lestvici od 1-7, v zadnjem delu vprašalnika pa vas bom prosila še za nekaj splošnih podatkov o vas.

Za vaše sodelovanje in pomoč se vam že vnaprej lepo zahvaljujem.

Translation of the cover letter:

Hello,

here is a questionnaire on the topic of sustainable consumption, intended to collect data for the doctoral dissertation that I am preparing at the Faculty of Economics of the University of Ljubljana. Most of the questions will ask you to express your opinions on a scale from 1-7, and in the last part of the questionnaire, I will ask you for some general information about yourself.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation and help.

Appendix 8: Content of the questionnaire

Please note that in Table 8.1 is presented the content of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was admitted via the platform JazVem and the final interface design was different, varying a small amount also depending on what device the user was viewing the questionnaire from. An approximation of the final interface design is presented in Figure 8.1.

Table 8.1: Content of the questionnaire.

Filter question							
Prosim, označite, do kakšne mere se strinjate s spodnjo trditvijo na lestvici od 1 do 7, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se »sploh ne strinjate« s trditvijo in ocena 7 pomeni, da se »popolnoma strinjate« s trditvijo.							
	NIKOLI			OBČASNO			VEDNO
Večinoma sam/a kupujem (oz izbiram) oblačila zase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I. Sklop: Trajnostna potrošnja							
Prvi sklop se nanaša na potrošnjo oblačil.							
Spodnje trditve se navezujejo na nakup, uporabo, vzdrževanje in odstranitev oblačil. Prosim vas, da pomislite na preteklih 6 mesecev ter označite, kako pogosto počnete stvari, ki so zapisane v spodnjih trditvah. Odgovore označite na lestvici od 1 do 7, kjer 1 pomeni "tega nikoli ne počnem" in 7 "to počnem vedno".							
	NIKOLI			OBČASNO			VEDNO
Oblučila, ki jih ne nosim več, podarim znancem ali jih zamenjam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Preden operem oblačila, počakam, da je pralni stroj poln.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oblučila, ki jih ne nosim več, nesem v zbirne zabojnike za rabljena oblačila (na primer: Humana, H&M zabojniki ali v zbirne centre).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kupujem oblačila, ki so bila izdelana na pravičen način.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Svoja oblačila najprej prezračim in se potem odločim, ali jih moram oprati.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Namesto, da kupim oblačilo za posebno priložnost, si ga sposodim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kupujem ekološko izdelana oblačila iz organskih materialov (npr. organski bombaž).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Uporabljam sušilni stroj.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sam/a si izdelam oblačila (npr. sešijem, spletem).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kupujem rabljena oblačila (second hand).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rabljen oblačila dobim od znancev in sorodnikov.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Izogibam se oblačilom iz držav, kjer imajo slabe delovne razmere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kupujem oblačila z oznakami, ki zagotavljajo, da izdelek ne vsebuje kemikalij.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kupujem visoko kakovostna oblačila, dolgo obstojna oblačila.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Če moja oblačila niso več v modi ali mi niso več všeč, se jih znebig (npr.: zavržem, podarim, prodam ali recikliram).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oblučila popravim ali jih dam v popravilo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Iščem načine, kako uporabiti stara, zavržena oblačila (npr. za čistilne krpe ali recikliranje).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
II. Sklop: Potrošnikova dobrobit ali sreča							
Sklop trditve in vprašanj v nadaljevanju se nanaša na dobrobit pri potrošnji oblačil ter na vaše splošno počutje v življenju.							
	ČISTO NIČ						ZELO VELIKO
Do kakšne mere oblačila na splošno prispevajo k vašemu občutenju sreče?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do kakšne mere so oblačila doprinesla k vaši sreči v življenju?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do kakšne mere so oblačila povečala vaše zadovoljstvo v življenju?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ta sklop vprašanj se nanaša na vaš nedavni (zadnji) nakup oblačil. Prosim, označite, do kakšne mere nedavni nakup oblačil prispeva k vaši sreči in zadovoljstvu v življenju, kjer 1 pomeni, da ta nakup "čisto nič ni prispeval k vaši sreči in zadovoljstvu" in 7 pomeni, da je ta nakup "zelo veliko prispeval k vaši sreči in zadovoljstvu".							
	ČISTO NIČ						ZELO VELIKO
Do kakšne mere je nedavni nakup oblačila na splošno prispeval k vašemu občutenju sreče?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do kakšne mere je nedavni nakup oblačila doprinesel k vaši sreči v življenju?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do kakšne mere je nedavni nakup oblačila povečal vaše zadovoljstvo v življenju?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sledeči sklop vprašanj se nanaša na vaše zadovoljstvo z življenjem in na vaše splošno počutje. Prosim, označite, v kolikšni meri se strinjate z naslednjimi trditvami na lestvici od 1 do 7, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se »sploh ne strinjate« s trditvijo in ocena 7 pomeni, da se »popolnoma strinjate« s trditvijo.							
	SPLOH SE NE STRINJAM						POPOLNOMA SE STRINJAM
V večini pogledov je moje življenje blizu idealnemu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Moje življenjske razmere so izvrstne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Zadovoljen/a sem s svojim življenjem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do sedaj sem v življenju dobil/a najpomembnejše stvari.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Če bi še enkrat živel/a, ne bi hotel/a spremeniti skoraj ničesar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
III. Sklop: Čuječnost (angleško Mindfulness)							
Spodnje trditve se nanašajo na vaše zavedanje okolja in samega sebe. Prosim, označite, v kolikšni meri se strinjate z naslednjimi trditvami na lestvici od 1 do 7, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se »sploh ne strinjate« s trditvijo in ocena 7 pomeni, da se »popolnoma strinjate« s trditvijo.							
	SPLOH SE NE STRINJAM						POPOLNOMA SE STRINJAM
Rad/a raziskujem stvari.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ne domišlim se veliko novih idej.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prispevam veliko novosti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Redko opazim, kaj delajo drugi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Izogibam se pogovorom, ki spodbujajo razmišljanje.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sem zelo ustvarjalen/a.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sem zelo radoveden/a.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Poskušam razmišljati o novih načinih delovanja.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Redko se zavedam sprememb.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rad/a imam intelektualne izzive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Z lahkoto se domislim novih in učinkovitih idej.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Redko sem pozoren/a na novosti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rad/a ugotavljam, kako stvari delujejo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ne razmišljam izvirno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Source: Own work.

