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# Sustainable Luxury: The Essence and Validation of the Measurement Tool

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## ABSTRACT

**Objective:** The purpose of the study was to evaluate the validity and reliability of the proposed research questionnaire for recognising consumer beliefs towards sustainable luxury.

**Research Design & Methods:** The study employed the diagnostic survey method with the help of computer-assisted web interview, statistical analysis, synthesis, and logical inference.

**Findings:** The evaluation of the validity and reliability of the authors' survey questionnaire showed that it was an appropriate tool for studying the two indicators adopted, namely: the luxury product perception index and the luxury product buyers' perception index. A detailed evaluation of the questionnaire did not indicate the need for modification, which means that it can be proposed in this version for further in-depth research.

**Implications/Recommendations:** From a practical perspective, the proposed tool can be used by producers to identify the opinions of different age groups so that a better marketing strategy can be planned.

**Contribution:** Our study can be considered an original contribution to science when it comes to tools for surveying consumer opinion on luxury products in the context of sustainability requirements.

**Article type:** original article.

**Keywords:** luxury, sustainability, consumers, preferences, questionnaire, validation.

**JEL Classification:** D12, Q01.

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## 1. Introduction

According to the official data, the revenue in the luxury goods market amounts to US\$489.37 bn in 2026, and the market is expected to grow annually by 2.69% (Statista Market Insights, 2025). In parallel, it is emphasised that the perception of luxury has significantly changed in recent decades, for example, due to pandemics, economic crises, and climate change (Kunz, May & Schmidt, 2020; Ceron & Monge, 2024). There is also a gradual democratisation of luxury (Plażyk, 2015), which has increased its consumption and thus the share of the luxury market in the creation of national income (KPMG, 2024). It is well known that luxury products are reflective of high quality and exclusivity (Xie & Lou, 2020) or extraordinary design (Dryl, 2022). However, as researchers confirm, for a product to be called “luxury” it is insufficient for it to have superior quality and a particular design; it must also possess a specific symbolic meaning behind the product to be linked to the consumer’s perception of luxury (Stanciu & Condrea, 2018). This symbolism is now beginning to be associated with sustainability (Carcano, 2013). Therefore, nowadays, owing to the paradigm of sustainable development, especially among very wealthy people, there is an interest in luxury products but made following this idea (Kim, Park & Septianto, 2022). The attitude of the average consumer towards the phenomenon of luxury products, in light of the requirements of sustainable development, also seems interesting, given the natural aspirations of every human being, wishing to improve their financial situation and life status in the near or distant future (Naaz *et al.*, 2024). Taking into account European Union legislation (Directive 2005/29/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 May 2005), it can be assumed that an average consumer is considered duly (adequately) informed, aware, reasonable, attentive, cautious, critical, observant, and independent, as well as: (sufficiently) educated, suspicious and enlightened (Nowak-Gruca, 2019, pp. 3–16). Making this assumption, we conducted a study on the beliefs of such a consumer, taking into account a luxury product in the context of its sustainability. All the more so because such articles are scarce in the domestic scientific community. There is also a lack of tools to assess these beliefs. The sole studies in Poland

on sustainable luxury products so far have been presented by Dryl (2018a, 2018b), Stępień (2019), and Kemp and Dłużewska (2023), which was confirmed by a review of the repository database of the parent university, by introducing phrases in Polish like “luxury + sustainable development”; “sustainable luxury”; “luxury sustainable product” (on 25 July 2024). The first two papers are theoretical, the third focuses on analysing the perspective of luxury goods salesmen, and the fourth deals with the tourist industry, but is for illustrative purposes only. With the above in mind, a research tool was constructed to identify consumer beliefs towards a sustainable luxury product. The research problem seeks to answer the question: Is the proposed research questionnaire an appropriate tool for recognising consumer beliefs towards a sustainable luxury product? The purpose of the study was to evaluate the validity and reliability of the developed questionnaire. The study employed the diagnostic survey method with the help of computer-assisted web interview (CAWI), statistical analysis using appropriate software, and synthesis and logical inference.

