Digitalising a Second-Chance of Fashion

An Empirical Study on What Drives Consumers to Repurchase
Second-Hand Fashion on Peer-to-Peer Platforms

By

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Abstract

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Thesis purpose: The current study examines the association between seven variables: environmental sustainability, perceived functionality, social influence, price value, hedonic motivation, uniqueness, and technology habit with the purchase of second-hand clothing on peer-to-peer platforms on a regular basis.

Theoretical perspective: Venkatesh, Thong and Xu's (2012) Extended Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology was used. Furthermore, studies in consumer behaviour, platforms, second-hand consumption and peer-to-peer platforms served as a foundation for hypothesis formation and data analysis. Different ideas from the literature of second-hand consumption on peer-to-peer platforms are translated into the equivalent constructs in the modified UTAUT2 model via the hypotheses.

Methodology: A quantitative research methodology was used to investigate the correlations between the constructs and repetitive use behaviour. In addition, a multiple linear regression analysis was used to test the formulated conceptual framework using a deductive approach.

Empirical data: Responses were collected through non-probability sampling and a web-based questionnaire (n=141).

Findings: The study indicated that perceived functionality, social influence, and hedonic motivation have a positive relationship with the repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms. However, environmental sustainability, price value, uniqueness and habit were not significant. Furthermore, additional analysis revealed that uniqueness showed significance in a curvilinear regression.

Implications (Theoretical/Practical): In contrast to previous research, this study finds that not all variables are significant in predicting repurchasing of second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms. The insights add to the literature on consumer behaviour and platform research and provide valuable assistance for companies and society in what drives consumers to increase the frequency of consumption.
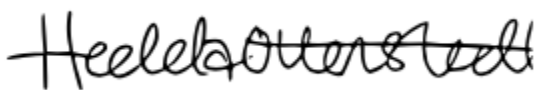
Acknowledgement

The irony lies in writing a thesis about the rapid shift in consumer behaviours. At the same time, the world has changed from the start date to the end date of writing this thesis, with the pandemic, the climate crisis, and geopolitical conflicts affecting consumption across borders. It goes to show that opposing forces, drivers and consumer behaviour are complex and change at a rapid speed that we can not keep up with.

Lund, Sweden, May 31st 2022

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List of Abbreviations

CE   Circular Economy

DV   Dependent Variable

IV   Independent Variable

P2P   Peer-to-Peer

SE   Sharing Economy

SHC   Second-Hand Consumption

UTAUT   Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology

UTAUT2   Extended Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology

1 Introduction

The following introductory chapter introduces the reader to the research topic by discussing the development and importance of the sharing economy (SE) in addressing the need for a change in consumer behaviour. The initial positioning of the presented study is determined by the background and problematisation sections, allowing the research objective and question to be formalised. The chapter then discusses the study's expected contributions before concluding with an outline of the thesis.

1.1 Background

Consumption is more visible today than ever, putting the environment's long-term viability in jeopardy. As a result, one of the key driving forces in the change toward more environmentally friendly consumption practices is to lessen the impact of consumer behaviour has been sustainability (Sharma, Nguyen, & Grote, 2018). Additionally, with a predicted population increase to 8.5 billion by 2030 (UN.D, 2021), it is even more urgent that consumer behaviour shifts to sustainable practices to ensure a sustainable future. To meet the urgency, concepts such as the circular economy (CE) have emerged, combining creative consumption activities such as reducing, recycling, recovering, and remanufacturing to minimise resource inputs and waste emissions (Huynh, 2022). By thoroughly transforming production and consumption systems (Kirchherr, Reike & Hekkert, 2017), the circular economy (CE) strives to decouple the value creation of waste generation and resources (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). In establishing CE as a foundation, industries can continue to prosper in the coming years (Arrigo, 2020).

The fashion industry is a sector that faces challenges regarding sustainable transformation. In the last decades, the fashion industry has grown into a USD 1.3 trillion industry due to shifts in consumer behaviour caused by growing middle classes, increased disposable income, and fast fashion' (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). However, the system puts pressure on resource extraction, generating pollution and negative societal impacts (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017), making the fashion industry one of the most extensive industrial sectors (Huynh, 2022). Within Europe, 15 kilograms of textile waste are produced per person (Smith, 2022), which mostly ends up in landfills. Five decades ago, tailor-made garments were preferred by consumers; meanwhile, today, buying 'fast fashion' is frequently consumed and discarded as trends change with the seasons (Huynh, 2022). Fast fashion can be understood as

the quick "turnaround of new styles, increased number of collections, [and] … lower prices" (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017, p. 18). As a result, the life cycle of garments has radically shortened (Niinimäki, 2018), with the standard time for owning a garment being 2.2 years before disposing of it (WRAP, 2017). Nevertheless, with rising sustainability trends, consumers have begun to look at alternative consumption practices to address the challenge of fast fashion as there is an urgent need for a sustainable transition of the industry to be more fixed with a stable economy that is regenerative (Huynh, 2022).

Consumers and producers face a challenge today: the increasing accumulation of unsold and unworn garments (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). The second-hand market offers sustainable consumption practices that reduce resource use and environmental pollution by reformed methods of *make-use-return* instead of the traditional *take-make-dispose* (Huynh, 2022). Second-hand consumption (SHC) can be understood as "previously owned … items that are sold on alternative secondary channels" (Turunen, Cervellon & Carey, 2020). Since the 1980s, the second-hand market has experienced exponential growth (Machado et al., 2019; Guiot & Roux, 2010; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015), with recent predictions of increasing to a USD 77 billion market in 2025 (Thredup, 2021). The market's growth results from shifting attitudes, including the acceptance of purchasing pre-owned garments (Turunen, Cervellon & Carey, 2020). The second-hand market holds a guarantee concerning sustainability and shared value creation, "which involves creating economic value in a way that also creates value for society by addressing its needs and challenges" (Porter & Kramer, 2011, p. 4). Second-hand consumption (SHC) encourages the idea of a zero-waste society (Peugeot, Beuscart, Pharabod & Trespeuch, 2015) where selling second-hand garments decouples the value creation of waste and resources. Instead, SHC combines environmental concerns for material optimisation and market opportunities (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). To address this, second-hand peer-to-peer (P2P) platforms integrate the element of sustainability and digital technologies to accommodate rising demands to counteract the fashion industry's environmental impact.

With technological innovations, the second-hand market has entered virtual marketplaces in the form of peer-to-peer (P2P) platforms. P2P platforms give value to underutilised resources, making it attractive for consumers to purchase pre-used products and have thus become the most global practice of collaborative consumption (Apte & Davis, 2019; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). For second-hand fashion, P2P platforms have increased the accessibility to reselling, renting or swapping garments which incrementally grew prior to the

COVID-19 pandemic (Adam, Strähle & Freise, 2018; ThredUp, 2021) due to the rapid growth of e-Commerce (Chen, Zhang, Xu, Liu & Wang, 2018). Second-hand fashion platforms are predicted to grow by 185% by 2029 (Smith, 2021), as consumers' behaviours are simultaneously evolving with the transformation of the fashion industry. Activities can be carried out directly on platforms, enabling providers and users to use the service without interference from third-party interactions (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Xue, Caliskan-Demirag, Chen & Yu, 2018; Wang, Ma & Wang, 2021). With platforms being virtual marketplaces of interactions, the complex nature of consumer behaviour and practices in these environments is testing.

The digitalisation of consumption practices with a focus on sustainability has accelerated in the last couple of years in initiating a "reset of the fashion industry" (Amed et al., 2021), shaping the sector and everyday consumer behaviour. As a result, new complexities have risen in understanding consumers' behaviour, with consumption systems evolving and transforming depending on the context (Aksin-Sivrikaya & Bhattacharya, 2017; del Río Castro, González–Fernández & Uruburu-Colsa, 2020). The complexities of understanding present-day consumer behaviour of second-hand fashion on P2P platforms have opened many opportunities to delve deeper into a relatively recent phenomenon (Alqayed et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2018; Adam, Strähle & Freise, 2018; ThredUp, 2021).