Figure 8.1: Final interface design of the questionnaire.

Prosim, označite, do kakšne mere se strinjate s spodnjo trditvijo na lestvici od 1 do 7, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se »sploh ne strinjate« s trditvijo in ocena 7 pomeni, da se »popolnoma strinjate« s trditvijo.

	1 - NIKOLI	2	3	4 - OBČASNO	5	6	7 - VEDNO
Večinoma sam/a kupujem (oz izbiram) oblačila zase.	☒	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1/1

< >

Source: JazVem online platform

Appendix 9: Socio-demographic questions

Below are presented the socio-demographic questions that all respondents answer once they create their JazVem online profile.

Za začetek označite vaš spol.

Možen en odgovor

- ☐ Moški
- ☐ Ženski

Katerega leta ste rojeni?

Izberite letnico rojstva

Občina v kateri preživite večino časa:

Možen en odgovor

Izberite občino

Naselje v katerem preživite večino časa:

Možen en odgovor

Izberite naselje

Poštna številka kraja katerem preživite večino časa:

Možen en odgovor

Izberite pošto številko

Vaš zaposlitveni status:

Možen en odgovor

☐ Zaposlen (pri delodajalcu)	☐ Osnovnošolec
☐ Lastnik podjetja – delodajalec	☐ Srednješolec
☐ Obrtnik	☐ Student
☐ Samostojni podjetnik	☐ Kmetovalec
☐ Samozaposleni strokovnjak (odvetnik, zdravnik, arhitekt)	☐ Gospodinja, negovalec, ...
☐ Svobodni poklici (umetnik, svob. novinar, igralec)	☐ Pomagajoči član v gospodinjstvu (delavnica, gostilna)
☐ Pogodbeno delo, avtorska pogodba	☐ Delovno nezmožen – invalid,...
☐ nezaposlen	☐ Drugo
☐ upokojenec	☐ Ne želim odgovoriti

Koliko članov šteje vase gospodinjstvo, vključno z vami?