## 2. Literature Background

The term “luxury” originates from the Latin *luxuria*, where *luxus* means “excess,” or “superfluity” (Kiszkiel, 2020, p. 46). There is a consensus among scholars that consumers’ associations with luxury products can be described by phrases such as good taste, class, quality, high price, eye-catching, uniqueness, rarity or limited availability, aesthetics, history, pleasure for self, and non-necessity (Kunz, May & Schmidt, 2020). Luxury goods serve not only to satisfy functional needs but also to fulfil the aesthetic and status desires of customers. Their role in society often goes beyond a utilitarian function, becoming a symbol of prestige and success (Pandelaere & Shrum, 2020, pp. 57–74). Luxury brands invest in high-quality materials, workmanship, and customer experience (Batat, 2019, pp. 55–74; Lu, Marjerison & Seufert, 2023), which confirms their value. As Devanathan (2023) points out in presenting the results of the literature review, the characteristics of luxury may broadly be described as 1) brand image (source: born from the history and heritage of the brand), 2) high quality and craftsmanship (source: as luxury is created in a workshop and is handcrafted rather than mass-produced), 3) high price (source: the high cost producing high quality and the restricted supply due to the method of production) and 4) exclusivity and uniqueness (source: the high price is combined with the limited supply and controlled distribution). Dryl and Dryl (2017), on the other hand, describe the features of luxury products this way:

- ostentation, through which a certain position in a reference group is achieved; luxury brands are a symbol of high social status,
- uniqueness, because owning products that other consumers cannot afford helps improve the personal and social image of their buyers; handmade production and unique design and high price reinforce the uniqueness of luxury brands,

- quality, because maintaining the quality of luxury products is a prerequisite for maintaining their luxury image,
- hedonism, as the consumption of luxury goods provides experiences such as pleasure and happiness,
- social values, as consumers identify with the values represented by luxury brands and thus wish to distinguish themselves from buyers of mass goods; by consuming specific luxury brands, customers expect to be identified with prestigious social groups while isolating themselves from lower social classes.

For this reason, a wide variety can be seen among the reasons for acquiring luxury goods. The main motivations for consumers to acquire luxury goods were primarily the desire to stand out in society and to have goods with unique attributes. Nowadays, on the other hand, the desire to be in the highest social group is noted. People belonging to the upper class acquire luxury goods to emphasise their wealth and superiority over others. For such individuals, it is not the quality of the product that is important, but the social status that this product provides them with (Bochańczyk-Kupka, 2014). Therefore, different categories of luxury goods consumers can be distinguished. For example, SRI Consulting Business Intelligence divides consumers into three groups based on their attitudes towards luxury (Solomon, 2022):

- luxury is functional – these customers allocate their money across items with long lifespans and lasting value. They research products thoroughly before making a purchase and choose rationally over-hasty or emotional decisions;
- luxury is a reward – these customers are older than the third group but younger than the first group. They declare, “I’ve made it,” by using opulent items. These customers buy ostentatious luxury goods like expensive cars and residences in gated communities because they want to succeed and show others how successful they are;
- luxury is an indulgence – being the smallest of the three, this group skews slightly more male and includes a younger demographic than the other two. For these customers, the whole point of owning luxury is to indulge in extreme excess. This market is prepared to pay more for products that showcase their uniqueness and draw attention from others. They approach luxury spending more emotionally and are more prone to impulsive purchases than the other two groups.

According to research undertaken by the Netherlands consulting firm Kearney, sustainable products are 75–85% more expensive than conventional products (Gerhardt, Plack & Drost, 2020). Even more so if it involves luxury products with these features. High prices of luxury products cause consumers who cannot afford original products to look for similar but lower-priced substitutes (Song, Suri & Huang, 2023). Hence, there are products on the market, such as the Chanel type, the Dior type, etc. However, the luxury phenomenon has always been accompanied

by another, the counterfeiting of luxury brands. This, in turn, involves illegal activities and the theft of the brand and its logo (Wang *et al.*, 2024a).

