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MASTER'S THESIS

Antecedents of Sustainable Consumption and Satisfaction with Life: Does Sustainability need to be a Sacrifice?

Forløpere til bærekraftig forbruk og tilfredshet med livet: Må bærekraft være et offer?

By
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20.05.2022

2022 Antecedents of Sustainable Consumption and Satisfaction with Life: Does Sustainability need to be a Sacrifice?

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PREFACE

The submission of our master thesis marks the end of our studies in the master's degree program Master of Science in Business at Western Norway University of Applied Sciences in Sogndal. The thesis constitutes 30 credits and is written based on a main profile in marketing. Although the production of this master's thesis has at times been very challenging, it has also been an educational process. During this period, we have learned a lot about the topic, methodically, and about ourselves. In connection with the completion of the thesis, there are many people we want to thank. First, we would like to pay our respect and tribute to our supervisor, Atanu Kumar Nath, for his support and guidance. All his feedback, input, and expertise have set us on the right path. A thank you should also be directed to Parmita Saha, for a useful introduction to the use of AMOS, and help in the data lab. Furthermore, Torbjørn Årethun deserves a big thank you for guidance, and for being a useful discussion partner in the Norwegian language. Thanks to Marita and Marthe for constructive feedback and valuable comments. Furthermore, we appreciate all the good support and feedback from family and friends. Special thanks to Adrian, Theo, and Orion for your patience during busy times. A thank you should also be directed to Sognekraft, as Miriam's employer, for facilitating during a hectic period. We would also like to thank all respondents who answered the questionnaire and have supported us with important data. The library in Sogndal, at Høgskulen på Vestlandet (HVL), has made a formidable effort in providing us with the literature that we have requested. Finally, we would like to thank our fellow students, for two great and educational years. We would like to send a special thanks to Linn for good collaboration, and to Øyvind, Eirik, and Even for a lot of fun over these two years, despite special circumstances, studying during an ongoing global pandemic. So, with these last words, we put an end to our time as students, and would like to thank each other for the outstanding teamwork and all the good memories.

ABSTRACT

Much of the existing literature on the relationship between consumption and satisfaction with life have focused on materialism, which has shown that overconsumption does not make people happier. There is, however, less research on how sustainable consumption affects satisfaction with life. Protecting the environment is a necessity and a major challenge. As such, it was our understanding that this relationship could be an interesting and relevant research topic. Perceived sacrifice concerning sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life has also not previously been explored. This thesis identified several antecedents of sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life, and how perceived sacrifice was connected to this relationship. For this purpose, we developed a conceptual framework where the relations between the constructs were tested. We recruited participants using a web-based survey and through this, data from 431 respondents were collected. The data were analyzed in various ways, both in SPSS and AMOS. We used Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability to measure reliability, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis to measure the validity of the different measurement instruments. Finally, the Structural Equation Modeling technique was used, in AMOS, to test the hypothesized relationships. Results showed that there were empirical findings between several of the constructs. Environmental consciousness showed a significant connection to sustainable consumption, while sustainable consumption did have a positive significant connection to perceived sacrifice. There was, however, no correlation between sustainable consumption and control of desires, social influence, and level of financial resources. Hence, the final structural model showed that only 32% of satisfaction with life could be explained in our model. Our main contribution was the conceptual framework that we developed based on an extensive literature review. The correlated relationship between sustainable consumption and perceived sacrifice was also an important contribution. Moreover, the alternative model that we proposed, we also considered highly relevant for future research.

Keywords: sustainable consumption, satisfaction with life, happiness, subjective well-being, consumer behavior, control of desires, social influence, environmental consciousness, level of financial resources, perceived sacrifice.

SAMMENDRAG

Mye av litteraturen som eksisterer på forholdet mellom konsum og tilfredshet med livet har satt søkelys på materialisme, og vist at overforbruk ikke gjør folk lykkeligere. Det er mindre forskning på hvordan bærekraftig konsum påvirker tilfredshet med livet. Å beskytte miljøet er en nødvendighet og en stor utfordring. Det var derfor vår oppfatning at dette forholdet kunne være et interessant og relevant forskningsemne. Opplevd oppofring vedrørende bærekraftig forbruk og tilfredshet med livet har tidligere vært lite utforsket. Denne oppgaven identifiserte flere faktorer som kan påvirke bærekraftig forbruk og tilfredshet med livet, og hvordan opplevd oppofring var koplet til dette forholdet. For dette formålet utviklet vi et konseptuelt rammeverk der relasjonene mellom disse konstruktene ble testet. Vi rekrutterte respondenter gjennom en web-basert spørreundersøkelse, noe som gav oss data fra 431 respondenter. Dataene ble analysert på forskjellige måter, både i SPSS og AMOS. Vi brukte Cronbach's alpha og konfirmerende faktoranalyse for å måle validiteten til de ulike måleinstrumentene. Til slutt ble de hypotiserte forholdene testet gjennom teknikken strukturell modellering i AMOS. Resultatet viste at det var empiriske funn mellom flere av konstruktene. Miljøbevissthet viste en signifikant kopling til bærekraftig konsum, mens bærekraftig konsum hadde en positivt signifikant kopling til opplevd oppofring. Det var ingen korrelasjon mellom bærekraftig konsum og selvkontroll, sosial påvirkning og finansielle ressurser. På bakgrunn av dette viste den strukturelle modellen at bare 32% av tilfredshet med livet kunne forklares i modellen. Det konseptuelle rammeverket som vi utviklet basert på en omfattende litteraturgjennomgang var vårt viktigste bidrag. Et annet viktig bidrag var det korrelerte forholdet mellom bærekraftig forbruk og opplevd oppofring. Videre så vi på den alternative modellen vi foreslo som svært relevant for fremtidig forskning.

Stikkord: bærekraftig forbruk, tilfredshet med livet, lykke, subjektivt velvære, forbrukeratferd, selvkontroll, sosial påvirkning, miljøbevissthet, finansielle ressurser, opplevd oppofring.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Over the last couple of decades, how we preserve the planet, and the environment, has become one of the biggest challenges of our time. Human activities are causing pollution of the environment and contributing to the depletion of natural resources (Van Vugt, 2009, p. 169; Tanner & Wölfing Kast, 2003, p. 884). In the period 2000 to 2017, the global environmental impact increased by 70%, and there is a need for greater focus on a sustainable lifestyle, reduced carbon emissions, enhanced resource efficiency, and supporting economic development from environmental degradation (United Nations, 2021, p. 50). Reducing the pollution that we generate from our way of living is crucial, even more so for future generations. Sustainable consumption behavior was by the Oslo Symposium on Sustainable Consumption (1994) defined as; "the use of goods and services that respond to basic needs and bring a better quality of life, while minimizing the use of natural resources, toxic materials, and emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle, so as not to jeopardize the needs of future generations" (Ofstad et al., 1994, p. 10). Environmental impact has to a large extent been a by-product of people's desires throughout history, for example in terms of status, physical comfort, personal safety, and mobility (Stern, 2000, p. 408). As such, individual consumer behavior has a major effect on the natural environment. Jackson (2005) states that we should live better by consuming less and at the same time reducing our footprint on the environment. By focusing on sustainable consumption, the consumer can play an important role (Binder & Blankenberg, 2017, p. 304).

The main objective of this study is to investigate the antecedents of sustainable consumption, and how this in turn affects satisfaction with life. The behaviors and actions of individuals must be considered, otherwise sustainability cannot be achieved (Sameer et al., 2021, p. 268). Satisfaction with life depends on many things, including security, liberty, social relationships, family, marriage, housing, education, employment, income, leisure activities, health, and many others (Clark et al., 2005, p. 120; Selim, 2008, p. 532). In our study, we focus on four different antecedents related to sustainable consumption that affect satisfaction with life: control of desires, social influence, environmental consciousness, and level of financial resources. Moreover, how does perceived sacrifice contribute to the relationship between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life? Is it possible to become a sustainable consumer, and at the same time experience more happiness? It may be crucial to recognize and understand what

antecedents drive consumers towards becoming sustainable, and how this in turn affects satisfaction with life.

1.1 Relevance

The psychological question of happiness, and whether consumption can be associated with it, has emerged due to rising levels of consumption worldwide (Sameer et al., 2021, p. 268). In the pursuit of pleasure and happiness, individuals devote considerable amounts of money, time, and energy, as happiness is something that most people want (Van Boven, 2005, p. 132). Happiness is a final goal in life and is the extent to which an individual considers the general quality of life to be favorable (Selim, 2008, p. 532). Authorities and commercial interests continue to equate well-being with higher purchasing power and economic growth (Gabriel & Lang, 2015, p. 233-234). This is despite a steady increase in arguments that undermine this perception of well-being as growing prosperity. The human impact on the environment is significant, and an understanding of motivation and how sustainable behavior can be encouraged is therefore important (Abrahamse & Steg, 2013, p. 1773). "Human-made environmental problems create economic and social conflicts with potentially devastating consequences for the health and well-being of ourselves and future generations" (Van Vugt, 2009, p. 169). Thus, a growing population in search of increased well-being poses significant challenges to sustainability, as consumption has negative consequences for the environment and cannot be expanded indefinitely (Kilbourne et al., 1997, p. 5). Although consumers are crucial for the pressure and achievement of sustainable practices, sustainability has not been studied much from a consumer perspective (Hwang & Kim, 2018; Luthra et al., 2016). Hence, since the distribution of sustainable products is low and the price relatively high, these products are well suited to observe the effect of social impact, as the social surroundings can play a significant role in leading to decisions (Salazar et al., 2013, p. 174-175). The relationship between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life has not been explored, like the latter's connection to traditional consumption previously has, thus making it a relevant research topic.

1.2 Research Question

This empirical study aims to investigate sustainable consumption behavior and how satisfaction with life is affected by it. What are the antecedents of sustainable consumption? Does

sustainable consumption have any effect on our happiness and overall satisfaction with life? Furthermore, is the level of experienced and perceived sacrifice towards becoming a sustainable consumer so great, that it will have negative outcomes in terms of life satisfaction? For this purpose, we have developed the following research question:

"What antecedents lead to sustainable consumption, and does it affect our satisfaction with life?"

1.3 Previous Research and Contributions

The development and standard of living, in terms of materialism, have undergone a tremendous increase over the last couple of decades (Sameer et al., 2021, p. 267). They further argue that environmental deterioration and irreparable depletion of non-renewable resources are caused by increasing consumption and production. However, it has become obvious in recent times that no increase in happiness can be found in material gains (Van Boven, 2005, p. 133). Several scholars have criticized the notion of "pleasurable life", as it causes a blind eye to environmental degradation and leads to over-consumption, serving as a negative influence (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2011; Zidanšek, 2007). Individuals who focus on inner goals experience greater well-being and happiness than those who are more concerned with reward, image, money, and assets (Kasser & Ryan, 1996, p. 286). Moreover, people who have a simplified lifestyle claim it improves their overall subjective well-being, and that it is a path to happiness (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012, p. 491). Subjective well-being and consumption, and its relationship is, according to Ahuvia (2002), crucial for consumer research. However, different studies have shown that there is a link between consumption and happiness (Huang & Rust, 2010; Veenhoven, 2004). Some consumers are preoccupied with constantly looking for items that will give them satisfaction, while others believe that happiness lies in simple things and does not place much emphasis on assets (Boujbel, 2007, p. 319). Belk et al. (2003) argue that motivations behind desire are social, and they are always formed and expressed in a social context. Furthermore, they claim that this form of desire often takes the form of consumption in modern society.

Satisfaction with life is about individual desires, hopes, and expectations, but also about a cognitive assessment that is dependent on social comparison with special reference groups (Salim, 2008, p. 532). According to Nelissen and Meijers (2011), people have several behavioral strategies to strengthen their social position, including buying goods to increase their

status. Abrahamse and Steg (2013) claim that one of the most important factors influencing sustainable change in consumer behavior is social factors. Furthermore, personal traits, social stimuli, awareness, and knowledge are factors that are connected to "responsible consumer" behavior (Sameer et al., 2021, p. 270). Beliefs, values, and norms are attitudinal factors that can affect the general tendency people have to act with pro-environmental intentions and influence environmental behavior (Stern, 2000, p. 416). Moreover, environmental consciousness and behavior are crucial for sustainable development but are often linked to sacrifice (Binder & Blankenberg, 2017, p. 319). It has been argued that taking better care of the environment can include sacrifices that lead to a reduction in well-being (Kasser & Sheldon, 2002, p. 315). Also, a lack of financial resources is a barrier to sustainable consumption (Connell, 2010; Thøgersen, 2005; Young et al., 2010). However, Mantovani et al. (2017) found that higher incomes can encourage more environmentally friendly production and lead to more sustainable consumption.

1.4 Disposition

The following chapter will give a deeper insight into the theoretical framework of this study. Theory and central concepts connected to these are presented and constitute an essential starting point to get a holistic understanding of the different antecedents, sustainable consumption, perceived sacrifice, and satisfaction with life. The literature will also work as a foundation for the development of the questionnaire, analysis, and discussion. Chapter 3 addresses the methodology and how best to collect the relevant data to answer the research question. Further, in chapter 4, the empirical data are analyzed, and the findings are presented. Relevant literature and findings are then discussed and compared in chapter 5. The study will be completed with a conclusion in chapter 6, where suggestions for future research are included.

2.0 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will take a closer look at the theoretical framework that constitutes the foundation of this study. We start by conducting a review of happiness and well-being, to better understand what it is and its many aspects. Next, the antecedents of sustainable consumption are presented, starting with control of desires, before moving on to social influence. Further, the literature on environmental consciousness will be elaborated and the level of financial resources is discussed. We will continue with sustainable consumption and take a closer look at what perceived sacrifice, in this context, entails. Then, satisfaction with life is explored to see if sustainable consumption previously has been associated with it. Finally, drawing from the literature, we present the conceptual framework.

2.2 Happiness and Subjective Well-being

Happiness is an ideal state that every human wants to achieve (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012, p. 487; Handayani et al., 2018, p. 283), and people are always looking for something better than what they possess today (Belk et al., 2003, p. 345). The literature distinguishes between hedonistic and eudaimonic traditions as the two main approaches to happiness and well-being (Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2021, p. 2; Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 143). According to Ryan and Deci (2001), there are some differences between the two. The meaning of life and its realization is emphasized in eudaimonic well-being, focusing on full and profound satisfaction (Handayani et al., 2018, p. 284). Oppositely, experiencing the highest possible amount of desire and pleasure, focusing on the goals of life, is the essence of hedonic well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 144). Furthermore, there is a difference in the indicators of eudaimonic and hedonic well-being. Eudaimonic well-being is represented by psychological factors, like self-acceptance, positive relatedness, and personal growth, while hedonic well-being is assessed by life satisfaction, as part of subjective well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 146). Specifically, in the hedonistic tradition, happiness can be achieved in a short time or by a moment of pleasure, while in the eudaimonic tradition, happiness is achieved through a long process (Handayani et al., 2018, p. 284). Deci and Ryan (2006) claim that the eudemonic tradition and the hedonistic tradition are the two traditions that can, psychologically, explain individual happiness and well-being.

Subjective well-being has been the focus in previous research (Ahuvia, 2002; Ahuvia & Friedman, 1998). Thus, being studied from many different perspectives, well-being is a broad field defined in terms of social health, sound environmental practices, and macro-economic variables (Iver & Muncy, 2016, p. 48). Diener (1984) suggested that subjective well-being, involving an overall assessment of an individual's life and measurable positive aspects, was central to an individual's experience. Subjective well-being is defined as; "An umbrella term for different valuations that people make regarding their lives, the events happening to them, their bodies and minds, and the circumstances in which they live" (Diener, 2006, p. 400). Furthermore, the manifestation of well-being is observed in nonverbal and verbal actions, attention, memory, biology, and behavior, although the experience occurs within an individual, thus being "subjective". To understand intrinsic motivation, hedonic enjoyment and eudaimonia are both important implications, as two positive subjective states (Waterman et al., 2006, p. 42). Three primary components of subjective well-being have been developed, including cognitive beliefs about the overall level of life satisfaction, frequency and presence of positive emotions, and the absence of negative emotions (Ahuvia, 2002, p. 23; Myers & Diener, 1995, p. 11; Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 144).

Making a distinction between satisfaction with life and happiness is, according to Iver and Muncy (2016), important when studying subjective well-being. General assessments of life, like subjective well-being and life satisfaction, refer to enjoyable feelings and moods that can be experienced at any time (Diener & Ryan, 2009, p. 391). Furthermore, the level of well-being experienced in connection to subjective assessments of life is expressed by the concept of subjective well-being. People with high subjective well-being have many positive thoughts and feelings and are satisfied with their lives (Myers & Diener, 1995, p. 11). In contrast, people with low subjective well-being consider their life as unpleasant and therefore experience uncomfortable feelings such as anger, anxiety, and depression. Therefore, how we evaluate life is a cognitive state that can be seen as life satisfaction, while how we feel about life is the affective state that we call happiness (Iver & Muncy, 2016, p. 52). Depending on the context, happiness can have several meanings, ranging from living a good life, a generally positive mood, a cause that makes people happy, or a global evaluation of life satisfaction (Diener, 2006, p. 400). Thus, happiness is related to well-being, and life satisfaction is a subordinate component within happiness.

2.3 Control of Desires

Causing individuals to act, is the mental event commonly known as desire (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2015, p. 220). It is a human characteristic to always desire something, and as soon as the desire is satisfied, another appears and takes its place (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012, p. 488). This is what Brickman and Campbell (1971) called the "hedonic treadmill" or what Belk et al. (2003) referred to as the cycle of desire. According to Boujbel and d'Astous (2012), this may explain why people have difficulty reaching and maintaining happiness and satisfaction. Belk et al. (2003) state that desire is the motivation behind a lot of modern consumption. Desires illustrate what people want to achieve and are an essential aspect of human life (Boujbel, 2007, p. 319). Moreover, both emotional and cognitive internal reactions are triggered by the desire for consumer goods. Consumers' desire is a passion that seems to engage people and promise extraordinary meaning in life (Belk et al., 2003, p. 327). Some consumers may have trouble controlling themselves or resisting desired consumer goods (Boujbel, 2007, p. 322; Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012, p. 488). This can create a dilemma between abstinence and satiation and giving in to a desire can occasionally cause guilt (Boujbel, 2007, p. 321). Lack of self-control is an important contributing factor to society being plagued by several problems (Bearden & Haws, 2011, p. 181). Hence, consumer behavior is a relevant context to understand individuals' ability to control their behavior. Belk et al. (2003) assert that desires are overwhelming and something that takes control over us, and they affect our emotions, thoughts, and actions. It can be both pleasant and uncomfortable and is seen as a powerful cyclical feeling (Belk et al., 2003, p. 326). Positive change leads to increased desires and expectations of rising standards, in order to continue to reach satisfaction (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2011, p. 132). Interestingly, ambitions can become so great that they destroy the feeling of happiness. A balance between taking control and being guided by desires for consumer goods is usually what consumers are searching for (Boujbel, 2007, p. 322). Hence, Boujbel & d'Astous (2012) state that successful control of consumer desire can be an important element in the search for happiness.

Consumer ideology claims that the basis for the quality of life is to increase material well-being (Kilbourne et al., 1997, p. 5). Significantly contributing to satisfaction with life is the pleasure that consumption desires provide (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2015, p. 226). "Western culture is currently imbued with the materialistic idea that possessions produce happiness with strong forces in the culture promoting and supporting this idea" (Thomas & Millar, 2013, p. 345). However, several studies have shown that lower life satisfaction and happiness can be found in

individuals that are highly focused on materialism (Hellevik, 2003; Myers, 2000; Richins & Dawson, 1992; Van Boven, 2005). According to Shrum et al. (2013), materialism is about consumers searching for more than just pleasure or focusing on assets and their utility, they also try to define themselves. Through consumption, their identity is shaped (Kilbourne & Pickett, 2008, p. 886). Materialists' pursuit of happiness takes place through acquisition, rather than through experiences, achievements, or relationships (Richins & Dawson, 1992, p. 304). Consequently, they often judge success, both their own and others, based on the number and standard of their assets. Runaway materialism is the consequence of people keeping on buying new things and never reaching a point where life is adequately comfortable and satisfying (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2011, p. 132). Increasingly more money is being spent, however, less happiness is coming out as a result. According to Richins and Dawson (1992), the prioritization of assets over other things in life and the centrality of acquisition-related activities among materialists, suggest that materialism is a value. Materialists express that lack of assets causes dissatisfaction in life, and that continued appropriation results in increased satisfaction and happiness (Sirgy et al., 2012, p. 82). However, a significant amount of research shows the opposite, as materialists report less satisfaction (Richins & Dawson, 1992). Materialistic people compare the standard of living frequently, and as evaluations of the standard increase, they are judged more negatively, which in turn can lead to dissatisfaction with life (Sirgy et al., 2012, p. 79).

An individual self is presented to the world, through the many possessions that are acquired that are highly visible (Gilovich et al., 2015, p. 156). However, no matter how important our possessions might be to us, we are not the sum total of these acquirements. Myers (2000) proposes that emotional and social goals might not be met, in the pursuit of material goals. When materialistic values and a high consumption pattern are important in people's lives, well-being proves to be low (Kasser & Sheldon, 2002, p. 324). Hence, in terms of well-being benefits, materialistic ambitions are relatively empty, even when pursued successfully. Oropesa (1995) holds that at the expense of social responsibility for others and inner peace, allegedly fueling narcissistic self-absorption, make acquisitive consumption unfulfilling. The fulfillment of materialistic values is, according to Hellevik (2003), a never-ending race, seeing as goals shift as we run towards them. Subsequently, the number of consumers who choose a non-materialistic lifestyle and distance themselves from the idea of a life that is mainly focused on consumption, is increasing (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012, p. 487). Shaw and Moreas (2009) hold that increased consumer concern is a result of negative environmental impact over time and that

voluntary simplicity can be a response to dedicated consumers who want change. Voluntary simplicity is formed by the individual, as well as the community, and is considered a sustainable lifestyle (Shaw & Moraes, 2009, p. 215). It provides an opportunity to stand out from the majority and feel more satisfied with life (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012, p. 492). Jackson (2005) states that it should be possible to develop a society that consumes less, and at the same time live as well as before. Consequently, we believe that being able to control consumption desires may create positive and reinforcing feelings, not only leading to happiness and contentment but rather making the transition to a more sustainable lifestyle easier. Therefore, we present the following hypothesis:

H1: Successful control of desires will positively influence sustainable consumer behavior.

