

Exploring the predictors of sustainable fast fashion purchase
intention: An investigation using the theory of planned behaviour
among South African consumers

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A research project submitted to the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

Date: 07 March 2023

Abstract

The fashion industry is widely recognised for its detrimental environmental effect, primarily from high carbon emissions, textile waste, and pollution. The rise of fast fashion, which involves the mass production of trendy and affordable clothing, has significantly fueled the industry's growth but has also had severe environmental repercussions. Despite these negative consequences, many consumers continue to buy fashion products without considering the environmental impact of their choices. This study explores the factors influencing consumers' intentions to purchase sustainable fast fashion. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was utilised to guide the research, which outlines the predictors of consumer behaviour, including attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (PBC).

The study utilised an existing structured quantitative questionnaire and collected 123 completed responses using non-probability convenience sampling techniques. The collected data were analysed through multiple linear regression to test the hypotheses and address the research questions related to attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC. The analysis results showed a significant positive correlation between attitudes and intention, indicating that attitudes play a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions. However, subjective norms were found to have an insignificant positive correlation with intention, indicating that they do not significantly shape consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions. In contrast, PBC was found to have a significant positive correlation with intention, indicating that it plays a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions.

The study findings have important implications for marketers and policymakers in the sustainable fashion industry interested in promoting sustainable consumption. The study suggests that attitudes and PBC influence consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions. Therefore, marketers and policymakers should focus on designing interventions that target these factors to promote sustainable consumption among South African consumers

Keywords:

Consumer purchasing intention, fast fashion, South Africa, sustainability awareness, theory of planned behaviour

Declaration

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before or any other degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to conduct this research.

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07th March 2023

Table of Contents

| | |
|---|-----|
| Abstract..... | ii |
| Keywords:..... | iii |
| Declaration | iv |
| List of Abbreviations..... | ix |
| List of Figures | x |
| List of Tables..... | xi |
| Chapter 1: Introduction to the Research Problem | 1 |
| 1.1 Introduction..... | 1 |
| 1.2 Research Problem and Purpose of the Study..... | 2 |
| 1.2.1 The research problem..... | 2 |
| 1.2.2 Purpose of the research | 3 |
| 1.3 The Need for the Study..... | 4 |
| 1.3.1 Business need | 4 |
| 1.3.2 Theoretical contribution | 5 |
| 1.4 Research Questions..... | 6 |
| 1.5 Conclusion | 7 |
| Chapter 2: Literature Review..... | 8 |
| 2.1 Introduction..... | 8 |
| 2.2 Overview of the Fashion Business Landscape..... | 8 |
| 2.3 Fast Fashion..... | 10 |
| 2.4 The Environmental Consequences of the Fast Fashion Industry | 12 |
| 2.5 Societal Impact of Fast Fashion..... | 14 |
| 2.6 Sustainability | 15 |
| 2.7 Sustainable Fast Fashion..... | 16 |
| 2.8 Consumer Purchasing Behaviour for Fast Fashion | 19 |
| 2.9 Consumer Purchasing Behaviour for Sustainable Fast Fashion | 19 |
| 2.10 Theory of Planned Behaviour..... | 22 |
| 2.10.1 Attitudes..... | 23 |

| | |
|---|----|
| 2.10.2 Subjective norms..... | 23 |
| 2.10.3 Perceived behavioural control (PBC)..... | 24 |
| 2.11 Conclusion..... | 24 |
| Chapter 3: Research Methodology..... | 26 |
| 3.1 Introduction..... | 26 |
| 3.2 Research design..... | 27 |
| 3.3 Population, sampling, and unit of analysis | 29 |
| 3.3.1 Population..... | 29 |
| 3.3.2 Unit of analysis | 29 |
| 3.3.3 Sampling method and size..... | 29 |
| 3.4 Measurement instrument..... | 30 |
| 3.5 Data collection..... | 31 |
| 3.6 Data editing and coding..... | 32 |
| 3.7 Data analysis..... | 34 |
| 3.8 Quality controls | 35 |
| 3.8.1 Pretesting..... | 35 |
| 3.8.2 Data Validity and Reliability | 36 |
| 3.9 Ethics..... | 36 |
| 3.10 Limitations..... | 37 |
| 3.11 Conclusion..... | 37 |
| Chapter 4: Analysis of Results | 38 |
| 4.1 Introduction..... | 38 |
| 4.2 Descriptive profile of the respondents..... | 38 |
| 4.2.1 Gender | 38 |
| 4.2.2 Age Group | 39 |
| 4.2.3 Household income level | 40 |
| 4.2.4 Monthly budget for fast fashion products..... | 41 |
| 4.3 Fast Fashion Consumer Purchasing Factors..... | 41 |
| 4.4 Consumer Awareness of Fast Fashion Sustainability | 43 |
| 4.5 Consumer Sustainability in Purchasing..... | 46 |
| 4.5.1 Sustainable purchasing behaviour | 46 |

| | |
|--|----|
| 4.5.2 Price sensitivity for sustainable purchases..... | 46 |
| 4.5.3 Income sensitivity for sustainable purchases..... | 47 |
| 4.6 Validity of Construct | 48 |
| 4.6.1 Results of Data Validation: Exploratory Factor Analysis | 48 |
| 4.7 Reliability of Construct | 50 |
| 4.7.1 Construct: Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor (SPIF) | 50 |
| 4.7.2 Construct: Attitude..... | 51 |
| 4.7.3 Construct: Subjective Norm | 52 |
| 4.7.4 Construct: Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC) | 52 |
| 4.8 Construct Descriptive Statistics..... | 53 |
| 4.8.1 Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor (SPIF) | 53 |
| 4.8.2 Attitudes construct..... | 54 |
| 4.8.3 Social influence construct | 55 |
| 4.8.4 Behavioural decision construct | 55 |
| 4.9 Multiple Linear Regression Model Analysis..... | 56 |
| 4.10 Conclusion..... | 57 |
| Chapter 5: Discussion of Results..... | 58 |
| 5.1 Introduction | 58 |
| 5.2 Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers’ attitudes towards sustainable fast fashion and their intentions to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping..... | 58 |
| 5.3 Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers’ subjective norms towards sustainable fast fashion and their intention to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping..... | 59 |
| 5.4 Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers’ PBC towards sustainable fast fashion and their intention to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping..... | 60 |
| 5.5 Other Findings..... | 60 |
| 5.6 Conclusion | 61 |
| Chapter 6: Conclusion..... | 62 |
| 6.1 Introduction..... | 62 |
| 6.2 Principal findings..... | 62 |

| | |
|---|----|
| 6.3 Implications for business and relevant stakeholders | 64 |
| 6.4 Research limitations | 65 |
| 6.5 Recommendations for future research | 66 |
| References | 68 |
| Appendix A: Questionnaire | 76 |
| Appendix B: Code Book | 85 |
| Appendix C: Consistency Matrix | 87 |
| Appendix D: Ethics Approval | 88 |
| Appendix E: Additional Information | 89 |

List of Abbreviations

| | |
|------|---|
| BCI | Better Cotton Initiative |
| EFA | Exploratory Factor Analysis |
| H&M | Hennes and Mauritz |
| PBC | Perceived Behavioural Control |
| SD | Standard Deviation |
| SE | Standard Error |
| SPIF | Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor |
| TPB | Theory of Planned Behaviour |
| UK | United Kingdom |
| US | United States |

List of Figures

| | |
|--|----|
| Figure 1: Environmental impacts of six fibre types adapted from Niinimäki et al. (2020)..... | 13 |
| Figure 2: Adapted from the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) | 25 |
| Figure 3: The Research Onion (Saunders & Lewis, 2012) | 26 |
| Figure 4: Gender composition of the sample (Source: SPSS output). | 39 |
| Figure 5: Fast Fashion: Intentional considerations (Source: SPSS output)..... | 42 |
| Figure 6: Respondents' opinion of sustainable fashion (Source: SPSS output)..... | 45 |
| Figure 7: Respondents' knowledge of sustainable fashion composition (Source: SPSS output) | 45 |
| Figure 8: Research Findings (Source: Researcher's own) | 63 |
| Figure 9: Histogram SPIF construct (Source: SPSS output)..... | 90 |
| Figure 10: Histogram Attitude construct (Source: SPSS output)..... | 91 |
| Figure 11: Histogram Subjective Norms construct (Source: SPSS output) | 92 |
| Figure 12: Histogram PBC construct (Source: SPSS output) | 93 |

List of Tables

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 4. 1: Data screening composition of the sample | 38 |
| Table 4. 2: Gender composition of the sample | 39 |
| Table 4. 3: Age group profile of the sample..... | 40 |
| Table 4. 4: Household income level of the sample | 40 |
| Table 4. 5: Monthly fast fashion budget of the sample..... | 41 |
| Table 4. 6: Descriptive statistics for intentional construct | 43 |
| Table 4. 7: Descriptive statistics for attitude construct..... | 44 |
| Table 4. 8: Percentage of sustainable purchases..... | 46 |
| Table 4. 9: Price sensitivity for sustainable purchases | 47 |
| Table 4. 10: Income sensitivity for sustainable purchases..... | 47 |
| Table 4. 11: KMO and Bartlett's test results | 48 |
| Table 4. 12: Rotational Component Matrix | 49 |
| Table 4. 13: Initial Eigenvalues | 49 |
| Table 4. 14: Constructs from factor analysis | 50 |
| Table 4. 15: Cronbach's alpha results for Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor | 51 |
| Table 4. 16: Cronbach's alpha results for Attitude..... | 51 |
| Table 4. 17: Cronbach's alpha results for Subjective Norm | 52 |
| Table 4. 18: Cronbach's alpha results for PBC..... | 53 |
| Table 4. 19: Descriptive statistics for sustainable purchasing construct | 54 |
| Table 4. 20: Descriptive statistics for attitude construct | 54 |
| Table 4. 21: Descriptive statistics for subjective norms construct | 55 |
| Table 4. 22: Descriptive statistics for behavioural construct | 56 |
| Table 4. 23: Results for multiple linear regression on intention to purchase sustainable fast fashion | 57 |
| Table 7. 1: Pearson correlation for SPIF construct..... | 89 |
| Table 7. 2: Pearson correlation for Attitude construct..... | 90 |
| Table 7. 3: Pearson correlation for Subjective Norms construct | 91 |
| Table 7. 4: Pearson correlation for PBC construct..... | 92 |

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Research Problem

1.1 Introduction

The fashion industry has long been recognised as a significant contributor to climate change and environmental degradation (Niinimäki et al., 2020; Vesterinen & Syrjäälä, 2022), primarily due to the industry's reliance on the fast fashion business model (Yin, 2022). Fast fashion, defined as the rapid production and consumption of trendy, low-cost clothing (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010; Williams, 2022; Yin, 2022), has enabled the industry to meet the demand for constantly changing styles, but it has come at a high cost (Niinimäki et al., 2020). Clothing production generates greenhouse gas emissions, uses vast amounts of water and chemicals and creates waste in the form of unsold inventory and discarded clothing (Niinimäki et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2017).

In addition to its environmental impacts, fast fashion negatively affects society and human well-being (Williams, 2022). The low prices of fast fashion garments often come at the expense of the workers who produce them, many of whom work in unsafe and unhealthy conditions in developing countries (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016; Williams, 2022). Fast fashion also encourages a disposable culture, in which clothes are worn a few times and then discarded, leading to overconsumption and a lack of appreciation for the resources and labour that go into clothing production (Brewer, 2019; Niinimäki et al., 2020; Williams, 2022)

The negative impacts of fast fashion on the environment and society are undeniable, yet the industry continues to thrive. Consumers must become more mindful of the consequences of their purchasing habits and consider the environmental and social impacts of the clothing they buy (White et al., 2019). Only through a shift in the behaviour of consumers can the fashion industry begin to move towards more sustainable and ethical practices (Šajin, 2019; Taljaard & Sonnenberg, 2019).

1.2 Research Problem and Purpose of the Study

1.2.1 The research problem

The fashion industry significantly contributes to environmental degradation (Bailey et al., 2022). Over the past 100 years, the industry's consumption levels have doubled, resulting in higher carbon emissions and textile waste. As a result, the fashion industry is among the least environmentally friendly industries and plays a significant role in causing pollution (Niinimäki et al., 2020; Peters et al., 2021; Vesterinen & Syrjälä, 2022). According to Niinimäki et al. (2020), the industry consumes 1.5 trillion litres of water and emits over 1.7 billion tons of carbon yearly. Additionally, the industry is responsible for 20% of industrial wastewater pollution from textile treatment and dyeing (Jung & Jin, 2014). Apparel and textile products are also significant contributors to waste, as many consumers may not be aware of sustainable options for these products (La Rosa & Johnson Jorgensen, 2021). The fashion industry has a further significant impact on the environment by producing microplastic pollution and textile waste. According to research, the industry produces 190,000 tons of microplastic pollution and over 92 million tons of textile waste yearly, which includes unsold products that are either burnt or sent to landfill (Niinimäki et al., 2020).

The fashion industry has experienced significant growth in recent years, but this growth has come at a cost to the environment. A significant contributor to this negative impact is the rise of fast fashion, which involves the mass production of cheap, trendy clothing (Bailey et al., 2022; Niinimäki et al., 2020). As a result, an estimated 80 billion garments are produced each year worldwide, and global fashion consumption is expected to reach 102 million tons by 2030 (Zhang et al., 2021). Despite the negative environmental consequences of the fashion industry's growth, clothing consumption continues to increase as many consumers do not fully understand the harm caused by the fashion industry (Niinimäki et al., 2020; Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016; Zhang et al., 2021). While recycling clothing can help to reduce waste, it does not address the root problem of unsustainable consumer behaviour. Fast fashion, characterised by low prices, high-volume production, and excessive consumption, has significantly affected the fashion industry's growth (Williams, 2022). The global fast fashion market is currently valued at \$33 billion and is expected to reach \$40 billion by 2025; however, the environmental consequences of fast fashion, such as pollution and resource depletion, far outweigh the financial benefits of this business model (Hall, 2018; Stringer, Mortimer & Payne, 2020; Williams, 2022).

In the South African apparel retail landscape, intense competition is prevalent, and the continuous launch of novel products is viewed as a crucial expansion tactic to sustain a distinctive market position and offer exclusive products (Taljaard et al., 2018). The growth of the South African fashion retail sector has garnered significant interest from global fast fashion brands such as H&M, Zara, Cotton On and Forever 21 (Biyase et al., 2021). These companies have been successful in the South African market, particularly among young consumers seeking affordable, fashionable clothing. However, their business practices, including low worker wages and reliance on overseas manufacturing, have also been criticised and caused controversy (Taljaard & Sonnenberg, 2019). In South Africa's textile and apparel industry, the majority of stakeholders have disregarded the importance of environmentally conscious clothing practices, resulting in a lack of familiarity with this concept within the local context (Taljaard et al., 2018)

1.2.2 Purpose of the research

Consumers play a significant role in sustainability because their consumption patterns have the potential to damage the natural systems of the Earth (Stancu et al., 2020; White et al., 2019). While there is growing awareness about the importance of protecting the environment, sustainable fashion has not yet become widespread, indicating that consumers may not prioritise sustainability in their purchasing decisions. (Stancu et al., 2020; Yadav & Pathak, 2017). In order to meet countries' ambitious climate goals, such as the United Kingdom's target of achieving net zero emissions by 2050, there will need to be a global shift in how consumers make purchasing decisions. Efforts to address environmental concerns should not be limited to more developed countries but should also involve stringent measures in emerging economies such as South Africa (Taljaard et al., 2018). Changes in consumer consumption patterns are imperative to reduce consumer goods' overall environmental impact. (Zhang et al., 2021). One barrier to adopting sustainable fashion may be consumer resistance to changing their consumption habits. Some people may hesitate to make these changes because they feel it will diminish their enjoyment of shopping for clothes (Muposhi, 2022). Educating consumers about the detrimental effects their selections have on the environment and promoting the advantages of decreasing waste are critical in convincing more individuals to embrace environmentally conscious fashion (Harris et al., 2016; Rausch & Kopplin, 2021). Furthermore, by increasing awareness and understanding of these issues, it may be possible to sustain efforts to promote sustainable fashion purchasing (Neumann et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021).

Previous research has examined consumer behaviour and intentions towards purchasing sustainable products in developed countries (Yadav & Pathak, 2017), as well as the role of consumers in the fast fashion industry (Stringer et al., 2020). Despite being an emerging economy, South Africa has significant income inequality, and many initiatives aim to reduce the wealth gap (Taljaard et al., 2018). However, this may lead to higher consumption levels and a corresponding increase in the ecological footprint, resulting in environmental consequences that must be addressed (Taljaard & Sonnenberg, 2019). This research study explores the relationship between consumers' attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC towards the intention to purchase sustainable fast fashion within the framework of a developing economy. The study focuses on South African consumers and their socially responsible behaviour regarding fast fashion products. By gathering data and analysing it, the study aims to improve the understanding of any discrepancies between consumers' stated attitudes and intentions towards sustainability and their purchasing behaviour regarding sustainable fast fashion products.

1.3 The Need for the Study

1.3.1 Business need

For several reasons, understanding consumer behaviour towards sustainable fashion in South Africa is essential as a rapidly developing country with a growing middle class improving disposable income, and increasing demand for fashion and clothing (Fitch, 2022). Understanding consumer intentions and decision-making processes in this market is crucial to effectively meet their needs and preferences, as the projected total expenditure on clothing and footwear is anticipated to reach \$13.2 billion between 2022 and 2026 (Fitch, 2022). This is particularly important because fast fashion has been linked to various sustainability issues, such as resource overconsumption, pollution, and worker exploitation (Niinimäki et al., 2020). By studying consumer behaviour towards sustainable fashion, companies and retailers can develop strategies to reduce the negative impacts of their operations and improve their sustainability performance and customer satisfaction (Nam et al., 2017).

Most research has concentrated on consumer populations outside of South Africa, potentially resulting in contrasting viewpoints and findings regarding consumer behaviour due to demographic variations (Taljaard et al., 2018). This could contribute to the complexity of comprehending pro-environmental behaviour, particularly pro-environmental clothing consumption, in the emerging local context (Taljaard et al., 2018). Therefore, studying

consumer behaviour in this context is crucial to design and marketing relevant and appealing products to local consumers. Moreover, South African consumers are becoming more aware of the environmental and social impacts of the fast fashion industry and are increasingly seeking sustainable options (Muposhi, 2022; Nilssen et al., 2019). By comprehending consumer behaviour and preferences for sustainable fashion, businesses can cater to the demand for these products and enhance their brand reputation by committing to ethical practices (Biyase et al., 2021; Muposhi, 2022; Nilssen et al., 2019).

It is becoming more evident that consumers worldwide are considering sustainability when making purchasing decisions. Hence, businesses offering sustainable fashion options are likely to have an advantage over those that do not. In South Africa, studying consumer behaviour and sustainable fast fashion is crucial for businesses to remain competitive, meet consumer demand, and ensure long-term success in a market increasingly aware of sustainability (Muposhi, 2022; Nilssen et al., 2019). Moreover, insights gained from studying consumer behaviour and sustainable fast fashion in South Africa can provide valuable information for other developing countries that face similar challenges and opportunities related to fashion and sustainability (Muposhi, 2022; Nilssen et al., 2019).