Thus, as shown, luxury has many facets. All the more the phenomenon of luxury is becoming increasingly linked to the need to provide it following the principles of sustainable development (Athwal *et al.*, 2019; Kim, Park & Septianto, 2022). Therefore, any self-respecting brand cannot overlook the need to consider this requirement when shaping the quality of its products. In general, a sustainable product is a product that does not have significant negative impact on environmental and social systems, and this includes not only the use phase, but also the effects of raw materials, the production chain, the supply chain, the use phase, and finally the end of the shelf life, as the development of sustainable products requires consideration of the entire product life cycle. The sustainable product is often evaluated in terms of greenhouse gas emissions, energy efficiency, or environmental pollution (Kammerl *et al.*, 2017, pp. 21–32). Given the current situation where wealthy consumers are increasingly worried about environmental and social issues, luxury companies are being pressured to showcase their sustainability initiatives. These businesses need to base their image and brand identity on values that the market and their customers would acknowledge and appreciate. In this regard, sustainable development plans provide an especially good foundation for enhancing the premium brands' and goods' value propositions (Andersen, Åberg & Bujac, 2023). Sustainable luxury is the concept of returning to the essence of luxury based on the tradition of thoughtful purchasing decisions, craftsmanship, the beauty of high-quality materials, and respect for social and environmental concerns. According to the above concept, a consumer of luxury goods is a person who has both the means and the motivation to care about the environment and people, to improve the quality of life for society as a whole (Dryl, 2018a, 2018b). According to Stępień (2019), the emphasis on the promotion and the implementation of this idea is a function of both the interest of the consumer and the importance attached to it by the brand itself. Talukdar and Yu (2020) point out that a sustainable luxury product is considered rare, authentic, and reflective of the desires of consumers who want not only a quality experience but also the satisfaction of having a positive impact on the environment. Kunz, May and Schmidt (2020) indicate that sustainable luxury affects whole supply chains and goes beyond the production of luxury products, making the incorporation of the exploitation of raw materials like gold necessary to fully understand its idiosyncrasy compared to sustainable commodity goods. Sustainability is perceived by consumers as a complementary model to luxury, especially among the wealthy. The researchers add that whenever a brand is perceived as “making luxury” in terms of craftsmanship, rare materials, and anchorage in its origins (local manufacturing, heraldic tradition of protection of soil), luxury is complementary to sustainability, through sustainability in ethos (e.g., eco-brands such as Stella McCartney or Edun

in luxury fashion or Tesla Roadster and Venturi luxury cars), commitment all along the supply chain (Gucci group, Porsche) and/or introduction of eco-collection and eco-lines (BMW<sup>3</sup> electric cars, Vranken-Pommery Pop Earth Champagne, Gucci sunglasses made out of liquid wood produced from sustainably managed forests) (Cervellon & Shammass, 2013). Next, luxury products are typically more reliable and durable, and therefore do not require repair or parts replacements like other products, and thus, do not generate waste. They are also often passed down from generation to generation.

There is also no shortage of voices saying that given the association of luxury consumption with ostentation, overconsumption, overproduction, indulgence, and personal pleasure, the conflicts between luxury and sustainability become evident (Athwal *et al.*, 2019). For example, according to Kapferer and Michaut (2015), elements related to ostentation will oppose the fairness or social harmony facets of sustainable development. Luxury values are often coupled with personal pleasure, while sustainable consumption is linked to moderation and ethics.

To be objective it should be pointed out that some luxury brands still violate various aspects of the idea of sustainability. This is particularly true of fashion brands. According to Goodman, Wang and Paton (2021), the supply chains present in such businesses are “long and opaque,” with violations happening at different stages of the clothing item’s journey from field to shelf – starting from cotton mills to the weaving, dyeing, and finishing stage. In particular, such negative phenomena as excessive water consumption, exploitation of scarce resources, the destruction of rain forests, bulging landfills, toxic chemicals usage, and modern slavery are highlighted (Arrington, 2017). Studies conducted on the subject confirm that the problem is very broad and that the phenomenon itself threatens human health and life (Bhakoo & Meshram, 2021, pp. 268–280) as well as the welfare of animals (Achabou, 2021, pp. 18–36). This is because it also applies to other luxury industries, such as jewellery (Taifa, 2021, pp. 199–228), and the cosmetics industry (Macer, 2023, pp. 575–590), but also to services, such as hospitality (Minor & Heyes, 2022, pp. 425–442).