1.2 Research Problem

Sustainability and the digitalisation of consumption are shaping our perceptions and behaviours, with new initiatives and business models accommodating the transforming practices of consumers. Following digital technologies, new business models have shaped the economy today (Chesbrough, 2010; Teece, 2010; Zott, Amit & Massa, 2011) with initiatives such as the sharing economy (SE) (Belk, 2014) and collaborative consumption (Botsman & Rogers, 2011) presenting opportunities to make production and consumption systems more circular. Consumers increasingly accept new forms of technology and integrate them into their everyday life. In particular, the fashion industry has become an industry that has begun to consolidate sustainability and digital technologies to address the sector's immense negative environmental impact with urgency for sustainable long-term system transformation. Capitalistic consumers' demand for fast fashion has established the mechanisms of the industry and are slowly re-evaluating their behaviours and practices.

Consequently, the second-hand market has experienced substantial growth in recent years and is no longer associated with low-income consumers but with tech-savvy consumers becoming increasingly knowledgeable about different technologies simultaneously with sustainable awareness (Chen et al., 2018; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). In addition, digital technologies have become a part of everyday life, accelerated due to COVID-19 forcing people to move their daily interactions into virtual environments (ThredUp 2021). The second-hand market accordingly followed this shift and transitioned to digital platforms (ThredUp, 2021), enabling consumers to buy and sell directly to each (Alqayed et al., 2022, Wang, Ma & Wang, 2021; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Xue et al., 2018).

The rapid expansion of the second-hand market to digital platforms has attracted academics to understand how consumers engage with these platforms. The accessibility to second-hand fashion has increased to a broader audience, transgressing the limitations of having access to physical stores. With new forms of digital accessibility to second-hand fashion, it is essential to understand how purchasing practices evolve and transition. Online second-hand fashion has presented consumers with an opportunity to shop at any particular moment, filter for the right size, and do advanced searches. Despite the actuality, relevance and timeliness of the topic, the available academic literature on SHC of fashion is limited, particularly from the perspective on drivers leading to repurchases (Schor, 2014; Denegri-Knott, 2011; Denegri-Knott & Molesworth, 2009; Robert, Binninger & Ourahmoune, 2014; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). Literature has mainly focused on consumers' intentions to buy online second-hand fashion (Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Guiot & Roux, 2010; Beard, 2008; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012; Seo & Kim, 2019; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021; Khitous, Urbinati & Verleye, 2022; Bajaj, Steel, Ogden & Rahman, 2020).

Under the umbrella of academic research in consumer intentions on P2P platforms for SHC, research in cost savings (Kim & Woo, 2021; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Williams & Paddock, 2003; Guiot & Roux, 2010; Roux & Guiot, 2008), environmental sustainability (Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021) and hedonic motivations (Guiot & Roux, 2010; Roux & Guiot, 2008; Waight, 2014; Padmavathy, Swapana & Paul, 2019; Petrescu & Bhatli, 2013; Arnould & Bardhi, 2005) have been extensively researched.

To highlight the perhaps most essential, previous research focused on the intention to adopt technologies and not the actual behaviour on and usage of P2P platforms (Schor, 2014; Denegri-Knott, 2011; Denegri-Knott & Molesworth, 2009; Robert, Binninger & Ourahmoune, 2014; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). Thus, it serves as a starting point for what some researchers suggest can provide beneficial insights into consumers' future consumption patterns and behaviours, mainly with evolving and transforming digital and physical environments. However, consumer behaviour research on peer-to-peer platforms for second-hand fashion needs further research with all aspects presented. In addition, this study calls attention to the gap in the academic literature on the actual purchase behaviour of second-hand fashion on online platforms, mainly the frequency of purchasing.

1.3 Research Purpose & Objectives

The background and research problem underline the requisite for examining the consumption patterns and behaviours of SHC on P2P platforms. In particular, the accessibility to second-hand fashion through P2P platforms alludes to consumers repurchasing behaviours on platforms to consume second-hand fashion. This research paper aims to contribute to consumer behaviour literature on P2P platforms by investigating whether different drivers influence the repurchasing behaviours on P2P platforms. In addition, the novelty of the topic has presented an opportunity to investigate SHC through a modified version of the UTAUT2 framework to see if consumer drivers and repurchasing on platforms. Based on the aforementioned, the research question follows:

RQ1: What drivers predict individuals repurchasing behaviours on peer-to-peer platforms for second-hand fashion?

1.4 Aimed Contributions

The study aims to contribute to two areas within the theoretical field. Firstly, one aim is to contribute to research on consumer behaviour. Consumption has transitioned into complex practices due to opposing forces. On the one hand, modernisation has evolved consumer society into a fast-paced, throw-away culture where human consumption practices have led to environmental consequences (Shirvanimgohaddam, Motamed, Ramakrishna, Naebe, 2020; Castro-Lopez, Iglesias & Puente, 2021). On the other hand, the awareness has increased (Reints, 2019; Seo & Kim, 2019; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021; Khitous, Urbinati & Verleye, 2022), putting forward the complexity of opposing forces.

While SHC has been considered a sustainable practice, understanding the motivating factors in consuming second-hand can present the complex nature of consumer behaviour. By examining the frequency of purchasing sustainable fashion, a deeper theoretical understanding of the intertwined forces can be developed and unravelled.

A second theoretical contribution is to extend research on digital platform usage. In current academic literature, extensive research has been conducted on platform adoption. Meanwhile, an overlooked area is understanding the drivers of consumption through platforms. By examining purchase frequencies by repetitive use behaviour through the UTAUT2 model, this perspective will add to the elements of novelty. Previous research has presented an opportunity interested in consumer behaviour and values using P2P platforms (Tan, Makkonen, Kaur & Salo, 2022; Gullstrand Edbring, Lehner & Mont, 2016; Xue et al., 2018; Pretner, Darnall, Testa & Iraldo, 2021; Turunen, Cervellon & Carey, 2020; Zhang & Dong, 2021). However, by incorporating a modified version of the Extended Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology Model (UTAUT2) (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012) with variables from the field of SHC, the phenomena can be looked at from a technology usage perspective.

Furthermore, the thesis will incorporate practical implications. First, by highlighting consumer behaviour within online SHC, the study provides further insights for managers. For example, a better sense of what drivers lead to repurchasing can ease how to interact with them. Furthermore, it can provide opportunities to grow platforms for SHC and develop satisfactory experiences for sustained usage. Second, for authorities, this study calls to action from the perspective of what facilitating drivers stimulates the increased frequency of purchasing behaviours. With the current environmental impact of the fashion industry, gaining insights into the frequency of purchasing can further instigate conversation and initiatives to address these actions.

In summary, our research will develop the field of academic literature on consumer behaviour and platform usage through the theoretical model of UTAUT2. In addition, the study incorporates practical implications, including insights into a consumer perspective on SHC and the drivers for repetitive use behaviour of SHC on P2P platforms.

1.5 Outline of the Thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters, beginning with the introduction chapter. Chapter *two* presents a detailed review of current academic literature, introducing the transformation in consumer behaviour leading to SHC on P2P platforms. Chapter *three* outlines the theoretical framework and hypotheses, followed by the methodology in chapter *four* used to achieve the objectives and aims of this study. Furthermore, chapters *five* and *six* present the analysis and discussion of the findings. Finally, in chapter *seven,* the thesis is concluded with theoretical contributions, practical implications and research limits and suggestions for further research.

2 Literature Review

Chapter two introduces a literature review encompassing the phenomenon of focus, beginning with the section on consumer behaviour transformation. Following that section, an overview of the environmental consequences resulting from the shift in consumption practices, specifically in the garment sector, is presented. Two prominent developments emerged in reaction to shifts in consumption practices: the sharing economy (SE) and platforms. Finally, the chapter introduces alternative consumption practices, namely sustainable consumption and SHC of fashion through P2P platforms.