1.3.2 Theoretical contribution

Specifically, the study seeks to further the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) relating to sustainable fast fashion consumption by exploring how attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC impacts consumers' purchasing intentions. A study conducted by Yadav and Pathak (2017) confirms the suitability of TPB in assessing consumers' intention and behaviour to purchase eco-friendly products in the context of a developing country. Although TPB has been widely adopted for studies in the fashion industry, there is limited research on its applicability to fast fashion consumer behaviour. (Mason et al., 2022). This study builds on previous research to deepen our understanding of sustainable fast fashion strategies and their development in South Africa (Biyase et al., 2021). The insights gained from this study can inform strategies to promote environmentally conscious practices within the fast fashion industry. By understanding these and other factors, researchers and practitioners can better understand consumer behaviour and the potential consequences of fast fashion on individuals and society (Barnes & Lea-Greenwood, 2006; Han & Stoel, 2017).

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the identified research problem, three research questions were crafted. The comprehensive review of relevant literature in Chapter 2 resulted in formulation of three hypotheses corresponding to these research questions.

Research question 1:

How does attitudes influence sustainable fast fashion purchasing behaviour in South African consumers?

The related hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers' attitudes towards sustainable fast fashion and their intention to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping.

Research question 2:

How do subjective norms influence sustainable fast fashion purchasing behaviour in South African consumers?

The related hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers' subjective norm towards sustainable fast fashion and their intention to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping.

Research question 3:

How does PBC influence sustainable fast fashion purchasing behaviour in South African consumers?

The related hypothesis was:

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers' PBC towards sustainable fast fashion and their intention to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping.

1.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, it is widely acknowledged that the fast fashion industry significantly contributes to climate change and environmental degradation while negatively affecting society and human well-being (Bailey et al., 2022; Greco & De Cock, 2021; Lee, 2017; Niinimäki et al., 2020; White et al., 2019). Therefore, businesses in developing countries such as South Africa must understand consumer behaviour towards sustainable fashion to remain competitive, meet consumer demand, and ensure long-term success in an increasingly sustainability-focused market. This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge by investigating the relationship between the predictors driving consumer purchasing intention for sustainable fast fashion in the South African context. The research questions and hypotheses presented in this chapter provide a guide to gaining a deeper insight into the factors that influence consumers' choices regarding sustainable fast fashion in South Africa. This understanding will facilitate the creation of specific strategies to promote implementing environmentally conscious practices within the fast fashion industry.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to review the literature on the fashion industry, specifically the fast fashion model, and its impact on the environment and society. It will also define sustainability and discuss the idea of sustainable fast fashion. In addition, the chapter will examine consumer purchasing behaviour, including consumers' sustainable purchasing behaviour. Finally, it will introduce the theoretical framework of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, guiding the research study regarding the three predictors influencing consumer intentions to buy sustainable fast fashion: attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC.

2.2 Overview of the Fashion Business Landscape

The fashion industry is a large and lucrative sector, valued at approximately \$655 billion in 2021 (Jenkin & Hattingh, 2022). It involves creating and selling clothing, accessories, and footwear, including design, production, and marketing. The industry is known for its high labour and resource demand and often employs many low-skilled workers. It is also constantly evolving, with new trends and styles frequently emerging (Jenkin & Hattingh, 2022; Martin, 2020; Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016).

The mass production of low-cost, standardised styles in large factories has traditionally characterised the fashion industry. These styles did not often change, as consumers tended to prefer basic apparel over style and fashion. In order to succeed in the market, retailers needed to forecast consumer demand and fashion trends in advance, using the traditional seasonal range of Spring/Summer and Autumn/Winter, with a typical production cycle of three months for design, production, and distribution (McNeill & Snowdon, 2019). Fashion designers play a crucial role in the industry, creating new collections each season using various materials such as fabric, leather, and synthetic materials to create fashionable pieces. Textile production involves creating the fabrics and materials used in fashion products, such as cotton, wool, silk, and synthetic fibres. The marketing of fashion products to end consumers via department stores, boutiques, and online retailers is known as fashion retail, while the sale

of fashion items to other enterprises for subsequent resale is referred to as wholesale (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010; Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016).

The South African fashion industry experienced a downturn in the late 1990s as cheap clothing from Asia flooded the market, and local manufacturers struggled to compete due to difficult manufacturing conditions and a lack of government support. Chinese imports, in particular, have significantly impacted the South African clothing and textile industry, leading to increased competition for domestic manufacturers and resulting in job losses and declining profits for local businesses (Biyase et al., 2021; Jenkin & Hattingh, 2022; Morris & Einhorn, 2008). More broadly, the liberalisation of trade and globalisation have allowed the influx of Chinese imports into South Africa, making it difficult for domestic manufacturers to keep up with the low prices of these imports. The negative impacts of Chinese imports on the South African fashion industry have been compounded by the country's welfare system, which supports those who have lost their jobs due to the influx of imports. The decline in the industry left domestic manufacturers struggling to remain competitive while the government supported their former employees (Morris & Einhorn, 2008).

However, the South African fashion industry is currently experiencing a revival with support from the government and a commitment from South African retailers to local procurement on a just-in-time model, similar to fast fashion, in order to mitigate against currency fluctuations and global supply chain risks (Jenkin & Hattingh, 2022). The retail apparel industry in South Africa has established retailers that have been present in the market for a considerable duration. These include Woolworths, TFG group, Truworths, and Edgars, which cater to the high-end market segment. Additionally, there are value chain segment retailers such as Mr Price, Legit, Jet, Ackermans, and Pepkor. Adopting fast fashion has emerged as a crucial tactic for clothing businesses in South Africa. Additionally, some South African retailers have established offices in Shanghai, indicating the significance of this approach (Biyase et al., 2021).

2.3 Fast Fashion

Fast fashion, a term coined in the 1990s, refers to the rapid production and consumption of trendy, low-cost clothing (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010; Yin, 2022). It differs from traditional fashion, which follows seasonal cycles, by offering a constantly changing selection of trendy and luxurious clothing. This approach to fashion has been driven by consumer demand and has allowed consumers to express their lifestyles through their consumption and possession of fashion.

The rise of fast fashion can be traced to the post-World War II era when mass production and globalisation decreased clothing prices (Linden, 2016; Williams, 2022). The emergence of television and the increasing importance of fashion in popular culture also contributed to the fashion industry's growth (Barnes & Lea-Greenwood, 2006). In the 1980s and 1990s, fast fashion retailers emerged to respond to consumer demand for affordable, trendy clothing (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010; Gabrielli et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2021). In 2005 the lifting of quotas on outsourcing fashion production by the World Trade Organisation further propelled the growth of fast fashion (Rausch & Kopplin, 2021; Zhang et al., 2021).

The fast fashion supply chain involves the movement of raw materials, production, and clothing distribution (Zhang et al., 2021), with retailers often relying on global sourcing, with most production in developing countries where labour is cheaper (Martin, 2020). China, Bangladesh, and India are the top three countries for fast fashion production (Aggarwal & More, 2021). These countries have large populations and solid manufacturing bases, making them attractive locations for fast fashion production (Aggarwal & More, 2021). In recent years, fast fashion production has shifted to other developing countries, including Bangladesh, Cambodia, Myanmar, Vietnam, and sub-Saharan Africa, due to the availability of low-wage labour. These production practices have shortened product lifecycles as prices and quality decline due to increasing demand (Martin, 2020; Rausch & Kopplin, 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Global fast fashion retailers, such as Zara and H&M, have become dominant players in the global fashion industry by constantly offering changing collections that mimic current fashion trends (Cook & Yurchisin, 2017; Zhang et al., 2021), earning higher profit margins, averaging 16% compared to the 7% earned by non-fast fashion retailers (Cook & Yurchisin, 2017).

Fast fashion consumers have become accustomed to fashion retailers introducing new collections frequently, often every two weeks. Zara and H&M are two of the top players in the fast fashion sector, holding positions as market leaders among retailers (Zhang et al., 2021). Zara, for example, introduces small quantities of new designs into the market, about 12,000 per year, to drive revenue and remain competitive (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016). However, this rapid introduction of new collections can lead to a throw-away culture, as garments are often designed to be used for only a few wears before losing their value. Overconsumption is common among consumers, resulting in the fast fashion market's growth, as individuals often replenish their wardrobes (Ciornea, 2020). This phenomenon has been observed to contribute significantly to the sustainability challenges the fashion industry faces. However, luxury brands tend to introduce fewer collections per year, leading to a slower pace of consumption and potentially less impact on the environment (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016).

A study conducted in the Global North found that the average time a garment is used has decreased by 36% compared to 2005, likely due to individuals discarding items more frequently (Niinimäki et al., 2020). Niinimäki et al. (2020) argue that the rise of fast fashion and cheap manufacturing has driven the increase in fibre production. In the 2010s, the production of textile fibres surpassed population growth; 60% of the global fibre production was utilised by the fashion industry, while the remaining portion was allocated for various purposes, including interiors, industrial textiles, geotextiles, agro textiles, and hygienic textiles. Polyester, a synthetic fibre, was responsible for 51% (54 million tonnes) of textile production in 2017, with cotton following at 25% (26 million tonnes). Polyester is the leading material used in textile production due to its cost-effectiveness and superior performance. Its use is expected to increase as consumers in emerging Asian and African economies adopt Western fashion trends and lifestyles (Niinimäki et al., 2020).

While fast fashion has successfully met consumer demand, it has also been criticised for its negative impacts on the environment and labour conditions (Kim & Li, 2018). The production of cheap clothing requires large amounts of water and energy, leading to environmental degradation (Madhav et al., 2018). In addition, fast fashion relies on low-wage labour, often in developing countries, where workers are subjected to poor working conditions and lack job security. These countries' exploitation of cheap labour has been well documented, with employees frequently enduring extended work hours, inadequate pay and hazardous working environments (Aggarwal & More, 2021; Linden, 2016; Williams, 2022).

While it has been criticised for its negative environmental and labour impacts, fast fashion remains a popular and profitable business model. The negative impacts of fast fashion on labour and the environment have led to calls for more sustainable and ethical fashion practices (Aggarwal & More, 2021). The popularity of fast fashion has also enabled the spotlight to focus on the industry's harmful practices, such as environmental hazards, worker exploitation and sweatshops (Williams, 2022).

2.4 The Environmental Consequences of the Fast Fashion Industry

The fashion industry significantly impacts the environment, contributing to various adverse environmental outcomes such as climate change, resource depletion, and pollution (Bailey et al., 2022). One subsector of the fashion industry with particularly harmful environmental impacts is fast fashion, the rapid production and dissemination of cheap, trendy clothing (Niinimäki et al., 2020). According to a study published in the *Journal of Cleaner Production*, the fashion industry is the second largest polluter globally, second only to the oil industry (Rausch & Kopplin, 2021). Niinimäki (2020) describes the fashion supply chain as a complicated process that involves different industries such as agriculture, petrochemicals, manufacturing, logistics, and retail. The process is vertically disintegrated and dispersed globally, making it complex. Natural fibres come from agriculture, while synthetic fibres come from petrochemicals. The manufacturing process, logistics, and retail are all included in the fashion supply chain.

The manufacturing process of a garment involves numerous steps, beginning with yarn production, then fabrics undergo spinning and wet processing, like dyeing. Yarns from these fabrics are then used to create textiles in knitting or weaving techniques. These techniques require a lot of water and energy for wet processes such as bleaching, dyeing, and finishing. The textiles are then transported to garment producers for assembly (Chen et al., 2021; Ciornea, 2020; Niinimäki et al., 2020; Papadopoulou et al., 2022). The textile manufacturing process throughout the value chain generates excessive waste, which poses environmental concerns (Niinimäki et al., 2020; Papadopoulou et al., 2022).

Niinimäki et al. (2020) state that labour-intensive garment production industry costs mainly determine sourcing decisions. Garments manufacturing often involves several stages in

different countries, adding logistical complexities influenced by economic factors. As a result of their lower labour costs, developing countries have become the preferred locations for textile production, giving them a competitive edge in the manufacturing industry (Niinimäki et al., 2020). Figure 1 illustrates the environmental impact of freshwater consumption, energy consumption, and CO2 emissions from producing and processing the most commonly used fibres in the fashion industry. This impact is attributed to the fashion industry's practices (Niinimäki et al., 2020).

| Environmental impact | Unit of measure | Fibre Types | | | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------|-------|------|
| | | Cotton | Polyester | Non-cotton cellulosic | Polyamide | Wool | Hemp |
| Fibre production | million tonnes | 27.0 | 54.0 | 7.0 | 6.1 | 1.2 | 0.1 |
| Energy consumption | kWh per kg | 48.0 | 108.0 | 85.0 | 160.0 | 120.0 | 22.0 |
| Freshwater consumption | lt per kg | 1559.0 | 21.0 | 92.0 | 4.0 | 530.0 | 89.0 |
| CO2 emissions | kg per kg fibre | 2.2 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 8.3 | 120.0 | 3.1 |

Figure 1: Environmental impacts of six fibre types adapted from Niinimäki et al. (2020).

One of the considerable environmental impacts of the fashion industry is water pollution (Bailey et al., 2022). The production of textiles requires large amounts of water, and many fashion companies have been criticised for their water usage and waste. Clothing production requires significant amounts of water. Estimates have suggested that the fashion industry uses up to 79 billion cubic meters of water annually (Centobelli et al., 2022; Nguyen et al., 2020). A published journal found that producing one pair of jeans can use up to 1,800 gallons of water (Centobelli et al., 2022). Excessive water usage can lead to water scarcity and degradation in areas where clothing is produced, particularly in developing countries where water resources are already strained (Greco & De Cock, 2021; Niinimäki et al., 2020). In addition, cotton production significantly contributes to water pollution and depletion, requiring large amounts of water and pesticides (Lee, 2017). Similarly, the production of synthetic materials like polyester and nylon release harmful chemicals into the air and water together, with the chemicals used in the production of textiles can contaminate water sources, leading to serious environmental consequences (Lee, 2017).

The fashion industry also has a significant impact on climate change (Greco & De Cock, 2021). Clothing production generates greenhouse gases, mainly through fossil fuels in transportation and manufacturing. Research uncovered that the fashion sector contributes approximately 10% of the world's carbon emissions (Bailey et al., 2022; Lee, 2017; White et al., 2019). The disposable nature of much of the clothing produced by the fast fashion industry also contributes to environmental problems. The production of cheap, trendy clothing encourages consumers to frequently purchase new items, leading to a culture of overconsumption and excess (Niinimäki et al., 2020). This, in turn, leads to a high level of clothing waste, with estimates suggesting that the average citizen in the United States (US) discards around 70 pounds of clothing annually, with a reported 10.5 million tons of clothing ending up in landfills annually in the US (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016). This discarded clothing can end up in landfills, which can take decades to decompose or be burned, contributing to air pollution (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016). Recent reports concerning H&M and Burberry, a British luxury brand, highlight overproduction in the fast fashion industry. In 2018, H&M discarded deadstock (new unsold or returned garments) to the value of \$4.3 billion, which was incinerated at a Danish waste-to-energy facility, and Burberry incinerated deadstock to the value of £90 million over five years as of June 2018, including an estimated £28.6 million in 2017. Although the incineration process completed at a waste-to-energy facility recovers energy levels from the recovery process, this is minuscule compared to the carbon emissions produced in the manufacturing process. (Niinimäki et al., 2020).

The fashion industry faces criticism not only for its negative environmental impact but also for its excessive utilisation of natural resources. A recent study published found that deforestation is significantly influenced by the fashion industry, as it requires large amounts of land for cotton and other plant-based textiles (Ciornea, 2020). The fast fashion industry's constant emphasis on producing new styles and trends only exacerbates this problem (Ciornea, 2020; Neumann et al., 2021).

2.5 Societal Impact of Fast Fashion

The fashion industry has had a favourable influence on the economies of developing countries, with economic growth being one of the positive outcomes (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016). The World Bank reported that the fashion industry's role in countries like Bangladesh, India, and Vietnam has been significant, as it has provided employment opportunities and helped

increase export (Nayak et al., 2019). The fast fashion sector, in particular, has been a critical driver of economic growth in these countries, as companies have outsourced their production to take advantage of lower labour costs (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016).

In addition to economic growth, the fashion industry has also contributed to reducing unemployment and poverty in developing countries. The creation of jobs in the industry has provided employment opportunities for many people, particularly in rural areas where other job options may be limited (Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016). The fashion industry has also contributed to developing small businesses, such as local fabric producers and tailors, which can further stimulate economic growth and reduce poverty (Clarke-Sather & Cobb, 2019).

However, the fashion industry has also faced criticism for its adverse impacts on developing countries, particularly regarding labour practices and human rights. The fast fashion sector has been accused of exploiting cheap labour in developing countries, with workers often facing poor working conditions, low wages, and long hours (Niinimäki et al., 2020; Ozdamar-Ertekin, 2016). A report by the International Labor Rights Forum found that many workers in the fashion industry in countries such as Bangladesh, India, and China are not provided with safe and healthy working environments and are often subject to abuse and discrimination (International Labour Organisation, 2022).

2.6 Sustainability

The concept of sustainability has become increasingly important in recent years as the world faces challenges such as climate change, resource depletion, and social inequality. Sustainability is often understood in three dimensions: environmental, economic, and social (Gazzola et al., 2020)

Environmental sustainability refers to maintaining the natural systems and resources that support life on earth, including protecting biodiversity, conserving natural resources, and reducing pollution and waste (Lee, 2017). Economic sustainability refers to supporting human needs and aspirations while maintaining the viability of natural and social systems (Jung & Jin, 2014), including ensuring that economic growth does not come at the expense of the environment or social well-being (Belhaj-Bouabdallah, 2017). Social sustainability involves

the promotion of social justice, equity, and the well-being of all people, both present and future (Bick et al., 2018).

There is an ongoing debate about how these dimensions of sustainability should be balanced and prioritised (Bick et al., 2018). Some argue that environmental sustainability should be the top priority, as it is necessary for the long-term survival of humanity (Brooks et al., 2019; Rausch & Kopplin, 2021). Others argue that economic and social considerations should also be given weight, as they are necessary for the well-being of individuals and societies (Nguyen et al., 2020; Williams, 2022)

It is clear that sustainability is a complex and multifaceted concept, and addressing it will require efforts across all three dimensions. Achieving sustainability requires addressing the environment, economy, and society's interdependent and often conflicting demands (Nguyen et al., 2020).

2.7 Sustainable Fast Fashion

Sustainable fast fashion is an emergent industry trend focusing on environmental sustainability through environmentally friendly collections and branding (Zhang et al., 2021). Sustainable fast fashion has become synonymous with terms such as "eco-fashion," "green fashion," "ethical fashion," or "slow fashion" as fashion brands review their strategies and shift towards more eco-friendly methods for production and operation (Khandual & Pradhan, 2019). The traditional fast fashion model has been linked to negative environmental and social impacts, which has led to a growing interest in sustainable fast fashion in recent years (Lee, 2017; Madhav et al., 2018). The sustainable fashion model differs from the fast fashion model, which creates significant waste and environmental pollution. In contrast, the sustainable fashion model prioritises sustainability throughout the fashion industry's value chain (Zhang et al., 2021). H&M claims that their collection, "The Conscious Collection", is manufactured from sustainable materials, while Zara introduced their first sustainable product line known as "Join Life" (Zhang et al., 2021). However, critics highlight that there is still a high environmental and social impact as the low prices stimulate increased consumption (Greco & De Cock, 2021).