### 3. Methodology

The article verifies the validity and reliability of a tool for measuring consumer perceptions of luxury products in the context of sustainability. Such measurement involves answering the question of whether the constructed scale measured the phenomenon it was built to measure and how accurate this measurement is. Validity describes the degree of consistency with which a measurement tool measures what it was constructed to measure (Stanisz, 2007, p. 435). Reliability is a measure of the extent to which a test result reflects the true value of the trait under study and the extent to which it is distorted by errors that have different sources (Brzyski,

Knurowski & Tobiasz-Adamczyk, 2003). The questionnaire comprised metric questions to identify the socio-demographic status of respondents, such as age, gender, education, place of residence, per capita income, and whether they work. The content part consisted of 10 items to analyse the two assumed indicators:

- the luxury product perception index (LPPI), which relates to the perspective of quality (PP1), manufacturing in terms of exploitation of raw materials (PP2), manufacturing that takes into account respect for animal rights (PP3), and human rights (PP4),

- the luxury product buyers’ perception index (LPBPI), such as attitudes toward those who own luxury goods and their living situation (PO1 and PO2), a satisfaction of hedonistic needs (PO3 and PO4), a degree of desire for luxury goods (PO5 and PO6),

and two multiple-choice questions PR1 and PR2, which respectively addressed the types of luxury products purchased and the reasons why such products are not purchased (see Table 1).

Table 1. Survey Questionnaire Statements

Statements’ Symbols	Statement
PP1	I believe that luxury goods are of higher quality than others
PP2	I believe that the production of many luxury products is combined with the over-exploitation of raw materials
PP3	I believe that the production of many luxury products contradicts respect for animal rights
PP4	I believe that the production of many luxury products conflicts with respect for human rights (e.g., the use of child labour, and poor working conditions)
PO1	I admire people who own expensive houses, cars, and clothes
PO2	I believe that what we own says a lot about how well we are doing in life
PO3	Buying expensive things can give a lot of pleasure
PO4	I would be happy if I could afford to buy more luxury items
PO5	I like having a lot of luxury in my life
PO6	My life would be better if I had certain things that I don’t have
PR1	If I buy luxury goods, these are: not applicable (because I don’t buy); cosmetics; foodstuffs; household appliances – AGD; home equipment other than household appliances; clothes; footwear; jewellery
PR2	If I do not (never or rarely) buy luxury goods, it is because (you can indicate more than one answer): not applicable (because I buy); I can’t afford them because of the high price; I think you can do without them; I believe that you can find similar ones of lower quality; I think it is a manifestation of snobbery

Source: own elaboration.

A five-point Likert scale was used to construct the questionnaire with the following response options (except for questions PR1 and PR2): “definitely no,” “no,” “undecided,” “yes,” and “definitely yes” (Edmondson, 2005). According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), there should be fewer items in the scale than the sample size. According to Gorusch (1983), the number of respondents for the study to validate the questionnaire, as a minimum, should correspond to the following principle: 50 respondents for a 10-item questionnaire. Bujang *et al.* (2024) suggest that for conducting a study to assess the reliability of a questionnaire, the number of 30 respondents is sufficient. In contrast, Yurdugül (2008, pp. 397–405) assumes that a sample of 30 to 50 is appropriate. And according to Samuels (2017), ideally, the sample should be between 50 and 100. Therefore, bearing in mind that our questionnaire consists of 12 substantive items, we adopted a value of 60 as the minimum sample. Ultimately, 81 people responded to the invitation. The assessment of relevance and reliability was based on a voluntary and anonymous survey conducted from January to March 2024, using the computer-assisted web interview (CAWI) method. The questionnaire was distributed via the Google Forms platform. Anyone willing to participate in the survey was invited. To test the validity of the test, the 10 parts of the scale were subjected to factor analysis, in which the factors were extracted using the principal components method. The validity of the use of factor analysis was demonstrated by Bartlett’s test of sphericity, assuming that the correlation matrix of the variables would not be unitary (that is, one with ones on the diagonal and zeros on the other fields), and by the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) factor (Wieczorkowska & Wierziński, 2007, p. 322). This coefficient tests the adequacy of the correlation matrix, taking a threshold value of 0.7.

In assessing the relevance, it was assumed that the eigenvalues of the extracted factors would be greater than 1 (Kaiser criterion) and that the variables forming each scale would correlate at least at the level of 0.6 with the first principal component forming the scale, which means a value of factor loadings greater than 0.6. Reliability was tested by analysing the internal consistency of the scales. It was assumed that the scales studied would have a Cronbach’s coefficient higher than 0.7 (Nunnally’s criterion) (Nunnally, 1976).

The analysis was conducted using the IBM SPSS Statistics package.