- ☐ 1 član
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ 7
- ☐ 8 ali več članov
- ☐ Ne želim odgovoriti

Prosimo vas, da pomislite na zadnje 3 mesece. Kolikšen je bil vaš OSEBNI povprečni dohodek, vključno z vsemi viri prihodkov?

Plače z vsemi dodatki, honorarji, pokojnino, štipendije, nadomestilo za nezaposlene ipd.

Izberite odgovor, ki ustreza

Brez dohodkov
nad 100 EUR do 200 EUR
nad 300 EUR do 400 EUR
nad 500 EUR do 600 EUR
nad 700 EUR do 800 EUR
nad 900 EUR do 1.000 EUR
nad 1.100 EUR do 1.200 EUR
nad 1.300 EUR do 1.400 EUR
nad 1.500 EUR do 1.600 EUR
nad 1.700 EUR do 1.800 EUR
nad 1.900 EUR do 2.000 EUR
nad 2.100 EUR do 2.200 EUR
nad 2.300 EUR do 2.400 EUR
nad 2.500 EUR do 2.600 EUR
nad 2.700 EUR do 2.800 EUR
nad 2.900 EUR do 3.000 EUR
ne želim odgovoriti

Do 100 EUR
nad 200 EUR do 300 EUR
nad 400 EUR do 500 EUR
nad 600 EUR do 700 EUR
nad 800 EUR do 900 EUR
nad 1.000 EUR do 1.100 EUR
nad 1.200 EUR do 1.300 EUR
nad 1.400 EUR do 1.500 EUR
nad 1.600 EUR do 1.700 EUR
nad 1.800 EUR do 1.900 EUR
nad 2.000 EUR do 2.100 EUR
nad 2.200 EUR do 2.300 EUR
nad 2.400 EUR do 2.500 EUR
nad 2.600 EUR do 2.700 EUR
nad 2.800 EUR do 2.900 EUR
nad 3.000 EUR

Prosimo vas, da pomislite na zadnje 3 mesece. Kolikšen je bil vaš skupni povprečni dohodek, vseh članov vašega gospodinjstva, vključno z vsemi viri prihodkov?

Plače vseh članov z vsemi dodatki, honorarji, pokojnino, štipendije, nadomestilo za nezaposlene ipd.

Izberite odgovor, ki ustreza

nad 800 EUR do 1.000 EUR
nad 1.200 EUR do 1.400 EUR
nad 1.600 EUR do 1.800 EUR
nad 2.000 EUR do 2.200 EUR
nad 2.400 EUR do 2.600 EUR
nad 2.800 EUR do 3.000 EUR
nad 3.200 EUR do 3.400 EUR
nad 3.600 EUR do 3.800 EUR
nad 4.000 EUR

nad 1.000 EUR do 1.200 EUR
nad 1.400 EUR do 1.600 EUR
nad 1.800 EUR do 2.000 EUR
nad 2.200 EUR do 2.400 EUR
nad 2.600 EUR do 2.800 EUR
nad 3.000 EUR do 3.200 EUR
nad 3.400 EUR do 3.600 EUR
nad 3.800 EUR do 4.000 EUR
ne vem/ne želim odgovoriti

Kakšna je vasa izobrazba:

Možen en odgovor

- ☐ Nedokončana osnovna šola
- ☐ Končana osnovna šola
- ☐ Poklicna šola
- ☐ Štiriletna srednja šola
- ☐ Višja strokovna (star sistem) / višješolska izobrazba (6 stopnja)