One aspect of sustainable fast fashion is the use of organic cotton, which is grown without the use of synthetic pesticides or fertilisers. Organic cotton production not only benefits the environment by reducing chemical inputs, but it can also improve the health and well-being of cotton farmers (Brewer, 2019; Goworek, 2011). The Better Cotton Initiative (BCI) is a worldwide organisation encouraging sustainable cotton production by implementing improved practices (Impact Report, 2022). The BCI states that their program has reached over 5 million farmers in 26 countries and over 1,000 brands of cotton used. The BCI aims to reduce the environmental impact of cotton production by using water-saving technologies, promoting biodiversity, and reducing chemical inputs. In addition, the BCI works to improve the livelihoods of cotton farmers through training programs and implementing fair labour practices (Impact Report, 2022). Fashion products manufactured from 100% organic products exhibit a toxicity reduction of 93% compared to conventional cotton-produced products, as no chemical fertilisers or pesticides are used in the growth phase of organic cotton (Kang et al., 2013; Lee, 2017). Despite growing demand above 50% per year, the resource barriers of finance and operations resources are a deterrent due to higher prices unless consumers demand increases to aid marketing and promotion (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). The higher price associated with sustainable fashion remains a barrier for consumers to increase their adoption of sustainable fashion (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018).

While organic cotton and initiatives like the BCI represent progress towards sustainable fast fashion, the fashion industry still needs improved labour and human rights practices (Brewer, 2019). According to Bick et al. (2018), the fast fashion industry is frequently linked to substandard working conditions, inadequate pay, and mistreatment of labourers, particularly in developing countries. To address these issues, some companies have implemented codes of conduct and monitoring systems to ensure that their supply chains are ethically responsible (Bick et al., 2018).

One example of a company that has significantly improved labour and human rights practices is H&M, a fast fashion retailer. According to H&M (2021), they have a Code of Conduct that sets out standards for working conditions and a team of over 1,000 people dedicated to monitoring their supply chain. H&M also works with independent organisations to monitor and improve working conditions in their factories, and they have set goals to increase the number of Fair Trade-certified cotton products in their collection.

Another company implementing sustainability initiatives is Patagonia, a company specialising in outdoor clothing and gear, and is actively pursuing sustainability initiatives. With a strong record of environmental activism, Patagonia has taken measures such as utilising organic cotton, recycled materials, and fair labour practices to promote sustainability (Goworek et al., 2020; Lee, 2017). Moreover, Patagonia has implemented an initiative named "Worn Wear" that promotes the repairing and reusing their products instead of purchasing new ones while also providing repair services within their stores (Kerr & Landry, 2017; Tait, 2022).

Sustainable fast fashion can influence consumer purchasing behaviour in several ways. One way to encourage consumers to consider the fashion industry's environmental and social impact when making purchasing decisions is by increasing their awareness of these factors (Lundblad & Davies, 2016). Purchasing decisions can involve choosing brands that commit to sustainability, such as using eco-friendly materials or implementing fair labour practices. Furthermore, sustainable fast fashion can also shift consumer attitudes towards fashion, shifting from focusing on cheap, disposable clothing to a more mindful approach to fashion consumption (Saricam & Okur, 2019). Fashion consumption can involve investing in higher quality, longer-lasting pieces that can be worn for multiple seasons rather than constantly buying new, trendy items. In addition, sustainable fast fashion can also encourage consumers to adopt a more circular fashion mindset, whereby they actively seek ways to extend the life of their clothing, such as repairing or altering items or donating them to charity or second-hand stores (Mukendi et al., 2020). Overall, the influence of sustainable fast fashion on consumer purchasing behaviour can be significant, as it encourages consumers to consider the environmental and social impacts of their fashion choices and adopt more sustainable and mindful approaches to fashion consumption (Saricam & Okur, 2019).

While sustainable fast fashion still has a long way to go, the efforts of companies like H&M, Zara and Patagonia show that it is possible to produce more sustainable and ethical clothing. However, consumers must also promote sustainable fast fashion by supporting companies prioritising sustainability and choosing environmentally and socially responsible products (Bick et al., 2018; Bubicz et al., 2021).

2.8 Consumer Purchasing Behaviour for Fast Fashion

One of the key drivers of consumer purchasing behaviour for fast fashion is the desire for novelty and trendiness (Muposhi, 2022). Many fast fashion retailers offer a constantly changing selection of styles, which can appeal to consumers who want to keep up with the latest trends (Zhang et al., 2021). In addition, fast fashion retailers often offer a wide range of options at a relatively low cost, which can appeal to price-sensitive consumers (Zhang et al., 2021).

Personal factors, such as age, gender, and income, are also influential in determining the purchasing behaviour of a consumer for fast fashion. For example, younger individuals may be more likely to prioritise trendiness in their fashion purchases (Muposhi, 2022). In contrast, older individuals may emphasise practicality and functionality more (Vakeel & Kaushik, 2020). Gender can also influence purchasing behaviour, with some research suggesting that women may be more likely to prioritise style and fashionability in their clothing purchases (Saricam & Okur, 2019). Finally, income can also play a role, with higher-income individuals potentially able to afford more expensive fashion items (Zhang et al., 2021).

External factors, such as media influence and cultural norms, can also shape consumer purchasing behaviour for fast fashion. Through advertising, social media, and other forms of media, fast fashion retailers can influence consumer perceptions and create a desire for specific fashion items (Johnstone & Lindh, 2022). In addition, cultural norms and values can influence fashion choices, with individuals from certain cultures or subcultures tending to follow specific fashion trends (Harris, Roby & Dibb, 2016). Nilssen et al. (2019) argue that fashion serves as a vehicle for individuals to communicate their self-identity and project a particular self-image, with style, fit, texture, and colour being the chief determinants during the purchasing process.

2.9 Consumer Purchasing Behaviour for Sustainable Fast Fashion

The consumer purchasing behaviour for sustainable fast fashion is influenced by various cultural, social, personal, and psychological factors (Rausch et al., 2021; Harris et al., 2016; Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). As consumers have gained a greater understanding of the

environmental and social consequences of the fashion industry, they have become more conscious consumers (Harris et al., 2016; Rausch et al., 2021). Understanding the influences of cultural, social, personal, and psychological factors on consumer purchasing behaviour for sustainable fast fashion is essential for fashion marketers looking to appeal to consumers who prioritise sustainability in their fashion choices (Harris et al., 2016; Rausch et al., 2021; Saricam & Okur, 2019).

Cultural factors play a significant role in consumer purchasing behaviour for sustainable fast fashion (Rausch et al., 2021; Harris et al., 2016; Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). These factors include society's cultural values, beliefs, and customs (Harris et al., 2016; Hollensen, 2015). For example, in some cultures, there may be a greater emphasis on environmental sustainability, which could influence consumer purchasing behaviour for sustainable fast fashion (Harris et al., 2016; Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). In contrast, in other cultures, there may be a greater emphasis on status and appearance, leading to a greater focus on fast fashion (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018).

Social factors influence consumer purchasing behaviour for sustainable fast fashion (Rausch et al., 2021; Harris et al., 2016; Johnstone & Lindh, 2022; Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). These include the influence of family and friends, as well as the influence of social media (Johnstone & Lindh, 2022). For example, individuals with a strong network of environmentally-conscious friends and family members may be more likely to purchase sustainable fashion (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). In contrast, individuals who follow fashion influencers on social media who promote fast fashion may be likelier to purchase fast fashion (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018).

Personal factors, such as age, gender, and income, also influence consumer purchasing behaviour for sustainable fast fashion (Rausch et al., 2021). For example, younger individuals may be more likely to prioritise sustainability in their fashion purchases. In contrast, older individuals may emphasise practicality and functionality more (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). Gender can also influence purchasing behaviour, with some research suggesting that women may be more likely to prioritise sustainability in their fashion purchases (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). Income can also play a role, with higher-income individuals potentially more able to afford sustainable fashion items (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). Finally, psychological factors, such as personal values and attitudes, influence consumer purchasing behaviour for

sustainable fast fashion. For example, individuals who value environmental sustainability highly may be more likely to make sustainable fashion purchases. In contrast, those prioritising practicality and affordability may be more likely to focus on fast fashion (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018).

However, while consumers may express an intention to purchase sustainable fast fashion, they may not be able to find or afford sustainable options in the stores they shop at (Brandão & Costa, 2021). Many sustainable options are also only available online or in speciality stores, which can be less convenient for consumers (Brandão & Costa, 2021). This lack of availability and accessibility can create a barrier for consumers to purchase sustainable clothing (Brandão & Costa, 2021). Another factor contributing to the intention-behaviour gap is the perceived trade-off between sustainability and fashionability (Brandão & Costa, 2021). Consumers may view sustainable fast fashion as less fashionable than non-sustainable options, which can deter them from making sustainable choices. This perception can be reinforced by the marketing and messaging of clothing brands, which often prioritise style and trendiness over sustainability (Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018). As a result, consumers may feel that they have to choose between sustainability and fashionability and may be less likely to choose sustainable options.

In addition to availability and perceived trade-offs, psychological factors play a role in the intention-behaviour gap for sustainable fast fashion clothing. For example, consumers may experience cognitive conflict when reconciling their intentions to purchase sustainable fast fashion clothing with their actual behaviour (Bhandari et al., 2022; Brandão & Costa, 2021; Harris et al., 2016). This can occur when consumers face conflicting information or beliefs about sustainable clothing, such as when they encounter sustainable clothing options that are more expensive than non-sustainable fast fashion (Bhandari et al., 2022; Brandão & Costa, 2021; Harris et al., 2016). This cognitive conflict can lead to discomfort or guilt, which may deter consumers from following through with their intentions to purchase sustainable clothing (Bhandari et al., 2022; Brandão & Costa, 2021; Harris et al., 2016).

2.10 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The fast fashion industry has been causing much harm to the environment due to producing and disposal of cheap and trendy clothing (Diddi et al., 2019; Muposhi, 2022). The throwaway culture of fast fashion has led to excess clothing waste and negative consequences for the planet (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010; Zhang et al., 2021). Some consumers are trying to be more sustainable in their fashion choices, but it is unclear how widespread these efforts are or how much they affect consumer behaviour (Paul et al., 2021; Johnstone & Lindh, 2022). In order to better understand what drives sustainable practices in the fast fashion industry, researchers have looked at the TPB (Liobikiene et al., 2016; Paul et al., 2021; Rausch & Kopplin, 2021).

The TPB is a psychological model that explains how behaviour is influenced by a person's attitudes, subjective norms and PBC. It was developed by Icek Ajzen in the 1980s and has been extensively used to anticipate and clarify diverse human behaviour, including health-related activities like diet and exercise, ecological activities such as recycling and energy conservation, and social behaviours such as volunteering and voting (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB model is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (TRA), developed in the 1970s by Ajzen and Martin Fishbein. Both theories are used to understand and predict human behaviour, particularly concerning social and behavioural interventions. The TRA was developed by Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen in the 1970s, and it suggests that the strongest predictor of an individual's behaviour is their intention to perform that behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2002; Han & Stoel, 2017; Kang et al., 2013; Paul et al., 2021; Rausch & Kopplin, 2021; Wiederhold & Martinez, 2018).

The TPB states that a person's intention to carry out a specific behaviour is influenced by their attitudes towards the behaviour and the perceived social norms within their environment (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2012). The theory also states that an individual's perceived control over the behaviour can influence their intention to perform it. The TPB asserts that an individual's intention is the most accurate predictor of their eventual behaviour, which is shaped by their attitudes towards the behaviour, the subjective norms surrounding it, and their perceived ability to control the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2002; Han & Stoel, 2017; Kang et al., 2013; Liobikiene et al., 2016; Saricam & Okur, 2019; Yadav & Pathak, 2017). According to Rosa and Johnson (2021), the TPB framework centres on two facets of human behaviour:

individuals act reasonably after processing information, and the individual's intention drives an individual's attitude and subjective norm.

2.10.1 Attitudes

Attitudes refer to a person's evaluation of engaging in a particular behaviour, and their perception of the consequences influences whether the behaviour is seen as good or bad. Attitudes are a significant determinant of an individual's overall evaluation of a specific behaviour, ultimately leading to their decision to perform that behaviour. A person is more likely to have a favourable attitude towards a behaviour if they expect a positive outcome (Nam et al., 2017). A lack of knowledge about the environmental impact of fast fashion can create a gap between a person's environmental concerns and purchasing behaviour. Studies have shown that attitudes play a significant role in a person's intention to purchase sustainable products and that a person's attitudes towards a behaviour can influence their choices related to shopping and purchasing (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2002; Cook & Yurchisin, 2017; Liobikiene et al., 2016; Paul et al., 2016; Yadav & Pathak, 2017). A study by Rausch and Kopplin (2020) found that attitudes significantly impact a person's intention to purchase sustainable clothing. Numerous studies have confirmed a robust and positive association between consumers' inclination towards environmentally-friendly clothing and their intention to purchase. In addition, attitudes are a critical mediator between purchase intention and other variables, such as environmental concern and organic identity (Nam et al., 2017).

2.10.2 Subjective norms

Subjective norms refer to an individual's tendency to conform to their beliefs about what is acceptable or desirable based on their reference group's perceived expectations and approval. People's beliefs can significantly influence their behaviour, and these beliefs are often shaped by the attitudes and actions of those closest to them, such as friends, family, colleagues, and business partners. The perception of social pressure plays a role in determining whether an individual will engage in a particular behaviour, while their attitudes towards the behaviour may also influence their decision (Nam et al., 2017). Research has shown a positive relationship between subjective norms and intention; however, some studies have found no significant correlation between subjective norms and the intention to purchase sustainable products (Mason et al., 2022). In the context of this study, members of the reference group may be more likely to purchase sustainably produced fast fashion if they believe that other members of the group would approve of and adopt this behaviour (Ajzen,

1991; Liobikiene et al., 2016; Paul et al., 2016; Rausch & Kopplin, 2021; Yadav & Pathak, 2017).

2.10.3 Perceived behavioural control (PBC)

PBC refers to individuals' perception of the ease or difficulty of performing a particular behaviour. This perception includes access to resources, self-confidence, and opportunities to accomplish the behaviour (Nam et al., 2017). According to Arjen (1991), both motivation (intention) and ability (behavioural control) play a role in the completion of a behaviour. PBC is a critical factor influencing changes in attitude and behaviour, suggesting that PBC can positively influence consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions. In contrast, when a consumer anticipates that significant others may not support the behaviour, they may experience psychological barriers, negatively affecting their PBC. Therefore, PBC plays a vital role in determining consumer behaviour and decision-making. The intention is reflected in the individual's willingness to put in the effort, while attitudes and subjective norms capture personal and social influences, respectively (Nam et al., 2017).

2.11 Conclusion

Based on the literature review in this chapter, it is clear that the fast fashion industry has had significant environmental and societal impacts. There is a growing trend towards sustainability in the fashion industry, and sustainable fast fashion has gained attention as a potential solution. Consumer purchasing behaviour, including sustainable purchasing behaviour, is critical in driving change in the fashion industry. The Theory of Planned Behaviour provides a valuable framework for understanding the factors influencing consumer intentions to buy sustainable fast fashion (refer to Figure 2). Overall, this research highlights the need for a shift towards more sustainable practices in the fashion industry, and further study is needed to understand the best ways to achieve this.

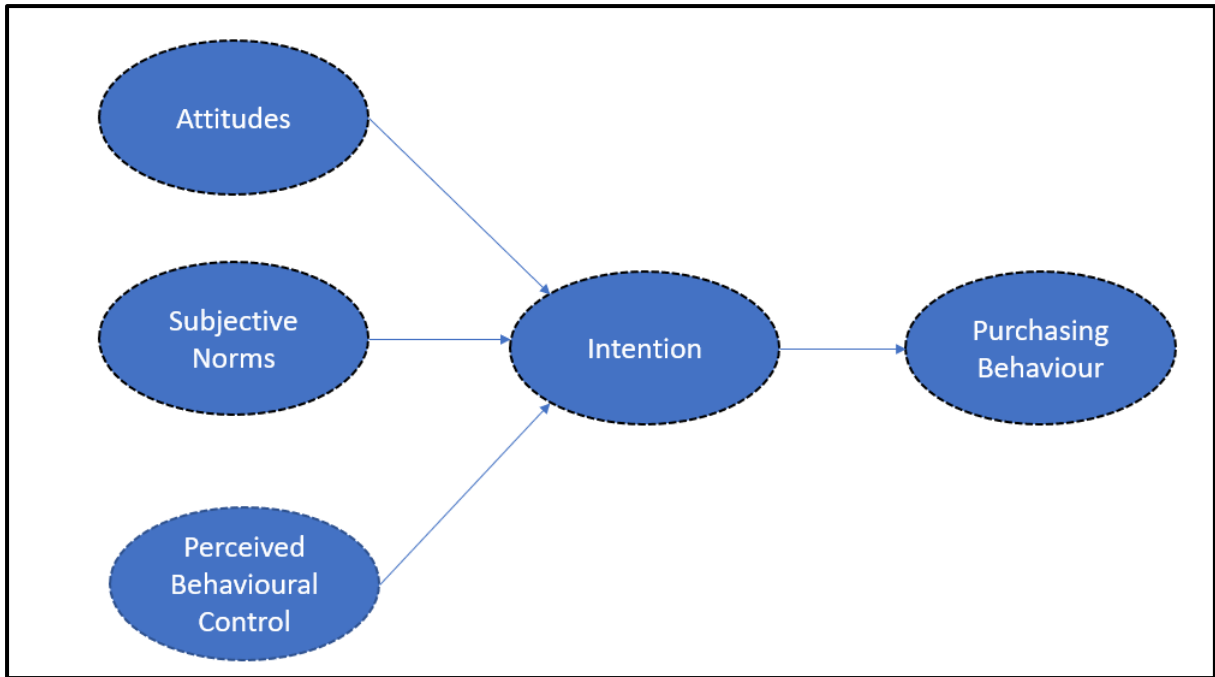


Figure 2: Adapted from the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The chapter elaborates on the research design employed to explore the relationship between consumers' purchasing behaviour intention relating to fast fashion products and the influence of sustainability using TPB as the theoretical perspective regarding the three antecedents of consumer behavioural intention, attitude, subjective norm, and PBC. The researcher utilised the research onion introduced by Saunders and Lewis (2012, p. 105) to guide the researcher in developing a framework for considering the various vital components when creating and implementing a research study. The research onion is meant to be a flexible framework that can be adapted to the specific needs of a research project. It is intended to help researchers think systematically about the different aspects of their research and ensure that all relevant considerations are considered. The research onion details the five layers that should be considered when conducting research studies, and this chapter expands on the five design layers, starting with the outer layer, philosophy and moving inwards to the inner layers (see figure 3).