## **4. Results and Discussion**

### **4.1. Characteristics of Respondents**

Among the respondents, more than 70% were women, almost 24% were men, and the rest (more than 6%) were non-binary or did not want to comment on their gender. More than 70% of respondents were aged 23–26, 14% were aged 27–37, 7% were over 37, and 9% were aged 18–22. More than half of the respondents held

a bachelor's degree, 27% held a master's degree, 5% held a doctoral degree, and 10% had completed a high school education. The largest proportion of respondents lived in cities with more than 100,000 residents (46%), 41% in cities with up to 100,000 residents, 9% in cities with up to 10,000 residents, and 5% in rural areas. 46% of respondents had a *per capita* household income of PLN 3,000–4,999, and 31% earned less than PLN 3,000. Income in the range of 5 to 10 thousand PLN was declared by 12% of respondents, while above 10 thousand PLN – 11% of respondents. Among the respondents, 89% were employed.

#### 4.2. Verification of the Research Tool

The validity of conducting a factor analysis for the scales in the questionnaire was confirmed by the results of Bartlett's sphericity test and the KMO coefficient value. The test yielded a statistic value of  $\chi^2 = 554.097$  ( $df = 45$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), which allows us to accept the hypothesis that the data can be used to perform factor analysis. The KMO value (a measure of sampling adequacy) is 0.826, which is higher than the assumed threshold value (see Table 2).

Table 2. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett Tests for Variables PO1–PO6 and PP1–PP4

KMO measure of sampling adequacy		0.826
Bartlett's sphericity test	Approximate chi-square	554.097
	<i>df</i>	45
	Relevance	< 0.001

Source: own study.

Table 3. Total Explained Variance for Variables PO1–PO6 and PP1–PP4

Component	Initial Intrinsic Values			Sums of Squares of Loads after Rotation		
	Total	% of variance	% cumulative	Total	% of variance	% cumulative
1	5.403	54.026	54.026	4.386	43.857	43.857
2	1.669	16.690	70.716	2.686	22.859	70.716

Notes: Method of extracting factors – main components.

Source: own study.

As a result of the factor analysis conducted for the scales in questions PP1–PP4 and PO1–PO6, two factors (components) were extracted, which together explained 70.72% of the scale's variation. The value of the extracted factors was 5.403 and 1.669, respectively (see Table 3). The first component included variables referred to as the LPPI and the second component variables were elements of the LPBPI. The variables included in the scale had load values ranging from 0.581 to 0.876

(see Table 4). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient for the standardised items was 0.900, which confirms the reliability of the questionnaire used.

Table 4. Matrix of Components for Variables PO1–PO6 and PP1–PP4

Item	Component	
	1	2
PO4	0.876	0.244
PO6	0.858	0.256
PO2	0.815	0.295
PO1	0.794	0.190
PO5	0.791	-0.106
PO3	0.758	0.301
PP3	0.176	0.818
PP2	0.214	0.817
PP4	0.065	0.813
PP1	0.554	0.581

Notes: Method of extracting factors – main components.

Source: own study.

For the variables included in the luxury product perception index (PP1–PP4), the validity of conducting a factor analysis for the scales in the index was confirmed by the results of Bartlett's sphericity test and the value of the KMO coefficient. The test yielded a statistic value of  $\chi^2 = 117.097$  ( $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), which allows us to accept the hypothesis that the data can be used to perform factor analysis. The KMO value (a measure of sampling adequacy) is 0.725, which is higher than the assumed threshold value (see Table 5).

Table 5. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett Tests for Variables PP1–PP4

KMO measure of sampling adequacy		0.725
Bartlett's sphericity test	Approximate chi-square	117.097
	<i>df</i>	6
	Relevance	< 0.001

Source: own study.

As a result of the factor analysis conducted for the scales in questions PP1–PP4, one factor was extracted that explained 64.65% of the scale's variability. The value of the extracted factor was 2.586 (see Table 6). The variables included in the scale had loading values ranging from 0.753 to 0.859 (see Table 7). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient based on standardised items was 0.816.

Table 6. Total Explained Variance for Variables PP1–PP4

Component	Initial Intrinsic Values			Sums of Squares of Loads after Separation	
	Total	% of variance	% cumulative	Total	Cumulative % of variance
1	2.586	64.647	64.647	2.586	64.647

Notes: Method of extracting factors – main components.

Source: own study.

Table 7. Matrix of Components for Variables PP1–PP4

Item	Component 1
PP2	0.859
PP3	0.830
PP4	0.771
PP1	0.753

Notes: Method of extracting factors – main components.

Source: own study.