- Visokošolska (star sistem) / univerzitetna strokovna izobrazba (prva bolonjska stopnja) (6 stopnja)
- Visokošolska (star sistem) / magistrska izobrazba (druga bolonjska stopnja) (7 stopnja)
- Specializacija po višji šoli
- Specializacija po visoki šoli
- Specializacija po univerzitetni izobrazbi
- Znanstveni magisterij
- Doktorat
- Ne želim odgovoriti

Vaš zakonski stan:

Možen en odgovor

- Samski(a)
- Poročen(a)
- Zunajzakonska skupnost
- Ločen(a)
- Poročen(a), a živim ločeno
- Vdovec, vdova
- Ne želim odgovoriti

Figure 9.1: Final interface design of the socio – demographic questionnaire.

Za začetek označite vaš spol.

možen **en** odgovor

- ☐ moški
- ☐ ženski

Katerega leta ste rojeni?

Izberite letnico rojstva:



Občina, v kateri preživite večino časa:

Možen **en** odgovor

Izberite občino



Source: JazVem online platform

Appendix 10: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Table 10.1: Additional demographic characteristics of respondents

Sociodemographic characteristics	Frequency (n=474)	Percent	Cumulative percent
Age groups presented by gender			
M – 15 – 24	32	6.8	6.8
M – 25 – 34	51	10.8	17.5
M – 35 – 49	93	19.6	37.1
M – 50 – 65	78	16.5	53.6
F – 15 – 24	30	6.3	59.9
F – 25 – 34	38	8.0	67.9
F – 35 – 49	69	14.6	82.5
F – 50 – 65	83	17.5	100.0
Type of settlement			
Rural	210	44.3	44.3
City	169	35.7	80.0
Maribor	20	4.2	84.2
Ljubljana	74	15.6	99.8
Do not want to answer	1	0.2	100
Number of household members			
1	36	7.6	7.6
2	123	25.9	33.5
3	89	18.8	52.3
4	153	32.3	84.6
5	52	11.0	95.6
6	8	1.7	97.3
7	5	1.1	98.3
8 or more	2	0.4	98.7
Do not want to answer	6	1.3	100.0
Household income			
< 1100 euros	45	9.5	9.5
1100 – 2200 euros	144	30.4	39.9
2200 – 3300 euros	133	28.1	68.0
> 3300 euros	48	10.1	78.1
Do not want to answer	104	21.9	100.0

Source: Own work

Appendix 11: Demographic statistics comparison

Table 11.1: Demographic statistics of the general population of Slovenia compared to the demographic characteristics of respondents.

Sociodemographic characteristics	General population of Slovenia (percentage)	Respondents (percentage)
Gender		
Male	50.2	53.6
Female	49.8	46.4
Age		
15 – 24	17.7	13.1
25 – 34	18.0	18.8
35 – 49	34.4	34.2
50 – 65	33.0	34.0
Education		
Primary level	21.9	3.9
Secondary level	52.6	51.5
Tertiary level	25.5	44.6
Region		
Central Slovenia	26.4	25.7
Podravska	15.5	15.8
Savinjska	12.3	12.2
Other	45.8	46.3
Employment status		
Employed	52.0	63.1
Unemployed	4.1	7.0
Retired	29.5	7.2
Student	3.7	9.3
Other	10.7	13.4

Source: <https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatData/pxweb/sl/Data/-/05A1002S.px/table/tableViewLayout2/>,
<https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatData/pxweb/sl/Data/-/05C5003S.px/table/tableViewLayout2/>,
<https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStat/sl> and <https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatData/pxweb/sl/Data/-/05A1002S.px/table/tableViewLayout2/> and <https://www.stat.si/StatWeb/News/Index/10772> and
<https://www.stat.si/obcine>