2.1 Transformation in Consumer Behaviour

Over the last decades, consumer purchasing practices have evolved due to changing societal influences such as changed values in the environment, social justice, trends and digital economies (Amed, 2021; Campbell, 2018). Around the 1970s, when consumption became a meaningful social activity offering distinct perspectives (Ilomen, 2011), different aspects of society demarcated the boundaries of social distinctions. As Bauman (2001) refers to, today's world is a *society of consumers* where the relationship between consumers and objects has become existential. Our shopping practices, position, and dignity are reflected in how we continue to purchase (Febrianti, Tambalean & Pandhami, 2021).

Consumption is seen as having a purpose (Bauman, 2001), driven by consumer desire that in today's society is impossible to gratify, referring to the "consuming desire of consuming" (p. 13). To consume, Kotler and Keller (2009) define the act of purchasing behaviours as "goods that the consumer … compares on … suitability, quality, price, and style" (p. 320). According to Campbell (2018), elucidating current consumer purchasing behaviour is complex since it is not manifested necessarily in the product itself. According to Khan and Dhar (2006), consumers make decisions that follow each other towards an activated goal: emulation of the desired self by providing behavioural validation.

However, the characteristics of consumption involve the "endless pursuit of wants" (Campbell, 2018, p. 78), which illustrates modern consumption practices and thus the apparent "endless process of replacement" (p. 78) purchases. It describes the revolution in rising expectations associated with modernisation, causing consumers to develop expectations that lead to increasing frustrations of never being able to feel satisfied (Campbell, 2018). Consumption has evolved as a process through which the extraction of

resources has intensified with rising consumer demands (Marx, 1976; Campbell, 2018; Ilomen, 2011).

2.1.1 Understanding Consumption

The phenomena of consumption is complex because of the varied understandings and interpretations of consumers' decision-making processes (Goldsmith, Flynn & Clark, 2011). Amongst scholars, different interpretations are present; for example, Korgaonkar and Wolin (1999) look at the shopping styles influencing purchasing practices, while Arnold and Reynolds (2003) expand the hedonic motivations of consumption. Connected to De Witt Huberts, Evers, and de Ridder (2012), who found that the theory of *self-licensing* increases indulgent behaviours of consumption, leading to gratification. The self-licensing theory describes consumers justifying their consumption practices based on hedonic motivations (De Witt Huberts, Evers & de Ridder, 2012; Khan & Dhar, 2006). Trigg (2001) highlights that consumers are motivated by the desire through changes in consumer behaviour, with purchasing practices being an indicator of social class.

Venkatesh, Thong and Xu (2012) connect habit to consumption practices as it is the "overarching mechanism and key driver of behaviour" (p. 158) that, based on previous experiences, learnings, and emotions, automates consumption (Limayem, Hirt & Cheung, 2007). Kim, Malhotra and Narasimhan (2005) refer to this as *automaticity*. Automatism comes from time and experience, creating new habits (Kim, Malhotra & Narasimhan, 2005; Venkatesh, Morris, Davis & Davis, 2003; Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012) and repeated behaviours. Goldsmith, Flynn and Clark (2011) build upon this by including the needs, wants and intentions that drive habits in perpetuating the purchasing cycle to gratify a desire.

The gratification of desire includes two variables that Goldsmith, Flynn and Clark (2011) identify as materialism and brand engagement. They (2011) allude to a shift in what consumers find important. Fergusson (1996) looks at modern consumption as a practice of wishful imagination, connecting consumption with self-expression, taste and prejudice. Bauman (2001) further elaborates on this point by emphasising that desire has led to consumer addiction to its present state: increased consumption practices guided by the principles of consumerism and materialism of, for example, fashion.

2.1.2 Consumer Behaviour within Fashion

Fashion has long been acknowledged as a powerful social force that shapes people's behaviour and is intimately tied to an individual's social and economic life (Mrad, Majdalani, Cui & el Khansa, 2020). Simmel (1957) describes fashion as "the imitation of a given example and satisfies the demand for social adaptation" (p. 543). The sociologist (1957) explains that fashion allows for some difference and a desire for change and contrast. Campbell (2018) explains that fashion emulates through social scales desiring to maintain superiority by inventing new trends.

Thus, recognised as a social phenomenon subject to change even in traditional civilisations. Those below in the social hierarchy copy their consumption patterns as it trickles down the status system (Campbell, 2018). Through the power of social emulation, new fashion styles are introduced, adopted, and spread, eventually being replaced (Campbell, 2018). However, new fashions are not constantly introduced by those in the societal elite but rather understood as an imitation that explains modern fashion and the desire to emulate one's social superiors (Campbell, 2018).

2.1.3 Fast Fashion

The fashion industry has extensively developed into fast fashion consumption in recent years. Campbell (2018) characterises modern fashion as the changes in shape, material, and style that occur rapidly. In this way, modern fashion captures the essence of speed and originality (Campbell, 2018). The concept of fast fashion first emerged in the late 1990s, characterising the change in fashion and how it was being consumed (Buzzo & Abreu, 2019). Then, the industrialisation of mass production systems began to arise, stimulating the fashion industry and increasing the demand amongst consumers (Doeringer & Crean, 2006). Fast fashion has resulted in a remarkable reduction in fashion goods' time, price, and lifespan, leading to intensified consumption practices (Ulasewicz & Hethorn, 2008). Today's system is focused on the efficiency of meeting consumer demands (Buzzo & Abreu, 2019).

Another contributing factor to the rise of fast fashion is the change of habits in the use of fashion items and the introduction of social networks (Buzzo & Abreu, 2019). Social networks have immensely changed how individuals consume fashion. Furthermore, reinforcing the notion of fast fashion following the constant consumption of media stimulates the needs and wants of consumers (Buzzo & Abreu, 2019). Characterised by the concept of

quick response, fast fashion encompasses complex yet simple attributes aimed at consuming (Buzzo & Abreu, 2019; Caro & Martinez-de-Albéniz, 2015). For example, by collecting consumer data, the supply can be adjusted to fit the consumers best needs.

Fast fashion is tied to the commercialisation of consumption, driven by demand manipulation via fashion control and cautious use (Campbell, 2018), aimed at "controlling the market, sustaining consumer interest and creating new demand" (McKendrick, Brewer & Plumb, 1985, p. 69). Hedonistic pleasures of consumers stimulate an addictive tendency to purchase fashion items (Buzzo & Abreu, 2019). Consumer addictive behaviours can positively fulfil the needs and concerns that the consumer has (Mrad et al., 2020). The fast fashion industry has been able to utilise this kind of behaviour to develop a supply chain and demand that influences consumer behaviour in purchasing fast fashion items (Mrad et al., 2020). The continuous change of assortments that follow the latest fashion trends initiates consumer demand, tapping into their desire to emulate a specific identity (Mrad et al., 2020; Buzzo & Abreu, 2019). The rapid pace at which consumer society is changing leads to a cyclical practice of fashion consumption at a rapid pace, as trends, cultures, and status change. Seemingly fashion is seen as a tool to temporarily subdue a consumer fantasy and desire, creating an understanding of the modern fashion industry.

Consumption practices have evolved with new understandings shaping how consumption and purchasing practices are performed. With fashion being a driving force in the transitioning of contextual consumption practices, new complexities give rise to the question of how purchasing practices are evolving.

2.2 Environmental Consequences of Consumer Behaviour in the Fashion Industry

The modern fashion industry is responsible for long-term business structures favouring unsustainable consumption practices (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). The current system is the world's second most polluting and wasteful industry (Amed et al., 2021; Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017) and extracts large quantities of natural resources to produce garments with a limited life cycle (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). Niimimäki et al. (2020) connect environmental degradation with fashion consumption, noting that fashion consumption is estimated to rise to 102 million tonnes of garment purchases by 2030 (Lehmann et al., 2019). Garments purchased per capita increased by 60 per cent between

2000 and 2014 (Remy, Speelman, & Swartz, 2016). Furthermore, de Brito, Carbone, and Blanquart (2008) found that individual fashion consumption has quadrupled since the 1960s, with energy, raw material, water, and greenhouse gas emissions increasing, raising the complexities of reevaluating the fashion industry (Shirvanimoghaddam et al., 2020).