2.4 Social Influence on Consumer Behavior

Some issues within the sustainable consumption research agenda that previously have been explored are the impact of lifestyle, peer impact on adaptation of sustainable practices, sustainable consumption, change in people's perceptions (Tanner & Wölfing Kast, 2003; Hobson, 2002). According to Weber (2015), consumers' decision-making is influenced by psychological and social factors and is malleable and complex regarding environmental issues. Magee and Smith (2013) find that in shaping human behavior, social power is one of the most ubiquitous and pervasive psychological forces. Our behavior can be influenced by what other people think or do, and this can be described as a social influence (Abrahamse & Steg, 2013, p. 1773). Thus, social influence is an important first step in influencing consumers towards more sustainable behavior (White et al., 2019, p. 24). Our consumption is not solely about meeting basic needs such as food or protection (Jackson, 2005, p. 31). We consume to identify with a group, communicate our ideals, and take a position or stand out in that group. Thus, consumption can be a powerful means of short-term social interaction and communicating qualities with others (Nelissen & Meijers, 2011, p. 354). In addition, to understand their opinions and behaviors, people tend to compare themselves with other individuals (Abrahamse & Steg, 2013, p. 1775). Products that are visible to others are more likely to give greater rewards and are more exposed to group influence, than products that are not visible (Goodrich & Mangleburg, 2010, p. 1331). Tascioglu et al. (2017) propose that those who consume for their status to differ from others, act and are motivated differently than those who consume for their status to fit in with others. Furthermore, Van Boven (2005) claims that people are viewed as

unintelligent and superficial if their primary interest is the acquisition of material possessions. White et al. (2019) suggest that consumers are more willing to engage in environmentally friendly behavior when psychological factors such as individual self and social influence are included in the message or context.

Individuals hold specific values and beliefs that are likely to influence consumption decisions (Sharma & Jha, 2017, p. 77). Therefore, varied consumption behaviors are expected, seeing as unique beliefs, practices, and values are common in different cultures. What an individual considers most important to accomplish or obtain in life, can be seen through the values of that individual (Hellevik, 2003, p. 263). Individuals use possessions that are shaped through desires, to achieve their goals, which are influenced by values that are consumption-related (Wang & Wallendorf, 2006, p. 496). "Values may prove to be one of the more powerful explanations of and influences on consumer behavior" (Clawson & Vinson, 1978, p. 400). However, the decision context and the importance of behavioral biases are stressed in behavioral science, and the less rational nature of the human species, when looking at the environment in which individuals make choices (Lehner et al., 2016, p. 167). Binder and Blankenberg (2017) found that the relationship between pro-environmental behavior and the increase in life satisfaction was due to self-image. An environmentally friendly self-image increases this behavior, but no individual constantly displays it (Binder & Blankenberg, 2017, p. 320). This discrepancy between behavior and self-image is called the value-action gap. The match between environmental support and values will have a huge impact on the relationship of value, concerning well-being (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000, p. 196). Consequently, if the values that lie in our goals are provided for by the environment, offering reinforcement and support, then; "holding environmentally congruent values should be positively associated with well-being, regardless of the content of the value or goal" (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002, p. 138).

In publicly observable environments, norms are essential for guiding consumer behavior (Green & Peloza, 2014, p. 130). As such, consumers receive information through norms that enable them to act in ways that give a correct impression to others. Consumers do not automatically make independent decisions, as they are influenced by the perceptions and choices of their peers and the social groups they interact with (Salazar et al., 2013, p. 172). Changing purchases to sustainable consumption can create more social connections (Kumar & Yadav, 2021, p. 4). Social norms, as part of information and feedback, are one of the most used and accepted methods of social influence approaches to motivate behavior alteration (Abrahamse & Steg,

2013, p. 1774). Interestingly, according to Schwepker and Cornwell (1991); "environmental concern is becoming the socially accepted norm" (p. 85). Moreover, Salazar et al. (2013) found that family, friends, peers, and colleagues had varying degrees of impact on purchasing behavior, significantly influencing an individual. This proves that individuals do not follow other individuals or groups randomly but have specific reference groups. Consumers who receive social information about peer choices are three times more likely to choose sustainable alternatives, than those who do not receive this information (Salazar et al., 2013, p. 178). Hence, certain social groups have an impact on the purchasing behavior of sustainable products. Individuals, therefore, base their decisions in part on the experiences of others (Lazaric et al., 2019, p. 1343). Prior research has shown that a lot of human decisions are made in the social setting. Other people's influence and judgment may be central in the decision process. We believe that this can have significant implications on how we behave and act towards becoming a sustainable consumer. As such, to determine whether there is any social influence on sustainable consumption, we have developed the following hypothesis:

H2: Social influence will motivate individuals to engage in sustainable consumption.

2.5 Environmental Consciousness

All over the world, there has been a tremendous increase in environmental consciousness with a major effect on consumer behavior (Berger & Corbin, 1992, p. 79), which has led to a huge expansion in the green product market (Schlegelmilch et al., 1996, p. 35). The fundamental shift in public attitudes towards environmental consciousness stems from the fact that concern for the environment has become a universal phenomenon (Roberts, 1996, p. 217). It is important for the environment that we produce more efficiently and that we design sustainable products, but this alone is not enough (Jackson, 2005, p. 20). Consumers must also buy sustainable products, and the amount of consumption must be within ecological limits. Instead of cutting back on product consumption, many consumers have started searching for more sustainable alternatives, as going from conventional products to their green alternatives is one way to ameliorate environmental degradation (Haws et al., 2014, p. 337; Sachdeva et al., 2015, p. 60). Conscious consumers are what most people like to identify themselves as (Kossmann & Gómez-Suárez, 2018, p. 354), and they do not like seeing themselves as ruthless, whose desire for consumer goods increasingly harms the environment (Kilbourne & Pickett, 2008, p. 891). However, Lindenberg and Steg (2007) claim that living in ways that harm the environment, like

shopping, traveling, and consuming, is what makes people happy. Sameer et al. (2021) argue that it is possible to enjoy life, without harming the environment. According to Schlegelmilch et al. (1996), it is expected that consumers with higher levels of environmental consciousness make more purchasing decisions that are sustainable, than those with lower levels.As such, individuals should be more willing to make changes in their behavior as concern increases.

Not all consumers are willing to become sustainable, although they are aware of the importance when forgoing convenience, price, and quality for a product's "greenness" (Luchs et al., 2010, p. 18). Hence, embracing those products through the efficient mobilization of consumers needs more attention and requires better understanding (Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker, 2016; Haws et al., 2014). Consumption by private households' accounts for a large share of the economy's environmental impact, and the consumer, therefore, plays a key role in making businesses more sustainable (Peattie, 2001, p. 197). When making a choice, the importance a consumer feels towards sustainability will be reflected by confidence and guilt (Luchs et al., 2012, p. 904). Furthermore, consumers who are concerned about the environment often have a high level of education, high income, and socio-economic and occupational status (Schwepker & Cornwell, 1991, p. 85). Cowan and Kinley (2014) state that factors that significantly affect sustainable buying intentions are a concern for the environment and social pressure, while guilt and knowledge have a moderate impact. Also, perceived consumer effectiveness is affected by feelings of pride and guilt, which causes an increase in that perception (Becker, 2021, p. 818). Classic consumer decision-making focuses on maximizing instant benefit for oneself, while sustainable alternatives entail long-term benefits for other people and the environment (White et al., 2019, p. 24). Interestingly, Slovic (1987) claims that a large part of human willingness to act is due to personal relevance and perceived immediacy. "Climate change action is difficult because our focus, evolutionarily, is on the here and now, and in the here and now reside the costs of action, not the benefits" (Weber, 2015, p. 566).

What conditions and antecedents that lead to feelings of guilt concerning consumption, have received the most focus in consumer research on guilt (Saintives & Lunardo, 2016, p. 345). Schlegelmilch et al. (1996) suggest that consumers who are more environmentally conscious feel guilty about the environment and experience social pressure to act sustainable. However, we would like to suggest that feelings of guilt not only arise after consumption has been made, but rather before choosing a product. Increased awareness among consumers about the environmental problems caused by consumption has led them to weigh the environmental

impact of products more heavily before making a purchase decision (Huang & Rust, 2010, p. 41). Moreover, pleasure, guilt, and discomfort reflect the emotional aspects, while control reflects the cognitive response (Boujbel, 2007, p. 321). Saintives and Lunardo (2016) investigated how satisfaction was affected, in a consumer regulation process, by rumination through positive reappraisal and post-consumption guilt. Thus, not being able to control our actions may cause guilt before the purchase, which we believe can lead to a post-purchase feeling that is not of satisfaction, but rather the opposite. According to Hobson (2002), if new knowledge of how waste emission and toxic materials are connected to the life cycles of a product is taught to consumers, there is a greater chance that we will change our consumer behavior and are thus more likely to make sustainable consumption happen. Thus, being aware of the environment and its challenges, may be of great importance when looking at the question of why we should become more sustainable. This might, in our opinion, be one of the more relevant antecedents of sustainable consumption. Accordingly, the next hypothesis is put forth:

H3: Environmental consciousness is positively related to sustainable consumption.

2.6 Level of Financial Resources

Higher disposable income has made it possible for more people to enjoy what is, by historical standards, a good life (Witt, 2011, p. 112). Hence, once basic human needs are provided for, the motivational mechanisms take over, guiding consumers to a behavior that negatively impacts the environment. External constraints and personal resources both place restrictions on consumers' freedom to choose their preferred lifestyle (Thøgersen, 2005, p. 150). Thus, the availability of financial resources is crucial and can limit how much money and effort individuals put into protecting the environment. The income growth has and will continue to drive consumption to unsustainable levels (Witt, 2011, p. 109). On the other hand, higher income levels increase the willingness to pay for quality and consumers can develop a certain degree of environmental awareness, which may lead to more sustainable production in high-income countries (Mantovani et al., 2017, p. 74). Several studies show that sustainable and pro-environmental behavior can be limited or constrained by a lack of financial resources (Roberts, 1996; Thøgersen, 2005; Young et al., 2010). Higher prices for sustainable products, than for conventional alternatives, make these products less accessible for many consumers (Connell, 2010, p. 280). Finances often play a role in consumers' preference for low-cost and less expensive consumer goods (Ozdamar Ertekin & Atik, 2015, p. 61). As such, higher prices for

sustainable products are an obstacle to general use (Thøgersen, 2005; Young et al., 2010). Hansmann et al. (2020) claim that having more money was considered the second most essential requirement for, among other things, improving the environmental aspects of food consumption. Individuals will be more interested in spending money on sustainable products when they have an income and welfare level that allows for higher consumption (Chekima et al., 2016, p. 213). According to Witt (2011), the motivation behind consumer behavior will probably change, when the ability to spend improves, with increasing income. People have different attitudes or beliefs, and contextual factors may therefore have different meanings for individuals, as high prices for sustainable products are a barrier for some, while for others it symbolizes a better product (Stern, 2000, p. 417). Interestingly, according to Laroche et al. (2001), consumers that have recognized the severity of the environmental problems, are willing to pay more for sustainable products.

A multitude of underlying factors relates to the link between subjective well-being and economic development, as it is likely to be complex (Ahuiva, 2002, p. 25). Studies have shown that, rather than meeting social obligations, individuals make choices to maximize their happiness, and through that create a cultural environment where economic development increases subjective well-being (Veenhoven, 1999; Watkins & Liu, 1996). Personal abilities, habits, and routines are causal variables that are key factors in environmental behavior and the effect depends on people's financial and social resources (Stern, 2000, p. 417). Goods and income are two material economic rewards that are highly valued, and individuals enhance their well-being through the accumulation of these economic rewards (Oropesa, 1995, p. 219). However, few people think that money can buy happiness, but many believe that a little more money can make them a bit happier (Myers & Diener, 1995, p. 13). Between subjective well-being and income, for people in developed economies, the correlation is surprisingly low (Ahuvia & Friedman, 1998; Diener et al., 1985a). Iver and Muncy (2016) hold that; "money is quite able to alleviate many of the ills that face people when they are poor but when such problems are alleviated, money can do very little to improve long-term happiness" (p. 50). When average income is high there is a clear tendency, looking at different nations with divergent levels of economic development, that they have more accumulated happiness (Hellevik, 2003, p. 244). How people spend their money can be just as important to the feeling of happiness, as their level of income (Dunn et al., 2008, p. 1687). Diener and Biswas-Diener (2002) argue that infinite access to money, possessions, and wealth is not crucial for happiness

in life. They further claim that money can increase subjective well-being if poverty can be avoided, but money has little effect on happiness in the long run.

The relationship between money and happiness is positive, although modest, and the way people spend their money may explain part of the reasons why the correlation is weak (Dunn et al., 2011, p. 115). According to Kahneman and Deaton (2010), all happiness can be bought by a certain amount of income per year, and a person's subjective well-being will be remarkably improved at levels below this amount, by a little more money. Therefore, until it levels off at a certain amount, the additional benefit diminishes as income rises. "People's lives can be enriched by redirecting expenditures from things that provide fleeting joy to those that provide more substantial and lasting contributions to well-being" (Gilovich et al, 2015, p. 152). The number of individuals describing themselves as happy and the level of happiness did not rise, due to greater material prosperity (Camfield & Skevington, 2008, p. 768). Easterlin (2001) also states that chances of feeling happy over time do not increase, due to higher individual prosperity. However, there has in previous studies been found a modest correlation between happiness and income (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Myers & Diener, 1995). There is a limit to how much happiness money can buy, albeit greater happiness and life satisfaction are brought on by more money for the lower levels of income (Iver & Muncy, 2016, p. 50). Ahuvia (2002) argues that higher levels of consumption, caused by economic development, do not cause an increase in subjective well-being. This would manifest itself through subjective well-being and income at the individual level, and a strong correlation between the two. Accordingly, drawing from the previous literature relating to level of financial resources, we are suggesting the hypothesis as follows:

H4: Level of financial resources will positively influence sustainable consumption.

2.7 Sustainable Consumption

Without putting the life of future generations at risk, and compromising the earth's carrying capacity, we must satisfy our basic needs through sustainable consumption (Sharma & Jha, 2017, p. 78). Accordingly, the concept of sustainable consumption has been introduced as crucial to reducing society's impact on the environment (Jackson, 2005, p. 19; Yan et al., 2019, p. 499). The terms sustainable consumption, eco-friendly consumption, and green purchase behavior are all used as synonyms even though they illustrate different consumption patterns

(Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2021, p. 3). According to Niinimäki and Hassi (2011), sustainable consumption is a broader concept than eco-friendly and green consumption, as it involves both improving social equity and preserving the environment. White et al. (2019) define sustainable consumer behavior as; "actions that result in decreases in adverse environmental impacts as well as decreased utilization of natural resources across the lifecycle of the product, behavior, or service" (p. 24). Authorities and industries have many strategies for decreasing environmental impact and consumers play a key role in achieving these goals (McDonald et al., 2012, p. 445). However, getting individuals to change their daily behavior is one of the most complicated challenges. In connection to climate change, Weber (2015) holds that status quo bias and inaction are the most dangerous options, although the safer outcomes are in many contexts found in status quo bias. As such, although proven very difficult, moving towards greater environmental sustainability is widely accepted (Van Vugt, 2009, p. 169). Lehner et al. (2016) state that the complexity of how people behave in different contexts and situations requires a solid understanding for devising policies that entail or imply behavioral change. "When individuals consider the adoption of sustainable lifestyles, they engage with an increasingly complex decision-making process" (Young et al., 2010, p. 20). Pieters (1991) suggests that by changing the pattern of purchasing, using, and disposing of products, consumers can act more sustainably. Similarly, Trudel (2019) asserts that the cumulative effect of human consumption activities is devastating for the environment, as every consumer's decision has a direct impact on the environment in what to buy and how much is consumed.

Individuals are now expected to care, know, and act a certain way towards the environment, to become environmental citizens (Hawthorne & Alabaster, 1999, p. 26). Consequently, ways to enhance sustainable consumption behaviors have become imperative to recognize (Sachdeva et al., 2015, p. 60). In the process of advancing sustainable and welfare-enhancing behavior, through more efficient policies, insight from behavioral science is necessary to understand factors influencing behavioral change, and in turn human behavior (Lehner et al., 2016, p. 166). It is easier to turn away from the problem when the challenge is massive and the solutions seem insufficient (Weber, 2015, p. 562). When consumers are required to make compromises on consumption objectives, like meeting product performance needs, it is more likely that many consumers will not be supportive of the concept of sustainable consumption (Luchs et al., 2012, p. 904). However, trade-offs are often involved when making a consumption choice. Luchs et al. (2010) claim that because sustainable products are perceived as being less effective, some consumers may be reluctant to purchase them. Moreover, Hobson (2002) states that the notion

of sustainable consumption, in terms of environmental and social concerns, is fundamentally misrepresented in connection to what is important to individuals. Antonetti and Maklan (2014) claim that consumers are more likely to behave sustainably if they believe that environmental and social issues are affected by their decisions. Weber (2015) argues that as we work on behavior change and action in the context of climate change, the full range of decision processes, human goals and motivations, should become available, which will be imperative and helpful to consider and use.

Protecting the environment is a behavior that is carried out where people's beliefs and motives influence change in the behavior in favor of the environment (Stern, 2000, p. 408). Most people can support several aspects of sustainable consumption, but these attitudes will not automatically lead to action (McDonald et al., 2012, p. 449). Studies have shown that higher education increases sustainable consumption behavior, and that women are more likely to choose these products than men (Blend & van Ravensway, 1999; Salazar et al., 2013). Moreover, there are two groups of anti-consumers; those that desire a simple life and, for more personal reasons, view consumption as something negative, and individuals that have environmental concerns for general societal reasons, thus having negative attitudes toward consumption (Iver & Muncy, 2016, p. 53). What we seek and buy, dictates how much, and for how long we have positive feelings towards the purchase (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2011, p. 135). That is why, we will like a newly renovated bathroom, but over time we get used to it and it will give us fewer positive emotions. Myers & Diener (1995) claim that recognition of adaptation is important to have a viable theory of happiness. They further state that the instant affective reaction to important life events disappears over time. So, from focusing on the purchases of services and products, more attention is now being paid to the happiness and joy deriving from it (Sun et al., 2019, p. 391). Chancellor and Lyubomirsky (2011) claim that through reflection and reminiscing, we can recycle happiness by reliving our previous purchases. Instead of buying new things, we can utilize creativity to vary the way we use what we already own (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2011, p. 135). This gives a positive feeling by reducing the environmental impact and saving money.

Sustainable consumption considers the needs of future generations, has a lower degree of environmental impact, and provides a better quality of life (Kilbourne et al., 1997, p. 5), positively influencing consumer happiness (Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2021, p. 2). Hackett (1995) holds that acts of consumption will translate whether individuals care about the environment or

not. According to Kasser and Sheldon (2002), the image that consumers have of themselves can be enhanced through social and environmental considerations in the purchasing process, which can promote their positive feelings. Iver and Muncy (2016) investigated attitudes toward consumption, both negative and positive, to subjective well-being. They looked at subjective well-being from two dimensions, namely life satisfaction, how people evaluate their life and affect, and how people feel about life, thus investigating if subjective well-being, relating both to the affective and cognitive, was due to the attitude towards consumption and not the consumption per se. Yan et al. (2019) found that from the perspectives of green values, social power, and power distance belief, understanding sustainable consumption will contribute to building a more sustainable society and bridging the attitude-behavior gap, thus having significant implications for policy-makers and marketers. Therefore, we draw from the literature that there is an understanding and an acknowledgment of the urgency to make a positive change for the environment. We further would like to suggest that this way of living and consuming, may have a positive effect on our lives and make us more satisfied and happier. For this reason, we have developed the following hypothesis:

H5: Sustainable consumption will significantly influence satisfaction with life.

2.8 Perceived sacrifice

Perceived sacrifice is one of the basic principles of decision-making (Chwialkowska & Flicinska-Turkiewicz, 2021, p. 206). Nevertheless, the topic has received little attention when it comes to obstacles to sustainable behavior adoption. What must be given up or paid to take part in a particular behavior is often described as a sacrifice (Chu & Lu, 2007, p. 141). Several studies find that humans have a remarkable ability to habituate, which emerged due to research on well-being and happiness (Bonanno et al., 2002; Brickman et al., 1978). Gilovich et al. (2015) hold that being able to habituate and adapt, in connection to negative events, is a great gift in people's lives. Oppositely, the capacity to adapt to positive events causes the thrill and joy of a new purchase to quickly fade (Gilovich et al., 2015, p. 153). Consumers' motivation for participating in more environmentally friendly consumer behavior is crucial for the development of sustainable consumption (Peattie, 2010, p. 195). Haller and Hadler (2008) claim that people in developed countries are more willing to sacrifice for the sake of the environment. Furthermore, motivation is the core foundation behind this behavior and sacrifice is the key to understanding what underlies people's obligation to the environment

(Kantenbacher et al., 2019, p. 209/210). So, how much does becoming a sustainable consumer affect perceived sacrifice, and in turn satisfaction with life? Sacrificing for the environment means the extent to which people make decisions regarding the environment, even if it is at the expense of immediate personal effort, cost, or self-interest (Chwialkowska & Flicinska-Turkiewicz, 2021, p. 206). When it comes to consumers' decision-making process, sacrifice is often linked to price, and thus price often becomes the central measure of consumer sacrifice (Chu & Lu, 2007, p. 141). According to Pura (2005), perceived sacrifice requires both monetary and non-monetary aspects. As such, because the consumer must give something up, and make an effort without gaining any personal advantage, being sustainable is usually seen as a sacrifice (Chwialkowska & Flicinska-Turkiewicz, 2021, p. 208). Based on this, we would like to suggest the hypothesis:

H6: Sustainable consumption will significantly influence perceived sacrifice.