Appendix 12: Descriptive Statistics

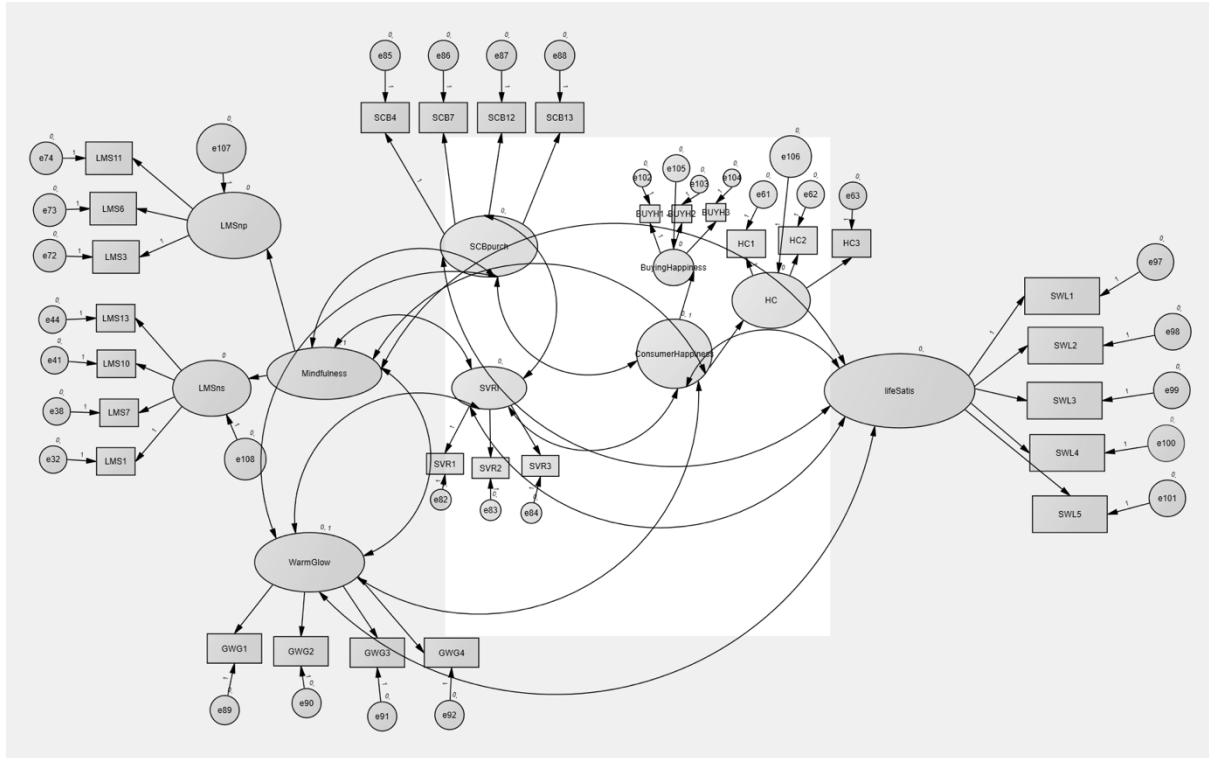
Table 12.1: Descriptive statistics

	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Sustainable consumption								
SCB4	3.30	.084	1.835	3.369	-.303	.112	-.473	.224
SCB7	3.49	.077	1.682	2.830	-.186	.112	-.309	.224
SCB12	3.12	.081	1.768	3.126	.157	.112	-.587	.224
SCB13	3.22	.087	1.898	3.602	-.086	.112	-.792	.224
SVR1	2.30	.074	1.609	2.590	1.125	.112	.348	.224
SVR2	2.37	.076	1.650	2.723	1.127	.112	.398	.224
SVR3	1.93	.065	1.416	2.006	1.760	.112	2.720	.224
Green warm glow								
GWG1	5.71	.067	1.457	2.122	-.989	.112	.321	.224
GWG2	5.38	.072	1.575	2.481	-.782	.112	-.071	.224
GWG3	5.45	.073	1.599	2.557	-.892	.112	.076	.224
GWG4	5.27	.076	1.658	2.750	-.728	.112	-.343	.224
Consumer happiness								
HC1	3.97	.075	1.643	2.699	-.208	.112	-.475	.224
HC2	3.59	.075	1.642	2.695	-.128	.112	-.604	.224
HC3	3.83	.074	1.602	2.566	-.234	.112	-.428	.224
BUYH1	3.64	.079	1.715	2.941	-.074	.112	-.720	.224
BUYH2	3.54	.079	1.719	2.955	.004	.112	-.765	.224
BUYH3	3.58	.079	1.724	2.972	-.048	.112	-.692	.224
Satisfaction with life								
SWL1	3.92	.073	1.584	2.510	-.208	.112	-.605	.224
SWL2	4.20	.073	1.592	2.536	-.340	.112	-.515	.224
SWL3	4.80	.068	1.471	2.164	-.543	.112	.038	.224
SWL4	4.61	.077	1.672	2.796	-.312	.112	-.614	.224
SWL5	3.81	.082	1.791	3.209	-.041	.112	-.858	.224
Mindfulness								
LMS1	5.41	.059	1.281	1.641	-.615	.112	.011	.224
LMS3	4.30	.062	1.356	1.840	-.063	.112	-.232	.224
LMS6	4.69	.070	1.522	2.317	-.184	.112	-.734	.224
LMS11	4.65	.064	1.404	1.971	-.162	.112	-.410	.224
LMS7	5.23	.064	1.383	1.912	-.514	.112	-.268	.224
LMS10	5.12	.065	1.417	2.009	-.500	.112	-.181	.224
LMS13	5.32	.064	1.383	1.913	-.619	.112	-.043	.224

Source: Own work

Appendix 13: Measurement Model

Figure 13.1: Measurement model without control variables as designed in AMOS.



Source: Own work (AMOS output).

Appendix 14: Common method variance