2.2.1 Wasteful Behaviour

Fashion consumption has doubled in the last 15 years as the growing middle class has increased their disposable income and access to fashion (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). With regular fashion consumption, post-consumer textile waste (PCTW) has increased tenfold in 2018 in the USA alone (DeVoy et al., 2021). The UK is predicted to generate 2 million tonnes of PCTW each year, of which 63 per cent end up in landfills (DEFRA, 2007). Despite various sustainability measures in the fashion and textile sectors, textile and garment wastes increased from 24 million tonnes in 2012 to 26.2 million tonnes in 2016 in the UK specifically (WRAP, 2017). Only 15 per cent of post-consumer textile waste was collected in 2015 (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017) for recycling, accounting for 1 per cent of the total production to be a closed-loop (Niimimäki et al., 2020). Clark and Alford (2019) connect excessive consumption to increased disposal of items perceived as the standard of living. As Shirvanimgohaddam et al. (2020) highlight, the disposable nature of fast fashion and what they refer to as a *throwaway culture* is the consequence of changing behaviour transforming how the industries' systems function.

The phenomena of consumerism and the throwaway culture are considered unsustainable, despite that the fashion industry provides significant economic benefits in trade, employment, revenue, and investment (Castro-Lopez, Iglesias & Puente, 2021). However, as Clark and Alford (2019) highlight, consumerism has "been a driver of the economy of exclusion" (p. 975) that perpetuates the sentiment of desire. Waste is inherent in a consumer society, according to the authors (2019), who describe the throwaway culture as a waste market linked to the economy of exclusion. Roux and Guiot (2008) refer to frugality as the possible link between a lifestyle trait and economic motives. These consumers are cautious and disciplined in their use of money (Roux & Guiot, 2008; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012; Joung & Park-Poaps, 2013). According to a study by McKinsey & Company (Remy, Speelman, & Swartz, 2016), the use time of a fashion item has decreased by 36 per cent compared to 2005, mainly for impulse purchases. *Impulsive buying* is connected to consumers' motivation to seek emotional highs through continuous purchasing (Niinimäki,

2018). The emotional high leads to emotional "addiction", which is accepted in today's fashion consumption behaviour (Niinimäki, 2018; Cui, Mrad & Hogg, 2018). Indulgent behaviour is thus closely related to impulse buying behaviour (Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017).

The environmental consequence of a market where fashion-conscious consumers demand garments that allow them to stay up to trend (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010) has introduced complexities in understanding consumer behaviour. These changes in consumer behaviour present additional obstacles to long-term fashion consumption: consumption in developed countries has already exceeded global resource limits, posing a threat to human life and the climate (Steffen et al., 2015).

Lorek and Spangenberg (2014) emphasise that reducing the consumption of individuals can ensure that human activities do not exceed the supply of resources. Consequently, limiting the level of consumption of garments can assist in achieving the objective demands (di Giulio & Fuchs, 2014), referring to the 'quantitative' aspect of consumption. Considering what happens to a garment once it has served its purpose can substantially affect the number of textile wastes generated each year (Lawless & Medvedev, 2016), thus addressing the environmental impact of fast fashion purchasing practices.

2.3 Solutions for Environmental Challenges

Increased environmental awareness rose to prominence in the 1970s and has gained widespread acceptance throughout recent decades (Morgan & Birtwistle, 2009) to become a significant megatrend today (Lichtenthaler, 2021). Growing environmental awareness has been a reason for acceptance (Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Guiot & Roux, 2010). As people become more aware of the issues, new concepts and business models have emerged to address them. The sharing economy (SE) and technology advancements are two of the most notable.

2.3.1 Sharing Economy

The sharing economy (SE) is one system within the CE characterised by the system of "sharing, bartering, lending, trading, renting, gifting, and swapping across communities" (Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017, p. 48). Apte and Davis (2019) describe SE as a new business model that matches consumers with providers using cloud-based technology.

The SE contributes to a CE from an environmental standpoint, concentrating on the resilience of physical and ecological systems (Daunorienė, Drakšaitė, Snieška & Valodkienė, 2015). The SE is an ever-evolving construct depending on the context of its understanding (Allen & Berg, 2014).

Present research considers the SE as the third revolution because the SE creates a new production and consumption paradigm, resulting in technological and sociological transformations (Bauwens, Mendoza & Lacomella, 2012; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Schor, 2014). The arrangement requires participation, skill, technology and 'stuff' to be a functional system (Daunorienė et al., 2015; Dreyer, Lüdeke-Freund, Hamann & Faccer, 2017).

With both a technological and social component to it, the construct presents an economic perspective aimed at fulfilling the needs of consumers through available resources (Daunoriene et al., 2015; Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2016; Zervas, Prosperio & Byers, 2017). The driving factor for this kind of system is the power of access over ownership (Demailly & Novel, 2014). Nevertheless, for the value to remain, the sociality of the business model needs to remain relevant as well. If the relevancy subsides over time, a sharing economy will lose its stability. With increased accessibility to technological innovations, the focus has shifted from products to services (Murillo, Buckland & Val, 2017). The SE is dependent on the development of information technologies and the expansion of Web 2.0 (Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2016). However, with technologies and increased usage of social media platforms, the SE will remain an impactful resource sharing system (Botsman & Rogers, 2011).

2.3.2 Platforms

Platforms create opportunities for consumers to exchange products, services, and knowledge, facilitating accessibility to digital technologies in an interactive exchange ecosystem and creating value (Hagiu, 2009; Parker, vanAlstyne & Jiang, 2016; Rohn et al., 2021; Constantinou, Morton, and Tuunainen, 2016). As emerging technologies rapidly digitalise, new business models are being organised around digital platforms (Rohn et al., 2021), creating value for stakeholders and new opportunities for exchange (Alqayed et al., 2022). Platform-based business models are characterised by how value is delivered and captured (Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2013; Rohn et al., 2021). Daunorienė et al. (2015) highlight that these business models evolve based on consumer demands, changing markets, technologies,

structures, and systems. As a result, many businesses have transitioned from physical setups to digital platforms for interactions and exchanges (Johansson & Kask, 2017).

Research has found that consumer interactions generate positive externalities, contributing to network effects and building network ecosystems for organic growth on platforms (Rohn et al., 2021; Tang, Zhou & Warkentin, 2022) and are essential for the platform's success (Constantinou, Eaton & Tuunainen, 2016). Information and communication technologies, in particular, have played a part in how users interact with platforms (Karakas, 2009). According to Hagiu and Wright (2015), there are two interaction features. The first is the direct interactions between consumers, where the two parties control the interaction. The second interaction is the consumer affiliation with the platform that attracts them to the platform in the first place. In addition, direct interactions in user performance on the platform create value in building network effects (Tang, Zhou & Warkentin, 2022). They thus are dependent on users' performance for the overall value creation.

A construct that can explain digital interactions is the flow state. Flow is a valuable concept for expressing broad human-computer interactions (Novak, Hoffman & Duhachek, 2003) and is a valuable notion for understanding how Internet users behave and are shaped by their current state. Novak and Hoffman (1997) defined *flow* as the state occurring during network navigation. The flow is based on the "sequence of responses facilitated by machine interactivity", "intrinsically enjoyable", "accompanied by a loss of self-consciousness", and "self-reinforcing" (Novak & Hoffman, 1997, p. 5). The flow is also based on the skills consumers have to continue to overcome the challenges of online interactions (Hoffman & Novak, 1996). Park, Kim, Funches & Foxx (2012) explain that web browsing behaviour has led to impulse buying because of increased hedonic consumption motivations, which he refers to as *e-impulse buying*. The authors (2012) present critical factors that impact how consumers browse through platforms which generally begins with skimming for information on the Web (Rowley, 2001).