Going from a consumption pattern that the modern consumer is used to, towards sustainable behavior, is expensive or reduces consumption, which can result in a sacrifice of well-being (Binder & Blankenberg, 2017, p. 304). Perceived sacrifice is, according to Yue et al. (2020), the time consumers spend on buying sustainable products is associated with time risk, while the financial risk is about the extent to which the perceived value of these products does not match the price. Several studies have shown that high costs, accessibility, perceived lack of efficiency, and lack of consciousness are important barriers to sustainable consumption (Rahimah et al., 2018; Van Vugt, 2009; White & Simpson, 2013). However, these barriers are beginning to wane as increasing popularity has made sustainable products easier to buy (Chwialkowska & Flicinska-Turkiewicz, 2021, p. 205). According to Kasser (2017), a more sustainable lifestyle can lead to meaning in life and cause individuals to behave in altruistic ways that can be beneficial to well-being. Therefore, an altruistic way of behaving (Dunn et al., 2011), and a non-materialistic way of living (Pandelaere, 2016), can enhance people's subjective well-being, and thus counteract the negative well-being effect of reducing consumption (Binder & Blankenberg, 2017, p. 305). By sacrificing one's desires, and rather spending in a way that is beneficial to others, satisfaction with life can be increased (Nassani et al., 2013, p. 1001). Hence, sustainable lifestyles, considered as subjective well-being, may not be a sacrifice after all. A deeper concern for human impact on the environment and a renewed sensitivity to taking care of oneself and society suggests a more lasting shift in consumer mindset (Sheth et al., 2010, p. 30). Therefore, a lifestyle that embraces sustainable consumption is not about self-denial or

sacrifice, it can rather be a key to more meaning in life and greater satisfaction. As shown in the literature, it has become apparent that sacrificing for the greater good does not have to compromise the relationship between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life, which leads us to propose that:

H7: Perceived sacrifice will positively influence satisfaction with life.

2.9 Satisfaction with Life

Today's consumption is described as contradictory, unpredictable, and lacking consistency (Gabriel & Lang, 2015, p. 233). More importantly, consumerism fails to fulfill the promise of making people happier. Security, food, and shelter are fundamental to well-being, but a growing level of prosperity means little once people can provide for the necessities in life (Myers & Diener, 1995, p. 13). Boujbel & d'Astous (2012) assert that some people achieve happiness through personal fulfillment or financial wealth and possessions, while others feel happy by living a simple life. The chase after a meaningful life is commonly accepted as a way to achieve satisfaction in the modern world (Peterson et al., 2005, p. 26). However, the quality of life for the individual and society, is weakened by counter-affirmative expectations (Kilbourne et al., 1997, p. 6). "Modern consumers engage in an endless psychological quest for happiness and satisfaction through the experiences associated with the consumption of new things" (Oropesa, 1995, p. 217). According to Young et al. (2010), companies' obligation to sustainable development must be followed by consumers' obligation to sustainable consumption behavior. This will in turn increase the quality of life for individuals (Niinimäki & Hassi, 2011, p. 1882). A positive quality of life means an increased feeling of happiness, life satisfaction, and a sense of well-being (Myers & Diener, 2018, p. 218).

Studies have shown that sustainable consumption is positively related to subjective well-being and life satisfaction (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012; Brown & Kasser, 2005; Kasser & Sheldon, 2002; Welsch & Kühling, 2010; Xiao & Li, 2011). Satisfaction with life has often been the term by which we measure happiness (Veenhoven, 2004), and was by Shin and Johnson (1978) defined as; "a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his chosen criteria" (p. 478). Kilbourne et al. (1997) propose that factors such as basic needs, education, health services, aesthetics, community, political engagement, and freedom from harm, define the human quality of life. However, what makes people happy has been studied for a long time,

and the results are, to some extent, ambiguous (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012, p. 489). Central to the debate is whether higher income, wealth, and material assets improve our subjective well-being. Several approaches argue that increasing consumption is considered a synonym for extended well-being (Jackson, 2005, p. 19). However, others report overconsumption as both mentally and environmentally harmful, and that we can consume significantly less without threatening the quality of life. Sameer et al. (2021) argue that happiness is associated with sustainability, like it is with consumption, in a positive way. Therefore, although more happiness derives from more consumption, they hold that hedonic consumption also can be responsible, and by consuming in a sustainable-responsible way, people can still be happy. Boujbel and d'Astous (2012) point out that a continuous commitment to voluntary simplification behavior can lead to repeated small increases in happiness, which altogether will lead to a generally higher feeling of well-being. It is not externally imposed, the level of satisfaction an individual feels but is rather based on a comparison with a standard that each individual set for themselves (Diener et al., 1985b, p. 71). Ramos-Hidalgo et al. (2021) also found a positive correlation between consumers' predisposition for sustainable behavior and happiness.

2.10 The Conceptual Framework

Through this literature review, several factors that might work as antecedents of sustainable consumption have been identified. The topic of consumption and whether it can be associated with an increase in satisfaction with life have been debated in previous literature. To make different phenomenon in society concrete and tangible to measure, it is necessary to operationalize them (Johannessen et al., 2011, p. 266). Thus, the following conceptual framework was developed and proposed based on the theoretical perspectives and hypotheses discussed so far. The conceptual framework that is depicted in Figure 1 shows these proposed relationships and how the different variables might be connected. In the model, the independent variables control of desires, social influence, environmental consciousness, and level of financial resources, all work as antecedents of sustainable consumption. The model shows that sustainable consumption is an important determinant of satisfaction with life. The relationship between the various antecedents and satisfaction with life is mediated by sustainable consumption. Furthermore, the relationship between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life will also be mediated by a perceived level of sacrifice, as shown in the framework below.
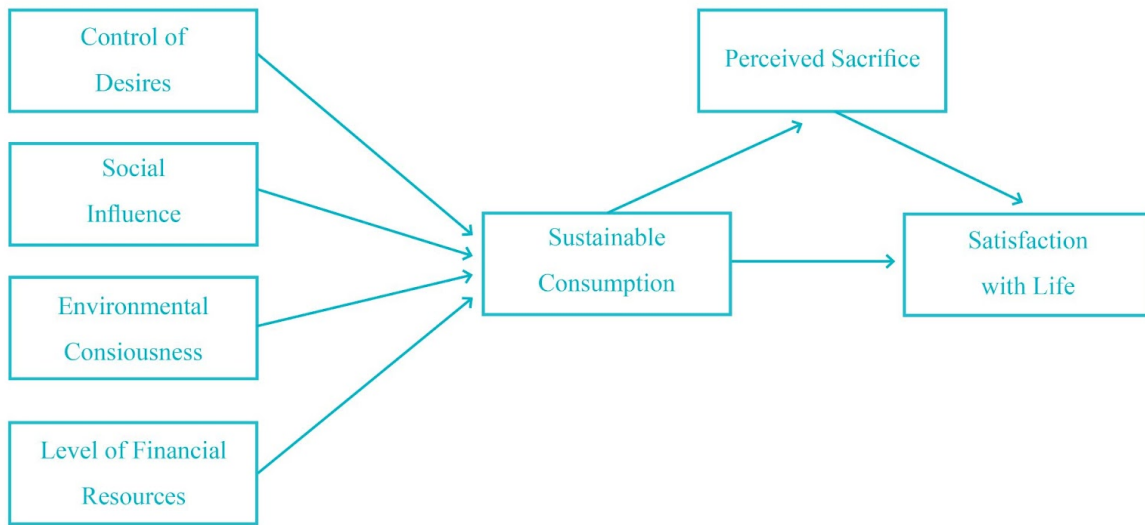
Figure 1. The conceptual framework

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we explain the choice of research design and methodology. The research design, approach, and methodology are all important when answering a research question. First, we want to give a deeper insight into the selection of the research approach and design, before arguing how the methodology chosen is the best suited to answer our research question. Then, we take a closer look at the sample selection strategy, the data collection, and the method of analysis. Finally, the quality of the data is reflected upon, where validity, reliability, privacy, and ethical considerations are presented.

3.2 Research Approach

Scientific studies are characterized by the fact that they systematically handle empirical data, and do not only include methodology, but also empirical knowledge and theoretical understanding (Grønmo, 2016, p. 47). As such, through empirical analysis, it is possible to uncover or detect social patterns that are, with regular observations, not easily recognized. According to Ringdal (2018), the goal is to be able to explain a phenomenon in society. There are two approaches that are distinguished between in research. According to Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005), induction and deduction are the two ways we can draw conclusions and establish what is true and what is false. They differ in that empirical evidence is the basis for induction, while logic is the basis for deduction. Hence, from empirical observations, general conclusions can be drawn, through induction (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p. 15). This is often linked to qualitative research. Deduction, on the other hand, involves the gathering of facts to disprove or confirm hypothesized relationships among variables (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p. 16). Therefore, a deductive approach bases itself on existing theory and tests this through the collection of data (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 51). This is what characterizes a quantitative approach. Based on the overall purpose of the paper, and the research question, we have in this master thesis gone from the theoretical to the empirical. Hence, we have chosen a deductive approach. By using a deductive approach, and creating a theoretical fundament, the hypotheses and a questionnaire were developed. This was done to obtain empirical data to test these hypothesized relationships, helping us answer the research question.

3.3 Research Design

To answer the research question, it is necessary to develop a research design. This is a plan for what methods are to be used and how it should be analyzed, to answer the research question (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 173). The design chosen will largely be determined by the overall focus of the study (Ringdal, 2018, p. 117). It may help the researcher get the best possible result, depending on the purpose and data required. All research has a common goal in that it seeks to develop new knowledge of reality, although the intention will differ depending on what knowledge is sought (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 14). Therefore, when creating a research design, it is imperative that the research project clearly states the objectives and asks the questions that need to be answered (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 186). This will help to clarify the purpose of the study. Ringdal (2018) distinguishes between two methods of collecting data: qualitative and quantitative. The difference lies in that qualitative data collection is expressed in the form of text, while quantitative data collection is expressed through numbers and other entities (Grønmo, 2016, p. 47). Thus, being measured numerically and analyzed by graphical and statistical techniques, the relationship between variables is examined in quantitative research. According to Ringdal (2018), the purpose is to collect quantitative data that can give statistical information about a population, like the correlation between variables. Hence, a quantitative research design is theory-driven, and the researcher asks questions and deflects hypotheses from one or several theoretical perspectives that are relevant to the phenomenon being studied.

A research design can be exploratory, evaluative, explanatory, or descriptive (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 186/188). Thus, the variability in different phenomenon is described and identified in descriptive research, while cause-and-effect relationships, explaining and examining relationships between variables, are done so in explanatory research. For this study, we have used a descripto-explanatory research design, as we try to explain the various phenomenon that are linked to sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life. It utilizes description and is, thus, likely to be a predecessor for explanation (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 188). A quantitative research design builds on the fact that social phenomenon show stability in measurements and that quantitative descriptions are meaningful (Ringdal, 2018, p. 109). We developed a conceptual framework based on previous literature, to test how the various factors were related to each other, and the strength of these relationships. Several hypotheses were formulated to help answer the research question, and the aim was to test the hypotheses to see if there were significant relationships. However, it should be mentioned that it was not feasible to account

for, or investigate, all variables that may lead to a phenomenon. We are fully aware of, and open to the possibility, that other variables not included in our model may account for high correlations.

3.4 Methodology - Quantitative survey

A quantitative method is best suited when prior knowledge exists about the topic that is being investigated, and when the research question is clear (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 136). Hence, clarity of the research problem is a prerequisite since categorization is necessary before starting data collection. As such, it provides the respondents with a strong lead on what type of information is to be given, and the study defines what information is relevant to collect. As this study aims to investigate the antecedents of sustainable consumption, and how this affects satisfaction with life, we felt that gathering data from as many respondents as possible was preferable. According to Johannessen et al. (2021), there are an array of different research designs that can be used, like an experiment, case-, cross-sectional-, or longitudinal study. A cross-sectional design is frequently used in quantitative research based on surveys. All measurements are gathered in a limited period, and the purpose is primarily to explain a relationship at present (Ringdal, 2018, p. 112). Moreover, the data is only collected once from each participant.

When conducting research, choices need to be made on how to collect information about reality. Choosing a methodology is an overall strategy for collecting information, while the type of data is linked to the information you want to collect (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 41). Therefore, a methodology is chosen, not based on one being better than the other, but rather on which is most appropriate. The methodology used in this study is quantitative and questionnaire based. To answer our research question *"What antecedents lead to sustainable consumption, and does it affect our satisfaction with life?",* we chose to conduct a survey. A quantitative approach can provide indicators for a larger group from a sample, making it possible to generalize from that sample to the population (Johannessen et al., 2021, p. 257). This gives us an image of reality through tablets and numbers and, contrary to a qualitative method, many respondents are necessary. One advantage of using this method is that a huge amount of data may be analyzed, and it is possible to generalize. Following, we will describe the thesis' data collection and explain assessments regarding the design of the questionnaire and the measurement scale.

3.4.1 Design of the questionnaire

The research question is the foundation for developing a questionnaire (Johannessen et al., 2021, p. 292). Hence, the questions need to be formulated in a way that ensures they answer the research question. It is an operationalization process, where the goal is to formulate the most accurate questions and answers. A survey is a standardized interrogation of a representative selection of individuals (Ringdal, 2018, p. 112). Moreover, questionnaires are well suited for descriptive and explanatory studies (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 505), and were therefore used to answer the research question in this thesis. Established theory was utilized in designing the questionnaire. Through the questionnaire, we collected the necessary data to test the hypotheses in the conceptual framework. One of the reasons why we chose to use a questionnaire, is that the theories we applied in the construction of the conceptual framework are suitable for this method. This made it possible to analyze and test the hypotheses in the model and answer the research questions. The survey instrument has multi-item scales that consist of several items representing a concept (Hair et al., 2020, p. 259). According to Ringdal (2018), operationalization in a survey involves the use of at least two items that are expected to be connected and provide an overall measure of the theoretical variable. Furthermore, there are several advantages to using composite items, rather than relying on only one. This includes that the measure is better assessed, several aspects of the concept can be captured, and there is less risk of measurement errors. In preparing the questionnaire, we were aware and attentive to the order and structure of the questions to achieve the best possible flow. The purpose of the survey was to test the connections we had identified and developed in the conceptual framework. See appendix 1 for the full questionnaire.

Advantages and disadvantages of using a questionnaire

There are several advantages of using digital questionnaires. In quantitative research, the researcher is often separated from the individuals being studied, and surveys based on large samples make closeness impossible (Ringdal, 2018, p. 110). This is an advantage of this method of data collection, as the lack of physical contact between the researcher and respondents, reduces the chances of influencing the responses of the informants. Further, it is low-cost, and does not require large resources in the collection process. The reach is also greater when the internet is used, making it possible to recruit more respondents. The questions to participants must be understood and expressed clearly, as data are gathered in a standardized fashion (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 178). Hence, this type of research goes in-depth by registering

comparable and structured information in large samples. Unfortunately, it is not possible to ensure that the respondents interpret and perceive the questions as intended. This makes the development of the questionnaire demanding, as to the extent of how the questions are asked and understood.

3.4.2 Measurement scale

There is no direct way of observing opinions and attitudes towards different phenomenon in society, but a measurement scale can be used to retrieve those observations through questions in a survey (Hair et al., 2020, p. 237/238). In this survey, the questions were answered with a 5-points Likert scale. This is often used to get an agreement or a disagreement regarding a statement, to measure its strength (Hair et al., 2020, p. 245). Further, it was used to achieve a sufficient spread in the answer alternatives, and we also chose to use an odd number scale so that the respondents would have the opportunity to be neutral to the questions. Most of the scales measured; strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. However, three of the items had different measurement scales. These answers had the responses; 1) always, seldom, sometimes, often, and never, 2) very much, much, neutral, little, very little, and 3) very likely, likely, neutral, unlikely, very unlikely. The respondents had fixed answers and did not have the opportunity to write responses. Furthermore, respondents were able to go back and change answers to previously answered questions. However, once the survey was completed the answers could not be altered. Before analysis, reversed items were turned so that the score at the same end of the scale expresses the same positive or negative value within all variables.

3.4.3 Developing a measure for the study

The main components of the questionnaire were social influence, self-control, environmental consciousness, level of financial resources, sustainable consumption, perceived sacrifice, and satisfaction with life. The questions were taken from existing literature and questionnaires with validated objectives. At the end of the survey, respondents were asked to answer the study's control variables. These variables included gender, age, education, and income. Following, is a presentation of the different questions and measurements for the various variables.

Table 1. Measurement for all variables

Variable	Items	Sources
Control of Desires	I am responsible and generally aware of what I am spending	Bearden & Haws (2011); Haws et al. (2011); Richins & Dawson (1992); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008); Iyer & Muncy (2016); Tascioglu et al. (2017); Sirgy et al. (2012)
	I carefully consider my needs before making purchases	
	I usually buy only the things I need	
	I often delay taking action until I have carefully considered the consequences of my purchase decisions	
	The things I own aren't all that important to me	
	Buying products gives me a lot of pleasure and makes me feel good about myself	
	Material possessions are important because they contribute a lot to my happiness	
Social Influence	I love to buy new products that make people think of me as unique and different	Tascioglu et al. (2017); Sirgy et al. (2012); Richins & Dawson (1992); Goodrich & Mangleburg (2010); Hansmann et al. (2020); Kumar & Yadav (2021)
	I like to own products that impress people	
	My social circle can make me feel more personally accepted when I buy products they like	
	Many people who are important to me pay attention to sustainable consumption	
	Suggestions by family, friends, or social media boost my information on sustainable products	
Environmental Consciousness	I think of myself as someone who is concerned about the environment	Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker (2016); Antonetti & Maklan (2014); Berger & Corbin (1992); Haws et al. (2014); Roberts (1996); Peterson et al. (2005)
	I would feel satisfied with myself if I bought environmental-friendly products	
	Thinking about your feelings in relation to the environment, how intensely would you feel guilt?	
	I would feel guilty if I bought products that damaged the environment	
	When I purchase products, I always make a conscious effort to buy those products that are less harmful to other people and the environment	

	If I understand the potential damage to the environment that some products can cause, I do not purchase these products	
	I have a responsibility to make the world a better place	
Level of Financial Resources	I choose the environmentally-friendly alternative regardless of price	Schlegelmilch et al. (1996); Haws et al. (2014); Roberts (1996); Hansmann et al. (2020); Richins & Dawson (1992); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008); Tascioglu et al. (2017); Sirgy et al. (2012); Iyer & Muncy (2016)
	I usually purchase the lowest priced product, regardless of its impact on the environment	
	I do not have enough money to buy environmentally friendly products	
	It bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the products I would like	
	I would be happier if I could afford to buy more products	
	Having expensive items make me happy	
	I am generally happy with my standard of living and financial situation	
Sustainable Consumption	If we all consume less, the world will be a better place	Iyer & Muncy (2016); Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker (2016); Kumar & Yadav (2021); Antonetti & Maklan (2014); Roberts (1996); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008)
	We should be more interested in saving the earth than growing the economy through consumption	
	I intend to buy environmental-friendly products	
	Next time you go shopping, how likely is it that you will make an effort to avoid products or services that cause environmental degradation?	
	I do not buy products that harm the environment	
	I buy sustainable products whenever possible	
Perceived Sacrifice	I have often thought that if we could just get by with a little less there would be more left for future generations	Haws et al. (2014); Iyer & Muncy (2016); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008); Berger & Corbin (1992)
	I'd be willing to stop buying products from companies guilty of polluting the environment even though it might be inconvenient for me personally	
	I'd be willing to make personal sacrifices for the sake of slowing down pollution even though the immediate results may not seem significant	

	I would be willing to reduce my consumption to help protect the environment	
	Norwegians must accept a lower standard of living to help alleviate environmental problems	
Satisfaction with Life	In most ways my life is close to my ideal	Iyer & Muncy (2016); Diener et al. (1985b); Richins & Dawson (1992); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008); Waterman et al. (2006); Peterson et al. (2005)
	I have all the possessions I really need to enjoy life	
	When I engage in sustainable consumption, I feel more satisfied than I do when engaged in most other activities	
	When I engage in sustainable consumption, I feel happier than I do when engaged in most other activities	
	I feel more complete and fulfilled when engaging in sustainable consumption than I do when engaged in most other activities	
	I am satisfied with my life	

3.5 Sample Selection Strategy and Recruiting

Probability sampling and non-probability sampling are two broad selection strategies (Hair et al., 2020, p. 183). Thus, a representative sample will be influenced by the strategy of selection. Representative, or generalization, means concluding that the result in the sample also applies to the entire population (Johannessen et al., 2011, p. 259). In this study, the selection was a non-probability sample, as we used a strategic selection. We did not have the time, or the resources, to examine everyone, and therefore had to make a selection. A sample of 400-600 respondents is usually sufficient, both to achieve reasonably good accuracy, and process the information in a sensible way (Jacobsen, 215, p. 301). New technology has made it possible to collect research data at a greater speed and at a lower cost than traditional data collection (Lehdonvirta et al., 2021, p. 149). We used digital channels like Facebook, Instagram, and Messenger to recruit participants. By using these platforms to distribute our survey, we generated a higher level of reach, than in other methods of collecting data. Furthermore, a benefit of using social media platforms in the recruitment process is the ability for others to share content. This made it easier to reach participants that existed beyond our digital network, making the sample more varied.

We used a sample of convenience, as this made it possible to select participants that we had access to through our social media. However, this selection strategy is disadvantageous in that it can make the sample biased, and there might be difficulties in generalizing. Coverage bias is a problem as access to the Internet can affect availability of respondents (Khazaal et al., 2014, p. 45). Moreover, some participants may be entering the survey based on interest, and passion for the topic being investigated, thus making them biased. On the other hand, advantages of online studies are that it is possible to reach larger sample sizes, gain access to stigmatized behavior and reach out to individuals who are more difficult to get in touch with using other sampling methods (Khazaal et al., 2014, p. 52). Since the survey was shared on several pages, and by several persons, we did not have total control over who responded. Therefore, part of the sample may be based on self-selection, where unknown respondents voluntarily answered the survey. According to Jacobsen (2015), both convenience selection and self-selection are both examples of non-probability sampling, which is widely used in quantitative studies. The process of data collection took roughly three weeks, and during these weeks we re-shared, and used several social platforms to increase awareness.

3.6 Data Collection

The relationship between the theoretical and the empirical may be based on theory, which can be confirmed or denied using data (Johannessen et al., 2021, p. 30). Accordingly, there are several types of data and ways of conducting research. There are different ways that data can be collected, including telephone interviews, personal interviews, or web-based questionnaires (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 252). Questionnaires or structured interviews are, in quantitative research, the common techniques to use in a survey strategy (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 178). However, the researcher must consider who is to take part in the survey, regardless of the approach that is chosen (Johannessen et al., 2021, p. 24). Sample size, recruitment, and selection strategy are all important factors that must be appraised. Based on the research question, the research must collect data that is relevant and reliable (Johannessen et al., 2011, p. 37). Thus, questions and stated answer points are commonly used in quantitative research. It is a cost-effective, accurate, and time-saving way of procuring data, and further allows us to test a bigger sample (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 251). In this master thesis, we chose to do a web-based survey, which was developed in SurveyXact. The survey was conducted in the period April 4-24, 2022, and the data were obtained from 431 respondents.