According to Lindell and Whitney (2001), the smallest correlation among the manifest variables may provide a reasonable proxy for common method variance. However, according to Malhotra, Kim, and Patil (2006), researchers can use the second-smallest positive correlation (r_{M2}) as a more conservative estimate of shared correlation resulting from common method variance (r_M). Within the framework of marker-variable analysis, a method factor is assumed to have a constant correlation with all of the measured items (Malhotra et al., 2006). Under this assumption, an adjusted common method variance correlation between the variables under investigation (r_A) can be calculated as follows:

Equation 14.1: Adjusted common method variance

$$r_A = \frac{r_U - r_M}{1 - r_M}$$

r_A = CMV adjusted correlation, r_U = uncorrelated correlation, r_M = shared correlation resulting from CMV, r_{M2} = second-smallest positive correlation in a correlation matrix

Using this equation, researchers can examine the impact of common method variance on the magnitude and significance of a correlation (Malhotra et al., 2006). As recommended by Lindell and Whitney (2001) I calculated an adjusted common method variance correlation using Equation 14.1.

Table 14.1: Common method bias assessment with marker variable technique (COMMON)

	Ru	Sig. (2-tailed)	rA
SCB4	0.116*	0.012	0.09
SCB7	0.127**	0.006	0.10
SCB12	0.144**	0.002	0.12
SCB13	0.119**	0.009	0.10
SVR1	0.026	0.579	-0.01
SVR2	0.034	0.464	0.00
SVR3	-0.026	0.573	-0.07
GWG1	0.282**	<0.001	0.28
GWG2	0.307**	<0.001	0.30
GWG3	0.314**	<0.001	0.31
GWG4	0.276**	<0.001	0.27

HC1	0.210**	<0.001	0.20
HC2	0.134**	0.004	0.11
HC3	0.176**	<0.001	0.16
BUYH1	0.135**	0.003	0.11
BUYH2	0.098*	0.032	0.07
BUYH3	0.124**	0.007	0.10
SWL1	0.264**	<0.001	0.26
SWL2	0.260**	<0.001	0.26
SWL3	0.282**	<0.001	0.28
SWL4	0.295**	<0.001	0.29
SWL5	0.188**	<0.001	0.17
COMMON	1		1.08
LMS3	0.260**	<0.001	0.26
LMS6	0.244**	<0.001	0.23
LMS11	0.307**	<0.001	0.30
LMS1	0.302**	<0.001	0.30
LMS7	0.312**	<0.001	0.31
LMS10	0.275**	<0.001	0.27
LMS13	0.284**	<0.001	0.28