For the variables included in the luxury shoppers' perception index (PO1–PO6), the validity of conducting a factor analysis for the scales in the index was also confirmed by the results of Bartlett's sphericity test and the value of the KMO coefficient. The test yielded a statistic value of  $\chi^2 = 354.697$  ( $df = 15$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), which allows us to accept the hypothesis that the data can be used to perform factor analysis. The KMO value (a measure of sampling adequacy) is 0.857, which is higher than the assumed threshold value (see Table 8).

Table 8. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett Tests for Variables PO1–PO6

KMO measure of sampling adequacy		0.857
Bartlett's sphericity test	Approximate chi-square	354.697
	$df$	15
	Relevance	< 0.001

Source: own study.

As a result of the factor analysis conducted for the scales in questions PO1–PO6, one component was extracted that explained 71.035% of the scale's variability. The value of the extracted factor was 4.262 (see Table 9). The variables included in the scale had loading values ranging from 0.733 to 0.909 (see Table 10). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficient based on standardised items was 0.917.

Table 9. Total Explained Variance for Variables PO1–PO6

Component	Initial Intrinsic Values			Sums of Squares of Loads after Separation	
	Total	% of variance	% cumulative	Total	Cumulative % of variance
1	4.262	71.035	71.035	4.262	71.035

Notes: Method of extracting factors – main components.

Source: own study.

Table 10. Matrix of Components for Variables PO1–PO6

Item	Component 1
PO4	0.909
PO6	0.891
PO2	0.865
PO1	0.837
PO3	0.810
PO5	0.733

Notes: Method of extracting factors – main components.

Source: own study.

The distribution of responses to the two open-ended questions, namely PR1 and PR2, are illustrated in Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively. In both cases, more than one answer could be indicated. Due to the risk of unrepresentative sampling, these results should be treated as causative. Nevertheless, as Apanowicz (2005, p. 43) points out, causative studies, although they deal with a narrower group of the population, are very often used to provide a preliminary overview of a problem (topic, issue), and due to their high cognitive value, these studies are widely used, especially in empirical work. The survey shows that the most frequently purchased luxury goods were clothing (58% of indications). It can be added that right after cars and hotel and spa services, which were not the subject of our study, it is clothing and other accessories that account for the value and structure of the luxury goods market (KPMG, 2024). This was followed by respondents indicating footwear (49% of indications), and cosmetics (31% of indications). One in four people pointed to jewellery products, and slightly fewer to household appliances (24% of indications).

Nearly 14% of respondents did not buy luxury goods. As one can see, this group is relatively small and the respondents, however, aspire to use luxury products in the future. Since the surveyed group had the largest number of representatives of Generation Z, it should be noted that the power of Generation Z is because it is

at the forefront of social and cultural changes. Characteristic of the younger part of society is the search for meaning to define what is most important and moving towards more “purposeful” purchases, emphasising “lived experiences” and concern for the environment. Luxury brands will need to address their needs accordingly in the future (KPMG, 2024). Moreover, as Shin, Eastman and Li (2022) convince, Generation Z’s relationships with luxury brands are characterised by “like” rather than “love”; while Generation Z may feel a high level of loyalty towards luxury brands in terms of attitudes and behaviours, they do not necessarily have strong, passionate feelings for them. Nevertheless, the rise of Generation Z consumers has hit the luxury industry, placing new demands on sustainable design for luxury goods (Wang *et al.*, 2024b). Consumers will increasingly expect greater transparency, ethical manufacturing practices production, and environmentally friendly processes of creation. Discerning consumers expect authenticity and mission from luxury brands. They support those brands that agree with their values and work for the benefit of society and the environment (KPMG, 2024).

Those who did not buy luxury goods mostly indicated that it was a sign of snobbery (64% of indications). Stępień and Mruk (2017) point out that Poles often take a negative view of the pursuit of luxury, seeing it as a manifestation of snobbery. On the other hand, when they buy such goods, they are often guided by motives, which can be considered snobbish. Similar opinions on luxury products were expressed by consumers in surveys conducted by Newerli-Guz, Rybowska and Sterczyński (2014). Among others, the association of luxury with snobbery was also shown by Schweiger *et al.* (2020, pp. 150–169), and Saruchera and Mthombeni (2023).