3.6.1 Data source

Data sources are information, and differentiation can be made between primary and secondary data sources (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p. 91). We collected primary data, and the most important argument for choosing to collect primary data is that the researcher can tailor the data according to the research question (Ringdal, 2018, p. 118). Since primary data sources were collected for the project, a key advantage is that the data set is more consistent with our research objectives and research question (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p. 102). Regarding data management, we have followed recommendations and guidelines from HVL and the Norwegian Center for Research Data (NSD). Before we started collecting the data, we had our application for the research approved by NSD (see appendix 2). As the research project was approved on the first try, it entailed research legitimacy to carry on with the study. Furthermore, we focused on maintaining a satisfactory research standard according to ethical principles. This enabled us to ensure that privacy was taken care of, that the study did not harm the respondents in any way, and that informed consent was handled.

3.7 Method of Analysis

Analysis of the collected data is carried out to draw meaning from the data set (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p. 157). Using questionnaires with fixed answers can be challenging, as we need to ensure that the questions measure the phenomenon we want to investigate (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 351). However, we can never achieve a perfect operationalization of such complex concepts, and an accurate and critical approach throughout the process is necessary to achieve sufficient validity. In quantitative analysis, there are two important steps used, according to Hair et al. (2020), where descriptive statistics is obtained to describe an overview of the data and to use statistical tests for hypothesis testing. We used two different tools for analyzing the data: SPSS and AMOS 27. In SPSS, we retrieved data for the descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha. The structural equation modeling (SEM) technique was used to analyze the data, through the AMOS 27 software.

For researchers modifying and assessing theoretical models, an increasingly popular tool to use is structural equation modeling (SEM) (Kline, 2011, p. 13). The purpose of a structural equation model is to test multiple interrelated relationships in a single model. According to Hair et al. (2019), interdependent variables in one equation can be the dependent variable in another equation, thus being interrelated. The theoretical model is examined empirically through

structural equation modeling, involving both the measurement model and the structural model (Byrne, 2010, p. 12), making SEM a two-step process. The difference between those models is that the measurement model defines and looks at the relationship between the unobserved and observed variables. If all the questions measure the same phenomenon, we can expect that they will also covariate empirically (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 355). This can be examined through a correlation analysis, where we, to a certain extent, can say that a clear and strong connection between the different questions, show that they measure the same phenomenon. On the other hand, the structural model defines and looks at the relationships only between the unobserved variables (Byrne, 2010, p. 12/13). However, before this is done, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) needs to be conducted.

3.8 The Quality of the Data

In this chapter, we will discuss the validity, reliability, and ethical guidelines, as well as reflections related to the quality of the study. Merriam & Tisdell (2016) claim that ethics, validity, and reliability are important in all research, as researchers want to provide knowledge that is trustworthy and credible. Nevertheless, validity and reliability are key in evaluating the quality of quantitative research (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 213). Producing valid and reliable knowledge in an ethical way is something all research is concerned with, and to ensure this, the survey must be carried out in an ethical manner (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 237). In this study, we have tried to reduce the occurrence of misinterpretations, and have focused on protecting the respondents' privacy. According to Saunders et al. (2019), validity is about whether the measurement used is suitable, how accurately the results are analyzed and the generalizability of the findings. Reliability, on the other hand, is about consistency and the possibility of replication. A valid questionnaire will enable the collection of accurate data that measures the relevant concepts, while the reliability will depend on whether the data has been collected consistently (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 516). The issues of validity and reliability must be correctly solved to reduce measurement errors (Hair et al., 2020, p. 258). Hence, when the observed values obtained in a survey are not the same as the true value, such errors can occur. The study's conceptualization and the way the data were collected, analyzed, and interpreted, and the way the findings are presented, all have a great impact on the validity and reliability of the research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 238).

3.8.1 Validity

"Validity is the extent to which a construct measures what it is supposed to measure" (Hair et al., 2020, p. 264). The validity of the study explains the relevance and how well the empirical data explains the phenomenon (Johannessen et al., 2011, p. 73). In other words, it shows the relevance or how well the survey will be able to provide an answer to the research question. Moreover, validity is based on the relationship between the measured items and the theoretical concept (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104). The internal validity in quantitative studies is related to the measuring device that is used (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 351), which in our case was the questionnaire. External validity is about whether the results from the study are generalizable and can be used in other situations (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 253). These two types of validity will be explained further, before we take a closer look at the content- and construct validity.

3.8.1.1 External validity

The external validity of a study concerns whether the results can be generalized or transferred to other settings, situations, or studies (Johannessen et al., 2011, p. 367). Furthermore, external validity can be affected by time, place, and individuals. According to Saunders et al. (2019), transferability is a parallel criterion for external validity or generalizability. Another researcher is provided the opportunity to consider whether the study can be transferred to other settings due to a complete description of the design, research questions, context, interpretations, and findings (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 217). We have chosen to focus on full transparency and transferability to achieve a higher degree of external validity, and to enable other researchers to transfer our study to other settings.

3.8.1.2 Internal validity

Internal validity is about the questionnaire's ability to measure what you intend to measure (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 517). Moreover, how research findings correspond with reality, determines the study's internal validity (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 242). It is the extent to which the findings of the intervention can statistically prove to lead to an outcome, instead of errors in the research design that are caused by another confounding variable acting simultaneously (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 215). If the study has high internal validity, it has a better starting point for concluding that an influence has, or does not have, an effect. Thus, high validity means that you measure what you want to measure. Low validity means that the variables measure something else than what was intended, and this can lead us to draw incorrect

conclusions (Ringdal, 2018, p. 107). The more respondents we have in the survey, the easier it is to draw valid and correct conclusions based on these. The following approaches show that validity can be assessed using different measurements (Hair et al., 2020, p. 264). These will be presented below.

3.8.1.3 Content validity

The content validity of a scale is a systematic and subjective assessment of whether the scale items measure what they are supposed to measure (Hair et al., 2020, p. 264). High content validity means that the selection of indicators provides reasonable coverage of the most important aspects of the concept, and the criteria that have been set are the researcher's subjective judgment (Ringdal, 2018, p. 105). Human behavior is a complex topic, and there are probably other variables that can explain the dependent variable satisfaction with life, than those included in our conceptual framework.

3.8.1.4 Construct validity

Construct validity is the degree to which a set of measured items illustrate the theoretical latent construct they are intended to measure (Hair et al., 2019, p. 659). Hence, the validity is based on the relationship between items and the theoretical concept (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104). The theoretical rationale behind the measurements obtained must be understood, as it explains why the scale works and how the results can be interpreted (Hair et al., 2020, p. 264). In chapter 4 on analysis and findings, the collected data are checked for sufficient validity requirements and that there is a correlation between the operationalization and the general phenomenon that is being investigated (Johannessen et al., 2011, p. 75). According to Hair et al. (2020), control of convergent validity and discriminant validity must be performed for assessing construct validity.

3.8.2 Reliability

Reliability explains the credibility of the survey, which is related to the accuracy of the data, how it is collected, what data is used, and how the collected data set is processed (Johannessen et al., 2011, p. 44). We have tried to make this quantitative study as explicit as possible, through an extensive literature review and by writing a detailed methodology chapter. Ringdal (2018) claims that high reliability is a prerequisite for high validity, and that reliability depends on the characteristics of the measured indicators. For the survey instrument to be reliable, the results

of repeated use must show consistent scores (Hair et al., 2020, p. 259). The relationship between the variables will be weaker if measures with low reliability are used (Ringdal, 2018, p. 107). For a multi-scale instrument to be reliable, the score for each item that makes up the scale must be correlated (Hair et al., 2020, p. 259). As such, a stronger correlation between items provides higher reliability. If the level of reliability is acceptable, it indicates that the respondents answer the questions in a consistent way (Hair et al., 2020, p. 263).

3.8.2.1 Internal consistency reliability

Testing reliability for assessing measurement scales can be done in three different ways; test-retest reliability, alternative-forms reliability, or internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2020, p. 258). The first one compares the results of repeated measurements on the same respondents using the same measuring device and under comparable conditions (Hair et al., 2020, p. 260). This will indicate whether the study can be replicated if the same results are shown repeatedly (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 250). According to Ringdal (2018), repeated measuring instruments that give the same result are an indicator of high reliability. This technique is challenging, as the respondents may also be affected by how they feel on the day of the test, or something may change between the repeated tests (Hair et al., 2020, p. 260). It is also not reasonable to expect a sample of respondents to answer the same questionnaire twice, over a short period of time (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104). Alternative-forms reliability is another technique that can be used, which will reduce some of these problems (Hair et al., 2020, p. 261). Here, the same respondents are measured at two different times using equivalent alternative constructs, and the correlation between the responses to the two versions of the construct, is the measure of reliability. Since we do not have the opportunity, nor time, to do repeated tests on the same respondents, we have tested the reliability of the survey using internal consistency reliability. By summing up the scale of several items and forming an overall score for the construct, internal consistency reliability can be assessed (Hair et al., 2020, p. 260). There are three types of internal consistency reliability, these are split-half reliability, coefficient alpha (also known as Cronbach's alpha), and composite reliability (Hair et al., 2020, p. 261). In this study, we assessed scale reliability using the latter two.

3.8.3 Privacy and Ethical Considerations

In connection with data collection, ethical issues may arise when the research directly affects other people, and it must therefore be assessed based on a set of ethical standards (Johannessen

et al., 2011, p. 93/94). Thus, ethics is about guidelines, rules, and principles for assessing whether actions are right or wrong. Researchers must think carefully through ethical issues, as social science studies have consequences for society and those who are examined (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 45). As a result, to ensure the credibility of the thesis, we have given priority to ethical issues and individual privacy. According to Johannessen et al. (2011), three factors should be considered; the informants' right to self-determination and autonomy, the researcher's duty to respect the informants' privacy, and the researcher's responsibility to avoid harm. There are also confidentiality requirements, which must guarantee security for implementations to prevent the identification of individuals, or the dissemination of personal data (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 50). We have taken these rules into account by applying to NSD for approval, asking each respondent for consent before participating in the survey, and always complying with and following privacy rules by the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR).

The strengths of methods and models should be pointed out, but the weaknesses of the results of the study should also be conveyed truthfully and accurately (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p. 20). All analysis of data will be a reduction of details and diversity (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 52). Therefore, transparency and explicit choices in the research process are crucial and, to the extent possible, we tried to reproduce results completely and in the right context. According to Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005), the use of the internet for data collection has raised ethical questions regarding the use of information about people without their consent and the violation of privacy. Therefore, confidentiality is especially important, and we have taken this into account by maintaining confidentiality and informing the respondents that they are participating in a web-based survey, the research topic is explained, and the result will be published in our master thesis. Collected data is password protected and all data will be deleted after completion of the research study. The respondents were informed about who the researchers were, and the contact information of the researchers was also provided if the respondents wanted to get in touch or had any questions. They were also informed about the survey topics and what the information would be used for. The respondents had to approve participation in the study before the survey could be carried out. Based on these basic premises, we believe that this study meets research ethic requirements.

4.0 FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings are presented. After conducting the survey and collecting the data, we transferred the data to SPSS. We will present the descriptive statistics relating both to the characteristics of the sample and the descriptive analysis on normal distribution. The Cronbach's alpha for the variables is then measured, before proceeding with a confirmatory factor analysis. Then, Structural Equation Modeling was used to develop a measurement model, to determine the statistical covariation between the variables. This was followed by an analysis of the validity and construct reliability. Finally, the structural model was developed and evaluated, testing the hypotheses to see if the variables were correlated and significant. The findings are presented in different charts and tables.

4.2 Characteristics of the Sample

The analysis is based on empirical data that we obtained through our survey. Data was exported and downloaded as an Excel file from SurveyXact, and then imported into SPSS. In total, the survey reached 559 respondents (N = 559). However, before moving to the process of analyzing, if some of the questions did not meet the standard or were not satisfactory, they were considered discarded. We conducted a missing value analysis in SPSS, before going through the dataset and manually removing those respondents. These respondents had only answered a couple of questions and had missing values. Yet, for respondents with only a few missing values, we chose to replace missing values for the scale items, to keep them in the sample. As a result, the original sample was reduced to 431 valid responses (N = 431). This constituted 77,10% of the entire sample. The descriptive statistics for sample characteristics are presented in table 2, containing the variables gender, age, education, and income. It also shows the total number of respondents and how many percent of the sample that resided within each variable.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of sample characteristics

	Sample (N = 431) respondents	Sample (N = 431) %
Gender		
Female	227	53.8
Male	195	46.2
Other	0	0.0
Age		
Under 20	2	0.5
21-30	130	31.0
31-40	178	42.4
41-50	62	14.8
51-60	27	6.4
61-70	17	4.0
Over 70	4	1.0
Education		
Elementary school	3	0.7
High school	77	18.3
College/University	340	81.0
Income		
Less than kr 250 000	29	6.9
Kr 250 000 – kr 500 000	103	24.6
Kr 500 000 – kr 750 000	227	54.2
Kr 750 000 – kr 1 000 000	42	10.0
More than kr 1 000 000	18	4.3

From table 2, it is evident that we got many respondents in the age span 21-30 and 31-40, which amounted to a total of 73% of the entire sample. The final sample consisted of 53,8% females and 46,2% males, which gave us a slight predominance of female respondents. The sample bias concerning gender may be related to a natural bias distribution in the sample. Social media tracking in Norway for the first quarter of 2022 shows a generally higher proportion of female users, than men (IPSOS, 2022, p. 8). The gender distribution that has a profile on different platforms was as follows for the social media we used; Facebook (86% Women, 78% Men), Messenger (83% Women, 68% Men), and Instagram (74% Women, 60% Men). We also had an indication of sample bias, as most of the respondents in our survey had higher education. In our sample, 81% of the respondents had education at university or college level, while the level on the national basis is 35.3% (Statistisk sentralbyrå, 2021). This can be partly explained by the fact that an increasing number of people are taking higher education in Norway (Statistisk sentralbyrå, 2021), and that we have a large predominance of younger respondents in our survey.

4.3 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive statistics may be used by highlighting a selected number of statistical indicators to give a descriptive overview of the data (Janssens et al., 2008, p. 25). As such, among the different groups of respondents, each variable is studied separately to compare average scores. According to Hair et al. (2020), central tendency measures, dispersion measures, and frequency distribution, are three types of indicators normally used in descriptive statistics. To get a better understanding of a variable, by measuring central tendency, the researcher summarizes the characteristics of the variable in one statistical indicator. The median, mean, and mode, are all measures of central tendency (Hair et al., 2020, p. 343). Accordingly, the median is the distribution's middle value, the mean is the average, and the mode is where the most values occur. According to Janssens et al. (2008), one variable at a time is examined, indicating how the scores of individual respondents are distributed for each of the variables, using frequency distribution.

Before conducting an analysis, it is imperative to check if the data is satisfactory and normally distributed. According to Hair et al (2019), SEM is sensitive to frequency distribution. Therefore, we used SPSS to retrieve the descriptive statistics on normal distribution. The normal distribution is accounted for by looking at the skewness and the kurtosis in the dataset (Hair et al., 2020, p. 348). If there resides a normal distribution, both the skewness and the kurtosis have values of zero. However, if some of the observations are located on either of the sides to the normal distribution, it is fair to say that the data set is skewed. Hair et al. (2020) state that distribution is skewed if the values are smaller than -1 and larger than +1. How the observations reside in connection to the mean, is found using kurtosis, which is a measure of peakedness or flatness of the distribution (Hair et al., 2020, p. 348). This value should not be below -1 or be higher than +1. However, Kline (2011) suggests that the values for skewness should be lower than +/- 3 and the values for skewness should not be over +/- 10, for the sample to be satisfactorily distributed. Table 3 will present the descriptive statistics for the variables in the study. The codings used on the variables are explained in-depth in appendix 3.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics normal distribution

Variable	Items	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation Statistics	Skewness	Kurtosis
CD	SMEAN(s_8)	1.0	5.0	1.977	.8008	.888	1.068
	SMEAN(s_9)	1.0	5.0	2.209	.9391	.876	.626
	SMEAN(s_10)	1.0	5.0	2.578	1.0490	.291	-.970
	SMEAN(s_11)	1.0	5.0	2.469	.9318	.533	-.190
	SMEAN(s_12)	1.0	5.0	3.559	.9551	-.725	.056
	SMEAN(s_13rev)	1.0	5.0	3.334	.9046	-.596	-.052
	SMEAN(s_14rev)	1.0	5.0	2.756	1.0493	-.010	-.896
SI	SMEAN(s_1)	1.0	5.0	3.425	.9945	-.090	-.627
	SMEAN(s_3)	1.0	5.0	3.265	1.0408	.075	-.859
	SMEAN(s_5)	1.0	5.0	3.835	.9515	-.495	-.498
	SMEAN(s_6)	1.0	5.0	2.787	.9306	.367	-.186
	SMEAN(s_7)	1.0	5.0	2.420	.8879	.915	.768
EC	SMEAN(s_15)	2.0	5.0	2.248	.5022	2.023	3.965
	SMEAN(s_16)	1.0	5.0	2.267	.8419	.357	-.158
	SMEAN(s_17)	1.0	5.0	3.218	.9863	-.164	-.488
	SMEAN(s_18)	1.0	5.0	2.483	.9341	.441	−.322
	SMEAN(s_19)	1.0	5.0	2.704	.8814	.261	-.182
	SMEAN(s_20)	1.0	5.0	2.359	.8844	.536	.105
	SMEAN(s_21)	1.0	5.0	1.890	.6826	.924	2.777
FR	SMEAN(s_22rev)	1.0	5.0	2.859	.8841	-.069	-.087
	SMEAN(s_23)	1.0	5.0	3.206	.9997	-.164	-.663
	SMEAN(s_24)	1.0	5.0	3.418	.9745	-.473	-.240

	SMEAN(s_25)	1.0	5.0	3.320	1.0164	-.353	-.471
	SMEAN(s_26)	1.0	5.0	3.605	.9947	-.487	-.250
	SMEAN(s_27)	1.0	5.0	3.895	.9412	-.557	-.235
	SMEAN(s_28rev)	1.0	5.0	3.988	.7590	-1.091	2.182
SC	SMEAN(s_29)	1.0	5.0	1.848	.7615	.888	1.451
	SMEAN(s_30)	1.0	5.0	2.385	.8330	.461	..225
	SMEAN(s_32)	1.0	5.0	2.043	.8582	.686	.338
	SMEAN(s_33)	1.0	5.0	2.320	.8477	.405	.169
	SMEAN(s_34)	1.0	5.0	3.151	.8791	-.249	-.056
	SMEAN(s_35)	1.0	5.0	2.321	.7181	.255	.111
SAC	SMEAN(s_37)	1.0	5.0	2.382	.8865	.517	.041
	SMEAN(s_38)	1.0	5.0	2.472	.8502	.304	-.269
	SMEAN(s_39)	1.0	5.0	2.524	1.0732	.444	-.492
	SMEAN(s_40)	1.0	5.0	2.269	.8294	.799	.751
	SMEAN(s_56)	1.0	5.0	2.271	.9022	.762	.580
SL	SMEAN(s_43)	1.0	5.0	2.307	.8259	.610	.382
	SMEAN(s_44)	1.0	4.0	1.974	.7232	.763	1.074
	SMEAN(s_45)	1.0	5.0	3.057	.8410	.062	.370
	SMEAN(s_46)	1.0	5.0	3.199	.8052	.048	.201
	SMEAN(s_54)	1.0	5.0	3.185	.8199	-.004	.100
	SMEAN(s_55)	1.0	5.0	1.887	.7084	1.009	2.672

Looking at table 3, not all the values for the skewness are within the +/- 1 limit. There are three values that are over the limit, where SMEAN(s_28rev) and SMEAN(s_55) are just over 1, at -1.091 and 1.009. For SMEAN(s_15) the value is 2.023, indicating severe skewness.

Furthermore, when looking at the values for kurtosis, some of the values are quite high. None of the values exceeds the respective limit (+/- 3), except SMEAN(s_15) at 3.965. Thus, an excessive degree of kurtosis for the item was found, indicating that the distribution is too peaked. This means that the sample is not normally distributed for that item and the answers are too concentrated and resides to one side. We will keep all the items for now, moving forward, but are most likely going to cut the mentioned item, as this will be useless in the analysis going further. This is because it has no variance and is thus unable to measure the construct. For the rest of the items the skewness and kurtosis were satisfactory.

4.4 Scales Reliability testing - Cronbach's Alpha

The internal consistency is measured with Cronbach's alpha, a statistical quantity that varies from 0 to 1 (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104). We measure internal reliability by looking at how closely the variables are linked to each other. A high Cronbach's alpha indicates that there is an internal consistency in the concepts used in the survey, and the lowest acceptable requirement for the alpha value is .70 (Ringdal, 2018, p. 104). Thus, the stronger the connection between items, and the more items there are, the better the reliability is measured. The acceptable values for Cronbach's alpha are as follows (Hair et al., 2020, p. 262):

Table 4. Rules of Thumb About Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient Size

Alpha Coefficient Range	Reliability Assessment
< 0.6	Poor
0.6 to < 0.7	Acceptable for exploratory research
0.7 to < 0.8	Good
0.8 to < 0.9	Excellent
0.9 to 0.95	Somewhat high
≥ 0.95	Too high; indicators are redundant

Note: if alpha > 0,95, items should be inspected to ensure they measure different aspects of the concept.

In table 5, the constructs in the conceptual framework are shown with their respective values for the Cronbach's alpha test.

Table 5. Reliability test using Cronbach's Alpha

Constructs	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha (Reliability)
Control of Desires	7	.719
Social Influence	3	.730
Environmental Consciousness	7	.845
Financial Resources	7	.713
Sustainable Consumption	6	.834
Sacrifice	5	.879
Satisfaction with Life	6	.773

Since the values were higher than the recommended level of .70, all the items were reliable. Although, for the construct of social influence, we did end up removing two of the initial items, as Cronbach's alpha with all five items was .599. After removing the two items, although the value was not terrible, it ended up at .730, going from poor to good based on the reliability alpha coefficient range measures in table 5. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha for the scales of environmental consciousness (.845), sustainable consumption (.834), and sacrifice (.879), the internal consistency was excellent. For the rest of the items, social influence (.730), control of desires (.719), financial resources (.713), and satisfaction with life (.773), the internal consistency of the scales came out good.