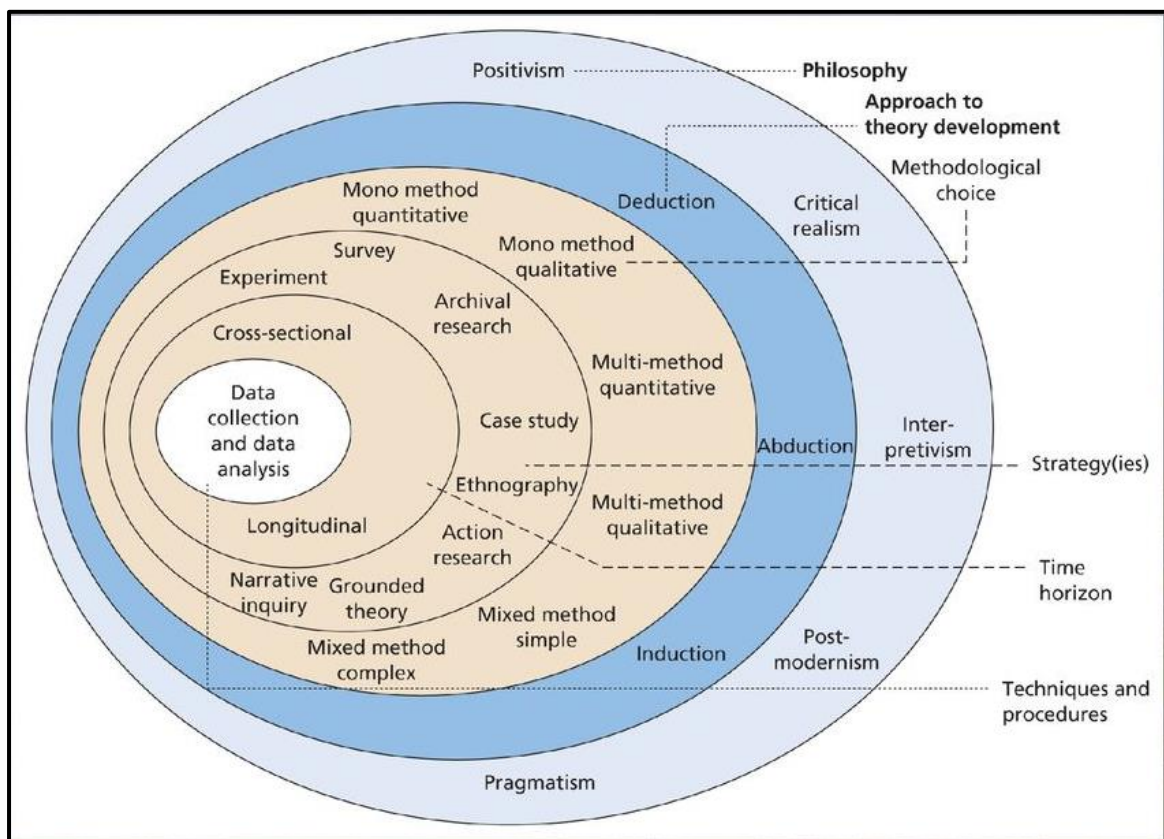


Figure 3: The Research Onion (Saunders & Lewis, 2012)

3.2 Research design

According to Saunders and Lewis (2012), the research design is the roadmap that guides the researcher in the collection, measurement, and data analysis to investigate the identified problem. Saunders and Lewis (2012, p. 106) define research philosophy as “a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge concerning research”. The study adopted an ontological position of positivism as the research study explored the causal relationship between consumers’ purchasing behaviour intention of fast fashion and sustainability. A philosophical belief system of ontology relates to the nature of reality (Cresswell, 2014, p. 54), whether “it is patterned, predictable or constantly re-created by humans” (Hair & Brunsveld, 2019, p. 12). A positivist philosophical stance enabled data and facts to be free of human interpretation or bias (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p 107 – 108), enabling the exploration of causal relationships between consumers’ purchasing intention behaviour, fast fashion products and sustainability. A similar study on the UK consumers' attitude towards the sustainability of fast fashion products was conducted by Zhang et al. (2021) indicated that a positivist ontology-based research philosophy enabled the satisfactory observation and measurement of the attitude of British consumers.

The researcher employed a deductive approach, starting with a general theory or hypothesis and collecting data to test it. This approach makes predictions based on the theory, and then data is gathered to see if the predictions are supported. This method helps test theories and understand the relationships between variables, but it may not be as effective at generating new ideas or examining complex phenomena. The deductive approach involves a top-down approach, where a general theory or hypothesis is applied to a specific situation or phenomenon. Data is then collected and analysed to see if the theory holds up. This approach contrasts an inductive approach, which involves starting with specific observations and then constructing a theory to explain them (Cresswell, 2014; Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p 112).

A descriptive-explanatory research method was employed to describe and explain the relationships between variables in exploring the relationship between consumers' purchasing behaviour of sustainable fast fashion. This research involved collecting and analysing consumer purchasing data to identify patterns and trends. It would also involve gathering information on factors influencing consumers' purchasing behaviour, such as their attitudes towards sustainability, knowledge of sustainable fashion, and economic and demographic

characteristics. The research would then use this information to explain the relationship between these factors and consumers' purchasing behaviour (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p 115 - 118).

Creswell (2014, p. 197) described quantitative research as a viable method for testing hypotheses by analysing the associations between independent and dependent variables. This research approach offered several benefits: (a) personal feelings or opinions did not influence the research as a result is numerical (quantitative), (b) the processing of data was simplified, (c) it allowed for easier comparison of data and (d) enabled quantitative valuation indicators to be developed (Basias & Pollalis, 2018). Due to the research study's positive nature, the methodical choice was a mono-method quantitative research study with the collection of data completed electronically with the use of a closed questionnaire (Zikmund, 2013)

The chosen approach for this research was a survey, which Saunders and Lewis (2018) describe as a method of gathering data in a structured format from a sizeable sample. In this study, the survey involved administering questions to participants to obtain relevant information about the research subject. The questions were designed to elicit responses that would provide insight into the participants' attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours. The survey was conducted using an online method. The survey results were analysed using statistical techniques, and the findings were used to inform the research question and future research efforts. Overall, the survey provided a comprehensive and robust approach to gathering data about the research topic and allowed for a detailed and nuanced understanding of the subject matter (Cresswell, 2014; Leavy, 2017; Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p 115 - 118).

The research study time horizon for the collection of measurable and quantifiable data was cross-sectional as respondents completed a closed questionnaire offering a snapshot view at one moment in time from multiple types of people over a limited period (Cresswell, 2014) as the researcher had to abide by time constraints due to conducting the research as part of academic qualification programme.

3.3 Population, sampling, and unit of analysis

3.3.1 Population

Saunders and Lewis (2018) recommend collecting data from a population sample when it is not feasible to study the entire population and time is limited. This research study focused on fashion product consumers who had made at least one purchase in the past year, regardless of their income level. All willing consumers were included in the study, regardless of their demographic characteristics or purchasing habits.

3.3.2 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis in this study was individual consumers who had purchased fashion products within the past year. The population group being studied was comprised of these individuals. This means that the data collected and analysed in the study pertain to these specific consumers, and the results may not necessarily represent the more significant fashion product consumers or the general population. It is essential to consider the population being studied and the study's limitations in interpreting the results and making generalisations.

3.3.3 Sampling method and size

This research study used a non-probability convenience sampling technique to select participants. This method involves selecting a sample from the population that is easily accessible or convenient for the researcher to study (Saunders & Lewis, 2018). Convenience sampling is often used when it is impossible to obtain a complete list of the population or when time or resources are limited. Convenience sampling is a cost-effective research method that requires less time and resources than other sampling techniques, as the researcher can easily find participants who are readily available or accessible, which reduces the need for searching (Cohen et al., 2018).

Additionally, this method is efficient, as data collection can begin immediately. Convenience sampling is also less prone to sampling bias, as it can provide a representative sample of the studied population, which may have diverse demographic and cultural backgrounds. Moreover, this method is particularly useful in exploratory research, where the goal is to develop new ideas, theories, or concepts. However, this method has some limitations. One of the main limitations is that the sample may not be representative of the entire population, which can lead to biased results (Leavy, 2017).

Calculating the margin of error or confidence interval for this sample type is also impossible because the participants were not selected randomly (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p 138 - 148). The data for this study was collected from a group of people who were easily accessible and willing to participate through the researcher's social network. However, the limitation of using this sample is that it may not represent the broader population accurately, so the findings cannot be generalised to the entire population.

3.4 Measurement instrument

The research study used a questionnaire adapted from Zhang et al. (2021) as a measurement tool. The questionnaire included both closed-ended questions and 5-point Likert-scale questions. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire, which required them to respond to the questions. The closed-ended questions offered limited options for participants to choose from when answering, which ensured that all participants similarly answered the questions. This type of question is often used in survey research to gather standardised responses that can be easily quantified and analysed statistically (Saunders & Lewis, 2018).

The use of closed-ended questions allows for more precise measurement and comparison of responses across participants and can be particularly useful in large-scale surveys where it is not practical to analyse open-ended responses in detail. The 5-point Likert-scale questions used in this study asked participants to rate their disagreement or agreement with a statement on a scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Using a numerical scale facilitated statistical analysis of the responses and allowed for the creation of summary statistics such as means and standard deviations. It also made comparing responses across different questions and identifying data trends or patterns easier. (Saunders & Lewis, 2018).

Questionnaires are commonly used for collecting data in research studies that employ a survey research strategy (Leavy, 2017). In this study, the researcher consulted online databases to see if any pre-existing parts of questionnaires could be used to answer the research questions. This is a common practice because it can save time and effort in developing a new questionnaire from scratch. However, it is crucial to carefully evaluate the suitability of any pre-existing questionnaire and make any necessary modifications to ensure that it is appropriate for the current study (Leavy, 2017). This may involve adding or deleting questions, revising the wording or response options, or making other changes to ensure the

questionnaire is relevant and appropriate for the research goals and the intended study population.

3.5 Data collection

In this study, a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data. The questionnaire was closed-ended, meaning participants were asked to choose from a list of predetermined responses. The questionnaire was distributed online using Google Forms and shared with participants through personal channels such as email and social media. Participants were also encouraged to share the link with their social networks. In order to determine the appropriate sample size for multiple linear regression analysis, the number of independent variables included in the model must be considered (Pallant, 2010). Pallant (2010) indicates a sample size formula of $N = 50 + 8m$, where m represents the number of independent variables in the analysis. Applying this formula, a sample size of 96 cases ($N = 50 + \{8 \times 6 \text{ independent variables}\}$) would be required. 123 responses were collected within the designated time frame, exceeding the recommended sample size.

The questionnaire had four sections:

Section A consisted of questions to gather demographic information about the participants, such as their age, gender, monthly income range (Living Conditions Survey, 2022), and budget for purchasing fast fashion. This information will be analysed descriptively.

Section B asked participants to rate the importance of eight intentional factors when purchasing fast fashion products using a five-point Likert-type scale anchored from (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Section C assessed the participants' knowledge of sustainability in the fast fashion industry using a five-point Likert-type scale anchored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

In Section D, we aimed to understand participants' economic and behavioural decisions when purchasing fast fashion products. We asked questions to determine the frequency of sustainable purchases and the participants' level of sensitivity to price and income when

considering sustainable fast fashion products. We also used a five-point Likert-type scale, with responses ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," to assess the impact of social environment and perceived behaviour on participants' intentions to purchase sustainable fast fashion products.

3.6 Data editing and coding

The raw data for this study was obtained by downloading a comma-separated file from Google Forms and importing it into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The data was then edited and cleaned to ensure that it met the requirements of the study. A codebook (see Appendix B) assisted with the coding process. Of the 123 entries, 2 were discarded due to not meeting the requirements of the study, resulting in a final sample size of N = 121. All remaining entries were deemed complete and compliant with the requirements of the study. In terms of coding:

- Screening questions were collected using nominal data,

| | |
|-----|---|
| Yes | 1 |
| No | 2 |

- Demographics of the sample were collected using categorical variables,

- For age,

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| 18 - 29 years | 1 |
| 30 - 39 years | 2 |
| 40 - 49 years | 3 |
| 50 - 59 years | 4 |
| 60 years or older | 5 |

- For gender,

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Male | 1 |
| Female | 2 |
| Prefer not to disclose | 3 |

- For net monthly household income,

| | |
|--|---|
| Low (up to R 9 999) | 1 |
| Low-middle income (R 10 000 - R 19 999) | 2 |
| High-middle income (R 20 000 - R 39 999) | 3 |
| Low-high income (R 40 000 - R 59 999) | 4 |
| Upper-high income (R 60 000 +) | 5 |

- For monthly fast fashion budget share,

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| R 0 - R 1 000 | 1 |
| R 1 001 - R 2 000 | 2 |
| R 2 001 - R 3 000 | 3 |
| R 3 001 - R 5 000 | 4 |
| R 5 001 - R 10 000 | 5 |

- Section B: Purchasing considerations, Section C: Sustainability knowledge and Section C: Sustainability decision were collected using interval data (on a five-point Likert-type scale).

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| Strongly Disagree | 1 |
| Disagree | 2 |
| Neutral | 3 |
| Agree | 4 |
| Strongly Agree | 5 |

- For Section C: Sustainability knowledge, attribute of sustainable fashion.

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| Good quality | 1 |
| Long-lasting | 2 |
| Expensive | 3 |
| Fair labour practice | 4 |
| Organic fabrics | 5 |

- For Section C: Sustainability knowledge, selection of the most eco-friendly fabric.

| | |
|------------|---|
| Cotton | 1 |
| Synthetics | 2 |
| Wool | 3 |
| Modal | 4 |

- For Section C: Sustainability decision, sustainable fashion spend.

| | |
|------------|----|
| Under 10% | 1 |
| 11% - 20% | 2 |
| 21% - 30% | 3 |
| 31% - 40% | 4 |
| 41% - 50% | 5 |
| 51% - 60% | 6 |
| 61% - 70% | 7 |
| 71% - 80% | 8 |
| 81% - 90% | 9 |
| 91% - 100% | 10 |

- For Section C: Sustainability decision, sustainable fashion premium percentage willing to be paid.

| | |
|------------|---|
| Under 1% | 1 |
| 1% - 5% | 2 |
| 6% - 10% | 3 |
| 11% - 20% | 4 |
| 21% - 40% | 5 |
| 41% - 60% | 6 |
| 61% - 80% | 7 |
| 81% - 100% | 8 |

- For Section C: Sustainability decision, the additional income required for sustainable fashion spend.

| | |
|------------|---|
| Under 5% | 1 |
| 6% - 10% | 2 |
| 11% - 20% | 3 |
| 21% - 40% | 4 |
| 41% - 60% | 5 |
| 61% - 80% | 6 |
| 81% - 100% | 7 |

3.7 Data analysis

The closed questionnaire's quantitative data was standardised into a numerical or measurable form, following Saunders and Lewis's (2018) guidelines. IBM's SPSS software package was utilised to analyse the survey data, providing a descriptive analysis to outline the respondents' profiles, including demographic characteristics such as gender, age group, and net monthly income. The analysis used frequency distributions, central tendency, and variation measurements. Multiple linear regression analysis examined the relationship between attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC among South African consumers regarding sustainable fast fashion and their intentions to engage in sustainable fashion choices during shopping. Assumptions of multiple linear regression include:

1. Linearity: The relationship between the dependent variable and each independent variable is linear.
2. Independence: The observations are independent of each other. Independence means that the values of one observation do not influence the values of other observations.

3. Homoscedasticity: The variance of the residuals is constant across all levels of the independent variables. In other words, the spread of the residuals should be the same at all levels of the independent variables
4. Normality: The residuals are normally distributed. This means that the errors should follow a normal distribution.
5. No multicollinearity: The independent variables are not highly correlated with each other. If the independent variables are highly correlated, it can make it difficult to determine the unique contribution of each independent variable to the model.
6. No influential outliers: Outliers can disproportionately affect the regression equation, distorting the results. Identifying and removing any influential outliers before performing the regression analysis is essential.

3.8 Quality controls

During the study, stringent measures were implemented to uphold the highest quality control standards. The integrity of the research findings was of utmost importance; as such, every effort was made to minimise the possibility of errors. The ethical conduct of the research was also prioritised, and all actions were taken following established ethical guidelines. To guarantee the reliability of the data, a thorough review was conducted at each stage of the data collection and analysis process, ensuring that the research was conducted in the most appropriate manner possible. Ultimately, these measures were implemented to ensure that the research results were accurate and trustworthy.

3.8.1 Pretesting

A pilot study, a pretest, is integral to conducting reasonable research. It involves using a small representative sample of the population to test the effectiveness and efficiency of the research instruments, such as a questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2018; Hair & Brunsveld, 2019; Saunders & Lewis, 2018). In this case, the questionnaire was distributed to 10 respondents for pretesting to check for any issues or improvements that could be made and the time required to complete the survey. After the pretest, it was determined that some of the questions were repetitive and needed to be combined, but no changes to the content or questions were required. The pilot study helped ensure that the questionnaire was appropriate for the study and that it would not be too burdensome for the respondents to complete.

3.8.2 Data Validity and Reliability

The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was employed to assess the reliability of the measurement, which is a widely accepted measure for evaluating inter-item consistency. This coefficient indicates the degree to which all items in a measurement evaluate the same attribute, thereby measuring the internal consistency of the measurement. A Cronbach alpha value below 0.60 is considered inadequate, those in the 0.60 to 0.70 range are deemed acceptable, and those exceeding 0.80 are considered strong (Saunders & Lewis, 2018; Zikmund, 2013). To ensure the study's accuracy, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to examine the interconnections among the variables in the measurement instrument. The process involved using an existing questionnaire from the literature and conducting an EFA using IBM SPSS software. The EFA allowed for the identification of underlying concepts and commonalities between variables, which assisted in verifying the validity of the questionnaire

3.9 Ethics

The University of Pretoria's Gordon Institute of Business Science granted ethical clearance for this research, as noted in Appendix D. After securing approval, a pretest questionnaire was distributed among colleagues for ease of use evaluation. Feedback was considered, leading to adjustments to the questionnaire's layout, but no questions were altered. The survey was designed to be self-administered, voluntary, and anonymous, and in accordance with the Protection of Personal Information Act, no personal information was collected or stored. Participants were informed of the voluntary and anonymous nature of the survey on the first page and were allowed to withdraw at any time without consequence. The collected data was kept confidential to maintain its protection within the study's scope.

3.10 Limitations

The following limitations should be noted:

1. Sampling bias: Convenience sampling relies on the availability of participants, which can lead to a sample not representative of the population, limiting the generalisability of the study's findings.
2. Response bias: Survey research relies on self-reported data, which can be subject to social desirability bias (where people may report what they think is expected of them rather than their actual beliefs or behaviours).
3. Validity and reliability: The validity and reliability of the questionnaire may be limited if the questions are not well-written or the response options are not well-defined.
4. Data quality: The data collected may be compromised if the questionnaire is not completed correctly or if missing data exists.
5. Contextual factors: The study's cross-sectional design does not allow for examining changes over time or the potential influence of other variables that may not have been measured. The correlation of intention with purchasing behaviour is based upon self-reported data and may not reflect actual behaviour. Correlation assumptions rely on the premise that intentions were already established before purchase.
6. Limited scope: Due to the design and sample selection, the study is limited in examining complex relationships or making causal inferences.