Users continue to utilise platforms because their procurement approach allows them to make more money and enhance their performance over time (Tang, Zhou & Warkentin, 2022). The more users visit the platform, the better the platform can perform based on research and development of consumer behaviour (Tang, Zhou & Warkentin, 2022). As Bharadwaj and Matsuno (2006) emphasised, the inclination to visit a platform is when the user aims to, for example, reduce transaction costs, creating a competitive marketplace that reinforces the

initial reason to visit the platform. A level of trust and transaction costs also contributes to the continuous usage of platforms to purchase items, which is related to economic opportunism, according to Williamson (1993). However, by reducing communication, financial and time constraints, the inclination to continue using platforms is not bound by costs and time (Tang, Zhou & Warkentin, 2022).

With environmental awareness pervading amongst consumers, new business models such as the SE have introduced opportunities for businesses to capture value through platforms. The SE providing a system that allows consumers to become environmentally conscious while economically being able to utilise and consume services and goods has given platforms a way of facilitating and accommodating consumer needs and demands.

2.4 Alternative Practices of Fashion Consumption

Addressing environmental challenges in the fashion industry through changes in consumption practices has led to innovative solutions within the SE with assistance from emerging technologies such as platforms. Consumer consumption can contribute to sustainable initiatives that drive environmental sustainability movements (d'Astous & Legendre, 2009). Current discourse within the sustainable consumption research field suggests that more focus should go on the individual consumption of fashion and consumer behaviour (Valor, 2007). The following section will present and examine the consumption of second-hand fashion through digital P2P platforms as a type of impactful consumption practice.

2.4.1 Sustainable Consumption

Sustainable consumption practices have become increasingly studied over the past decades (White, Habibi & Hardisty, 2019), mainly connected to consumption values (Tan et al., 2022). Practising sustainable consumption has been a topic of interest for public policy and environmental activism since the early 1970s (Holt, 2012). Within the fashion industry, various lexicons have been used to refer to sustainable fashion consumption (Thomas, 2008), "including environmental, ecological, green, sustainable, ethical, recycled and organic" (Bly, Gwodz, & Reisch, 2015, p. 4). With different contextual understandings of green and ethical consumption, this study follows McNeill and Moore's (2015) holistic approach to sustainable consumption as a practice that considers the larger influence of consumption on individuals, wildlife and the physical environment. Building upon that, White, Habibi and Hardisty (2019) define sustainable consumption practices as activities that result in lower

environmental impact and less use of natural resources across product, behaviour, and service patterns. Behaviours of this type can include simplifying consumption practices, picking sustainable products, conserving resources and offering sustainable modes of disposal (White, Habibi & Hardisty, 2019).

Hur (2020) found that the social and psychological influences direct consumers towards responsible decisions in consumption. Consumers who are initially motivated by environmental and social consciousness are referred to by McNiell and Moore (2015) as *sacrifice consumers* who are critically motivated by their high environmental concerns (Guiot & Roux, 2010). Within academic research, the topic of green consumption has grown (White, Habibi & Hardisty, 2019); however, consumer behaviour has yet to show in practice. Starr (2009) distinguishes between buying and behaving sustainably, insinuating that temporality and financial resources influence consumers to consume sustainably.

2.4.2 Second-hand Fashion on Peer-to-Peer Platforms

Increased concern about the fashion industry's environmental impact has positively affected consumer attitudes toward second-hand goods (Reints, 2019; Seo & Kim, 2019; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021; Khitous, Urbinati & Verleye, 2022). The second-hand market's steady expansion is linked to worries about the industry's environmental impact on health, the environment, and society in general (Beard, 2008; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012) among different age groups (Hiller Connell, 2011). From a consumer point of view, reducing waste and positively impacting the environment can effectively be achieved by re-using and recycling clothes (Bianchi & Birtwistle, 2010; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012) since it favours a "zero-waste" society (Peugeot et al., 2015; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017).

By alternatively consuming second-hand, consumers express and create an identity that includes a socially-conscious self (Moreno, Lafuente, Carreón & Moreno, 2017; Carrigan, Moraes & McEachern, 2013). Guiot and Roux (2010) highlight that SHC is motivated by an underlying critical perspective of conventional shopping experiences. Hur (2020) argues a shift in values and perspectives on second-hand fashion based on attributes, barriers, and personal values. Four distinct social groups consume second-hand fashion: price, quality and style, brand, and environmentally and socially conscious groups (Hur, 2020). These groups are driven by good value for money, hedonic experiences, holistic benefits, and the socio-environmental benefits of SHC (Hur, 2020). Simultaneously, they (2020) identified

four social groups of non-SHC consumers: status-conscious individuals, quality and hygiene, style and self-expression, and time and professionalism conscious groups.

What withholds these groups from SHC is that they perceive a lack of material quality, unfashionable styles, lack of transparency, accessibility, and the social image of acceptance (Hur, 2020). Roux and Korchia (2006) describe this phenomenon as SHC. The phenomenon is related to intentional simplicity and different reduction behaviours and can be seen as a symbol of opposition to consumerism (Roux & Korchia, 2006). Meanwhile, the purchases of second-hand goods are stagnating production and the trade of unnecessary items (Roux & Korchia, 2006). According to Thomas (2003), when the supply of used goods is extensive and valuable enough, the second-hand market can decrease the demand for new items and significantly improve environmental effects.

P2P platforms, as stated by Eckhardt et al. (2019), provide redistribution of resources through organised agglomeration, re-use, and matching supply and demand. As a result, the P2P economy, on online platforms, obtains transfer of value and value innovation for the whole of society (Eckhardt et al., 2019). Furthermore, it constructs benefits, including sustainability, socialisation, and economic value (Habibi, Davidson & Laroche, 2017; Wang, Ma & Wang, 2021). For consumers, second-hand P2P platforms moderate significant social changes that supply a chance of better societal well-being effects (Bajaj et al., 2020; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017), as well as a practical and sustainable solution to disposal (Baek & Oh, 2021; Manninen et al., 2018). In other words, consumers can contribute to circularity by extending the life cycle of garments as much as possible through second-hand P2P platforms (Niinimäki, 2018; Robert, Binninger & Ourahmoune, 2014).

Compared to thrift store shoppers, online customers have a higher grade of ecological consciousness regarding their consumption practices (Zaman, Park, Kim & Park, 2019) and believe P2P platforms intermediate results in particular societal well-being (Bajaj et al., 2020; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). Because of the digital nature of second-hand P2P networks and the influx of items that continually changes, consumers' impulse to consume can be accelerated (Parguel, Lundaro & Benoit-Moreau, 2017; Rook, 1987). As shown by Peugeot et al. (2015), second-hand P2P platforms are used based on the motivation of frugality with the intention that when more items are purchased, the products can be sold again. Thus, self-licensing presents consumers with an opportunity to justify their contradictory practices because SHC is performed. After all, it is sustainable, has good price

value, and is unique (Parguel, Lundaro & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). Moreover, according to previous research, pro-environmental services increase consumers' acceptance of platforms (Chen et al., 2018; Velicia-Martin, Cabrera-Sanchez, Gil-Cordero & Palos-Sanches, 2021; Siyal, Hongzhuan & Gang, 2021).

3 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

The following section will present the foundation of the theory to answer the outlined research question: "What drivers predict individuals repurchasing behaviours on peer-to-peer platforms for second-hand fashion?" through the conceptual framework. Furthermore, the hypotheses will be presented and argued based on the conceptual framework.