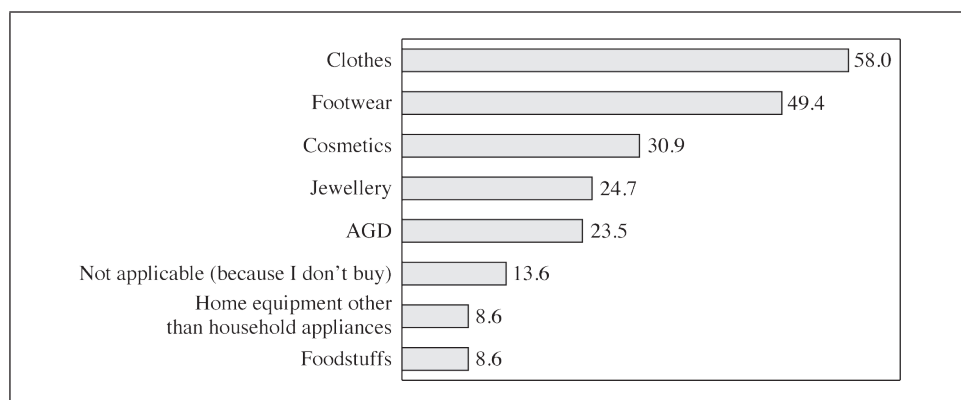


Fig. 1. Responses to PR1: “If I Buy Luxury Goods, These Are...” (% of Indications)

Source: own study.

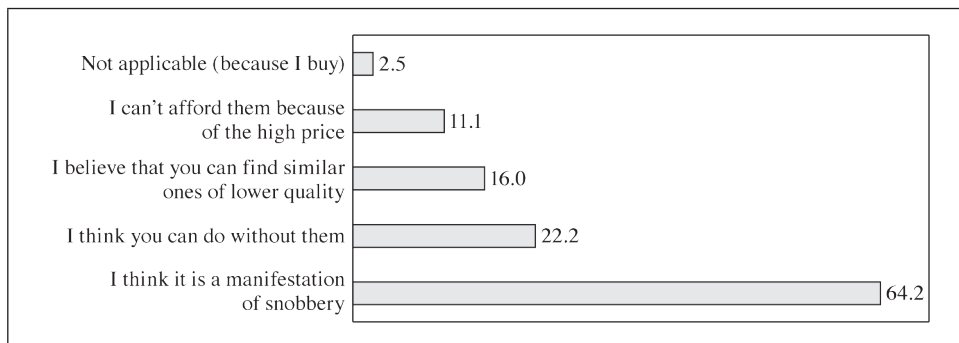


Fig. 2. Responses to PR2: „If I Do Not (Never or Rarely) Buy Luxury Goods, It Is because...” (% of Indications)

Source: own study.

More than one in four said that one can do without luxury (22%), and this is because, as mentioned, luxury products are not necessities (Kunz, May & Schmidt, 2020). 11% do not buy luxury goods because of their high price (Devanathan, 2023), and 16% think that one can find similar products, albeit of lower quality (Song, Suri & Huang, 2023).

## 5. Conclusions

The evaluation of the validity and reliability of the authors' survey questionnaire showed that it was an appropriate tool for studying the two indicators adopted, namely: the luxury product perception index (LPPI) and the luxury product buyers' perception index (LPBPI). A detailed evaluation of the questionnaire did not indicate the need for modification, which means that it can be proposed in this version for further in-depth research. The evaluation of these indicators showed that they properly measure what they are supposed to measure. The analysis also showed that the test result reflects the true value of the trait under study.

Our study can be considered an original contribution to science when it comes to tools for surveying consumer opinion on luxury products in the context of sustainability requirements.

The motivation to purchase and consume luxury products is different. Therefore, from a practical perspective, the proposed tool can be used by producers to identify the opinions of different age groups so that a better marketing strategy can be planned. All the more so because our research, although it should be treated as causative, has shown that young consumers' interest in luxury products is quite significant.

We are aware of the limitations of the conducted study due to the relatively small group of respondents and the ongoing discussion on its size in this type of research. Therefore, to further verify the validity and reliability of the authors' questionnaire, the research should be continued with a more numerous and diverse sample in terms of the adopted socio-demographic characteristics.

### Authors' Contribution

The authors' individual contribution is as follows: Małgorzata Zdzisława Wiśniewska: conceptualisation, methodology, writing – original draft, writing – review and editing, supervision; Eugenia Czernyszewicz: writing – original draft, visualisation, methodology, formal analysis, software; Wiktoria Kosznik: investigation, resources.

### Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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