3.11 Conclusion

This positivist ontological quantitative deductive research study utilised a survey questionnaire and convenience sampling to collect and complete data analysis. The study adhered to ethical principles, including obtaining informed consent from participants and maintaining confidentiality. However, it is critical to acknowledge that the convenience sampling method and the study's cross-sectional design may limit the generalisability of the findings. Additionally, self-reported data through a questionnaire may be subject to response biases. Despite these limitations, the study provides valuable insights and contributes to the existing body of knowledge in the field. Further research using different methodologies and sample selection strategies may be necessary to confirm and expand upon the findings of this study.

Chapter 4: Analysis of Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a sample profile and numerical evidence to respond to the research questions and hypotheses outlined in Chapter 2. The data were analysed using IBM SPSS statistics software version 29, with a 95% confidence interval and a significance level of 5%. The outcomes are presented clearly and concisely, with a detailed explanation of relevant statistical tests.

4.2 Descriptive profile of the respondents

Section A of the survey questionnaire was designed to collect data on the personal attributes of the participants. The study utilised a non-probability convenience sampling technique that gathered responses from 123 individuals between November 3rd and December 3rd, 2022. All questions in the survey were mandatory, and therefore, there were no missing values in the dataset. Out of the 123 respondents, 121 stated that they had made at least one clothing purchase in the last year, while two respondents reported not having made any clothing purchases during that period (as shown in table 4.1). The research analysis was based solely on the responses of the 121 individuals who reported making a clothing purchase in the past year (N = 121).

Table 4. 1: Data screening composition of the sample

| Confirmation of having made at least one clothing purchase in the last year (12 months) | | | | | |
|---|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Yes | 121 | 98,4 | 98,4 | 98,4 |
| | No | 2 | 1,6 | 1,6 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 123 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.2.1 Gender

In this study, all respondents provided their gender information. The sample showed a higher proportion of females, with 66 females accounting for 54.5% of the total sample, while 55 males represented the remaining 45.5% (see Table 4.2 and Figure 4). According to Statistics

South Africa, the mid-year population estimates for 2022 show that the gender distribution is slightly skewed towards females, who comprise 51.1% of the total population, while males comprise 48.9%. While the gender composition of the sample was partially aligned with the South African population, gender was not a focus of the research and did not impact the analysis. The research did not aim to test differences between males and females.

Table 4. 2: Gender composition of the sample

| Gender | | | | |
|--------|--------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Male | 55 | 45,5 | 45,5 |
| | Female | 66 | 54,5 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 121 | 100,0 | |

(Source: SPSS output)

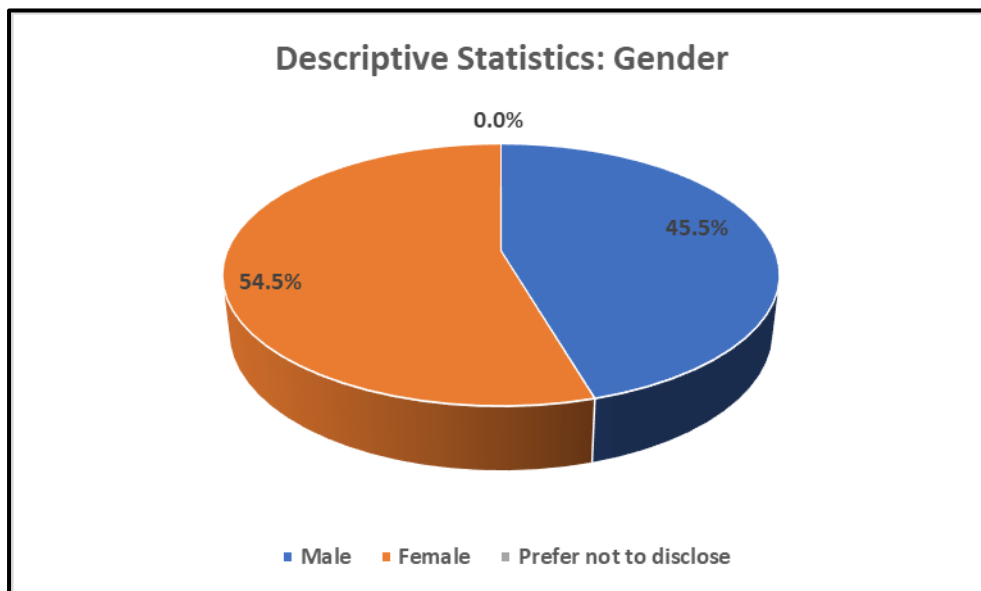


Figure 4: Gender composition of the sample (Source: SPSS output).

4.2.2 Age Group

The age group profile of the research sample is represented in Table 4.3, indicating that the majority of the total respondents, 37.2% (n = 45), are aged between 40 and 49. Additionally, the results reflect that 18.2% (n = 22) of the total respondents were between 18 and 29 years old, and 21.5% (n = 26) were between 30 and 39. The smaller portion of the total respondents was between 50 and 59 years, 17.4% (n = 21), with the tiniest portion of respondents aged 60 years and older, 5.8% (n = 7). The sample composition was skewed more towards older consumers compared to younger consumers. Based upon mid-year population estimates for 2022, as concluded by Statistics South Africa, indicate that those aged between 18 and 29

years (25.7%) and 30 and 39 years (27.9%) represent a more significant percentage of the population that is aged 18 years and above. Those between 40 and 49 years of age account only for 19.1% of the population aged 18 years and above (Mid-year population estimates, 2022). Based on the sample's age profile of the sample one can determine that the sample was not representative of the South African population of 18 years and above.

Table 4. 3: Age group profile of the sample

| Age Group Profile | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | 18 - 29 years | 22 | 18,2 | 18,2 |
| | 30 - 39 years | 26 | 21,5 | 39,7 |
| | 40 - 49 years | 45 | 37,2 | 76,9 |
| | 50 - 59 years | 21 | 17,4 | 94,2 |
| | 60 years or older | 7 | 5,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 121 | 100,0 | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.2.3 Household income level

The household income levels of the sample are shown in Table 4.4. 21.5% (n = 26) of respondents reported monthly household incomes of up to R 9,999 (low). An additional 19.8% (n = 24) of the sample reported household incomes between R 10,000 and R 19,999 (low-middle) per month, and 28.1% (n = 34) reported household incomes between R 20,000 and R 39,999 (high-middle) per month. 10.7% (n = 13) of the sample reported household incomes between R 40,000 and R 59,999 (low-high) per month, and 19.8% (n = 24) reported household incomes of R 60,000 or above (upper-high) per month. These results indicate that most of the sample had household incomes in the middle or high range, with a smaller portion in the low-income range and a smaller portion in the upper-high range.

Table 4. 4: Household income level of the sample

| Monthly Net Household Income | | | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Low income | 26 | 21,5 | 21,5 |
| | Low-middle income | 24 | 19,8 | 41,3 |
| | High-middle income | 34 | 28,1 | 69,4 |
| | Low-high income | 13 | 10,7 | 80,2 |
| | Upper-high income | 24 | 19,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 121 | 100,0 | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.2.4 Monthly budget for fast fashion products

Table 4.5 displays the monthly budget allocated by respondents for fast fashion products. 77.7% (n = 94) of the sample reported allocating budgets between R 0 and R 1,000 per month for these products. 14.9% (n = 18) allocated budgets between R 1,001 and R 2,000 per month, while 5.0% (n = 6) allocated budgets between R 2,001 and R 3,000 per month. A small percentage of respondents, 1.7% (n = 2), allocated budgets between R 3,001 and R 5,000 per month, and even fewer, 0.8% (n = 1), allocated budgets between R 5,001 and R 10,000 per month. These results indicate that most respondents allocated relatively low budgets for fast fashion products, with only a tiny percentage allocating higher budgets.

Table 4. 5: Monthly fast fashion budget of the sample

| Monthly Fast Fashion Budget | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | R 0 - R 1 000 | 94 | 77,7 | 77,7 |
| | R 1 001 - R 2 000 | 18 | 14,9 | 92,6 |
| | R 2 001 - R 3 000 | 6 | 5,0 | 97,5 |
| | R 3 001 - R 5 000 | 2 | 1,7 | 99,2 |
| | R 5 001 - R 10 000 | 1 | 0,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 121 | 100,0 | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.3 Fast Fashion Consumer Purchasing Factors

The second section of the questionnaire, Section B, was designed to gather information from the respondents about the intentional factors, including sustainability factors, that they consider when intending to purchase fast fashion products, as illustrated in Figure 5. The analysis of the data collected revealed that the top three attributes considered by the respondents when intending to purchase fast fashion products were fit, quality, and price. Additionally, most respondents, 69.4% (n = 84), agreed or strongly agreed that fashionability was a factor they considered when purchasing fast fashion products, while 81.0% (n = 98) agreed or strongly agreed that durability was a factor they considered. In contrast, 60.3% (n = 73) of respondents stated that the country of manufacture had no impact on their intention to purchase fast fashion products. 45.5% (n = 55) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the environmental impact of purchasing fast fashion products was a consideration they considered when intending to purchase them, while 41.3% (n = 50) stated that it had no

impact on their intention to purchase fast fashion products. Furthermore, 57.9% (n = 70) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that human dignity during the manufacturing of fast fashion products was a factor they considered when intending to purchase, and 33.1% (n = 40) stated that it had no impact on their intention to purchase fast fashion products.

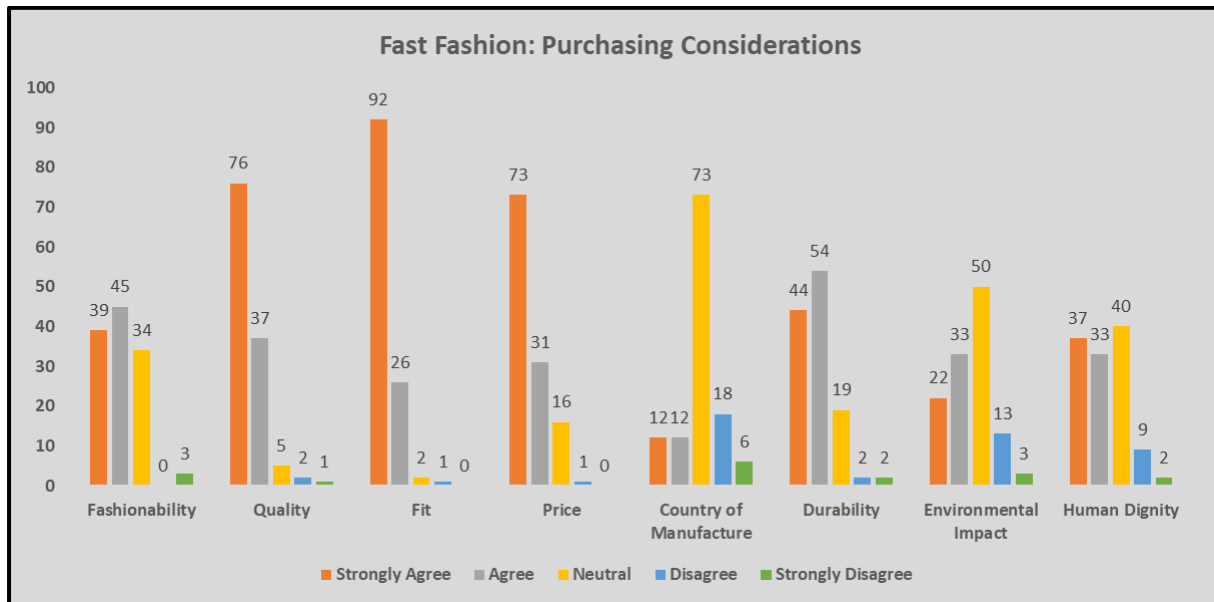


Figure 5: Fast Fashion: Intentional considerations (Source: SPSS output)

Table 4.6 presents the findings of a survey on eight intentional factors influencing the purchasing of traditional fast fashion and sustainable fashion products. The data shows that the participants positively perceived these factors, with an average score of 4.01 (SD = 0.51). This suggests that the respondents consider these factors necessary when purchasing fast fashion. The factor that received the highest score was "fit", with an average score of 4.73, indicating that participants prioritise fit as a critical consideration when making fast fashion purchases.

Table 4. 6: Descriptive statistics for intentional construct

| Intentional Factors | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD |
|--------------------------------------|----------|----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|
| Fashionability | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,97 | 0,91 |
| Quality | 121 | 1 | 5 | 4,53 | 0,73 |
| Fit | 121 | 2 | 5 | 4,73 | 0,53 |
| Price | 121 | 2 | 5 | 4,45 | 0,75 |
| Country of manufacture | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,05 | 0,92 |
| Durability | 121 | 1 | 5 | 4,12 | 0,85 |
| Environmental impact | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,48 | 0,99 |
| Human dignity during the manufacture | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,78 | 1,02 |
| Intentional factors | 121 | 2 | 5 | 4,01 | 0,51 |

(Source: SPSS output)

The intentional purchasing factors included four factors attributed to traditional fast fashion: fashionability, quality, fit and price. The remaining four factors attributed to sustainable fast fashion: country of manufacture, durability, environmental impact and human dignity formed the sustainable purchasing intention (SPIF) construct.

4.4 Consumer Awareness of Fast Fashion Sustainability

Table 4.7 presents the results of the attitude construct survey based on the four different sustainability issues: social issues, child labour and sweatshop issues, environmental issues related to waste and pollution in the garment industry, and knowledge of eco-friendly fashion products. Each issue was rated on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 indicating the least favourable attitude and 5 indicating the most favourable.

The mean score for social issues was 3.42 (SD = 1.02), indicating that, on average, participants had a moderately favourable attitude towards social sustainability issues. The mean score for child labour and sweatshop issues was 3.60 (SD = 1.14), indicating that, on average, participants had a moderately favourable attitude towards child labour and sweatshop issues.

The mean score for environmental issues was 3.36 (SD = 1.19), indicating that, on average, participants had a moderately favourable attitude towards environmental sustainability issues related to waste and pollution in the garment industry. The mean score for knowledge of eco-friendly fashion products was 3.27 (SD = 1.13), which indicates that, on average, participants

had a moderately favourable attitude towards being knowledgeable about eco-friendly fashion products. The overall mean score for the attitude construct of sustainability was 3.41 (SD = 0.92), which indicates that, on average, participants had a moderately favourable attitude towards sustainability issues.

Table 4. 7: Descriptive statistics for attitude construct

| Issues impacting Attitude | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD |
|---|----------|----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|
| Social issues | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,42 | 1,02 |
| Child labour and sweatshop concerns | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,60 | 1,14 |
| Excessive production of garments resulting in environmental concerns, including waste and pollution | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,36 | 1,19 |
| Knowledgeable about eco-friendly fashion brands that offer sustainable clothing options | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,27 | 1,13 |
| Attitude | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,41 | 0,92 |

(Source: SPSS output)

The survey results shown in figure 6 indicate that of the 121 respondents, 34.70% (n = 42) felt that using organic fabrics was an essential aspect of sustainable fashion. Additionally, 33.90% (n = 41) of respondents believed sustainable fashion was primarily characterised by its long-lasting nature. A smaller percentage, 19.0% (n = 23) of respondents, considered good quality a defining characteristic of sustainable fashion, while only a tiny fraction of 1.70% (n = 2) of respondents felt that sustainable fashion was inherently expensive. Finally, 10.70% (n = 13) of respondents considered fair labour practices a critical component of sustainable fashion. These results suggest that sustainability and durability are considered the most critical aspects of sustainable fashion.

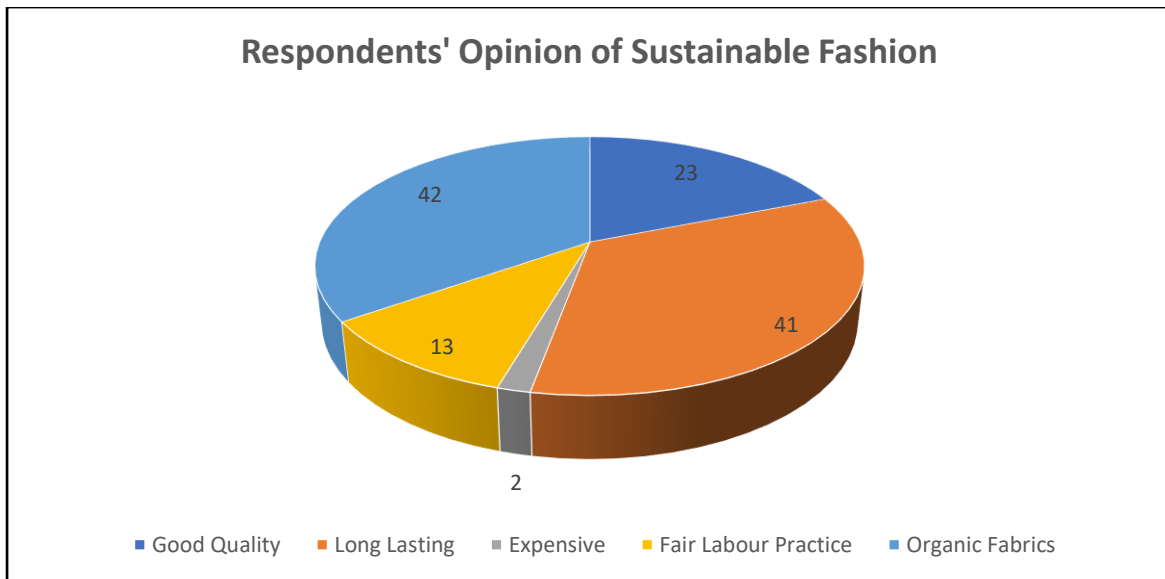


Figure 6: Respondents' opinion of sustainable fashion (Source: SPSS output)

Figure 7 shows the responses of the 121 respondents to gauge their knowledge of sustainable fashion composition. The data reveals that cotton was the most commonly known sustainable fabric among the respondents, with 98 individuals (81.0%) identifying it as a sustainable option. Synthetic fabrics were known to a lesser extent, with only 10 respondents (8.30%) identifying them as sustainable. Wool and Modal fabrics were the least known, with only 7 (5.80%) and 6 (5.0%) respondents identifying them as sustainable.