3.1 Theoretical Background

Previous research on SHC (both online and offline) has focused on the practice connected to consumption values (Tan et al., 2022; Gullstrand Edbring, Lehner & Mont, 2016; Xue et al., 2018), motivations, and barriers (Munir, 2020; Gullstrand Edbring, Lehner & Mont, 2016; Guiot & Roux, 2010), engagement (Khitous, Urbinati & Verleye, 2022) and social impacts (Pretner et al., 2021; Turunen, Cervellon & Carey, 2020; Zhang & Dong, 2021). On the one hand, regarding theory, literature has primarily examined the phenomena through *The Theory of Reasoned Action*, examining attitudes towards environmental sustainable purchasing behaviour followed by learning (Zhao, Lee & Copeland, 2019) and *Narrative Competence Theory*. The theories focus on the product history in enhancing trust, attitude, and usage intention (Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021).

On the other hand, the online perspective of second-hand has primarily focused on the interface and usefulness of *Product-Service Systems* (Zhang & Dong, 2021; Pieroni, McAloone & Pigosso, 2019), the temptation to purchase through *Social Exchange Theory* (Khitous, Urbinati & Verleye, 2022) and *Self-Licensing Theory* (Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). However, the analysis is based on an adaption of the *Extended Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology* (UTAUT2) presented by Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012) since this paper emphasises different determinants influencing repetitive use behaviour, in particular through online technologies. According to Cambridge Dictionary (2022), peer-to-peer "involves using specialised websites". Specifically connected to consumption, it refers to the "exchange of products and services through online marketplaces" (Knowledge Hub, 2022). Thus, SHC through P2P platforms falls within the category of technology usage.

UTAUT2 is an extended theory of the *Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology* (UTAUT) first presented in 2003 by Venkatesh et al. UTAUT intends to provide a unified

framework based on the most used models of user acceptance and adoption of information technology. The UTAUT model combines a few models and theories, such as the *Theory of Reasoned Action*, *Technology Acceptance Model*, *Motivational Model*, and the *Theory of Planned Behaviour* (Venkatesh et al., 2003), to refer to a few. The theory is built upon the precision of behavioural intention and use of technology, primarily in an organisational context, and considers four constructs; performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions as determinants of technology acceptance and use behaviour (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Studies have been conducted on the validity of UTAUT through meta-analysis and structural equation modelling, where results showed that the model with its determinants had the most substantial impact on consumption patterns (Dwivedi et al., 2017). UTAUT has been further extended into new contexts, such as online shopping (Kim, Connerton & Park, 2021; Purohit, Arora & Paul, 2021; Erjavec & Manfreda, 2021) and health care platforms (Sreejesh, Sarkar & Sarkar 2021; Schmitz, Díaz-Martín & Yagüe Guillén, 2022; Zhu, Liu, Cao & Dong, 2022). However, with evolving contexts, new constructs are necessary, which have led to UTAUT2.

UTAUT2 strongly emphasises the consumer context and includes the determinants of hedonic motivation, price value, experience/habits, and moderating variables of age, gender, and experience (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012). The authors (2012) emphasise two crucial reasons why extension focusing on the consumer context is essential. First, theories focusing on specific contexts following relevant predictors are thought to be essential for gaining a thorough grasp of a specific phenomenon and usefully extending ideas. Second, due to the vast number of technical products, apps, and services aimed at consumers, consumer technologies is a multibillion-dollar industry and should serve its segment (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012). Furthermore, the authors argue for the relevance of hedonic motivation, e.g., enjoyment in consumer usage of technology. Besides, in a consumer context, the individual is responsible for the costs and such aspects dominate consumer decisions, leading to the construct of price value. Finally, habit is a dominant determinant, having a solid relationship between intention and usage (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012). The consumer-based model of UTAUT2 is illustrated in *Figure 1*.
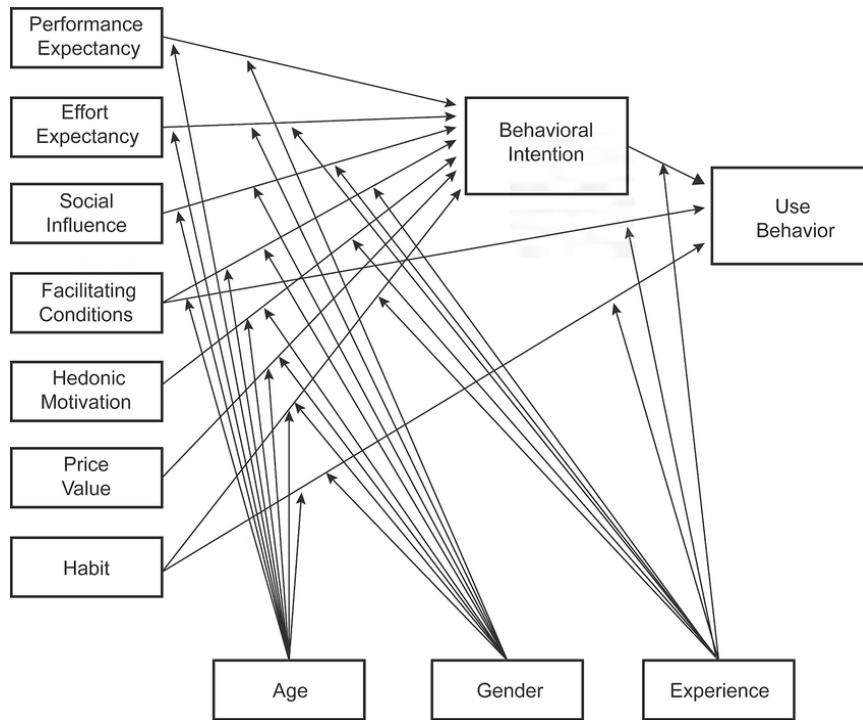
Figure 1: Extended Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012)

Even though UTAUT2 has been extensively used throughout the years, the model is not always used in its exact form. Researchers constantly modify the model to fit their field of study, excluding some determinants and including others. UTAUT2 have been seen in contexts of information systems (Schmitz, Díaz-Martín & Yagüe Guillén, 2022; Tamilmani, Rana & Dwivedi, 2020), the financial sector (Gerlach & Lutz, 2021; Owusu Kwateng, Osei Atiemo & Appiah, 2018) and even the music industry (Barata & Simôes Coelho, 2021). Referring back to the necessity for theories focusing on specific contexts, including relevant predictors (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012) and the model's flexibility, UTAUT2 has been modified in our study as well. Our conceptual framework will be explained in the following *section 3.2.*

3.2 Conceptual Framework

UTAUT2 includes social influence, hedonic motivation, price value and habit as constructs for the study's conceptual framework. Additionally, the new constructs, *environmental sustainability*, *perceived functionality* and *uniqueness,* are incorporated to predict repetitive use behaviour of second-hand consumption on P2P platforms. The new variables reflect common themes in the literature on consumer usage of technology, especially connected to

SHC through P2P platforms and have become a foundation structure for many researchers in the field (Machado et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2022; Guiot & Roux, 2010, Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). Accordingly, *performance expectancy, effort expectancy* and *facilitating conditions* are excluded due to their arguable irrelevance connected to our specific research topic. Consumer intention to adopt a particular technology is seen as the foundation of the UTAUT2. However, the focus of the study is to examine purchasing behaviours; thus, the DV *intention* from the UTAUT2 will look at *repetitive use behaviour* (repurchasing) instead. The different variables of interest will be further elaborated on in *section 4.5 Operationalisation of Variables and Measurement.*