4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Prespecified relationships of observed and latent variables can be confirmed by using a technique called confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Byrne, 2010, p. 5). This is done to help the researcher see if the different assumed factors measure a certain variable. According to Janssens et al. (2008), an instrument is validated using CFA. Moreover, it also determines how well the measured factor represents a construct. When the construct validity test and the CFA are combined, the quality of the measures can be better understood by the researcher (Hair et al., 2019, p. 677). Thus, a small number of items are identified that can explain each of the variables, which is the overall reason behind conducting a CFA. The path loading will give a good indication for each of the factors of the variable. In this particular study, to determine

factor structure with empirical support, factor structure was specified, and CFA was used, based on a good theoretical review.

A CFA is done to establish if the selected items for each of the constructs in the conceptual framework have the proper loadings. According to Hair et al. (2019), goodness of fit measures is used to assess the overall fit, which includes three types of measures: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures. For the goodness of fit index (GFI), the value should be greater than .90, while for the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) it should be greater than .80. Comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) are two reliability indicators that should be more than .90. The CMIN/DF is measuring the normed chi-square and has a lower limit of 1.0 and an upper limit of 2.0/3.0 or 5.0. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is acceptable if the value is <.080, a good fit at <.050, and a marginal fit are present when the value is <.090.

4.5.1 Control of Desires

We had previously selected seven items to measure control of desires, and with those items, we ran the CFA. What the initial test showed was that three of the items did not have satisfactory loadings over .50, and the model fit was not good. Therefore, we decided to remove those three items, leaving us with a total of four items that did measure the construct satisfactorily. Figure 2 presents a model of the CFA for the construct control of desires.
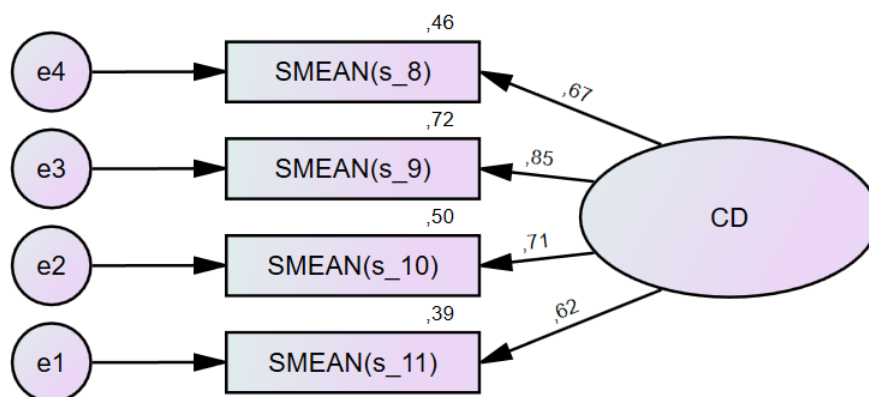
Figure 2. Model for confirmatory factor analysis control of desires

Table 6. Fit indexes for control of desires

Model	RMSEA	GMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	IFI
Chi-Square = 4.577, p = .101							
Default model	.055	2.289	.995	.975	.995	.986	.995

From the second run, with the four items, we saw that the overall fit was very good. The different indexes measured as follows: RMSEA (.055), GMIN/DF (2.289), GFI (.995), AGFI (.975), CFI (.995), TLI (.986), and IFI (.995), which meant that all the values were acceptable within their respective limits.

4.5.2 Social Influence

To measure social influence, a total of five items were selected. However, as mentioned earlier, we removed two of those items due to Cronbach's alpha measure. This, in turn, left us with a total of three items that we used when conducting the CFA. The analysis was done to determine whether the construct was measured satisfactorily, using those specific items. When we ran the CFA for social influence, we saw that the model fit was very good, except for the RMSEA and the GMIN/DF. The values are discussed below.
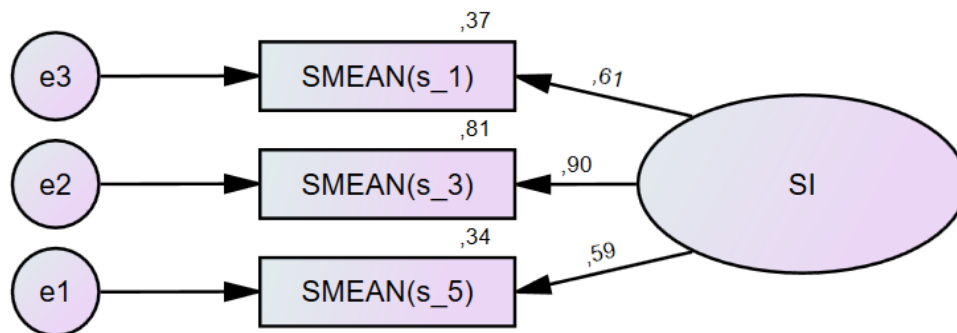
Figure 3. Model for confirmatory factor analysis social influence

Table 7. Fit indexes for social influence

Model	RMSEA	GMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	IFI
Chi-Square = 6.950, p = .008							
Default model	.118	6.950	.989	.937	.980	.940	.980

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Looking at the fit indexes for social influence, as seen in Table 7, the GFI was .989 and the AGFI was .937, making both values over their respective limits. Moreover, the CFI was .980 and the TLI was .940, which shows that they also were over the acceptable limit. However, when looking at the CMIN/DF the value was 6.950, which is over the upper limit of 5.0. The RMSEA had a value of .118, which is also over the marginal fit limit of .090. Both are somewhat high according to their respective limits. Still, due to the other good measures, we did accept this as an overall good fit.

4.5.3 Environmental Consciousness

Environmental consciousness was measured using a total of seven items, based on the previous literature. These seven items were all included when running the CFA, the first time. What the initial test showed, was that all these items did have loadings over the 0.5 limit. However, as seen earlier in the descriptive analysis, the skewness and kurtosis for SMEAN(s_15) were quite elevated. What also became evident when running the first CFA, was that the loading for this item was just above the 0.5 mark. Although the loading for SMEAN(s_15) was .543, and the model fit was good, it was decided to remove this item, based on those two discrepancies, which improved the overall model fit. The model fit indexes for environmental consciousness are presented next.
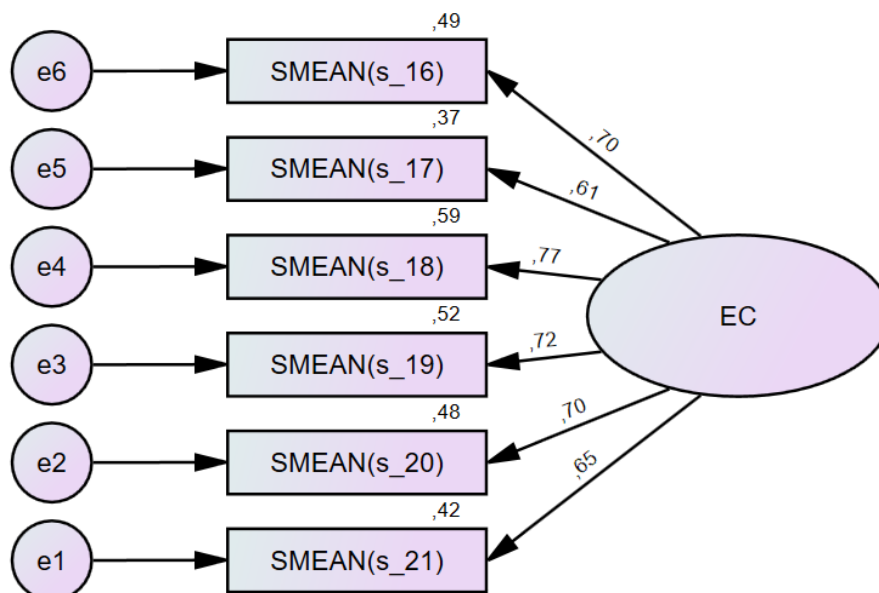
Figure 4. Model for confirmatory factor analysis environmental consciousness

Table 8. Fit indexes for environmental consciousness

Chi-Square = 29.356, p = .001						
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.073	3.262	.978	.949	.977	.962	.978

From table 8, we can see from the CFA and the model fit indexes that we had achieved a good model fit. Starting with the RMSEA with a value of .073, which indicates an acceptable fit. Following, the GMIN/DF with 3.262, then the GFI with a value of .978. Both are within their respective limits. Next, the AGFI and the CFI measured at .949 and .977, which is over the limit of .90. The TLI and the IFI also had great values, 0.962 and .978, respectively.

4.5.4 Level of Financial Resources

When measuring the level of financial resources, we initially selected seven items to measure the construct. However, when running the first CFA test it became apparent that several of the items did not contribute to a good model fit. As such, it was decided to remove those items accordingly, which included a total of four items that showed a factor loading below .50. After running the test once more, the fit indexes improved significantly, and all the loadings now showed more than 0.5. The overall fit model then became satisfactory, as shown in the tables below.
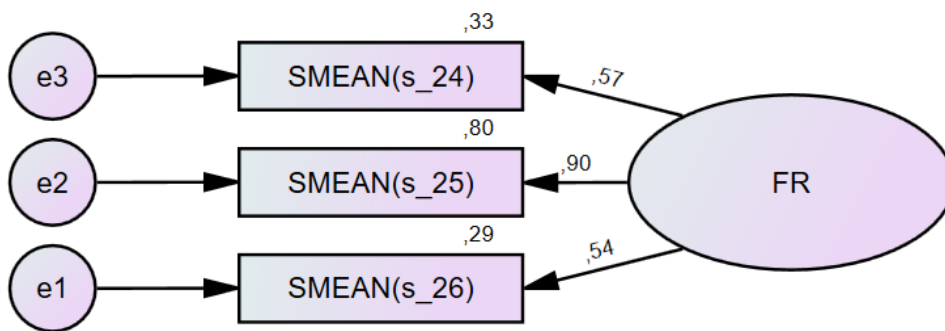
Figure 5. Model for confirmatory factor analysis level of financial resources

Table 9. Fit indexes for level of financial resources

Chi-Square = 1.817, p = .178							
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.044	1.817	.997	.983	.997	.990	.997

The fit indexes for the level of financial resources show an RMSEA of .044, which indicates that it is under the threshold for good fit at <.050. Also, the GMIN/DF was just over the lower limit of 1.0, with a value of 1.817. The rest of the fit indexes were also within their respective limits: GFI (.997), AGFI (.983), CFI (.997), TLI (.990), and IFI (.997).

4.5.5 Sustainable Consumption

Six items were initially chosen to measure the construct of sustainable consumption. We ran the CFA test and found that the model fit was not great. As such, we decided to remove one of the items, to see if that would improve the overall fit. The second run showed a slight improvement had occurred, however, the values in some of the fit indexes were still slightly elevated. After running the analysis again, this time having removed SMEAN(s_29) and SMEAN(s_35), the model fit did improve. Therefore, we decided to remove the additional two items, making the construct sustainable consumption to be measured using three items.
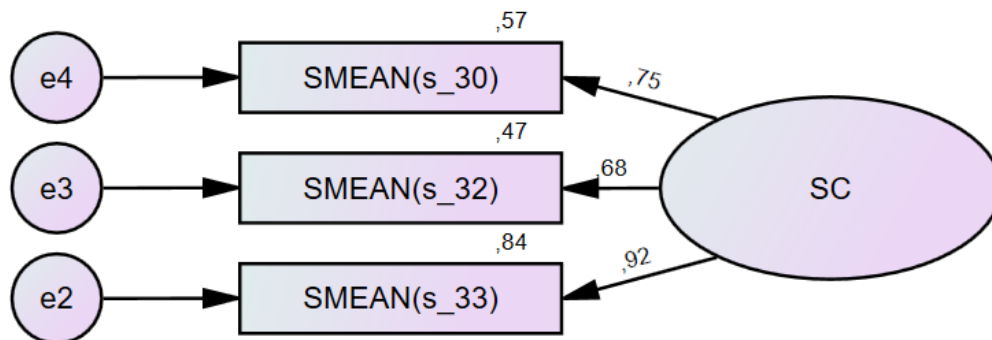
Figure 6. Model for confirmatory factor analysis sustainable consumption

Table 10. Fit indexes for sustainable consumption

Chi-Square = 4.823, p = .028							
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.094	4.823	.993	.956	.992	.977	.992

Here, we see that the RMSEA is slightly elevated at .094, just over the marginal fit limit at <.090. Then, the GMIN/DF gave a value of 4.823, thus making it under the upper limit of 5.0. The rest of the values for the indexes were within their legal limits, starting with GFI and AGFI at .993 and .956. Finally, CFI measured at .992, TLI at .977, and IFI at .992.

4.5.6 Perceived Sacrifice

From previous literature, we selected five items to measure the construct of perceived sacrifice. All the items were tested in the first run of the CFA. What we found after the first test was that the loadings for the items were within the limits (over 0.5), however, the model fit was not satisfactory. For this reason, we decided to remove the item with the lowest standardized regression weights, before running the test once more. This significantly improved the overall fit, where the results are shown in table 11.
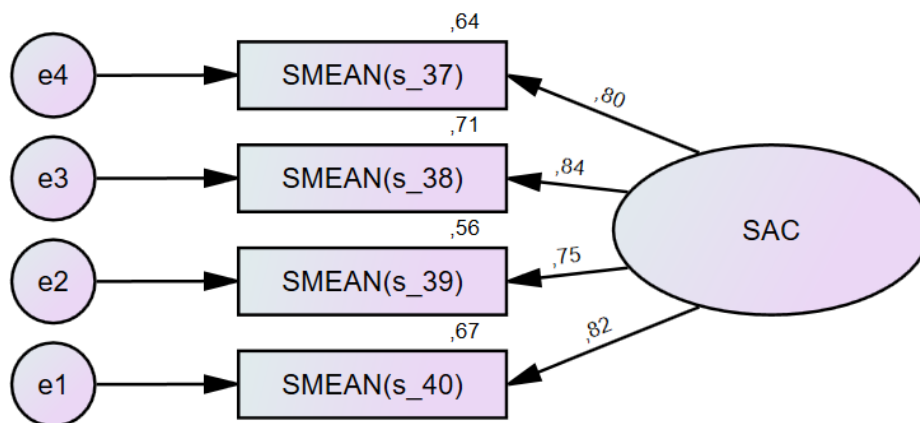
Figure 7. Model for confirmatory factor analysis perceived sacrifice

Table 11. Fit indexes for perceived sacrifice

		Chi-Square = 6.687, p = .035					
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.074	3.344	.992	.960	.995	.984	.995

The fit indexes for perceived sacrifice show an overall good fit. All the values are within their respective limits. RMSEA had a value of .074 which is an acceptable fit (<.080). The GMIN/DF, GFI, and AGFI had the values 3.344, .992, and .960, which are all acceptable. Correspondingly, this also applied for CFI, TLI, and IFI, where the values were .995, .984, and .995.

4.5.7 Satisfaction with Life

The construct satisfaction with life was measured using six items, which were taken from prior studies. The CFA was run the first time with all items, giving a model fit that was quite poor. As a result, we decided to, once again, remove some of the items that showed the lowest loadings, regardless if they were greater than .05. The decision was made to remove two of them, so when the second test was run, the loadings were far above the limit. Although the fit for all the indexes did not turn out perfectly, the RMSEA and the GMIN/DF were slightly elevated, so we decided to run with the model, nonetheless.
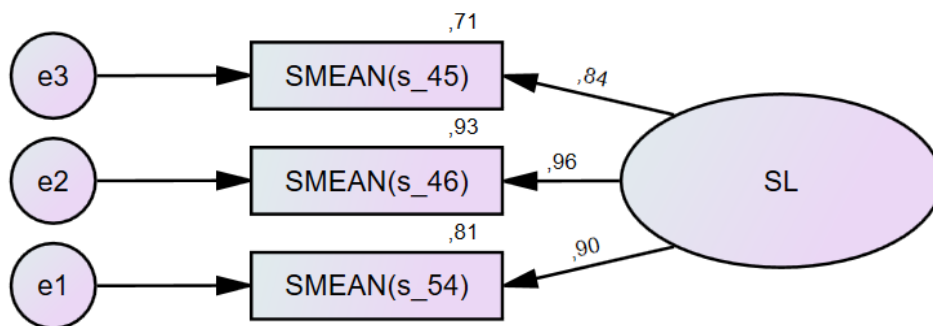
Figure 8. Model for confirmatory factor satisfaction with life

Table 12. Fit indexes for satisfaction with life

Chi-Square = 7.175, p = .007							
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.120	7.175	.989	.935	.994	.982	.994

As shown in Table 12, the overall fit is not perfect, as RMSEA and GMIN/DF are both a little bit above the required limits, at .120 (should be lower than .090) and 7.175 (upper limit 5.0). However, the rest of the indexes all showed good values, GFI (.989), AGFI (.935), CFI (.994), TLI (.982), and IFI (.994). It was therefore decided, as the model fit could not be improved further, to go ahead with the measurement model.

4.6 Measurement Model using all Constructs

The full measurement model was developed using all constructs after each construct had undergone the CFA so that the relationship between the latent variables, which included control of desires, social influence, environmental consciousness, level of financial resources, sustainable consumption, perceived sacrifice, and satisfaction with life, we then proceeded to run the measurement model. This was done so that each variable could be confirmed in the factor structure. The measurement model showed the overall relationship between the variables, meaning that scale items are the estimates of how well they contribute to the relationship, and the covariances are drawn between the variables. To determine whether the model represents the causal relationships, the overall fit for the model must be assessed by the researcher during the evaluation of the measurement model and the structural model. Each of the constructs can be evaluated separately once the overall model has been accepted. According to Hair et al. (2019), this can be done by looking for statistical significance and estimating the composite reliability for each of the measures. Through this, the convergent and discriminant validity of the instruments is examined. Below, the measurement model and the fit indexes are presented.
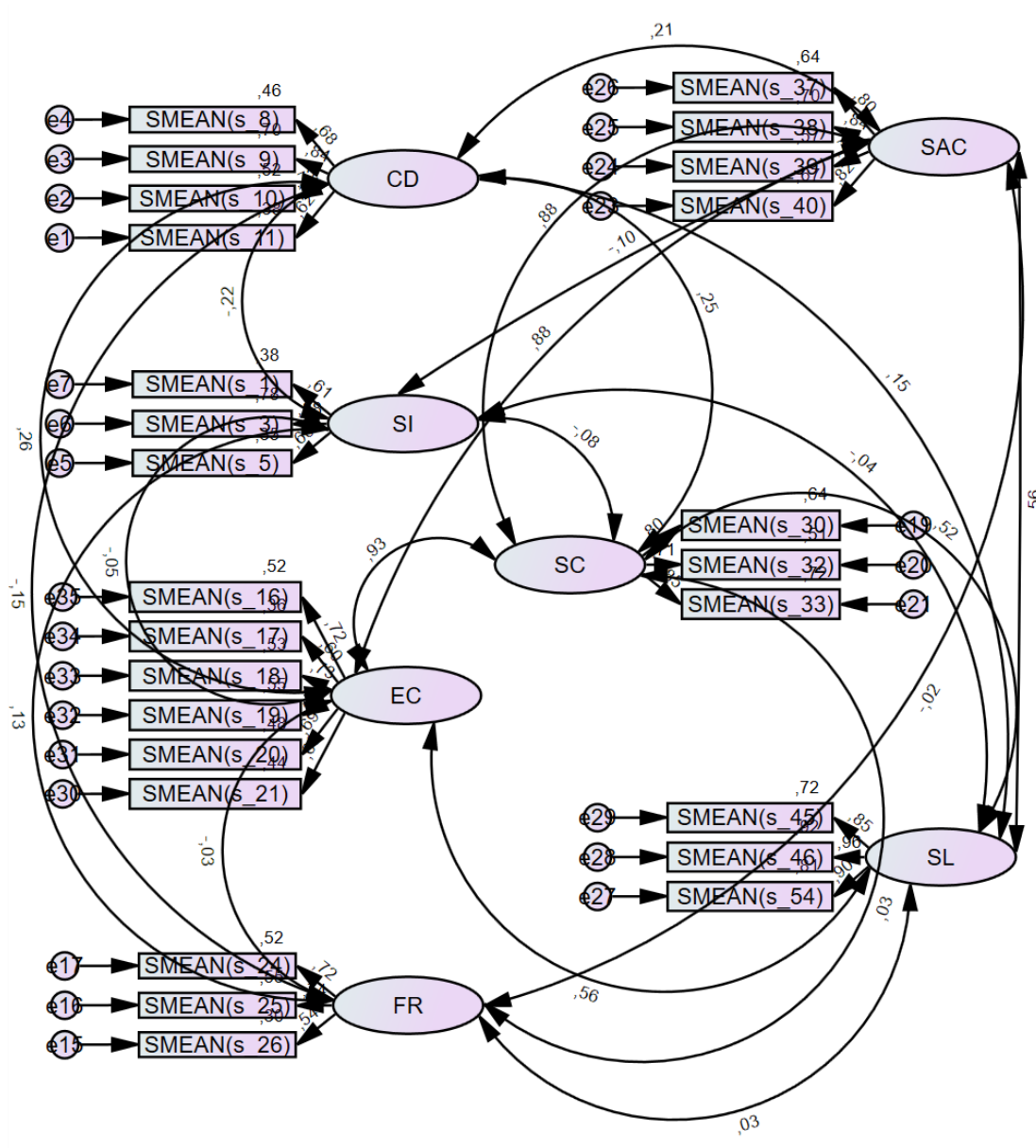
Figure 9. Measurement model with all constructs

Table 13. Fit index for measurement model with all constructs

Chi-Square = 609.194, p = .000							
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.052	2.160	.901	.877	.943	.934	.943

As we can see from the fit indexes, shown in table 13, the measurement model had a very good fit. Starting with the RMSEA at .052, which indicated an acceptable fit (<.080), and a GMIN/DF of 2.160 indicating a good fit. For the index GFI, the value showed .901, just passing the .90

border. The AGFI then showed .877 (should be more than .80) and CFI of .943 (should be more than .90). The TLI and IFI were measured at .934 and .943, where both are over their limits of .90.

4.7 Analyzing Validity

The next step was to examine the validity of the model. Hence, we will measure the construct validity, which is measured through convergent validity and discriminant validity. To ensure content validity, all items that measured each construct were obtained and adapted from previous research. Before we published the survey, we conferred with our supervisor. We also got fellow students, and a selection of respondents, to give feedback on the constructs and items, as the first form of validation and theoretical check (Jacobsen, 2015, p. 354). The more people who agree that the questions seemed appropriate, the more confident we could be that we measured the correct phenomenon. In this thesis, we had a minimum of five questions on each variable to be able to operationalize the various individual variables. This was done to capture and create an understanding.