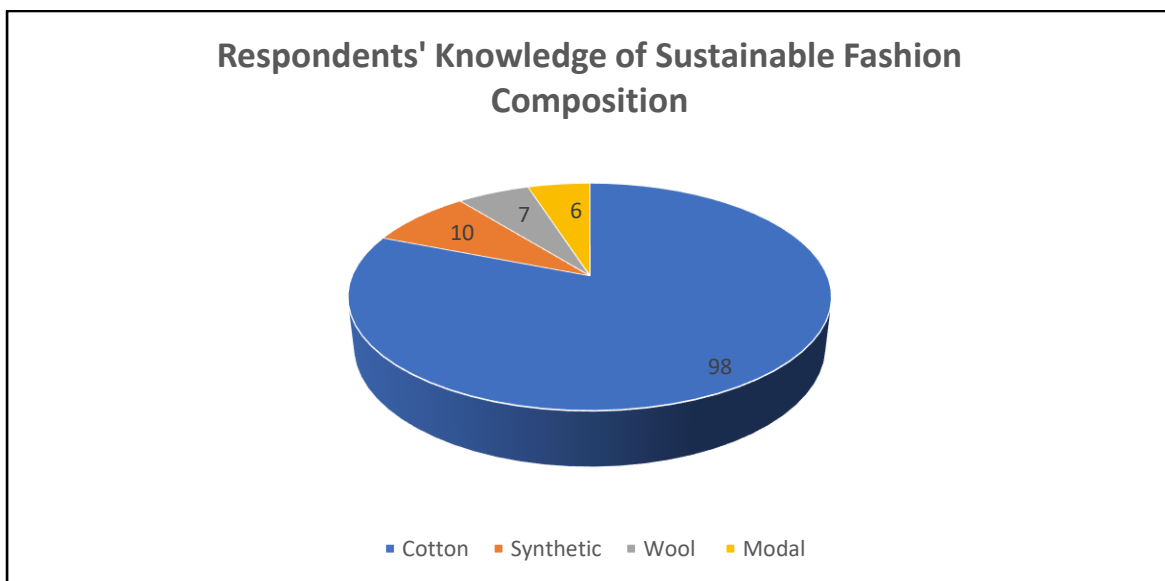


Figure 7: Respondents' knowledge of sustainable fashion composition (Source: SPSS output)

4.5 Consumer Sustainability in Purchasing

4.5.1 Sustainable purchasing behaviour

Table 4.8 analyses the percentage of sustainable clothing purchases made by respondents from their total fashion purchases. The data indicates that 33 respondents (27.3%) reported purchasing less than 10% sustainable clothing, 8 respondents (6.6%) reported purchasing between 11% and 20%, 18 respondents (14.9%) reported purchasing between 21% and 30%, and 6 respondents (5.0%) reported purchasing between 31% and 40%. Additionally, 11 respondents (9.1%) reported purchasing between 41% and 50%, 15 respondents (12.4%) reported purchasing between 51% and 60%, 8 respondents (6.6%) reported purchasing between 61% and 70%, and 10 respondents (8.3%) reported purchasing between 71% and 80%. Furthermore, 5 respondents (4.1%) reported purchasing between 81% and 90%, and 7 (5.8%) reported purchasing 100% sustainable clothing.

Table 4. 8: Percentage of sustainable purchases

| | | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-------|------------|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| Valid | Under 10% | 33 | 27,3 | 27,3 |
| | 11% - 20% | 8 | 6,6 | 33,9 |
| | 21% - 30% | 18 | 14,9 | 48,8 |
| | 31% - 40% | 6 | 5,0 | 53,7 |
| | 41% - 50% | 11 | 9,1 | 62,8 |
| | 51% - 60% | 15 | 12,4 | 75,2 |
| | 61% - 70% | 8 | 6,6 | 81,8 |
| | 71% - 80% | 10 | 8,3 | 90,1 |
| | 81% - 90% | 5 | 4,1 | 94,2 |
| | 91% - 100% | 7 | 5,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 121 | 100,0 | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.5.2 Price sensitivity for sustainable purchases

Table 4.9 presents the results of the percentage of premium that the respondents were willing to pay for fast fashion products with sustainability features. The table illustrates that 23 respondents (19.0%) were willing to pay less than 1% more, with most respondents 28.9% willing to pay between 1-5% more. A smaller proportion of respondents (17.4%) were willing to pay between 6-10% more, while 12.4% were willing to pay between 11-20% more. A small percentage of respondents (3.3%) were willing to pay between 21-40% more, with 5.8% willing to pay between 41-60% more, 7.4% willing to pay between 61-80% more, and 5.8% willing to pay between 81-100% more.

Table 4. 9: Price sensitivity for sustainable purchases

| Percentage price premium willing to be paid for fast fashion products with sustainability features | | | | | |
|--|------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Under 1% | 23 | 19,0 | 19,0 | 19,0 |
| | 1% - 5% | 35 | 28,9 | 28,9 | 47,9 |
| | 6% - 10% | 21 | 17,4 | 17,4 | 65,3 |
| | 11% - 20% | 15 | 12,4 | 12,4 | 77,7 |
| | 21% - 40% | 4 | 3,3 | 3,3 | 81,0 |
| | 41% - 60% | 7 | 5,8 | 5,8 | 86,8 |
| | 61% - 80% | 9 | 7,4 | 7,4 | 94,2 |
| | 81% - 100% | 7 | 5,8 | 5,8 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 121 | 100,0 | 100,0 | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.5.3 Income sensitivity for sustainable purchases

Table 4.10 presents the responses from respondents indicating the percentage of additional income required before they would consider purchasing fashion products with sustainability features. The table shows that 19 respondents (15.7%) require under 5% more income, 23 respondents (19.0%) require between 6% and 10% more income, 38 respondents (31.4%) require between 11% and 20% more income, 20 respondents (16.5%) require between 21% and 40% more income, 8 respondents (6.6%) require between 41% and 60% more income, 6 respondents (5.0%) require between 61% and 80% more income, and 7 respondents (5.8%) require between 81% and 100% more income.

Table 4. 10: Income sensitivity for sustainable purchases

| Percentage of additional income needed before considering purchasing fashion products with sustainability features | | | | | |
|--|------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | Under 5% | 19 | 15,7 | 15,7 | 15,7 |
| | 6% - 10% | 23 | 19,0 | 19,0 | 34,7 |
| | 11% - 20% | 38 | 31,4 | 31,4 | 66,1 |
| | 21% - 40% | 20 | 16,5 | 16,5 | 82,6 |
| | 41% - 60% | 8 | 6,6 | 6,6 | 89,3 |
| | 61% - 80% | 6 | 5,0 | 5,0 | 94,2 |
| | 81% - 100% | 7 | 5,8 | 5,8 | 100,0 |
| | | Total | 121 | 100,0 | 100,0 |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.6 Validity of Construct

Before conducting any detailed testing, it was imperative to validate the constructs based on the design of the questionnaire obtained from relevant literature. Validity was achieved through a data validation process, which included a Pearson correlation analysis, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), and an assessment of the suitability of EFA for the collected data using the Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test for sphericity. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis, along with respective histograms, are presented in Appendix E (refer to tables 7.1, 7.2, 7.3, and 7.4).

4.6.1 Results of Data Validation: Exploratory Factor Analysis

The KMO measure for assessing the sampling adequacy of the combined items yielded a value of 0.73, surpassing the prescribed minimum threshold of 0.50. Statistical analysis of Bartlett's sphericity test yielded a statistically significant p-value of <0.001, which falls below the threshold for significance set at $p < 0.05$. These results suggest that factor analysis is appropriate for the present study, as illustrated in Table 4.11.

Table 4. 11: KMO and Bartlett's test results

| KMO and Bartlett's Test | | |
|--|--------------------|--------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | 0,73 | |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 639,24 |
| | df | 91 |
| | Sig. | <.001 |

(Source: SPSS output)

The existing research questionnaire (see Appendix A) comprised 21 questions. These questions covered various topics, including biographical and economic information and four direct measures of purchasing intention, attitude, subjective norm, and PBC. More information on each of the four sub-sections is provided below:

| Direct Measures | Related questions |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Sustainable Purchasing Intention | 6e, 6f, 6g, 6h |
| Attitude | 7, 8, 9, 10 |
| Subjective Norm | 16, 17 |
| PBC | 18, 19, 20, 21 |

The data analysis involved Principal Component Extraction and Varimax Rotation methods, whose results are presented in Table 4.12, which reflects the loadings of each factor and Table 4.13, which reflects the eigenvalues.

Table 4. 12: Rotational Component Matrix

| Rotated Component Matrix | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | Factor | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SPIF1 | 0,842 | 00,095 | 0,081 | -0,056 | -0,042 |
| SPIF2 | 0,649 | 0,197 | -0,104 | 0,102 | -0,024 |
| SPIF3 | 0,893 | 0,145 | 0,040 | 0,097 | 0,111 |
| SPIF4 | 0,771 | 0,176 | 0,128 | 0,118 | 0,218 |
| SK1 | 0,213 | 0,840 | 0,045 | -0,007 | -0,033 |
| SK2 | 0,105 | 0,874 | 0,007 | 0,031 | 0,074 |
| SK3 | 0,133 | 0,808 | -0,036 | 0,109 | 0,073 |
| SK4 | 0,474 | 0,566 | 0,069 | -0,100 | 0,150 |
| SN1 | 0,174 | 0,026 | 0,830 | 0,049 | -0,001 |
| SN2 | -0,075 | 0,011 | 0,895 | -0,075 | -0,017 |
| PBC1 | 0,103 | 0,032 | -0,077 | 0,852 | 0,158 |
| PBC2 | 0,045 | 0,030 | 0,046 | 0,848 | 0,064 |
| PBC3 | 0,107 | -0,022 | 0,139 | 0,054 | 0,872 |
| PBC4 | 0,060 | 0,194 | -0,201 | 0,208 | 0,797 |

(Source: SPSS output)

Table 4. 13: Initial Eigenvalues

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 4,120 | 29,430 | 29,430 | 4,120 | 29,430 | 29,430 |
| 2 | 1,851 | 13,222 | 42,652 | 1,851 | 13,222 | 42,652 |
| 3 | 1,684 | 12,029 | 54,681 | 1,684 | 12,029 | 54,681 |
| 4 | 1,405 | 10,034 | 64,715 | 1,405 | 10,034 | 64,715 |
| 5 | 1,089 | 7,779 | 72,495 | 1,089 | 7,779 | 72,495 |
| 6 | ,828 | 5,917 | 78,412 | | | |
| 7 | ,611 | 4,363 | 82,775 | | | |
| 8 | ,498 | 3,555 | 86,330 | | | |
| 9 | ,415 | 2,962 | 89,292 | | | |
| 10 | ,390 | 2,786 | 92,078 | | | |
| 11 | ,354 | 2,529 | 94,608 | | | |
| 12 | ,335 | 2,394 | 97,002 | | | |
| 13 | ,232 | 1,654 | 98,656 | | | |
| 14 | ,188 | 1,344 | 100,000 | | | |

(Source: SPSS output)

The Principal Component Extraction and Varimax rotation methods entailed considering only eigenvalues greater than one and loadings above 0.3. Initially, the analysis recommended extracting five factors, which accounted for 72.50% of the variables. However, factors 4 and 5 were combined to align with the questionnaire adopted in previous studies. Table 4.14 presents the factors and their corresponding labels.

Table 4. 14: Constructs from factor analysis

| Factor | Construct Items |
|--|------------------------|
| Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor (SPIF) | Q6e, Q6f, Q6g, Q6h |
| Attitude | Q7, Q8, Q9, Q10 |
| Subjective Norm | Q16, Q17 |
| PBC | Q18, Q19, Q20, Q21 |

4.7 Reliability of Construct

The assessment of inter-item consistency is commonly performed using Cronbach alpha, which is widely accepted as a reliable measure. The subsequent section outlines the outcomes for each scale.

4.7.1 Construct: Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor (SPIF)

The study tested internal consistency for four attributes related to sustainable purchasing intentions: the garment's country of manufacture (SPIF1), durability (SPIF2), environmental impact (SPIF3), and human dignity during manufacture (SPIF4). The results from exploratory factor analysis confirmed the acceptability of these items with Cronbach alpha of 0.83, which is considered to be strong. Removing any item from this scale would not improve Cronbach's alpha. Therefore, all items in this factor have been retained. Table 4.15 displays these results.

Table 4. 15: Cronbach's alpha results for Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor

| Reliability Statistics | | | | | |
|------------------------|--|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items | | | N of Items | |
| 0,83 | 0,83 | | | 4 | |
| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
| SPIF1 | 11,38 | 5,700 | 0,69 | 0,53 | 0,78 |
| SPIF2 | 10,31 | 6,71 | 0,48 | 0,25 | 0,86 |
| SPIF3 | 10,95 | 4,98 | 0,81 | 0,68 | 0,71 |
| SPIF4 | 10,65 | 5,33 | 0,68 | 0,52 | 0,78 |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.7.2 Construct: Attitude

The study tested internal consistency for four factors from the EFA analysis relating to consumers' attitudes. The results from exploratory factor analysis confirmed the acceptability of these items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.84, which is considered to be strong. Removing any item from this scale would not improve Cronbach's alpha. Therefore, all items in this factor have been retained. Table 4.16 displays these results.

Table 4. 16: Cronbach's alpha results for Attitude

| Reliability Statistics | | | | | |
|------------------------|--|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items | | | N of Items | |
| 0,84 | 0,84 | | | 4 | |
| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
| SK1 | 10,23 | 8,16 | 0,72 | 0,58 | 0,77 |
| SK2 | 10,06 | 7,64 | 0,72 | 0,60 | 0,77 |
| SK3 | 10,29 | 7,49 | 0,69 | 0,49 | 0,78 |
| SK4 | 10,38 | 8,59 | 0,54 | 0,32 | 0,84 |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.7.3 Construct: Subjective Norm

The study tested internal consistency for two factors from the EFA analysis relating to consumers' subjective norms. The results from exploratory factor analysis confirmed the acceptability of these items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.69, which is considered acceptable. Removing any item from this scale would not improve Cronbach's alpha. Therefore, all items in this factor have been retained. Table 4.17 displays these results.

Table 4. 17: Cronbach's alpha results for Subjective Norm

| Reliability Statistics | | |
|------------------------|--|------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items | N of Items |
| 0,69 | 0,69 | 2 |

| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
|-----|----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| SN1 | 2,81 | 1,37 | 0,53 | 0,28 | . |
| SN2 | 2,94 | 1,32 | 0,53 | 0,28 | . |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.7.4 Construct: Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC)

The study tested internal consistency for four factors extracted from the EFA analysis relating to consumers' PBC. The results from exploratory factor analysis confirmed the acceptability of these items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.64, which is considered acceptable. Removing any item from this scale would not improve Cronbach's alpha. Therefore, all items in this factor have been retained. Table 4.18 displays these results.

Table 4. 18: Cronbach's alpha results for PBC

| Reliability Statistics | | |
|------------------------|--|------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items | N of Items |
| 0,64 | 0,64 | 4 |

| Item-Total Statistics | | | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | Scale Mean if Item Deleted | Scale Variance if Item Deleted | Corrected Item-Total Correlation | Squared Multiple Correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted |
| PBC1 | 13,01 | 2,01 | 0,42 | 0,28 | 0,58 |
| PBC2 | 12,48 | 2,72 | 0,40 | 0,26 | 0,58 |
| PBC3 | 12,90 | 2,42 | 0,43 | 0,34 | 0,56 |
| PBC4 | 12,86 | 2,42 | 0,45 | 0,35 | 0,54 |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.8 Construct Descriptive Statistics

4.8.1 Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor (SPIF)

Table 4.19 displays the survey findings of 121 participants on the sustainability purchasing intention factor. This construct includes four attributes that assess different sustainability aspects when purchasing fast fashion products.

The first item evaluates the extent to which participants consider the country of manufacture when buying fast fashion products. The mean score for this item is 3.05, suggesting that participants' consideration of the country of manufacture when purchasing fast fashion products is moderately moderate. The second item measures participants' importance on the garment's durability when purchasing fast fashion products. The mean score for this item is 4.12, indicating that participants highly value the garment's durability when purchasing. The third item assesses the level of consideration participants have for the garment's environmental impact when purchasing fast fashion products. The mean score for this item is 3.48, revealing that participants have a moderate level of concern for the product's environmental impact when purchasing.

The last item measures the participants' awareness of social issues related to fast fashion. The mean score for this item is 3.42, indicating that participants have a moderate awareness of social issues related to fast fashion. In summary, the results suggest that participants are moderately aware of sustainability issues related to fast fashion, highly value the garment's durability, and moderately consider the environmental impact when purchasing.

Table 4. 19: Descriptive statistics for sustainable purchasing construct

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Sum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|-----|---------|---------|-----|------|----------------|
| SPIF1 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 369 | 3,05 | 0,921 |
| SPIF2 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 499 | 4,12 | 0,852 |
| SPIF3 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 421 | 3,48 | 0,992 |
| SPIF4 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 414 | 3,42 | 1,023 |
| Construct: Sustainable Purchasing Intention Factor (SPIF) - Total | 121 | | | | | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.8.2 Attitudes construct

The descriptive statistics in Table 4.20 reveal that 121 participants were surveyed on their attitudes towards social, child labour, environmental, and brand-related issues in the fast fashion industry. The study rated participants on a scale of 1 to 5, with a higher score indicating a more positive attitude.

The mean score for social awareness in the fast fashion industry was 3.42, with a standard deviation of 1.02. Participants also displayed a mean score of 3.60, with a standard deviation of 1.14, for their awareness of child labour and sweatshop issues in the fast fashion industry. Environmental issues, such as waste and pollution caused by excessive garment production, were rated with a mean score of 3.36 and a standard deviation of 1.20. Regarding knowledge of eco-friendly fashion products, participants had a mean score of 3.27 with a standard deviation of 1.13. The total attitude score had a mean of 13.65, with a standard deviation of 3.67. In summary, standard deviation scores indicate that the participants have a relatively similar level of awareness and knowledge across the four areas, suggesting that the respondents have a moderate level of awareness.

Table 4. 20: Descriptive statistics for attitude construct

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-----------------------------|-----|---------|---------|------|----------------|
| SK1 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,42 | 1,02 |
| SK2 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,60 | 1,14 |
| SK2 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,36 | 1,20 |
| SK4 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 3,27 | 1,13 |
| Construct: Attitude (Total) | 121 | | | | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.8.3 Social influence construct

In Table 4.21, the result of the impact of subjective norms on the purchase of sustainable fashion products is presented. The data shows that family and friends' average influence on sustainable fashion products' purchase is 2.94 (SD = 1.15). This suggests a moderate influence of family and friends on purchasing sustainable fashion products. Similarly, the average influence of social media influencers on purchasing sustainable fashion products is 2.81 (SD = 1.17), indicating a moderate influence of social media influencers. The SD in both cases suggests some participant response variability. The overall score for the subjective norms construct is 5.75 (SD = 2.03), which suggests that, in general, subjective norms have a moderate influence on the purchase of sustainable fashion products.

Table 4. 21: Descriptive statistics for subjective norms construct

| Social Influences | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-------------------------------------|-----|---------|---------|------|----------------|
| SN1 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 2,94 | 1,15 |
| SN2 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 2,81 | 1,17 |
| Construct: Subjective Norms (Total) | 121 | | | | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.8.4 Behavioural decision construct

Table 4.22 presents the findings of respondents' PBC regarding the fast fashion industry. The table shows the mean and SD for each behavioural item and the total score for the construct of perceived behaviour.

For the first behavioural item, "I feel disgusted when I learn how much the fast fashion industry generates waste and pollution," the mean score is 4.07 with SD of 0.87. For the second behavioural item, "I feel angry when I learn about labour slavery and child labour in the fast-fashion global supply chain," the mean score is 4.60 with SD of 0.57.

For the third behavioural item, "I feel honoured if I choose a fashion brand that promotes sustainability," the mean score is 4.18, with SD of 0.68. For the fourth behavioural item, "I feel interested in a fashion brand that promotes sustainability," the mean score is 4.22, with SD of 0.66. The total score for the construct of perceived behaviour is 17.08, with SD of 1.95. Overall, the results suggest that respondents have a relatively high level of PBC concerning

the fast fashion industry, with a high level of disgust, anger, and interest towards sustainability features and practices.