Based on the review of literature embedded in the UTAUT2, this study suggests that each construct (predictor) forecasts consumers' repetitive use behaviour of SHC on P2P platforms. A visualisation of the conceptual framework can be seen in *figure 2*, introducing the number and order of hypotheses.
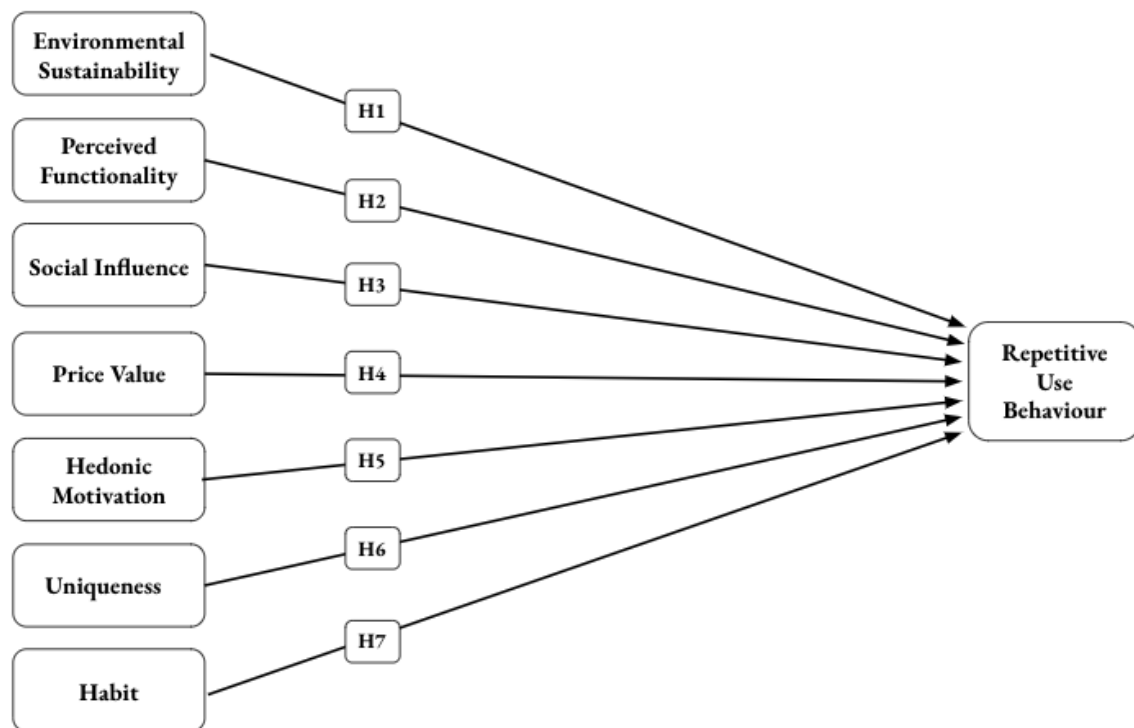
Figure 2: Conceptual Framework, own illustration based on UTAUT2 (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu., 2012)

3.3 Hypotheses Formulation

The following section will present seven formulated hypotheses based on the conceptual framework. The hypotheses are supported through argumentation and reasonings to justify the constructs' influence.

3.3.1 Environmental Sustainability

Due to sustainability concerns, the fashion industry is shifting towards more circular and regenerative alternatives to traditional business models (Lichtenthaler, 2021). Collaborative platforms are frequently viewed as environmentally friendly, reducing individuals' carbon footprint (Schor, 2014). Many scholars agree that the SE is a significant step toward more environmentally friendly lifestyles (Belk, 2010; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Prothero et al., 2011; Schor, 2014). From a consumer point of view, SHC is directly connected to a more sustainable alternative in seeking to be more environmentally conscious (Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Guiot & Roux, 2010) as it promotes the reusing and recycling of existing goods (Bianchi & Birtwistle, 2010; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012; Peugeot et al., 2015). As a result, it guarantees long-term viability and shared value development.

Previous research shows that online shoppers have a higher level of consciousness than store shoppers (Bajaj et al., 2020). Accordingly, Parguel, Lunardo, and Benoit-Moreau (2017) state that the online aspect of P2P platforms serves as a solution to increase societal well-being while also providing consumers with helpful disposal solutions (Bajaj et al., 2020; Parguel, Lunardo, & Benoit-Moreau, 2017; Baek & Oh, 2021; Manninen et al., 2018). In addition, P2P platforms have boosted the availability of reselling, renting and swapping clothes, which has gradually increased due to the rapid growth of e-Commerce (Chen et al., 2018), enabling consumers to act more sustainable in their fashion consumption.

Consumers are seen as more materialistic in today's society (Fitzmaurice, 2008). Fitzmaurice (2008) states that materialistic consumers tend to feel more anxious about their consumption practices than non-materialistic consumers. However, according to Parguel, Lunardo, and Benoit-Moreau (2017), materialistic consumers can overcome their anxiety about consuming by purchasing second-hand goods through P2P platforms. Furthermore, the activity is seen as the moral thing to do in terms of environmental benefits and savings, solving the cognitive dissonance and goal conflict (Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). The authors (2017)

further highlight that P2P platforms for SHC can create a desire for environmentally friendly acquisition, increasing the frequency of purchases (Bardhi & Arnould, 2005).

Building upon this, Graf and Gimpel (2017) expanded the UTAUT2 by including environmental sustainability as ecological conservation. The authors' (2017) findings show that environmental sustainability views positively impact technological usage. With the aforementioned excess of literature contending environmental sustainability as a driver for SHC on P2P platforms, we present hypothesis *H1:*

H1: *Environmental sustainability has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*

3.3.2 Perceived Functionality

Understanding the perceived functionality is an essential factor impacting consumer technology usage (Zhang & Dong, 2021; Pieroni, McAloone & Pigosso, 2019). Functionality is understood best following the perspective of Davis (1989). The author (1989) states that technology needs to enhance the job experience and support the perceived idea that it is instrumental in creating value through actual usage. Accordingly, Moore and Benbaset (1991) elaborate on the usefulness of which the perceived relative advantages of the technology need to be greater than existing consumption methods.

P2P platforms support consumers through the existing technology to become an integrated part of an interactive ecosystem, enabling value to be created by, for example, the exchange of products and services that is not available in offline settings (Hagiu, 2009; Parker, van Alstyne & Jiang, 2016; Rohn et al., 2021). The understanding of perceived functionality can also be connected to the perceived ease of use based on the initial belief in how challenging the innovation is to understand and use (Davis, 1989; Moore & Benbasat, 1991). The easier the platform is to use, the more consistent consumers can continue to use the platform in the future (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Accordingly, consumers are more likely to continue purchasing second-hand online if the P2P platform is easy to use (Li & Xu, 2020).

P2P platforms also provide consumers with reliable sources to resell or purchase garments (Tan et al., 2022). Furthermore, the act of the technology can indicate voluntary and mandatory settings (Venkatesh et al., 2003), which enables consumers to feel a level of trust in the platform's performance. Nepomuceno, Laroche, and Richard (2014) refer to this as a comprehensive narrative of products. The narrative of products can be best understood as

following the garment's lifecycle to know where the garments come from, who bought them, and how they were used (van Kerrebroeck, Brengman & Willems, 2017). In this way, it eliminates mistakes when buying second-hand pieces online and contributes to a more efficient and productive shopping experience (van Kerrebroeck, Brengman & Willems, 2017).

Traditionally, an argument for not buying second-hand has been the low accessibility to stores (Seo & Kim, 2019) and the high effort needed to find pieces the consumer wants, including price, quality, and size (Pretner et al., 2021). On the other hand, P2P platforms allow consumers to buy and get instant advice and direct access to the market (Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017). Furthermore, e-Commerce has stimulated the availability of online second-hand platforms (Kim & Woo, 2021; ThredUp, 2021; Chen et al., 2018), developing the user experience and interface based on collected consumer data. In addition, the design functionality and implementation of a simple service for consumers can further reduce effort and increase convenience (Joyner Armstrong et al., 2016), improving the availability. Hence, the availability of P2P platforms minimises the effort for consumers to buy second-hand.