4.7.1 Convergent validity

It is possible to measure whether two different indicators of a latent variable confirm one another using convergent validity (Janssens et al., 2008, p. 306). Calculating convergent validity can be done in several ways (Kline, 2011, p. 71/72). The size of the factor loading is important, and all factor loadings should, as a minimum, be statistically significant (Hair et al., 2019, p. 675). Thus, high loadings on a single factor show that they converge on a common point, the latent construct. For the critical ratio (CR), all loadings must be over 1.96 to be significant, however, this is referred to as a weaker condition for assessing convergent validity (Janssens et al., 2008, p. 306). The second condition, which is stronger, must correlate greater than .50 between each indicator and the corresponding latent variable. Moreover, a good fit of the model is also needed. This makes all the loadings from appendix 4, above the recommended limit. Furthermore, the CR should be significant, with values >1.96. Both these measures are a way of determining and confirming convergent validity. As we can see, all the values for the critical ratio also exceed that limit. Thus, it is fair to say that they indicate a good convergent validity.

Calculating the average variance extracted (AVE) is, according to Hair et al. (2019), another way of measuring convergent validity. This is a summary measure of convergence, that shows how much of the total variance the latent construct is responsible for, within the measurement items. The AVE is found by dividing the squared multiple correlations by the number of items in each construct (Hair et al., 2019, p. 676). Thus, an AVE of .50 or higher indicates sufficient convergence, while lower numbers suggest that there are more errors left in the items, than the variance held in common with the latent factor, upon which they load. This indicated that more than half of the variances are observed and that the variance in the indicators is explained by the latent construct (Hair et al., 2019, p. 760). In table 14, we have calculated the AVE for the different constructs.

Table 14. Convergent validity

Construct	Items	Standardized regression weights	Squared multiple correlations	Average variance extracted (AVE)
CD	SMEAN(s_8)	.680	.463	.518
	SMEAN(s_9)	.838	.703	
	SMEAN(s_10)	.720	.519	
	SMEAN(s_11)	.620	.385	
	Sum	2.858	2.070	
SI	SMEAN(s_1)	.613	.376	.504
	SMEAN(s_3)	.885	.782	
	SMEAN(s_5)	.595	.354	
	Sum	2.093	1.512	
EC	SMEAN(s_16)	.721	.520	.479
	SMEAN(s_17)	.600	.359	
	SMEAN(S_18)	.731	.534	
	SMEAN(S_19)	.739	.546	
	SMEAN(S_20)	.691	.478	

	SMEAN(S_21)	.660	.436	
	Sum	4.142	2.873	
FR	SMEAN(s_24)	.719	.517	.454
	SMEAN(s_25)	.742	.551	
	SMEAN(s_26)	.543	.295	
	Sum	2.004	1.363	
SC	SMEAN(s_30)	.803	.645	.626
	SMEAN(s_32)	.714	.510	
	SMEAN(s_33)	.851	.724	
	Sum	2.368	1.879	
SAC	SMEAN(s_37)	.803	.644	.647
	SMEAN(s_38)	.839	.704	
	SMEAN(s_39)	.755	.569	
	SMEAN(s_40)	.819	.671	
	Sum	3.216	2.588	
SL	SMEAN(s_45)	.847	.717	.815
	SMEAN(s_46)	.957	.916	
	SMEAN(s_54)	.902	.813	
	Sum	2.706	2.446	

Looking at the values for the AVE calculations in table 14, we see that most of the values are above the limit of .50. However, two of the constructs did generate an AVE lower than .50, where EC had a value of .479 and FR had a value of .454. This means that less than half of the variances are observed in those two constructs. However, we decided to continue, calculating the discriminant validity.

4.7.2 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is how well the construct corresponds to theoretical expectations and shows the extent to which the construct does not correlate with other measures that are different (Hair et al., 2020, p. 265). By measuring the discriminant validity, we saw if the constructs were distinguishable from each other. It is used to provide evidence that the different constructs measure some phenomenon others do not (Hair et al., 2019, p. 676). Further, if a construct is unique and captures some phenomena that other measures are unable to, it has been proven that the construct has a high discriminant validity. According to Janssens et al. (2008), there is a better procedure for verifying discriminant validity. This method of determining discriminant validity was developed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). They argue that discriminant validity can be calculated by comparing the square correlation between two constructs, with the variance drawn between them. The AVE for the corresponding constructs should be higher than the square of the correlation between the two constructs (Janssens et al., 2008, p. 310). Shown in the table below, are the results from the calculations.

Table 15. Discriminant validity measures

Construct	CD	SI	EC	FR	SC	SAC	SL
CD	**.518**						
SI	.047	**.504**					
EC	.067	.003	**.479**				
FR	.021	.017	.001	**.454**			
SC	.063	.006	.857	.001	**.626**		
SAC	.046	.010	.771	.001	.767	**.647**	
SL	.021	.002	.314	.001	.271	.316	**.815**

We see that environmental consciousness (EC) needs a closer look, as both squared correlation between the constructs SC and SAC is greater than the AVE for the construct EC. This means that the discriminant validity is not confirmed for the measure of environmental consciousness. Similarly, the construct perceived sacrifice shows a higher value than the AVE for the construct sustainable consumption (SC). Drawing from this, we see that all those constructs are highly correlated, as seen in the measurement model.

4.7.3 Construct reliability

Construct reliability is measured to determine the internal consistency (Hair et al., 2020, p. 261). Measuring construct reliability is a more accurate approach than the previously measured Cronbach's alpha, and is preferred in SEM. The reliability must be calculated manually for each latent variable (Janssens et al., 2008, p. 307). Since the coefficient alpha is calculated on the basis that each item should be weighted to its individual item reliability, the outcome will be different weights for individual items (Hair et al., 2020, p. 261). According to Janssens et al. (2008), the composite reliability value should be higher than .70, and compared to Cronbach's alpha, the composite reliability is usually a bit higher. Table16, shows the composite construct reliability for each of the constructs.

Table 16. Composite construct reliability

Construct	Items	Standardized regression weight	Squared multiple correlation	Measurement error (1-sqrd mult corr)	Composite construct reliability
CD	SMEAN(s_8)	.680	.463	.537	.809
	SMEAN(s_9)	.838	.703	.297	
	SMEAN(s_10)	.720	.519	.481	
	SMEAN(s_11)	.620	.385	.615	
	Sum	2.858	2.070	1.930	
	Sum square	8.168			
SI	SMEAN(s_1)	.613	.376	.624	.746
	SMEAN(s_3)	.885	.782	.218	
	SMEAN(s_5)	.595	.354	.646	
	Sum	2.093	1.512	1.488	
	Sum square	4.381			
EC	SMEAN(s_16)	.721	.520	.480	.846
	SMEAN(s_17)	.600	.359	.641	
	SMEAN(S_18)	.731	.534	.466	

	SMEAN(S_19)	.739	.546	.454	
	SMEAN(S_20)	.691	.478	.522	
	SMEAN(S_21)	.660	.436	.564	
	Sum	4.142	2.873	3.127	
	Sum square	17.156			
FR	SMEAN(s_24)	.719	.517	.483	.710
	SMEAN(s_25)	.742	.551	.449	
	SMEAN(s_26)	.543	.295	.705	
	Sum	2.004	1.363	1.637	
	Sum square	4.016			
SC	SMEAN(s_30)	.803	.645	.355	.833
	SMEAN(s_32)	.714	.510	.490	
	SMEAN(s_33)	.851	.724	.276	
	Sum	2.368	1.879	1.121	
	Sum square	5.607			
SAC	SMEAN(s_37)	.803	.644	.356	.880
	SMEAN(s_38)	.839	.704	.296	
	SMEAN(s_39)	.755	.569	.431	
	SMEAN(s_40)	.819	.671	.329	
	Sum	3.216	2.588	1.412	
	Sum square	10.343			
SL	SMEAN(s_45)	.847	.717	.283	.929
	SMEAN(s_46)	.957	.916	.084	
	SMEAN(s_54)	.902	.813	.187	
	Sum	2.706	2.446	.554	
	Sum square	7.322			

From the values in table 16, we see that all the constructs measured over the composite reliability limit of .70. This means that there exists internal consistency and that all the items are representing the same latent construct (Hair et al., 2019, p. 676). Since all the constructs had satisfactory composite reliability, we went ahead with running the structural model. This may be done after the measurement model, the convergent and discriminant validities, and the construct reliability all have been established.

4.8 The Structural Model

Depicted as a visual diagram, with a set of structural equations and representing the theory, is the structural model (Hair et al., 2019, p. 607). It is possible to evaluate hypothesized relationships when building a structural model, after the measurement model has been specified. However, the researcher must consider two issues when applying the SEM to test the theoretical model: 1) the relative and overall model fit, and 2) the estimates in the model connected to the direction of the relationship, significance of the relationship, and size. The measurement model is tested first, and all the factors are tested, while the structural model is developed to test the different hypotheses of the study. The model, and overall model fit, are presented next. The estimates for the structural model are presented in appendix 5. All the seven constructs that we used in the measurement model have, to test the hypotheses, been used to develop the structural model. Following are the results.
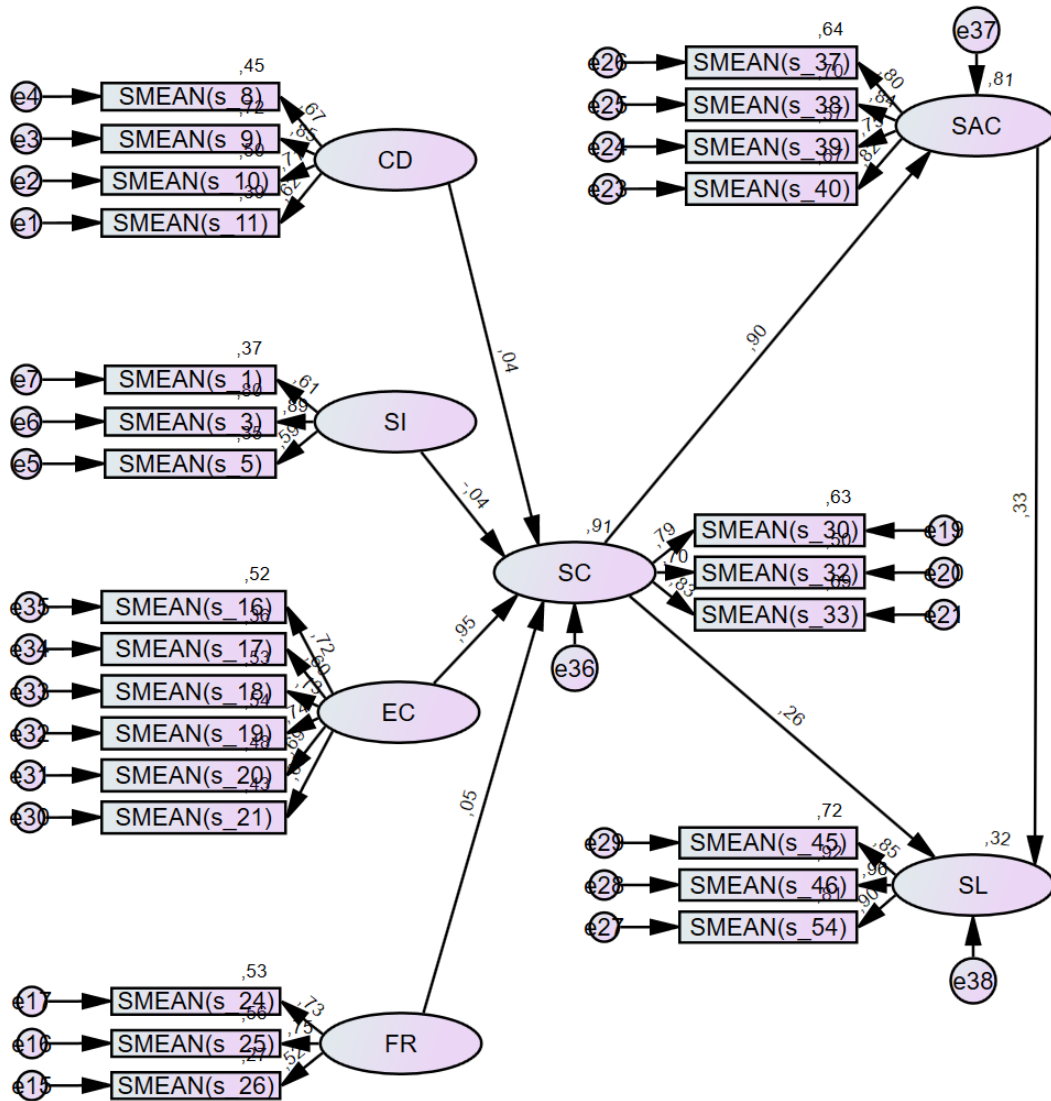
Figure 10. Structural model with all constructs

Table 17. Fit index for structural model with all constructs

Chi-Square = 664.509, p = .000							
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.054	2.245	.892	.872	.936	.929	.936

As we can see from the fit indexes, shown in table 17, the structural model had a good fit. Once again, the GFI should be greater than 0.90, but did not exceed the limit. Still, we were satisfied with the value of .892, as the rest of the fit indexes showed great scores. The RMSEA had a value of .054, which is well within the acceptable limits (<.080). Further, the GMIN/DF had a

value of 2.245, which indicated a good fit. The AGFI then showed .872 (should be more than .80) and CFI of .936 (should be more than .90). Finally, the TLI and IFI were measured at .929 and .936, where both are within their limits of .90.

4.9 Hypotheses testing and status

We now wish to present the result from the proposed hypothesis. The following table will show which relationships were accepted, and which ones that were rejected.

Table 18. Estimates from the structural model including p values

Structural relation	Regression weights	Standard error	Critical ratio	Standardized regression weights	P value	Accepted/ rejected
SC ← CD	.044	.035	1.270	.040	.104	Rejected
SC ← SI	-.047	.034	-1.372	-.043	.170	Rejected
SC ← EC	1.344	.093	14.379	.951	***	**Accepted**
SC ← FR	.044	.029	1.524	.051	.127	Rejected
SAC ← SC	.961	.053	18.233	.902	***	**Accepted**
SL ← SAC	.306	.174	1.755	.256	.079	Rejected
SL ← SC	.368	.165	2.234	.327	.025	Rejected

What we see from table 18, is that only two of the seven relationships were significant. The relationship between environmental consciousness (EC) and sustainable consumption (SC), and sustainable consumption (SC) and perceived sacrifice (SAC) were positively significant. This means that only hypotheses 3 and 5 were supported in this study. However, these results will be explained in more detail in chapter 5 discussion and comparison.

4.10 Alternative model

As an ending to the chapter, we would like to present an alternative structural model. This model does not include the direct relationship between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life, but rather uses perceived sacrifice as a mediator. What this revealed, was that the relationship between perceived sacrifice and satisfaction with life became significant, when this structural model was drawn. However, it still explained only 33% of the satisfaction with life,

whereas the rest was explained outside the model. Nevertheless, we decided to show this change between the two constructs. The structural model is presented in figure 11.
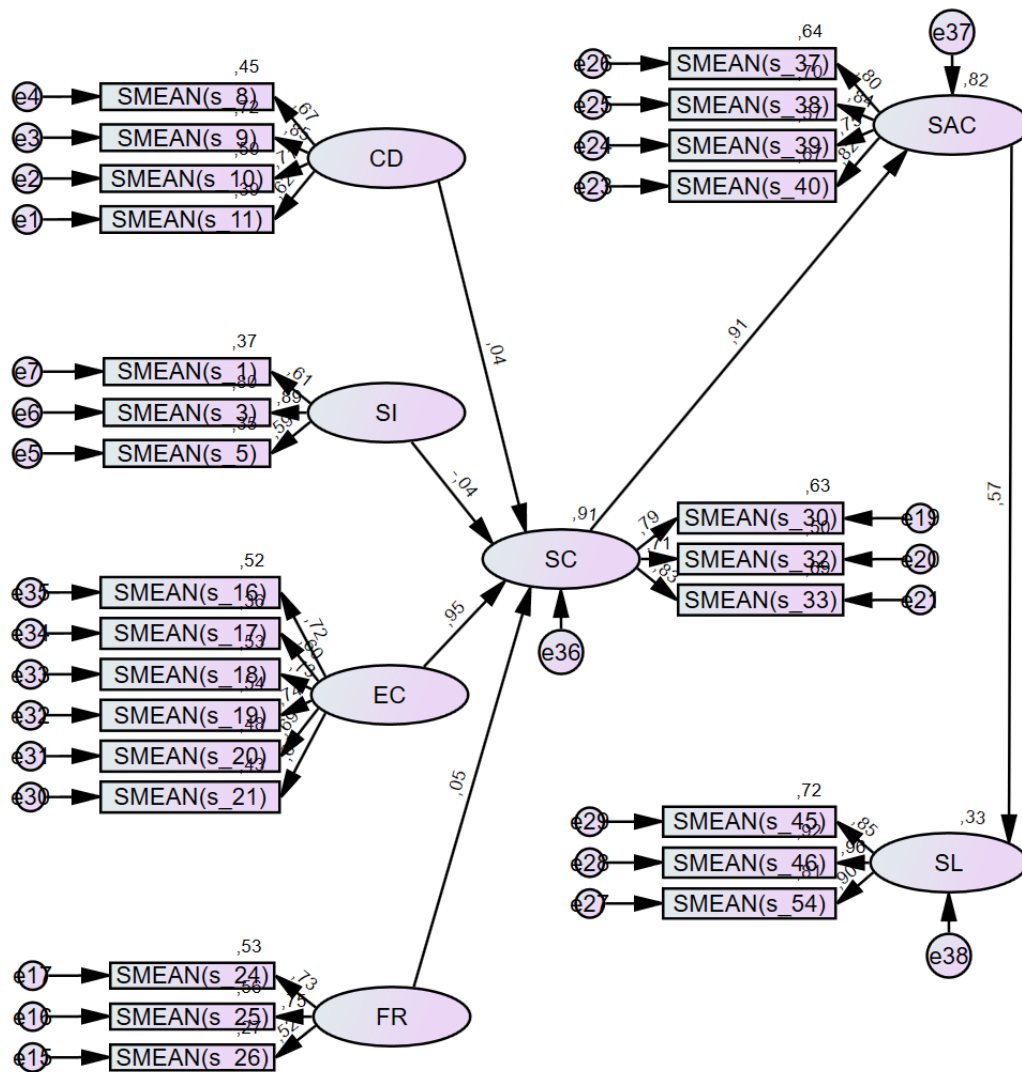
Figure 11. Alternative structural model with all constructs

Table 19. Fit index for alternative structural model with all constructs

		Chi-Square = 667.452, p = .000					
Model	**RMSEA**	**GMIN/DF**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**CFI**	**TLI**	**IFI**
Default model	.054	2.247	.891	.871	.935	.929	.936

What the fit indexes for the alternative model showed, was a good model fit. Starting with the RMSEA with .054 and a GMIN/DF at 2.247. Then, the GFI and the AGFI measured at .891 and .871. For the rest of the values CFI, TLI, and IFI, the indexes showed .935, .929, and .936.

All indexes were within their respective limits, except GFI, which were slightly under the .90 limit. Table 20 will present the estimates for the structural relations, and show what relationships were accepted and rejected in the alternative model.

Table 20. Estimates from the alternative structural model including p values

Structural relation	Regression weights	Standard error	Critical ratio	Standardized regression weights	P value	Accepted/ rejected
SC ← CD	.044	.035	1.256	.040	.209	Rejected
SC ← SI	-.048	.035	-1.382	-.044	.167	Rejected
SC ← EC	1.340	.093	14.385	.950	***	**Accepted**
SC ← FR	.044	.029	1.489	.050	.136	Rejected
SAC ← SC	.964	.053	18.316	.907	***	**Accepted**
SL ← SAC	.646	'.054	11.910	.573	***	**Accepted**

What we see from table 20, is that three of the six relationships were significant. The relationship between environmental consciousness (EC) and sustainable consumption (SC), sustainable consumption (SC) and perceived sacrifice (SAC), and perceived sacrifice (SAC) and satisfaction with life (SL), were all positively significant. This result shows that when the connection between sustainable consumption is removed, satisfaction with life is significantly affected by perceived sacrifice. We will discuss these findings further, and more in-depth, in chapter 5.

5.0 DISCUSSION AND COMPARISON

5.1 Introduction

In the following chapter, the main findings are discussed and compared with the literature presented previously in chapter 2. The purpose of this study was to contribute an insight into the variables control of desires, social influence, environmental consciousness, and level of financial resources, and how they relate to sustainable consumption. Further, we wanted to investigate how this, in turn, affects satisfaction with life. The variable perceived sacrifice was also incorporated into the framework, as a mediator between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life. We will look at each of the hypotheses, and the research question, linking it to our findings and comparing it with the relevant literature. Then, other relevant findings are discussed, before the professional and practical implications are presented.

5.2 Discussion of hypotheses

Following is a discussion of the hypotheses from each chapter, as introduced in chapter 2. We will elaborate on each of the variables and discuss the findings. Also, we will see if the hypotheses are supported or not for each hypothesized relationship.

5.2.1 Control of Desires

The variable control of desires was constructed and operationalized based on previous literature. What was incorporated in this term was self-control and materialism, which were chosen because of how they both related to consumption and satisfaction with life. Materialism and sustainability have been found to have a negative relationship (Tascioglu et al., 2017, p. 296). Furthermore, self-control has major consequences for individual and societal well-being, and is a crucial aspect of consumer behavior (Bearden & Haws, 2011, p. 181). Our understanding was that this could be a variable that could help explain how sustainable consumption, which might, in turn, be an antecedent to satisfaction with life. This led us to proposing the following hypothesis:

H1: Successful control of desires will positively influence sustainable consumer behavior.

In this study, there was no significant relationship found between successful control of desires and sustainable consumption, thus hypothesis 1 was not supported. As mentioned, in this context, control of desires was studied as a construct composed of self-control and materialism. Materialism, in relation to consumption desires, should be associated with discomfort, guilt, and pleasure, correlating negatively to control (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2015, p. 225). It was our understanding that being able to control consumption desires would help reduce consumption and focus on a non-materialistic way of living, thus making it easier to engage in sustainable consumption. Moreover, as materialism in previous research has been confirmed as an unhappy condition (Hellevik, 2003; Myers, 2000; Richins & Dawson, 1992; Van Boven, 2005), we suggested that reducing consumption through successful control of desires, would increase satisfaction with life.