Table 4. 22: Descriptive statistics for behavioural construct

| Behavioural Items | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--|-----|---------|---------|------|----------------|
| PBC1 | 121 | 1 | 5 | 4,07 | 0,87 |
| PBC2 | 121 | 3 | 5 | 4,60 | 0,57 |
| PBC3 | 121 | 3 | 5 | 4,18 | 0,68 |
| PBC4 | 121 | 3 | 5 | 4,22 | 0,66 |
| Construct: Perceived Behaviour (Total) | 121 | | | | |

(Source: SPSS output)

4.9 Multiple Linear Regression Model Analysis

Table 4.23 displays the results of a multiple linear regression that examines the relationship between the dependent variable, SPIF, and several independent predictor variables, including attitudes, subjective norms, PBC, net monthly income, age, and gender. The unstandardised coefficient (β) measures the magnitude and direction of the relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable while accounting for the effects of other independent variables.

The analysis shows that attitudes and PBC have significant relationships with SPIF, with β values of 0.38 and 0.30, standard errors (SE) of 0.07 and 0.13, and t-values of 5.70 and 2.36, respectively (both $p < 0.05$). However, subjective norms have an insignificant relationship with SPIF, with a β of 0.08, a SE of 0.60, and a t-value of 1.28 ($p > 0.05$). Additionally, the analysis reveals that net monthly income and age have significant relationships with SPIF (both $p < 0.05$), while gender has an insignificant relationship with SPIF ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4. 23: Results for multiple linear regression on intention to purchase sustainable fast fashion

| Predictor | Unstandardised Coefficients | | t | Sig |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|-------|---------|
| | Beta (β) | Standard Error (SE) | | |
| Constant | 0.78 | 0.62 | 1.27 | 0,208 |
| Attitudes | 0.38 | 0.07 | 5.70 | <0.001* |
| Subjective Norms | 0.08 | 0.60 | 1.28 | 0,203 |
| PBC | 0.30 | 0.13 | 2.36 | 0,020* |
| Net Monthly Income | -0.14 | 0.05 | -2.95 | 0,004* |
| Age | 1.41 | 0.57 | 2.46 | 0,015* |
| Gender | 0.03 | 0.13 | 0.25 | 0,803 |

* p < 0.05 (Source: SPSS output)

4.10 Conclusion

The chapter described the sample profile and the numerical evidence of the results obtained through data analysis, including detailed descriptions of relevant statistical tests. The research questions and hypotheses outlined in Chapter 2 were examined, and the findings are reported in this chapter. Analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS statistics software, with a confidence interval of 95% and a significance level of 5%. The analysis outcomes will be discussed in the next chapter, Chapter 5. Overall, this chapter serves as a critical bridge between our research questions and the outcomes of our investigation

Chapter 5: Discussion of Results

5.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter, the findings were presented through a statistical representation. In this current chapter, the results will be discussed concerning the objectives established while referencing the literature discussed in the second chapter. This discussion aims to analyse the research outcomes and their implications comprehensively. By examining the results in light of the objectives and existing literature, this chapter seeks to contribute to a deeper understanding of the research topic and provide valuable insights for future studies

5.2 Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers' attitudes towards sustainable fast fashion and their intentions to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping.

The first research objective aimed to investigate how South African consumers' attitudes concerning sustainable fast fashion relate to their intention to choose sustainable fashion items while shopping. To achieve this objective, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between attitudes (independent variable) and intention (dependent variable). The statistical analysis findings indicated a significant positive correlation between SPIF and attitudes, with an unstandardized coefficient β of 0.38 ($p < 0.05$). The present study's results suggest that attitudes play a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers.

The findings of the hypothesis align with the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which posits that attitudes are a significant predictor of behaviour intention (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2012). They also align with prior research in the field of sustainability, which has demonstrated that consumers' attitudes are a significant predictor of intention to purchase sustainable products. Previous research by Paul et al. (2015) reflected that environmental attitudes significantly predict individuals' intention to purchase green products. Additionally, the results of this study are consistent with other studies that suggest consumers' attitudes are the primary driver of their intention to purchase environmentally sustainable products (Brandão & Costa, 2021; Han & Stoel, 2017; La Rosa & Johnson Jorgensen, 2021; Nam et al., 2017; Saricam & Okur, 2019;

Yadav & Pathak, 2017). However, it is worth noting that some studies have indicated that attitudes alone may not be sufficient in predicting consumers' behaviour towards sustainable products. For example, Zhang et al. (2021) found that UK consumers' attitudes were not responsive to fast fashion items with sustainability features.

5.3 Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers' subjective norms towards sustainable fast fashion and their intention to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping.

The second research objective aimed to investigate how South African consumers' subjective norms concerning sustainable fast fashion relate to their intention to choose sustainable fashion items while shopping. To achieve this objective, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between subjective norms (independent variable) and intention (dependent variable). The statistical analysis findings indicated an insignificant positive correlation between SPIF and subjective norms, with an unstandardized coefficient β of 0.08 ($p > 0.05$). The present study's results suggest that subjective norms do not significantly shape consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers.

The hypothesis's findings contrast with the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which posits that subjective norms significantly predict behaviour intention (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2012). Paul et al. (2017) found that the intention to buy green products is significantly impacted by subjective norms, while Liobikiene et al. (2016) demonstrated that subjective norms, particularly social pressure in EU countries, have a significant effect on the intention to purchase eco-friendly products. Nam et al. (2017) also established a significant relationship between subjective norms and the intention to purchase sustainable products in the fashion industry. Similarly, Saricam and Okur (2019) reported a significant impact of subjective norms on consumer intentions towards sustainable fashion products. Moreover, Hans and Stoel (2019) provided evidence of a significant association between subjective norms and purchase intention.

However, according to a recent study by Mason et al. (2022), meta-analysis evidence supports the idea that subjective norms have consistently been identified as the weakest predictor of behavioural intention in the TPB model. Mason (2022) contends that this may be due to

individuals feeling less pressure to conform to social norms than to their own beliefs and values or feeling more significant control over their behaviour in a social context

5.4 Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between South African consumers' PBC towards sustainable fast fashion and their intention to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping.

The final research objective aimed to investigate how South African consumers' PBC concerning sustainable fast fashion relates to their intention to choose sustainable fashion items while shopping. To achieve this objective, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between PBC (independent variable) and intention (dependent variable). The statistical analysis findings indicated a significant positive correlation between SPIF and PBC, with an unstandardized coefficient β of 0.30 ($p < 0.05$). The present study's results suggest that PBC plays a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers.

The findings of the hypothesis align with the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which posits that PBC is a significant predictor of behaviour intention (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2012). The current study's results align with previous research indicating that consumers' PBC is significantly and positively related to their intention (Brandão & Costa, 2021; Han & Stoel, 2017; Johnstone & Lindh, 2022; Yadav & Pathak, 2017). However, the study conducted by Nam (2017) exploring the impact of PBC on purchase intention for sustainable products did not receive support from the study results.

5.5 Other Findings

The findings of this study indicate that although the majority of respondents reported possessing moderate knowledge of sustainability (mean of 3.41, SD = 0.92), only a small proportion of respondents (5.8%, $n = 6$) correctly identified modal as the most sustainable option, with the majority of respondents (81.0%, $n = 98$) incorrectly indicating cotton as the most sustainable choice. These results suggest that consumers may overestimate their knowledge of sustainable fast fashion products and may not have accurate information regarding which fast fashion products are genuinely sustainable.

5.6 Conclusion

The findings revealed that attitudes and PBC had a significant positive relationship with consumers' intention to purchase sustainable fashion products, while subjective norms did not significantly shape consumers' intentions. These findings provide insights into the factors influencing South African consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions and contribute to a deeper understanding of the topic. Moreover, the study revealed that although the majority of respondents reported moderate knowledge of sustainability, they may not have accurate information regarding which fast fashion products are genuinely sustainable

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The final chapter of this research project presents the principle findings and implications for businesses and key stakeholders in the fashion industry in South Africa. This study investigated the relationships between South African consumers' attitudes, subjective norms, PBC, and intentions to make sustainable fashion choices while shopping for sustainable fast fashion products. Based on the research's findings and limitations, this chapter offers valuable insights and recommendations to businesses and key stakeholders seeking to promote sustainable fast fashion practices in South Africa. The chapter also highlights the study's limitations and proposes potential future research directions.

6.2 Principal findings

The multiple linear regression analysis results conducted to test hypothesis one indicated a significant positive correlation between attitudes and intention, indicating that attitudes play a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. This finding is consistent with previous studies that have demonstrated that environmental attitudes significantly predict individuals' intent to buy green products, and attitudes are the primary driver of consumers' willingness to purchase environmentally sustainable products.

Contrary to hypothesis two, the multiple linear regression analysis revealed an insignificant positive correlation between subjective norms and intention. The findings suggest that subjective norms do not significantly shape consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. This result contrasts with prior research indicating that subjective norms significantly impact the intention to buy green products, purchase eco-friendly products, and influence consumer intentions towards sustainable fashion products.

Hypothesis three was supported by the multiple linear regression analysis results, indicating a significant positive correlation between PBC and intention. The findings suggest that PBC plays a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. This result is consistent with previous studies demonstrating that PBC has a significant positive relationship with consumers' intention to purchase sustainable products.

Overall the present study's findings suggest that attitudes and PBC are essential factors influencing consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. However, subjective norms did not significantly shape consumers' intentions to make sustainable fashion choices when shopping. These findings have important implications for marketers and policymakers in the sustainable fashion industry interested in understanding consumers' behaviour and designing effective interventions to promote sustainable consumption. Based on these findings, the objectives of this study to examine the predictors of sustainable fast fashion purchase intention among South African consumers within the framework of the TPB have been fulfilled. Figure 8 provides a visual representation of the results.

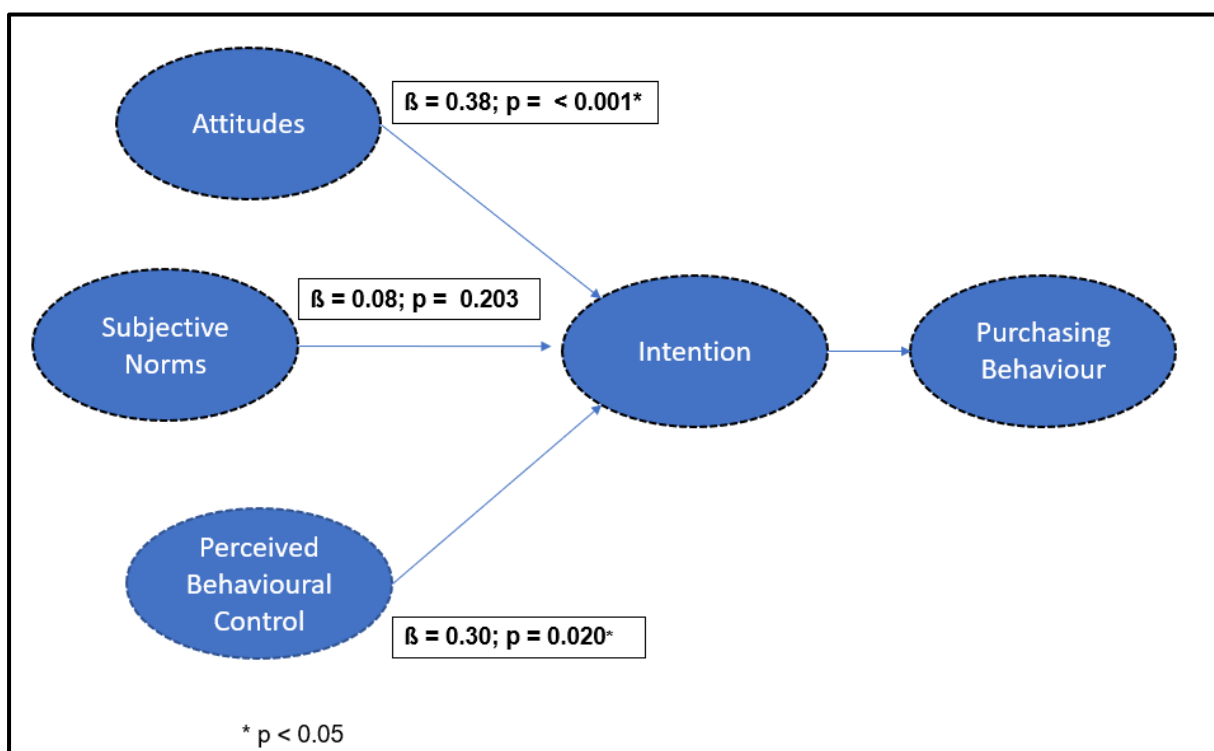


Figure 8: Research Findings (Source: Researcher's own)

6.3 Implications for business and relevant stakeholders

In recent years, sustainability has become increasingly important for businesses worldwide due to consumers' growing concern for environmental issues and the desire to make more sustainable purchasing decisions. The fast fashion industry, in particular, has been scrutinised for its environmental impact and is pressured to adopt more sustainable practices. To address this issue, fashion companies and retailers can use the insights from this study to develop strategies that encourage consumers to make sustainable fashion choices. These strategies may involve offering a more comprehensive range of sustainable fashion options, running marketing campaigns highlighting sustainable fashion's social and environmental benefits, incorporating eco-friendly materials, minimizing waste and emissions, and implementing fair labour practices. Companies can enhance their brand reputation and attract sustainability-focused consumers by improving their sustainability practices.

The study found that attitudes have a significant positive correlation with intentions, indicating that attitudes play a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. Therefore, businesses in the sustainable fashion industry should focus on building positive attitudes towards sustainability among consumers, which can be achieved through marketing campaigns that promote the environmental benefits of sustainable fashion and highlight the negative impact of traditional fast fashion practices. Stakeholders, such as suppliers and retailers, can also shape attitudes towards sustainability by adopting more sustainable practices and promoting their sustainability efforts.

Surprisingly, the study found that subjective norms did not significantly shape consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. This finding suggests that businesses and policymakers must focus on building social norms around sustainable fashion to improve the predictive power of subjective norms. Retailers could play a role in promoting sustainable fashion as a socially responsible choice, while policymakers could create regulations encouraging sustainable fashion industry practices.

The study found that PBC plays a significant role in shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. Companies can increase PBC by providing accessible and easy-to-use sustainable fashion options, leading to more sustainable consumer choices. Policymakers can use the research results to create regulations encouraging sustainable fashion industry practices, such as promoting fair labour practices and reducing the environmental pollution. Industry associations and non-governmental organisations can promote sustainable fashion practices by offering training and education programs, creating sustainability standards and certifications, and funding research to advance sustainable fashion practices.

Overall, the study highlights the importance of attitudes and PBC shaping consumers' sustainability purchasing intentions within the context of sustainable fast fashion among South African consumers. These findings have important implications for businesses and policymakers promoting sustainable consumption behaviour. Consumers can also play a crucial role in promoting sustainable fashion practices by interacting with companies and stakeholders, sharing information on social media, and advocating for policies that support sustainability in the fashion industry

6.4 Research limitations

- Limitations identified include sampling bias, response bias, validity and reliability of the questionnaire, data quality, contextual factors, and the study's limited scope.
- The sampling bias refers to the limitations of the convenience sampling method used in the study. This sampling method relies on the availability of participants, leading to a sample that may not be representative of the population. This sampling bias limits the generalizability of the study's findings.
- Response bias is another limitation of the study. The study relies on self-reported data, possibly subject to social desirability bias. Participants may report what they think is

expected rather than their beliefs or behaviours. This bias may affect the reliability of the study's findings.

- The validity and reliability of the questionnaire may be limited if the questions are not well-written or the response options are not well-defined. This limitation may affect the accuracy of the data collected.
- Data quality is another limitation of the study. The data collected may be compromised if the questionnaire was not completed correctly or if data was missing. This limitation may affect the reliability of the study's findings.
- Contextual factors such as the study's cross-sectional design may limit the ability to examine changes over time or the potential influence of other variables that may not have been measured. The correlation of intention with purchasing behaviour is based upon self-reported data and may not reflect actual behaviour. Correlation assumptions rely on the premise that intentions were already established before purchase.
- The study's limited scope is another limitation. The study is limited in examining complex relationships or making causal inferences due to the design and sample selection

6.5 Recommendations for future research

Future research areas identified include using self-reported and actual behaviour measures, expanding the study's sample, opting for a randomised sampling approach, and investigating the impact of social norms, environmental knowledge, and personal values on green purchase behaviour. Future studies should use self-reported and actual behaviour measures to validate the results obtained through self-reported behaviour. Using self-reported and actual behaviour measures can improve the reliability and accuracy of the data collected. The aforementioned future studies can offer a more thorough comprehension of consumers' sustainable fast fashion purchasing behaviour.

Researchers should aim to expand the study to include a broader range of respondents from diverse socio-economic backgrounds and levels of education. Including a more diverse sample can help mitigate biases and provide a more representative population sample. Future studies should opt for a randomised sampling approach among the population to increase the generalizability of the study findings. The aforementioned future studies can help to ensure that the results obtained apply to a broader population and can be used to inform policies and practices related to sustainable fast fashion.

Researchers should investigate the impact of social norms, environmental knowledge, and personal values on green purchase behaviour. These factors may play a crucial role in shaping consumer behaviour related to sustainable fast fashion and can provide additional insights into this behaviour's underlying motivations and drivers. By addressing these future research areas, the study can provide more comprehensive and accurate results and inform policies and practices related to sustainable fast fashion.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire

MBA Research

Quantitative Study Questionnaire

*Required

Topic: Exploring the prioritisation of sustainability by South African consumers' on their intention to purchase fast fashion clothing.

I am currently a student at the University of Pretoria's Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS) and completing my research in partial fulfilment of a Master of Business Administration (MBA) qualification.

I am conducting research to investigate the relationship between sustainability and the intention of South African consumers to purchase fast fashion clothing. Your contributions will be beneficial in completing my research. Please answer the easy-to-complete questions that focus on the consumer's past behaviour in purchasing fast fashion clothing and additional variables such as consumer attitudes and personal characteristics that may affect the consumers' intention to purchase fast fashion clothing.

The survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes, and your participation will remain voluntary. You will not be identified from the information you provide throughout this survey, and you can withdraw at any time if you wish to do so without penalty. The study will report only the aggregated data of responses received by all participating respondents, and therefore you should not feel uncomfortable about any of your personal responses. By completing the survey, you indicate that you have voluntarily participated in this research study.

If you have any questions or concerns, you are free to contact my supervisor or me at the contact details provided below.

Researcher Name:

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Research Supervisor:

Dr Frank Magwegwe

email: MagwegweF@gibs.co.za

1. Have you made at least one clothing purchase in the last year (12 months)? *

Mark only one oval.

- Yes
 No

2. What is your age? *

Mark only one oval.

- 18 - 29 years
 30 - 39 years
 40 - 49 years
 50 - 59 years
 60 or older

3. What is your gender? *

Mark only one oval.

- Male
 Female
 Prefer not to disclose

4. What category is your monthly net household income? *

Mark only one oval.

- Low (up to R 9 999)
 Low-middle income (R 10 000 – R 19 999)
 High-middle income (R 20 000 – R 39 999)
 Low-high income (R 40 000 – R 59 999)
 Upper-high income (R 60 000 +)

5. What is your monthly budget share in fast fashion products? *

Fast fashion refers to low-priced clothing produced rapidly by retailers in response to the latest trends.

Mark only one oval.

- R 0 - R 1 000
- R 1 001 - R 2 000
- R 2 001 - R 3 000
- R 3 001 - R 5 000
- R 5 001 - R 10 000

6. I consider the following garment attributes when purchasing fast fashion products. *

Please respond to EVERY statement.