I examined the potencial impact of common method bias by marker variable technique (L. J. Williams et al., 2010). I selected the question “In my spare time, I like listening to music.” as a marker variable since it is not theoretically correlated with any of the constructs in my study. The second-smallest positive correlation in a correlation matrix (r_{M2}) with a value of 0.034 was used as the estimate of r_M . The values of the original correlations (i.e., uncorrected correlations) are presented in collum Ru, and the values of adjusted common method variance correlations are presented in column rA. As suggested by Malhotra, Kim, and Patil (2006) a reasonable estimate of r_M was expected to be about 0.10. As shown in Table 14.1, of the 26 significant correlations examined, 3.85% became nonsignificant when I adjusted for common method variance. In general, the results indicated that a majority of the originally significant correlations remained significant suggesting that method biases are not necessarily present in this research design.

Appendix 15: Model Fit summary AMOS output

Figure 16.1: Output tables of model fit summary from AMOS

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	PCMIN/DF	
Default model	142	806.381	452	.000	1.784
Saturated model	594	.000	0		
Independence model	66	8747.243	528	.000	16.567

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.908	.892	.957	.950	.957
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.856	.777	.819
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	354.381	279.016	437.585
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	8219.243	7919.461	8525.436

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1.705	.749	.590	.925
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	18.493	17.377	16.743	18.024

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.041	.036	.045	1.000
Independence model	.181	.178	.185	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	1090.381	1112.376		
Saturated model	1188.000	1280.009		
Independence model	8879.243	8889.466		

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	2.305	2.146	2.481	2.352
Saturated model	2.512	2.512	2.512	2.706
Independence model	18.772	18.138	19.420	18.794