When individuals have freedom and control over their own lives, they value their lives more positively and are more satisfied (Iyer & Muncy, 2016, p. 62). Thus, it would be expected that control of desires might be positively linked to satisfaction with life. What became apparent was that no significant relationship could be found between control of desires and sustainable consumption. This might be explained by the fact that consumption goals should also be seen in connection to consumption desires (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2015, p. 221). The most important aspect is the one of commitment, where the commitment to desires appears much more powerful than to goals. Changing consumption routines driven by habit and convenience can be challenging (Ozdamar Ertekin & Atik, 2015, p. 63). It may be possible that the sample was highly materialistic and did not place much emphasis on successful control of desires, in relation to consumption. Some of the respondents might be motivated and influenced by acquiring materialistic possessions. Moreover, temptations, consumption dreams, goals, and passion are all concepts that are linked to the concept of consumption desire; however, it is not uniquely confined to one of them (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2015, p. 221). Thus, it is feasible that we have not incorporated all the relevant aspects in this context, making the construct control of desires unable to explain sustainable consumption.

5.2.2 Social Influence

For the variable social influence, we, through the literature review, got a sense that it entailed and consisted of other concepts, like success, social recognition, and status motivation. We connected those facets of social influence mostly to how an individual wants to be seen and get acceptance from others. Sustainable behavior can be affected by social influence through social

desirability (White et al., 2019, p. 25). The operationalization consisted of drawing on what we believed would be relevant, in connection to social influence, and we stated the following hypothesis:

H2: Social influence will motivate individuals to engage in sustainable consumption.

Although the literature showed compelling evidence that social influence did play a key role towards sustainable consumption, and consumption in general, the relationship as hypothesized was not supported. We found this result to be quite surprising. Research has shown that knowledge concerning sustainable products is significantly greater when the products are introduced by family and friends, as opposed to through sources such as advertising campaigns (Salazar et. al., 2013, p. 177). Therefore, learning from others appears to be an important factor for consumers when it comes to choosing sustainable products. Numerous consumers may lack information about sustainable products, as these are not only alternatives to conventional products, but have different characteristics and provide other benefits (Lazaric et al., 2019, p. 1343). Thus, a recommendation from friends and family is an important factor for individuals to purchase sustainable products. One explanation for these results might be because of the items that were used to measure social influence. Some discrepancies emerged in the analysis, as they were taken from different literature, not being compatible with each other. This meant that we had to remove two of the items that specifically asked about peer reference and influence from friends and family. These questions were also the ones linked to sustainable consumption. The three remaining items, asked more in terms of how an individual wants to be perceived by others. This referred more to an individual's meaning and attitude, rather than how they are influenced by others. In our opinion, this, unfortunately, weakened this construct in relation to sustainable consumption, and we believe it is an essential component in explaining the non-significant relationship between social influence and sustainable consumption.

5.2.3 Environmental Consciousness

Environmental consciousness was used as a variable to help explain sustainable consumption behvior. Through the review of relevant literature, we found compelling evidence that this was a determinant for sustainability. Schlegelmilch et al. (1996) suggested that purchasing decisions could be influenced by consumers' environmental awareness, and the most consistent predictor of sustainable purchasing behavior was attitudes. An individual's environmental consciousness affects whether he or she chooses sustainable consumption over traditional alternatives. This

further supports Berger and Corbin (1992) claim, that environmental awareness is increasing, and that concern for the environment has become a permanent feature of consumers' decision-making. Thus, we developed the hypothesis as shown below:

H3: Environmental consciousness is positively related to sustainable consumption.

For hypothesis 3, we found empirical support. The relationship was significant, and the constructs environmental consciousness and sustainable consumption were highly correlated. As we have seen from the literature, many confirm and support these findings. Higher levels of environmental awareness cause sustainable purchasing decisions, and the degree of environmental consciousness is therefore a better measure of purchasing habits, than personality variables or socio-demographic variables (Schlegelmilch et al., 1996, p. 37). Sustainable product purchases are largely influenced by environmental considerations (Blend & van Ravensway, 1999, p. 1076). Moreover, increased consciousness and consideration for the environment can lead to a change in buying patterns, through purchasing more sustainable products or by reducing the general level of consumption (Kilbourne & Pickett, 2008, p. 891). Crucial to environmentally conscious consumer behavior is the individual's belief that consumers can contribute to solving environmental problems (Roberts, 1996, p. 217). Accordingly, consumers are increasingly concerned that the products they consume harm the environment (Lazaric et al., 2019, p. 1338). Concern for environmental problems, related to overconsumption, is about concerns related to societal attitudes to consumption that are out of the consumer's control (Iyer & Muncy, 2016, p. 62). This will probably lead to negative emotions and evaluation of life, as the problem becomes too big for one person to make a significant impact. Nevertheless, environmental consciousness is a determinant of sustainable consumption.

5.2.4 Level of Financial Resources

When conducting the literature review, it became evident to us that level of financial resources might be a variable of importance. Based on this, we chose to include it in our conceptual framework, as an antecedent of sustainable consumption. Also, literature connecting the level of financial resources to satisfaction with life, strengthened its position as a variable of interest. Dissatisfaction is likely to occur when there is a gap between a consumer's financial resources and desired objects (Wang & Wallendorf, 2006, p. 503). Thus, we were able to see that the level of financial resources might be linked to both aspects, consumption and satisfaction with life.

It was therefore our understanding that it could have a direct influence on sustainable consumption, which in turn would affect satisfaction with life. For that reason, we constructed the following hypothesis:

H4: Level of financial resources will positively influence sustainable consumption.

We found no evidence that the level of financial resources, in this context, significantly influenced sustainable consumption. Although the relationship was positive, it was quite modest. Again, we believe that the items in question might have something to do with this effect. They might not have been adequately appropriate to use, in this context, and may have been asked in a way that answered something else. Furthermore, when it came to the link between level of financial resources and satisfaction with life, the previous literature was somewhat ambiguous. As rising expectations cause a reduction in happiness, increasing prosperity will enhance it only temporarily (Zidanšek, 2007, p. 892). Although much of the literature shows that long-term happiness does not derive from increasingly higher levels of financial resources, we believe that it, through our consumption, played an important role. Dunn et al. (2008) suggest that satisfaction can be increased by spending money on other people, rather than spending money on ourselves. Furthermore, by buying sustainable products at higher prices, consumers can spend money on the welfare of others, and achieve more satisfaction in life (Nassani et al., 2013, p. 1002). It is probable that people respond to a mixture of emotions, and the reason for this might be that the items had an ambiguous interpretation. In the survey, we asked questions about perceived affordance, rather than actual level of financial resources. In addition, some individuals might have a lot of money, albeit they do not spend much, while others with a little less might spend more. We should also mention that we struggled a bit with this construct during the analysis, meaning that the items selected did not work well together. This makes measuring the level of financial resources to some extent quite difficult and is probably the reason for the poor results in this study.

5.2.5 Sustainable Consumption

Sustainable consumption was a variable that was chosen as a mediator between the antecedents, and the dependent variable satisfaction with life. As such, we believed that all the previously discussed variables would be relevant in explaining sustainable consumption. From the literature, we also found much evidence to support that satisfaction with life would be positively affected by sustainability. Several studies claim that sustainable consumption is positively

related to consumer well-being (Brown & Kasser, 2005), happiness (Kasser & Sheldon, 2002), and satisfaction with life (Boujbel & d'Astous, 2012; Welsch & Kühling, 2010; Xiao & Li, 2011). Furthermore, standard of living assessed in material terms is, among other things, linked to emotional reactions related to material assets and income, and will have a direct impact on life satisfaction (Sirgy et al., 2012, p. 83). Hence, we suggested the following hypothesis:

H5: Sustainable consumption will significantly influence satisfaction with life.

Hypothesis 5 was not supported, meaning we did not detect a significant relationship between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life. Through the hypothesis, we suggested that reducing consumption, or changing to more sustainable alternatives, would both help the environment, and in turn cause life satisfaction. Excessive consumption is considered harmful, both to personal well-being and to society (Sheth et al., 2010, p. 28). Several studies have pointed out the consequences of excessive consumption and expressed concern about the negative impact on quality of life and environmental sustainability (Kilbourne & Pickett, 2008; Kilbourne et al., 1997). It, therefore, became our understanding that these two concepts would somehow be related. Xiao and Li (2011) claim that purchases that cause less environmental pollution and waste of resources, can contribute to increased life satisfaction and welfare at the individual and societal level. Furthermore, by switching to sustainable consumption, we can increase the quality of life, as more responsible decisions give us more joy in life (Nassani et al., 2013, p. 1001). Hence, significant amounts of literature claim that sustainable consumption increases satisfaction with life.

There must be a change in consumer behavior towards moderation, for consumption to be sustainable (Sheth et al., 2010, p. 29/30). Care and awareness drive this shift, which also makes it gratifying for the consumer. A plausible explanation for the results obtained in this study, might therefore be that sustainable consumption is not seen as pleasurable, but rather a necessity. Peterson et al. (2005) interestingly found that, although contributing to satisfaction with life, pleasure was a less important factor in the pursuit of happiness. Hence, having a full and meaningful life was seen as a more important means to this effect. Crucial to collective well-being is caring for the community and the common good, which in turn is closely linked to individual well-being. In this context, sustainable consumption accounted for 32% of the construct satisfaction with life. Consumers who intend to, and report actual purchases of sustainable products, have a higher degree of life satisfaction than other consumers (Xiao & Li,

2011, p. 327). However, in this study, we did not find empirical support for this effect. No significant relationship was evident between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life.

5.2.6 Perceived Sacrifice

Based on existing literature, it became obvious that perceived sacrifice, as a mediator between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life, could be a relevant variable to include in the conceptual framework. The review of the literature revealed that sustainable consumption might be linked to a sense of sacrifice. Individuals in developed countries have a high degree of knowledge and recognize environmental threats and are ready to make personal sacrifices for the environment (Haller & Hadler, 2008, p. 296). As such, we decided to incorporate this into the framework, trying to answer how all these factors might be connected and be antecedents of each other. For the variable perceived sacrifice, we developed two different hypotheses, which both are explained and discussed separately below. The first hypothesis was:

H6: Sustainable consumption will significantly influence perceived sacrifice.

We found a significant relationship between sustainable consumption and perceived sacrifice, thus supporting hypothesis 6. According to Brown and Kasser (2005), a sustainable lifestyle that involves a reduction in consumption, will be experienced as a loss of welfare and seen as a sacrifice. However, individuals' willingness to purchase sustainable options may be positively affected by environmental considerations, even though it costs more, or requires additional effort (Chwialkowska & Flicinska-Turkiewicz, 2021, p. 213). According to Xiao and Li (2011), buying more expensive, but sustainable products, indicates a willingness to sacrifice personal interests for collective benefits. As such, individuals sacrifice a short-term loss for long-term gains. Initiating personal gain can motivate people to sustainable consumption, and curb the perceived sacrifice associated with this behavior (Chwialkowska & Flicinska-Turkiewicz, 2021, p. 205). In isolation, perceived sacrifice consists of a negative and a positive part. We acknowledge the fact that it is a component of a negative sacrifice present, even though the outcome is positive. As such, we believe that being a sustainable consumer does not need to require a negative sacrifice but can contribute to a sense that something good is done for others. This might, to a certain extent, explain the empirical findings.

H7: Perceived sacrifice will positively influence satisfaction with life.

Perceived sacrifice was also hypothesized to positively influence satisfaction with life. This relationship did not yield empirical support. Based on the literature, we proposed that perceived sacrifice would influence satisfaction with life. According to Yue et al., (2020), the benefits of sustainable products, and the fact that they meet current needs such as social, functional, and environmental demands, can offset the losses and increase the pleasure of consumption. As there is a relatively strong link between sustainability and satisfaction with life, it is not necessary to sacrifice the happiness of the current generation for the sustainable development of the generations to come (Zidanšek, 2007, p. 896). Consumer decisions related to more sustainable behavior are often seen as a sacrifice because the consumer must give up something, for instance pay a higher price or spend extra time and effort (Chwialkowska & Flicinska-Turkiewicz, 2021, p. 209). Accordingly, this can explain why the relationship between perceived sacrifice and satisfaction with life was not significant. On the other hand, research has shown that a non-materialistic way of living (Pandelaere, 2016) can contribute, and may cause a feeling of altruism. Binder and Blankenberg (2017) suggested that this, through reduced consumption, can counteract the negative well-being, enhancing individual subjective well-being.

Interestingly, we saw from the findings that the relationship between sustainable consumption to perceived sacrifice was supported, but that perceived sacrifice to satisfaction with life, was not. This showed us that going from sustainable consumption to satisfaction with life, through the construct of perceived sacrifice, both contained a positive and a negative aspect. However, when removing the direct connection between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life, both relationships became significant. This was an important and relevant finding.

5.3 Answer to Research Question

The purpose of this thesis was to identify the antecedents of sustainable consumption and contribute insight into how satisfaction with life was affected. Based on this purpose, the following research question was suggested:

"What antecedents lead to sustainable consumption, and does it affect our satisfaction with life?"

The literature review was carried out with this specific research question in mind. Thus, the theoretical framework in this thesis would help explain and predict the phenomenon, or contexts, related to antecedents affecting sustainable consumption, perceived sacrifice, and satisfaction with life. Drawing from previous literature, a conceptual framework was developed as our contribution. Several hypotheses were constructed and tested during the empirical part of the study. The positive correlation between environmental consciousness and sustainable consumption emphasizes the importance of guilt and awareness for the environment, leading to a more sustainable behavior and that this, in turn, affects a sense of sacrifice. As consumers acquire more knowledge and consciousness, and more sustainable alternatives are introduced, the level of perceived sacrifice may decrease. Gains from specific behaviors can motivate individuals to more sustainable consumption, by balancing the losses that result from perceived sacrifice related to that behavior.

5.4 Other relevant findings

A relevant finding that came because of this study, was the fact that no significant relationship could be found between either sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life, nor perceived sacrifice and satisfaction with life. When looking at the relationship between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life, although it did explain some of the satisfaction with life in our model, the larger part was explained by other elements not included in the conceptual framework. Furthermore, the relationship between perceived sacrifice and satisfaction were also not statistically significant. Sustainable consumption must lead to a sense of sacrifice to affect satisfaction with life. This proposes that lasting satisfaction can be achieved by carrying out activities that sacrifice for others (Nassani et al., 2013, p. 1000). To try improving this result, we developed an alternative structural model, using only perceived sacrifice as a mediator between sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life. In this model, there was no direct connection between the latter two. What this revealed, was the relationship between perceived sacrifice and satisfaction with life became statistically significant. Purchasing sustainable products is more expensive and consumers are thus sacrificing their resources to improve the environment and society (Nassani et al., 2013, p. 1001). This can confirm that the feeling of sacrifice promotes the feeling of self-recognition among consumers, and thus increases satisfaction with life.

An additional finding was that most of the respondents in our survey were in the age group 20-40 years. This suggests that this age group found this topic of particular interest. Also, the channels used to reach respondents may have contributed to this effect. This might make the result more generalizable for this age group but is disadvantageous in that it might not be generalizable to the rest of the population. On the other hand, high involvement in a certain topic can also, as previously mentioned in chapter 3, lead to sample bias. Further, the sample bias can also be explained by the choice of channels to recruit respondents. We got feedback from several of the respondents in this age span that this was a highly relevant and interesting topic to investigate, supporting the idea that they found this more appealing than other age groups. Older respondents also expressed that they saw themselves as too old and did not have enough knowledge to be able to partake in this survey. This may also explain some of the reasons why we had so few respondents in the age group over 50 years. According to Sheldon and Kasser (2001), older people are more satisfied with their life. On the other hand, younger people are more likely to feel self-divided or guilty and have more superficial values when it comes to money and approval from others (Sheldon & Kasser, 2001, p. 499). Moreover, it became apparent that many of the respondents got a reality check and had to think about this matter in a new way. In retrospect, it would also have been preferable to put the age group we called "under 20 years", together with the age group 21-30 years, as we intended to reach adult respondents only.

5.5 Theoretical and Managerial Implications

The purpose of this study was to investigate how sustainable consumption affected satisfaction with life. We tried to identify the antecedents leading to sustainable consumption. The framework was conceptualized based on previous literature. The thesis provided several contributions, where the most important was the conceptual framework and the relationships that turned out to be significant. Those relationships included environmental consciousness to sustainable consumption, and sustainable consumption to perceived sacrifice. In addition, our alternative model did produce a statistically significant relationship between perceived sacrifice and satisfaction with life. This was only after sustainable consumption was not directly related to satisfaction with life. Accordingly, this gave empirical findings that perceived sacrifice may be an important antecedent of satisfaction with life.

Further, our findings may provide relevant information to different instances in society. For policymakers, the results provide a mechanism to influence preferred consumer actions. To promote certain individual behaviors or reduce the incidence of others, policymakers must focus on raising individuals' awareness and knowledge of environmental issues. Environmentally conscious individuals can act by taking part in more sustainable consumption, without having to feel like it is a major personal sacrifice. Furthermore, consumer satisfaction is very important to the success of marketers, as they try to increase sustainable consumption.

6.0 CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

In the last chapter, we try to summarize the study and the important contributions. The research question will be answered, before the limitations of the study are elaborated. At the end of this chapter, we will provide suggestions for future research.

6.2 Results and Findings

This thesis aimed at providing insight into the antecedents of sustainable consumption and how this affects satisfaction with life. Today's overconsumption can in no way be related to sustainable consumption, but rather shows an ignorance of the environment, which in turn affects both the individual's, as well as the society's, well-being. On the other hand, environmental consciousness reflects care for nature, oneself, and society. As such, sustainable consumption will be in line with individual values, yet this change will not feel like a major sacrifice and may result in an improvement of the individuals' well-being. The first and foremost contribution of this study was the development of the conceptual framework. By developing the framework, we tried to uncover the most important antecedents in this context, and how these all were related to each other. It was believed that control of desires, social influence, environmental consciousness, and level of financial resources could lead to sustainable consumption. Furthermore, it was assumed that engaging in sustainable consumption would lead to a sense of sacrifice which would increase or decrease satisfaction with life. We also believed that sustainable consumption would have a direct effect on satisfaction with life.

Through this study, the results have shown that some of the hypotheses were supported, while others were not. The most important finding deriving from this research is the detection of a statistically significant relationship between environmental consciousness and sustainable consumption. Interestingly, there is also a significant relationship between sustainable consumption and perceived sacrifice. These two relationships were both supported. However, what is not supported is the relationships between control of desires, social influence, and level of financial resources, to sustainable consumption. When it came to the overall purpose of the research, and answering the research question that was developed, we found that satisfaction

with life did not depend much on sustainable consumption. In our research, it could only explain about 32% of the satisfaction with life, which revealed that 68% was explained by variables not included in the model. To this extent, we would like to discuss the limitations of the study and our suggestions for future research. This includes thoughts regarding what could have been done to improve our research, and what could be interesting to investigate going forward.

6.3 Limitations of the study

The first limitation of our study is that we applied a convenience sample, instead of using a random sample, which would have been the most favorable. Respondents were recruited through various social media channels, where the survey had been published. Therefore, in this study, we chose a web-based approach for data collection. No direct reminder was sent, due to a lack of complete overview, and availability of the respondents. We posted a reminder on Facebook after approximately 2.5 weeks, but we could not guarantee that all relevant respondents received this information. Thus, it might have been useful to send a reminder directly in Messenger, but because we asked family and friends to share the survey, we would still not have been able to reach all the relevant respondents. It would also have been a very complicated and time-consuming process, and we did not want to oblige family and friends to republish the survey. Moreover, digital surveys are limited to responders with Internet access, which may exclude certain age groups. Consumers aged seventy or older are less likely to respond to online surveys. We realize that other methods of collecting data would have been more appropriate to reach this age group.

Our assessment of the external validity is that the transferability must be interpreted with caution. This is due to the selection strategy, and that no random selection was used. Moreover, respondents dropping out can be a weakness in this type of quantitative study. Although we had made the survey available to many individuals, there were several who did not choose to participate. Some respondents had started the survey but did not complete it, and these answers were not included in the analysis and results. We do not know whether these differ from those who responded, but since we got so many responses, we can assume that the dropout did not lead to any bias. Furthermore, error of response can also be a weakness, which occurs when individuals deliberately do not respond honestly to put themselves in a better light. Sustainable consumption is a topic that receives a lot of attention. Hence, we should assume that some respondents answered dishonestly, even though the survey is confidential, and the respondents

did not get anything in return for answering dishonestly. Furthermore, self-reporting has clear limitations, although they often represent good approaches to actual intentions and behaviors. Less desirable intentions and behaviors are usually underreported, while socially desirable behaviors are overreported. This potential bias must be acknowledged but given the size of the sample in this study, such a bias is not considered a severe problem. However, since we have used a non-probability sample, the conclusions we can draw from the sample are limited. Any inferences from this, would at best, be considered tentative regarding demographic differences in subpopulation characteristics. Phenomenon we have found in our study are likely to exist, however, considering all this, we were not able to generalize the findings to the overall population.

Another issue is that the items used to measure the constructs in the conceptual framework were chosen from different studies. Selecting items from several studies can create multidimensionality of constructs. The items were chosen from different studies, to match the context, and cover the various aspects of the concepts, to ensure the content validity of the constructs. Ideally, we should have conducted a pilot study to calculate the validity and reliability of the measurement scales, before conducting the survey. Due to lack of time, and because we had carried out an extensive literature review where we retrieved all items for the questionnaire, we chose not to conduct a pilot study. However, the reliability test showed a sufficient score, and confirmatory factor analysis was then performed for individual assessment of the constructs' structure. Several of the items did not have the required loadings of .50, and they were removed to improve the model fit. However, some items that scored over .50 were also removed, as it further improved the model.

6.4 Future Research

Based on the findings of our study and the mentioned research limitations, we would like to propose several suggestions for future research. In this study, we have proposed a conceptual framework that has been tested in Norway. We suggest that further testing of the model's applicability should be carried out in different contexts and geographical locations. It could also have been interesting to replicate the study using different samples and age groups. Further, it would be interesting to conduct a study where the sample is obtained from two different sources, for example from a website that is mainly visited by environmentally conscious individuals and another from a website that the average person visits, for comparison. It could also be

interesting to look at social influence in other settings, as we have mainly concentrated on an individuals' closest circle, consisting of family, friends, colleagues, and peers. Social influence from the larger society, and influencers, would be an interesting angle to examine further. Moreover, by adjusting the model and correcting some of the limitations of this study, the proposed framework can be used in future research.