Mark only one oval per row.

| | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Fashionability | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Quality | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Fit | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Price | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Country of manufacture | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Durability | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Environment impact | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| Human dignity during manufacture | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

7. I am aware of social issues in the fast fashion industry. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

8. I am aware of child labour and sweatshop issues in the global supply chain of the fast fashion industry. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

9. I am informed of environmental issues in the fast fashion industry, such as waste and pollution caused by the excessive production of garments. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

10. I am knowledgeable about apparel brands that sell eco-friendly fashion products. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

11. What does sustainable fashion mean, in your opinion? *

Mark only one oval.

- Good quality
 Long-lasting
 Expensive
 Fair labour practice
 Organic fabrics

12. To your knowledge, which one of the following fabrics is the most eco-friendly. *

Mark only one oval.

- Cotton
 Synthetics
 Wool
 Modal

13. From your clothing purchases, what percentage is sustainable? *

Sustainable fashion is defined as fashion that is produced in a socially responsible and environmentally friendly manner.

Mark only one oval.

- Under 10%
- 11% - 20%
- 21% - 30%
- 31% - 40%
- 41% - 50%
- 51% - 60%
- 61% - 70%
- 71% - 80%
- 81% - 90%
- 91% - 100%

14. What percentage more would you like to pay for a fast fashion product with sustainable features? *

Mark only one oval.

- Under 1%
- 1% - 5%
- 6% - 10%
- 11% - 20%
- 21% - 40%
- 41% - 60%
- 61% - 80%
- 81% - 100%

15. What percentage more monthly income is needed before considering purchasing fast fashion products with sustainability features? *

Mark only one oval.

- Under 5%
- 6% - 10%
- 11% - 20%
- 21% - 40%
- 41% - 60%
- 61% - 80%
- 81% - 100%

16. My family and/or friends affect my purchase of fashion products with sustainability features. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

17. Social media influencers affect my purchase of fashion products with sustainability features. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

18. I feel disgusted when I learn how much the fast fashion industry generates waste and pollution. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

19. I feel angry when I learn about labour slavery and child labour in the fast-fashion global supply chain. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

20. I feel honoured if I choose a fashion brand that engages in promoting sustainability. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neutral
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

21. I feel interested in a fashion brand that engages in promoting sustainability. *

Mark only one oval.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neutral
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

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Google Forms

Appendix B: Code Book

| Value | Lable | Rank |
|--|--|------|
| Screening Question | Yes | 1 |
| | No | 2 |
| | | |
| Age | 18 - 29 years | 1 |
| | 30 - 39 years | 2 |
| | 40 - 49 years | 3 |
| | 50 - 59 years | 4 |
| | 60 years or older | 5 |
| | | |
| Gender | Male | 1 |
| | Female | 2 |
| | Prefer not to disclose | 3 |
| | | |
| Net monthly household income | Low (up to R 9 999) | 1 |
| | Low-middle income (R 10 000 - R 19 999) | 2 |
| | High-middle income (R 20 000 - R 39 999) | 3 |
| | Low-high income (R 40 000 - R 59 999) | 4 |
| | Upper-high income (R 60 000 +) | 5 |
| | | |
| Monthly fast fashion budget | R 0 - R 1 000 | 1 |
| | R 1 001 - R 2 000 | 2 |
| | R 2 001 - R 3 000 | 3 |
| | R 3 001 - R 5 000 | 4 |
| | R 5 001 - R 10 000 | 5 |
| | | |
| Section B: Purchasing considerations (Lickert-type scale) | Strongly Disagree | 1 |
| | Disagree | 2 |
| | Neutral | 3 |
| | Agree | 4 |
| | Strongly Agree | 5 |
| | | |
| Section C: Sustainability Knowledge (Lickert-type scale) | Strongly Disagree | 1 |
| | Disagree | 2 |
| | Neutral | 3 |
| | Agree | 4 |
| | Strongly Agree | 5 |
| | | |
| Section C: Sustainability Knowledge, attribute of sustainable fashion | Good quality | 1 |
| | Long-lasting | 2 |
| | Expensive | 3 |
| | Fair labour practice | 4 |
| | Organic fabrics | 5 |
| | | |

| | | |
|---|-------------------|----|
| | | |
| Section C: Sustainability Knowledge, selection of the most eco-friendly fabric | Cotton | 1 |
| | Synthetics | 2 |
| | Wool | 3 |
| | Modal | 4 |
| | | |
| Section C: Sustainability Decision: sustainable fashion spend | Under 10% | 1 |
| | 11% - 20% | 2 |
| | 21% - 30% | 3 |
| | 31% - 40% | 4 |
| | 41% - 50% | 5 |
| | 51% - 60% | 6 |
| | 61% - 70% | 7 |
| | 71% - 80% | 8 |
| | 81% - 90% | 9 |
| | 91% - 100% | 10 |
| | | |
| Section C: Sustainability Decision, sustainable fashion premium percentage willing to be paid | Under 1% | 1 |
| | 1% - 5% | 2 |
| | 6% - 10% | 3 |
| | 11% - 20% | 4 |
| | 21% - 40% | 5 |
| | 41% - 60% | 6 |
| | 61% - 80% | 7 |
| | 81% - 100% | 8 |
| | | |
| Section C: Sustainability Decision, additional income required for sustainable fashion spend | Under 5% | 1 |
| | 6% - 10% | 2 |
| | 11% - 20% | 3 |
| | 21% - 40% | 4 |
| | 41% - 60% | 5 |
| | 61% - 80% | 6 |
| | 81% - 100% | 7 |
| | | |
| Section C: Sustainability Decision (Lickert-type scale) | Strongly Disagree | 1 |
| | Disagree | 2 |
| | Neutral | 3 |
| | Agree | 4 |
| | Strongly Agree | 5 |
| | | |

Appendix C: Consistency Matrix

| Research Questions | Sections in the literature review | Data collection tools | Analysis technique |
|--|--|--|--|
| How does attitude influence sustainable fast fashion purchasing behaviour in South African consumers? | 2.9 Consumer Purchasing Behaviour for Sustainable Fast Fashion | The survey questions were adapted from Zhang et al. (2021) and Rausch & Kopplin (2020) and were measured using a Likert-type scale with five increments. | Multiple linear regression to determine the correlation between sustainable purchasing intention and attitude, |
| How do subjective norms influence sustainable fast fashion purchasing behaviour in South African consumers? | 2.9 Consumer Purchasing Behaviour for Sustainable Fast Fashion | The survey questions were adapted from Zhang et al. (2021) and Rausch & Kopplin (2020) and were measured using a Likert-type scale with five increments. | Multiple linear regression to determine the correlation between sustainable purchasing intention and attitude |
| How does perceived behavioural control influence sustainable fast fashion purchasing behaviour in South African consumers? | 2.9 Consumer Purchasing Behaviour for Sustainable Fast Fashion | The survey questions were adapted from Zhang et al. (2021) and Rausch & Kopplin (2020) and were measured using a Likert-type scale with five increments. | Multiple linear regression to determine the correlation between sustainable purchasing intention and attitude |

Appendix D: Ethics Approval

**Gordon Institute
of Business Science**
University of Pretoria

**Ethical Clearance
Approved**

Dear Abdulla Shaik,

Please be advised that your application for Ethical Clearance has been approved.

You are therefore allowed to continue collecting your data.

We wish you everything of the best for the rest of the project.

[Ethical Clearance Form](#)

Kind Regards

This email has been sent from an unmonitored email account. If you have any comments or concerns, please contact the GIBS Research Admin team.

Appendix E: Additional Information

Table 7. 1: Pearson's correlation for SPIF construct

| Correlations | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---|
| | | SPIF1 | SPIF2 | SPIF3 | SPIF4 | Construct: Sustainability Purchasing Intention Factor (Total Score) |
| SPIF1 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 0,396** | 0,722** | 0,571** | 0,827** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| SPIF2 | Pearson Correlation | 0,396** | 1 | 0,491** | 0,387** | 0,678** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| SPIF3 | Pearson Correlation | 0,722** | 0,491** | 1 | 0,715** | 0,907** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| SPIF4 | Pearson Correlation | 0,571** | 0,387** | 0,715** | 1 | 0,836** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| Construct: Sustainability Purchasing Intention Factor (Total Score) | Pearson Correlation | 0,827** | 0,678** | 0,907** | 0,836** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(Source: SPSS output)

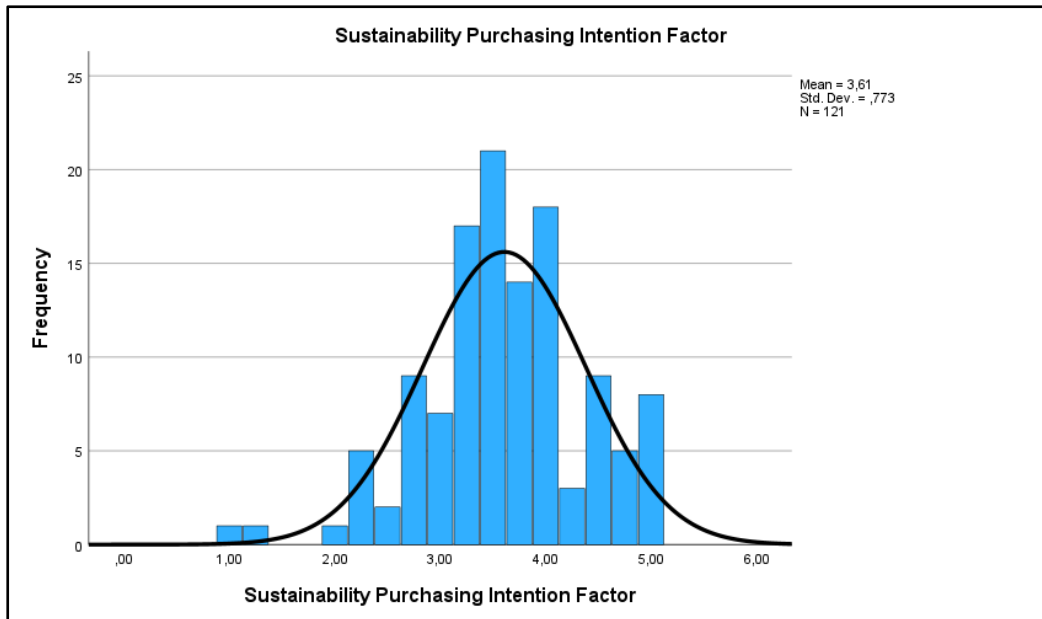


Figure 9: Histogram SPIF construct (Source: SPSS output)

Table 7. 2: Pearson's correlation for Attitude construct

| Correlations | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---|
| | | SK1 | SK2 | SK3 | SK4 | Construct: Attitude (Total Score) |
| SK1 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 0,728** | 0,578** | 0,486** | 0,842** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| SK2 | Pearson Correlation | 0,728** | 1 | 0,639** | 0,419** | 0,850** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| SK3 | Pearson Correlation | 0,578** | 0,639** | 1 | 0,516** | 0,843** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| SK4 | Pearson Correlation | 0,486** | 0,419** | 0,516** | 1 | 0,740** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| Construct: Attitude (Total Score) | Pearson Correlation | 0,842** | 0,850** | 0,843** | 0,740** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(Source: SPSS output)

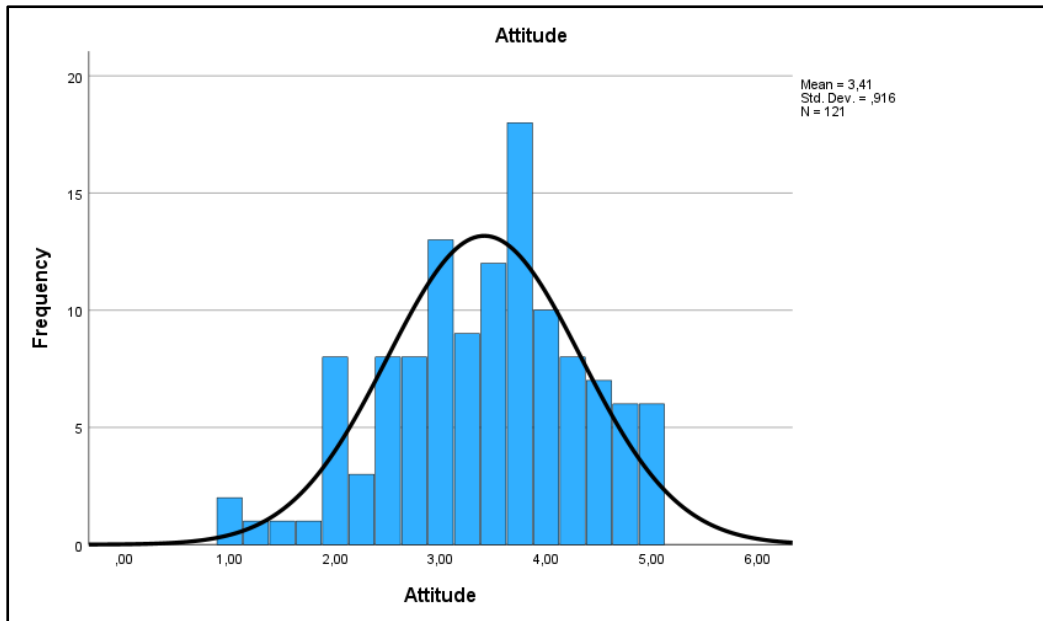


Figure 10: Histogram Attitude construct (Source: SPSS output)

Table 7. 3: Pearson's correlation for Subjective Norms construct

| Correlations | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|---------|---------|---|
| | | SN1 | SN2 | Construct: Subjective Norms (Total Score) |
| SN1 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 0,530** | 0,872** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| SN2 | Pearson Correlation | 0,530** | 1 | 0,877** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| Construct: Norms (Total Score) | Pearson Correlation | 0,872** | 0,877** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(Source: SPSS output)

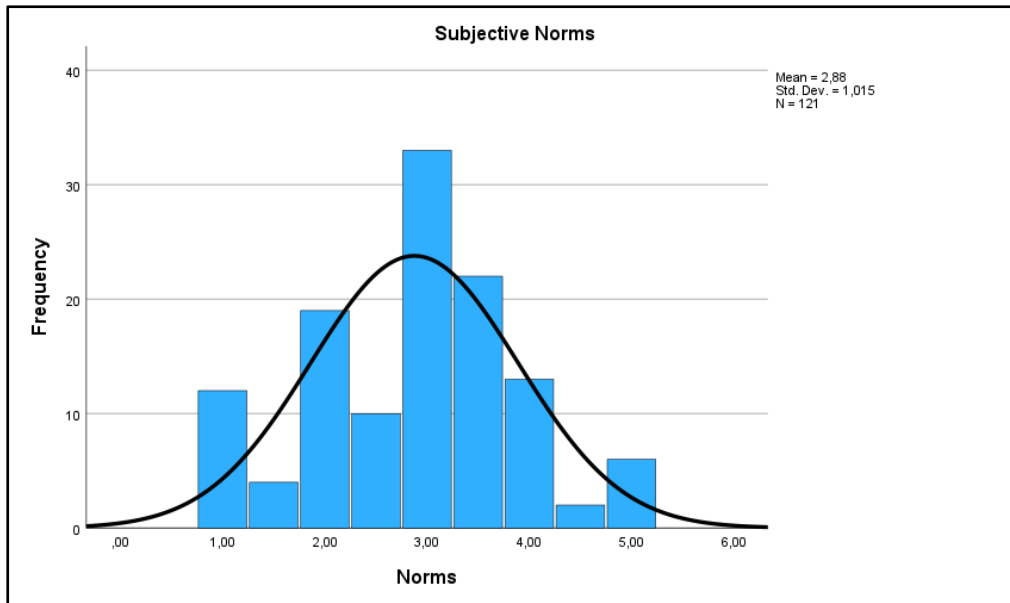


Figure 11: Histogram Subjective Norms construct (Source: SPSS output)

Table 7. 4: Pearson's correlation for PBC construct

| | | Correlations | | | | |
|--|---------------------|--------------|---------|---------|---------|--|
| | | PBC1 | PBC2 | PBC3 | PBC4 | Construct: Perceived Behaviour (Total Score) |
| PBC1 | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 0,498** | 0,202* | 0,260** | 0,751** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | <.001 | 0,026 | 0,004 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| PBC2 | Pearson Correlation | 0,498** | 1 | 0,187* | 0,148 | 0,631** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | | 0,040 | 0,106 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| PBC3 | Pearson Correlation | 0,202* | 0,187* | 1 | 0,571** | 0,690** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,026 | 0,040 | | <.001 | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| PBC4 | Pearson Correlation | 0,260** | 0,148 | 0,571** | 1 | 0,700** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,004 | 0,106 | <.001 | | <.001 |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| Construct: Perceived Behaviour (Total Score) | Pearson Correlation | 0,751** | 0,631** | 0,690** | 0,700** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | <.001 | |
| | N | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 | 121 |
| **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). | | | | | | |
| *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). | | | | | | |

(Source: SPSS output)

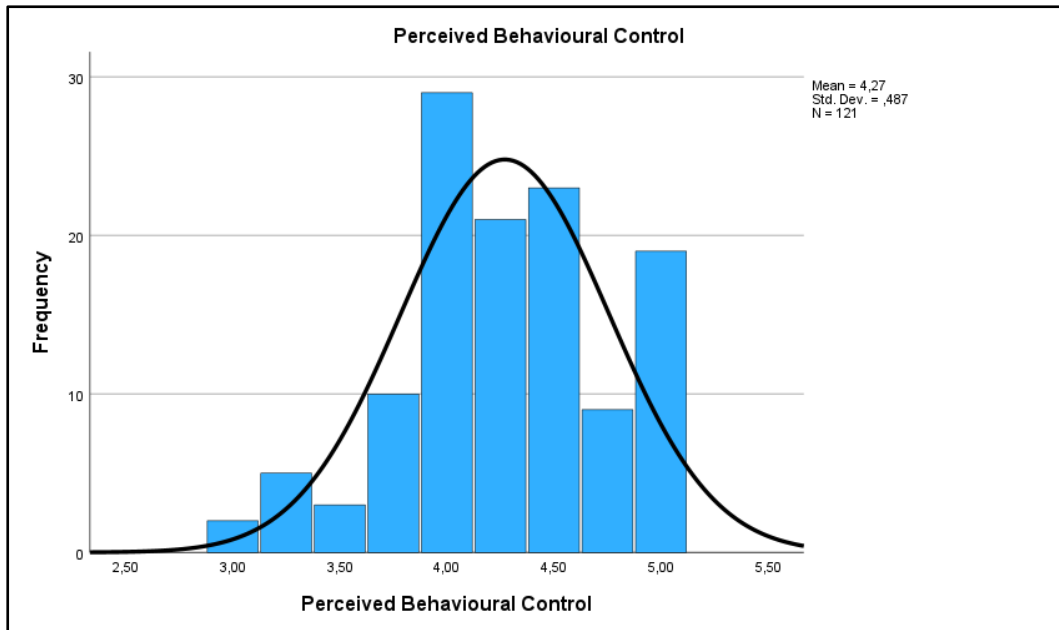


Figure 12: Histogram PBC construct (Source: SPSS output)