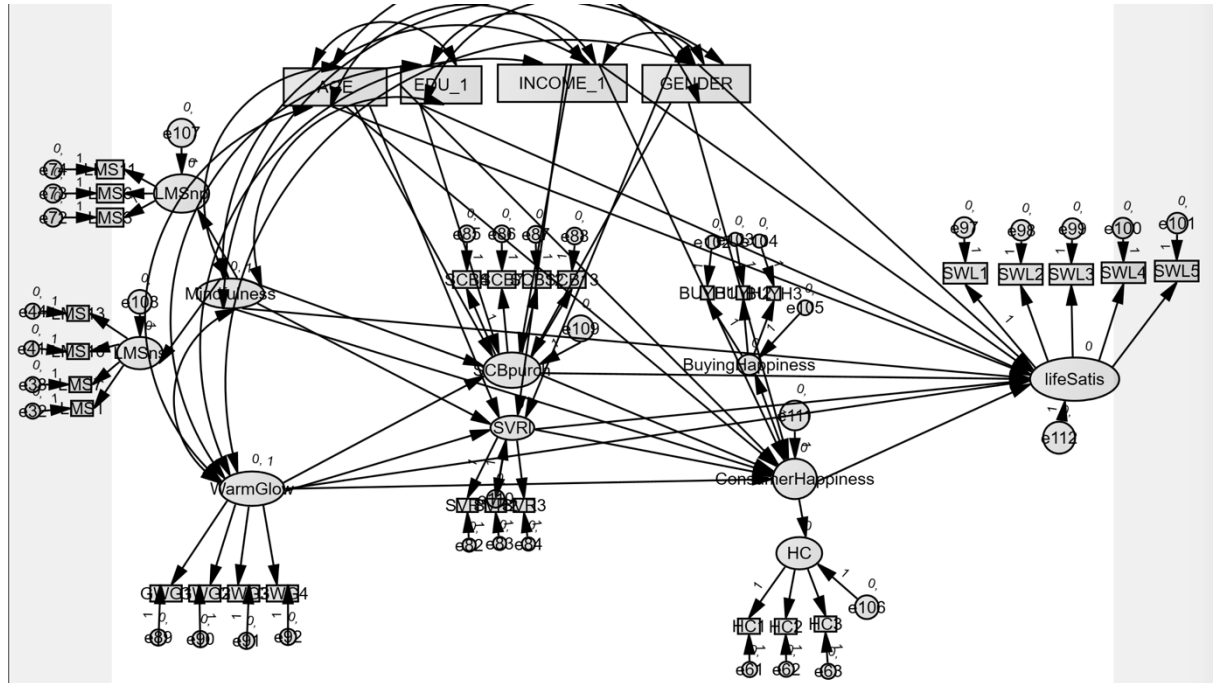
HOELTER

Model	HOELTER	HOELTER
	.05	.01
Default model	295	308
Independence model	32	33

Source: Own work (AMOS output).

Appendix 16: Structural model

Figure 16.1: Structural model with control variables as designed in AMOS



Source: Own work (AMOS output)

Appendix 17: Second-hand, vintage and rental consumption

Questions used in the survey to measure second-hand, vintage and rental consumption:

1. Pri nakupu oblačila najprej pomislim na nakup rabljenega oblačila. (SVR1)
2. Pogosto kupim rabljeno ali vintage oblačilo. (SVR2)
3. Pogosto uporabljam storitve za izposajo oblačil. (SVR3)

Table 17.1: SPSS output – statistics for all three items measuring the second-hand, vintage and rental consumption (SVR1, SVR2, SVR3).

Statistics		SVR1	SVR2	SVR3
N	Valid	474	474	474
	Missing	5	5	5
Mean		2.30	2.37	1.93
Std. Error of Mean		.074	.076	.065
Median		2.00	2.00	1.00
Mode		1	1	1
Std. Deviation		1.609	1.650	1.416
Variance		2.590	2.723	2.006
Skewness		1.125	1.127	1.760
Std. Error of Skewness		.112	.112	.112
Kurtosis		.348	.398	2.720
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.224	.224	.224
Range		6	6	6
Minimum		1	1	1
Maximum		7	7	7
Sum		1089	1122	915
Percentiles	25	1.00	1.00	1.00
	50	2.00	2.00	1.00
	75	3.00	3.00	2.00

Source: SPSS output

Table 17.2: SPSS output – statistics for the first item measuring the second-hand, vintage and rental consumption (SVR1).

		SVR1			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 – SPLOH SE NE STRINJAM	225	47.0	47.5	47.5
	2	87	18.2	18.4	65.8
	3	46	9.6	9.7	75.5
	4	63	13.2	13.3	88.8
	5	29	6.1	6.1	94.9
	6	13	2.7	2.7	97.7
	7 – POPOLNOMA SE STRINJAM	11	2.3	2.3	100.0
	Total	474	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.0		
Total		479	100.0		

Source: SPSS output

Table 17.3: SPSS output – statistics for the second item measuring the second-hand, vintage and rental consumption (SVR2).

		SVR2			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 – SPLOH SE NE STRINJAM	214	44.7	45.1	45.1
	2	86	18.0	18.1	63.3
	3	63	13.2	13.3	76.6
	4	51	10.6	10.8	87.3
	5	32	6.7	6.8	94.1
	6	13	2.7	2.7	96.8
	7 – POPOLNOMA SE STRINJAM	15	3.1	3.2	100.0
	Total	474	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.0		
Total		479	100.0		

Source: SPSS output

Table 17.4: SPSS output – statistics for the third item measuring the second-hand, vintage and rental consumption (SVR3).

		SVR3			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 – SPLOH SE NE STRINJAM	271	56.6	57.2	57.2
	2	89	18.6	18.8	75.9
	3	50	10.4	10.5	86.5
	4	31	6.5	6.5	93.0
	5	16	3.3	3.4	96.4
	6	7	1.5	1.5	97.9
	7 – POPOLNOMA SE STRINJAM	10	2.1	2.1	100.0
	Total	474	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	5	1.0		
Total		479	100.0		

Source: SPSS output