There is a need for greater clarity about which factors, other than environmental consciousness, that might explain sustainable consumption. In our model, environmental consciousness explained almost all the 91% of sustainable consumption. Our suggestion is, therefore, that exploring the environmental knowledge of consumers in more detail, in this context, would be a logical extension of this study. Those who have more knowledge about the environment and buy sustainable products, behave differently than those who have a lower level of knowledge and do not buy sustainable products regularly (Salazar et al., 2013, p. 177). Individuals will, by increasing knowledge and awareness of the environment, associate their behavior with environmental advantages and thereby strengthen new social norms (Cowan & Kinley, 2014, p. 497). To increase environmental knowledge and awareness among consumers, the role of government authorities may be crucial for promoting sustainable consumption practices. There is also a need for more conceptual development on the "perceived sacrifice" mediator construct. Although the results for this construct support the hypothesis, more work is required to identify the consequences and conceptual significance of this variable.

An additional possible shortcoming of our study is the use of self-reporting and that it does not distinguish actual sustainable behavior from perceived behavior. The desire to live in a more sustainable and socially desirable way can influence individuals to optimistically respond to behavioral questions, thus making these questions about self-image. For future research, the separation of questions about self-evaluation and perceived lifestyle, and questions about the frequency of actual sustainable consumption could be useful and provide further insight into the relationship between the antecedents of sustainable consumption, and satisfaction with life. What's more, in this study, we conducted a cross-sectional study which is a snapshot at a given time of the respondents' attitudes and behavior. Conducting a longitudinal study would give the researcher insight into how relationships between variables change over time. Further, the shortcomings of conducting a quantitative and, in this case, a descripto-explanatory design, is that you do not get to the root cause of why things are the way they are. It is not possible to go in-depth or get the background information for the answers, and through this we lose an

understanding of why things happen. As such, it would certainly be interesting to conduct qualitative research, to get a better understanding of the antecedents of sustainable consumption, and why it affects satisfaction with life.

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8.0 APPENDIX

Appendix 1. Questionnaire

Høgskulen
på Vestlandet

Språk

○ English
● Norsk

FORRIGE   NESTE   1%

Spørreundersøkelse bærekraftig konsum og tilfredshet med livet

Dette er en spørreundersøkelse i forbindelse med vår masteroppgave ved Høgskulen på Vestlandet. I oppgaven skal vi undersøke hvordan bærekraftig konsum påvirker tilfredshet med livet. Denne undersøkelsen er konfidensiell. Det vil ta deg ca. 10 minutter å svare. Tusen takk for at du tar deg tid til å delta!

Ved spørsmål angående spørreskjema kan du ta kontakt med oss:
Silje Fossberg: 238855@stud.hvl.no
Miriam Høyheim Lægreid: 080898@stud.hvl.no

Med vennlig hilsen
Miriam og Silje

FORRIGE   NESTE   5%

Jeg gir med dette samtykke til å delta i undersøkelsen

● Ja

FORRIGE   NESTE   6%

Sosial påvirkning

FORRIGE   NESTE   8%

Jeg liker å kjøpe nye produkter som får folk til å se på meg som unik og annerledes

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE   10%

Jeg liker å eie produkter som imponerer folk

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE   11%

Min omgangskrets kan få meg til å føle meg mer akseptert når jeg kjøper produkter de liker

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE   13%

Mange mennesker som er viktige for meg legger vekt på bærekraftig forbruk

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

15%

Forslag fra familie, venner eller sosiale medier øker min informasjon om bærekraftige produkter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

16%

Selvkontroll

FORRIGE   NESTE

18%

Jeg er ansvarlig og bevisst på hva jeg bruker penger på

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

20%

Jeg vurderer mine behov nøye før jeg tar en kjøpsavgjørelse

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

21%

Jeg kjøper vanligvis bare de produktene jeg trenger

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

23%

Jeg vurderer konsekvensene av min kjøpsavgjørelse før jeg tar en beslutning

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

25%

Tingene jeg eier er ikke så viktige for meg

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

26%

Å kjøpe produkter gir meg mye glede og får meg til å føle meg bra

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

28%

Materielle eiendeler er viktige fordi de er en stor bidragsyter til min lykke

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

30%

Miljøbevissthet

FORRIGE   NESTE

31%

Jeg ser på meg selv som en person som bryr seg om miljøet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

33%

Jeg ville følt meg tilfreds med meg selv dersom jeg kjøpte miljøvennlige produkter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

35%
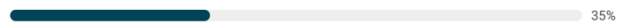
Når du tenker på følelsene dine for miljøet, hvor sterkt føler du på skyld?

Svært mye	Mye	Verken eller	Lite	Svært Lite
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

36%
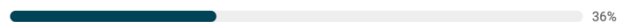
Jeg ville følt meg skyldig dersom jeg kjøpte produkter som skadet miljøet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

38%
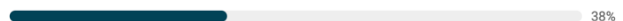
Når jeg kjøper produkter, så forsøker jeg alltid å kjøpe de produktene som er minst skadelig for folk og miljøet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

40%
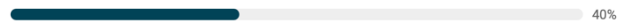
Dersom jeg forstår den potensielle skaden produkter kan ha på miljøet, så kjøper jeg ikke disse produktene

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

41%
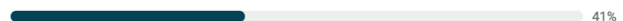
Jeg har et ansvar for å gjøre verden til et bedre sted

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○
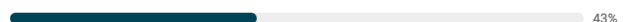
FORRIGE   NESTE

43%

Finansielle ressurser

45%

Jeg velger det miljøvennlige alternativet uavhengig av pris

Alltid	Ofte	Av og til	Sjelden	Aldri
○	○	○	○	○

46%

Jeg kjøper vanligvis det billigste produktet uavhengig av miljøpåvirkning

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

48%

Jeg har ikke god nok økonomi til å kjøpe miljøvennlige produkter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

50%
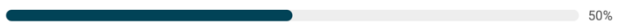
Det plager meg at jeg ikke har råd til de produktene jeg ønsker å kjøpe

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

51%
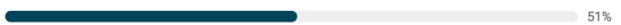
Jeg ville vært lykkeligere dersom jeg hadde råd til flere produkter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

53%

Å eie dyre produkter gjør meg lykkelig

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

55%

Jeg er generelt fornøyd med min levestandard og finansielle situasjon

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

56%

Bærekraftig konsum

58%

Verden ville vært et bedre sted dersom vi alle konsumerte mindre

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

60%

Vi burde være mer interessert i å redde planeten i stede for å fokusere på økonomisk vekst gjennom forbruk

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

61%

Min intensjon er å kjøpe miljøvennlige produkter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

63%

Hvor sannsynlig er det at du vil gjøre en innsats for å unngå produkter som fører til miljømessige ødeleggelser neste gang du handler?

Svært sannsynlig	Sannsynlig	Verken eller	Usannsynlig	Svært usannsynlig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

65%

Jeg kjøper ikke produkter som skader miljøet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

66%

Jeg kjøper bærekraftige produkter når det er mulig

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

68%

Oppofring

FORRIGE   NESTE

70%

Jeg har ofte tenkt at dersom vi kunne klart oss med litt mindre så ville det vært mer igjen til fremtidige generasjoner

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

71%

Jeg er villig til å la være å kjøpe produkter fra bedrifter som er skyldig i miljøforurensing, selv om det vil være ubeleilig for meg personlig

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE

73%

Jeg er villig til å gjøre personlige oppofringer for å minske forurensing, selv om resultatet ikke virker å være betydelig

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

75%

Jeg er villig til å redusere konsumet mitt for å beskytte miljøet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

76%

Nordmenn må akseptere en lavere levestandard for å redusere klimaavtrykket

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

78%

Tilfredshet med livet

FORRIGE NESTE

80%

På mange måter er livet mitt nær idealet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

81%

Jeg har alle de eiendelene jeg trenger for å nyte livet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

83%

Når jeg engasjerer meg i bærekraftig konsum så føler jeg meg mer tilfreds enn når jeg deltar i de fleste andre aktiviteter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

85%

Når jeg engasjerer meg i bærekraftig konsum så kjenner jeg meg lykkeligere enn jeg gjør i de fleste andre aktiviteter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

86%

Jeg føler meg mer komplett og oppfylt når jeg engasjerer meg i bærekraftig konsum enn jeg gjør i de fleste andre aktiviteter

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE NESTE

88%

Jeg er tilfreds med livet

Svært enig	Enig	Verken eller	Uenig	Svært uenig
○	○	○	○	○

FORRIGE   NESTE   90%

Demografi

FORRIGE   NESTE   91%

Kjønn

○ Kvinne

○ Mann

○ Annet

FORRIGE   NESTE   93%

Alder

○ Under 20

○ 21-30

○ 31-40

○ 41-50

○ 51-60

○ 61-70

○ Over 70

FORRIGE   NESTE   95%

Utdanning

○ Grunnskole

○ Vidergående skole

○ Høyre utdanning

FORRIGE   NESTE   96%

Inntekt

○ Under kr 250 000

○ kr 350 000 - kr 500 000

○ kr 500 000 - kr 750 000

○ kr 750 000 - kr 1 000 000

○ Mer enn kr 1 000 000

FORRIGE   NESTE   98%

Tusen takk for at du tok deg tid til å svare på denne undersøkelsen!

FORRIGE   AVSLUTT   100%

Appendix 2. Approval from the Norwegian Center for Research Data (NSD)

Meldeskjema / Sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life / Vurdering

Vurdering

Referansenummer
842451

Prosjekttittel
Sustainable consumption and satisfaction with life

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon
Høgskulen på Vestlandet / Fakultet for økonomi og samfunnsvitskap / Institutt for økonomi og administrasjon

Prosjektperiode
03.01.2022 – 20.05.2022

Meldeskjema 🔗

Dato	**Type**
11.03.2022	Standard

Kommentar
OM VURDERINGEN
Personverntjenester har en avtale med institusjonen du forsker eller studerer ved. Denne avtalen innebærer at vi skal gi deg råd slik at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet ditt er lovlig etter personvernregelverket.

Personverntjenester har nå vurdert den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at behandlingen er lovlig, hvis den gjennomføres slik den er beskrevet i meldeskjemaet med dialog og vedlegg.

DEL PROSJEKTET MED PROSJEKTANSVARLIG
For studenter er det obligatorisk å dele prosjektet med prosjektansvarlig (veileder). Del ved å trykke på knappen «Del prosjekt» i menylinjen øverst i meldeskjemaet. Prosjektansvarlig bes akseptere invitasjonen innen en uke. Om invitasjonen utløper, må han/hun inviteres på nytt.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET
Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til den datoen som er oppgitt i meldeskjemaet.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG
Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake.

Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER
Personverntjenester vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:
• lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
• formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke behandles til nye, uforenlige formål
• dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
• lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

100

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER
Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), og dataportabilitet (art. 20).

Personverntjenester vurderer at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER
Personverntjenester legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).

Ved bruk av databehandler (spørreskjemaleverandør, skylagring eller videosamtale) må behandlingen oppfylle kravene til bruk av databehandler, jf. art 28 og 29. Bruk leverandører som din institusjon har avtale med.

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og/eller rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER
Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til oss ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:
https://www.nsd.no/personverntjenester/fylle-ut-meldeskjema-for-personopplysninger/melde-endringer-i-meldeskjema

Du må vente på svar fra oss før endringen gjennomføres.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET
Personverntjenester vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Appendix 3. Item coding and variable overview

Variable	Items	Question	Source
CD	SMEAN(s_8)	Jeg er ansvarlig og bevisst på hva jeg bruker	Bearden & Haws (2011); Haws et al. (2011)
	SMEAN(s_9)	Jeg vurderer mine behov nøye før jeg tar en kjøpsavgjørelse	Bearden & Haws (2011); Haws et al. (2011)
	SMEAN(s_10)	Jeg kjøper vanligvis bare de produktene jeg trenger	Richins & Dawson (1992); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008)
	SMEAN(s_11)	Jeg vurderer konsekvensene av min kjøpsavgjørelse før jeg tar en beslutning	Bearden & Haws (2011); Haws et al. (2011)
	SMEAN(s_12)	Tingene jeg eier er ikke så viktige for meg	Richins & Dawson (1992); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008)
	SMEAN(s_13rev)	Å kjøpe produkter gir meg mye glede og får meg til å føle meg bra	Richins & Dawson (1992); Iyer & Muncy (2016)
	SMEAN(s_14rev)	Materielle eiendeler er viktige fordi de er en stor bidragsyter til min lykke	Tascioglu et al. (2017); Sirgy et al. (2012)
SI	SMEAN(s_1)	Jeg nyter å eie produkter som får folk til å se på meg som unik og annerledes	Tascioglu et al. (2017); Sirgy et al. (2012)
	SMEAN(s_3)	Jeg liker å eie produkter som imponerer folk	Richins & Dawson (1992)
	SMEAN(s_5)	Min omgangskrets kan få meg til å føle meg godkjent når jeg kjøper produkter de liker	Goodrich & Mangleburg (2010)
	SMEAN(s_6)	Mange mennesker som er viktige for meg legger vekt på bærekraftig forbruk	Hansmann et al. (2020)
	SMEAN(s_7)	Forslag fra familie, venner eller sosiale medier øker min informasjon om bærekraftig produkter	Kumar & Yadav (2021)
EC	SMEAN(s_15)	Jeg ser på meg selv som noen som bryr seg om miljøet	Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker (2016)
	SMEAN(s_16)	Jeg ville føle meg tilfreds med meg selv dersom jeg kjøpte miljøvennlige produkter	Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker (2016)
	SMEAN(s_17)	Når du tenker på følelsene dine for miljøet, hvor sterkt føler du på skyld?	Antonetti & Maklan (2014)
	SMEAN(s_18)	Jeg ville føle meg skyldig dersom jeg kjøpte produkter som skadet miljøet	Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker (2016); Berger & Corbin (1992)
	SMEAN(s_19)	Når jeg kjøpe produkter så forsøker jeg alltid å kjøpe de produktene som er minst skadelig for folk og miljøet	Haws et al. (2014); Roberts (1996)
	SMEAN(s_20)	Dersom jeg forstår den potensielle skaden på miljøet som noen produkter kan ha, så kjøper jeg ikke disse produktene	Haws et al. (2014)
	SMEAN(s_21)	Jeg har et ansvar for å gjøre verden til et bedre sted	Peterson et al. (2005)
FR	SMEAN(s_22rev)	Jeg velger det miljøvennlige alternativet uavhengig av pris	Schlegelmilch et al. (1996)
	SMEAN(s_23)	Jeg kjøper vanligvis det billigste produktet uavhengig av miljøpåvirkning	Haws et al. (2014); Roberts (1996)
	SMEAN(s_24)	Jeg har ikke god nok økonomi til å kjøpe miljøvennlige produkter	Hansmann et al. (2020)
	SMEAN(s_25)	Det plager meg at jeg ikke har råd til de produktene jeg ønsker å kjøpe	Richins & Dawson (1992)
	SMEAN(s_26)	Jeg ville vært lykkeligere dersom jeg hadde råd til flere produkter	Richins & Dawson (1992); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008)
	SMEAN(s_27)	Å ha dyre eiendeler gjør meg lykkelig	Tascioglu et al. (2017); Sirgy et al. (2012)

	SMEAN(s_28rev)	Jeg er generelt fornøyd med min levestandard og finansielle situasjon	Iyer & Muncy (2016); Iris & Barrett (1972)
SC	SMEAN(s_29)	Verden ville vært et bedre sted, dersom vi alle konsumerte mindre	Iyer & Muncy (2016)
	SMEAN(s_32)	Vi burde være mer interessert i å redde planeten i stede for å fokusere på økonomisk vekst gjennom forbruk	Iyer & Muncy (2016)
	SMEAN(s_33)	Min intensjon er å kjøpe miljøvennlige produkter	Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker (2016); Kumar & Yadav (2021)
	SMEAN(s_30)	Jeg kjøper ikke produkter som skader miljøet	Roberts (1996)
	SMEAN(s_34)	Hvor sannsynlig er det at du vil gjøre en innsats for å unngå produkter som fører til miljømessige ødeleggelser neste gang du handler?	Antonetti & Maklan (2014)
	SMEAN(s_35)	Jeg kjøper bærekraftig produkt når det er mulig	Kilbourne & Pickett (2008); Barbarossa & De Pelsmacker (2016)
SAC	SMEAN(s_56)	Jeg har ofte tenkt at dersom vi kunne klart oss med litt mindre så ville det vært mer igjen til framtidige generasjoner	Haws et al. (2014)
	SMEAN(s_37)	Jeg er villig til å la være å kjøpe produkter fra bedrifter som er skyldig i miljøforurensing, selv om det ville være ubeleilig for meg personlig	Haws et al. (2014)
	SMEAN(s_38)	Jeg er villig til å gjøre personlige oppofringer for å minske forurensing, selv om resultatet ikke virker å være betydelig	Haws et al. (2014)
	SMEAN(s_40)	Jeg er villig til å redusere konsumet mitt for å beskytte miljøet	Kilbourne & Pickett (2008)
	SMEAN(s_39)	Nordmenn må akseptere en lavere levestandard for å redusere klimaavtrykket	Berger & Corbin (1992)
SL	SMEAN(s_43)	På mange måter er livet mitt nær idealet	Iyer & Muncy (2016); Diener et al. (1985)
	SMEAN(s_44)	Jeg har alle de eiendelene jeg trenger for å nyte livet	Richins & Dawson (1992); Kilbourne & Pickett (2008)
	SMEAN(s_45)	Når jeg engasjerer meg i bærekraftig konsum så føler jeg meg mer tilfreds enn når jeg deltar i de fleste andre aktiviteter	Waterman et al. (2006)
	SMEAN(s_46)	Når jeg engasjerer meg i bærekraftig konsum så kjenner jeg meg lykkeligere enn jeg gjør i de fleste andre aktiviteter	Waterman et al. (2006)
	SMEAN(s_54)	Jeg føler meg mer komplett eller oppfylt når jeg deltar i bærekraftig konsum enn jeg gjør i de fleste andre aktiviteter	Waterman et al. (2006)
	SMEAN(s_55)	Jeg er tilfreds med livet	Peterson et al. (2005); Iyer & Muncy (2016); Diener et al. (1985)

Appendix 4. Estimated values for the measurement model

Structural relation	Regression weights	Standard error	Critical ratio	Standardized regression weights	Squared multiple correlation
SMEAN(s_8) ← CD	.942	.085	11.039	.680	.463
SMEAN(s_9) ← CD	1.362	.111	12.231	.838	.703
SMEAN(s_10) ← CD	1.307	.114	11.476	.720	.519
SMEAN(s_11) ← CD	1.000			.620	.385
SMEAN(s_1) ← SI	1.000			.613	.376
SMEAN(s_3) ← SI	1.563	.150	10.423	.885	.782
SMEAN(s_5) ← SI	1.000			.595	.354
SMEAN(s_16) ← EC	1.347	.102	13.156	.721	.520
SMEAN(s_17) ← EC	1.312	.117	11.202	.600	.359
SMEAN(s_18) ← EC	1.514	.114	13.297	.731	.534
SMEAN(s_19) ← EC	1.446	.108	13.430	.739	.546
SMEAN(s_20) ← EC	1.356	.107	12.687	.691	.478
SMEAN(s_21) ← EC	1.000			.660	.436
SMEAN(s_24) ← FR	1.000			.719	.517
SMEAN(s_25) ← FR	1.000			.742	.551
SMEAN(s_26) ← FR	.741	.077	9.688	.543	.295
SMEAN(s_30) ← SC	1.000			.803	.645
SMEAN(s_32) ← SC	1.000			.714	.510
SMEAN(s_33) ← SC	1.117	.050	22.218	.851	.724
SMEAN(s_37) ← SAC	1.047	.055	18.952	.803	.644
SMEAN(s_38) ← SAC	1.050	.052	20.163	.839	.704
SMEAN(s_39) ← SAC	1.192	.068	17.419	.755	.569
SMEAN(s_40) ← SAC	1.000			.819	.671
SMEAN(s_45) ← SL	.935	.032	28.781	.847	.717
SMEAN(s_46) ← SL	1.000			.957	.916
SMEAN(s_54) ← SL	1.000			.902	.813

Appendix 5. Estimated values for the structural model

Structural relation	Regression weights	Standard error	Critical ratio	Standardized regression weights	Squared multiple correlation
SMEAN(s_8) ← CD	.930	.084	11.021	.674	.455
SMEAN(s_9) ← CD	1.374	.112	12.229	.849	.721
SMEAN(s_10) ← CD	1.283	.112	11.421	.710	.504
SMEAN(s_11) ← CD	1.000			.623	.388
SMEAN(s_1) ← SI	1.000			.608	.370
SMEAN(s_3) ← SI	1.596	-164	9.752	.894	.800
SMEAN(s_5) ← SI	1.000			.589	.347
SMEAN(s_16) ← EC	1.354	.103	13.113	.723	.522
SMEAN(s_17) ← EC	1.315	.118	11.154	.599	.359
SMEAN(s_18) ← EC	1.518	.115	13.227	.730	.533
SMEAN(s_19) ← EC	1.447	.108	13.338	.738	.544
SMEAN(s_20) ← EC	1.365	.108	12.662	.693	.481
SMEAN(s_21) ← EC	1.000			.658	.433
SMEAN(s_24) ← FR	1.000			.728	.530
SMEAN(s_25) ← FR	1.000			.747	.557
SMEAN(s_26) ← FR	.707	.075	9.377	.523	.273
SMEAN(s_30) ← SC	1.000			.794	.630
SMEAN(s_32) ← SC	1.000			.704	.496
SMEAN(s_33) ← SC	1.102	.051	21.401	.830	.688
SMEAN(s_37) ← SAC	1.046	.056	18.846	.801	.642
SMEAN(s_38) ← SAC	1.047	.052	19.983	.836	.699
SMEAN(s_39) ← SAC	1.192	.069	17.348	.754	.568
SMEAN(s_40) ← SAC	1.000			.819	.670
SMEAN(s_45) ← SL	.934	.033	28.682	.846	.715
SMEAN(s_46) ← SL	1.000			.958	.917
SMEAN(s_54) ← SL	1.000			.901	.812