According to Mudjahidin, Hidayat & Aristo (2022), when platforms provide functional benefits when using, consumers associate the platform as a beneficial medium to execute the task of finding clothes with minimal effort as it is all condensed into one virtual environment. Therefore, with P2P platforms for SHC providing opportunities for exchanging products and services not obtainable in offline settings, reliable sources for purchase and reselling, and endless accessibility, we propose hypothesis *H2:*

H2: *Perceived functionality has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*

3.3.3 Social Influence

Consumers can be motivated to participate in particular activities by social norms about environmentally friendly consumption (Borg, Mont & Schoonover, 2020; Hur, 2020). Becker-Leifhold and Iran (2018) states that moral obligations and the influence of social pressures often drive someone to engage in consumption practices within the SE to improve their social image in their surroundings. Rogers (2010) defines the concept of social influence as "influenced by the norms of his system by his interpersonal networks" (p. 29). SHC specifically includes the additional factors of "social support from friends, family and the

community" (Hur, 2020, p. 9). Given the increased awareness of the fashion industry's impact on the environment, consumers are more open to switch their traditional consumption practices to more sustainable ones (Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Guiot & Roux, 2010). Essentially social reasoning is one of the highest motivators for SHC (Hur, 2020).

Today, marketing targeting consumers through influencers impacts purchasing behaviours due to its authenticity (Peirson-Smith & Evans, 2017). Social media has contributed to stimulating the sustainable fashion industry following the trajectory of consumer perceptions and behaviours (Jacobson & Harrison, 2022). Due to influencers' strong ties with their followers, source credibility and parasocial interaction, this sector has become one of the most potent, influencing consumers in, among others, conscious behaviours (Schouten, Janssen & Verspaget, 2020; Shan, Chen & Lin, 2020; de Veirman, Cauberghe & Hudders, 2017)

Thus*,* social influence adverts to explicit and implicit notions that behaviour is influenced by how other people in their surroundings view them when using the technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003). According to Venkatesh et al. (2003), social influence could refer to three different ideas: subjective norms, social factors and image. At the same time, social impact can relate to every pressure from the outside world that influences one's perspective or behaviour (Tarhini, El-Masri, Ali & Serrano, 2016). Moreover, consumers who repeatedly consume from sustainable business models are influenced by social peers and moral obligations (Becker-Leifhold, 2018; Baek & Oh, 2021). Simultaneously, SHC is, as mentioned before, highly a social practice in terms of showing social consciousness (Tan et al., 2022; Kim & Woo, 2021; Khitous, Urbinati & Verleye, 2022). Consequently, the following hypothesis was developed, hypothesis *H3:*

H3: *Social influence has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*

3.3.4 Price Value Trade-Off

While social influence is an essential aspect of repetitive SHC (Borg, Mont & Schoonover, 2020; Hur, 2020; Jacobson & Harrison, 2022; Tarhini, El-Masri, Ali & Serrano, 2016; Becker-Leifhold, 2018), potential savings are also beneficial in generating a perception of

positive return. That being the case, the financial aspect of SHC has been addressed in literature since its inception (Guiot & Roux, 2010; Roux & Guiot, 2008).

SHC has initially been seen as an alternative for low-income consumers as their economic choice to save money (Kim & Woo, 2021; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Williams & Paddock, 2003). However, Roux and Guiot (2008) describe some consumers as frugal, referring to the possible link between a lifestyle trait and economic motives. These consumers are cautious and disciplined in their use of money (Roux & Guiot, 2008; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012; Joung & Park-Poaps, 2013). Consumers with the lifestyle trait of frugality might be more willing to put in more effort to search for a fair price since they avoid unnecessary purchases and might "sacrifice short term gratification with a view to obtain a more worthy one in the long run" (Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012, p. 962).

The role of prices often leads to priority management and price evaluation to fulfil self-rewarding effects in budgetary allocation between spending (Guiot & Roux, 2010). Furthermore, the second-hand market allows access to high-fashion goods that, if not, would be unaffordable (Joyner Armstrong et al., 2016; Isla, 2013; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015). In the context of SHC, price comparison (Reichheld, Markey & Hopton, 2000) is only possible in online shopping circumstances (Sihvonen & Turunen, 2016), which makes the search easier online than offline. Connected to frugality might also be searching for bargains (Roux & Guiot, 2008; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012).

A common economic motivation for SHC is *bargain hunting* (Guiot & Roux, 2010; Roux & Guiot, 2008; Waight, 2014; Padmavathy, Swapana & Paul, 2019; Petrescu & Bhatli, 2013; Bardhi & Arnould, 2005). Wagner and Rudolph (2010) refer to this aspect as *bargaining power,* considering the desire to purchase products at recognisably attractive prices. Bargain power also includes the challenge of finding these products (Wagner & Rudolph, 2010; Waight, 2014). Hunting for bargains tends to have recreational effects on consumers (Carrigan et al., 2013). However, it also provides a solely objective function of saving money (Wagner & Rudolph, 2010). Nevertheless, the pleasant feeling of finding a good bargain can create a potential temptation to buy more (Johar & Mukhopadhyay, 2009) and trigger impulsive buying (Zhou & Wong, 2004; Guiot & Roux, 2010).

The construct of *price value* refers to the rational trade-off values of individuals, connected to the expected benefit and financial cost of using the technology (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012). The construct was originally not a part of the original UTAUT model; however, in the

extended version of UTAUT2, price value is included because of its emphasis on the consumer's point of view and the argument for its influence on behavioural usage. With the study focusing on SHC, previous research shows that price value is a significant influencer in why consumers choose second-hand (Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012; Isla, 2013; Williams and Windebank, 2002; Guiot & Roux, 2010; Roux & Guiot, 2008; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015). Furthermore, the risk of wrong purchases following unnecessary, wasteful disposal of unwanted items decreases with low prices (Becker-Leifold & Iran, 2018), whereas product satisfaction increases simultaneously. Hence, we then argue the following hypothesis, *H4.*

H4: Price value has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.

3.3.5 Hedonic Motivation

Even though monetary aspects are essential, within present literature, consumers also justify their consumption practices based on hedonic motivations (De Witt Huberts, Evers & de Ridder, 2012; Khan and Dhar, 2006, Campbell, 2018). Hedonic motivations refer to the direct pleasure of consuming, stimulating internal satisfaction and feelings of fun (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012), influencing decision-making behaviours based on emotional rather than rational needs (Assael, 2001). SHC is an alternative practice to conventional shopping, providing consumers with the pleasure of good behaviour (Szmigin & Carrigan, 2006; Bly, Gwodz, & Reisch, 2015). SHC is associated with consumers' values, particularly the hedonic and self-expressive values connected to the value chain of consumers (Bly, Gwodz, & Reisch, 2015) and the internal satisfaction (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

According to Park et al. (2012), nowadays, e-consumption is directly connected to hedonic motivations, leading to a higher buying frequency. The authors (2012) state that web browsing directly stimulates feelings of enjoyment which in many cases leads to impulsive purchasing behaviours. Furthermore, the literature review shows that consumers' urge to seek emotional "highs" through continued shopping is associated with impulsive buying (Niinimäki, 2018; Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017).

In summary, hedonic motivation links consumers to the pleasure they derive from interacting with technology, particularly in the context of consumers (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012). With that being the case, consumers are more likely to buy from a technology with a pleasant

experience and entertainment (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Diep & Sweeney, 2008). Therefore, since e-consumption stimulates a higher frequency of purchasing, we propose the following hypothesis, *H5:*

H5: *Hedonic motivation has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*

3.3.6 Uniqueness

A present aspect motivating SHC in literature is consumers' seeking unique pieces (Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021;Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012). Consumers who want to be unique are defined by Tian, Bearden, and Hunter (2001) as "the trait of pursuing differentness relative to others through the acquisition, utilisation, and disposition of consumer goods for the purpose of developing and enhancing one's self-image and social image" (p. 52). The portfolio of second-hand fashion on P2P platforms offers a wide variety of pieces, and by finding unique garments, consumers can stimulate their wish to stand out from the crowd. Therefore, second-hand items allow consumers to feel a sense of originality and nostalgia, finding one-of-a-kind pieces (Hur, 2020). Furthermore, the ability to obtain rare items inaccessible in mainstream markets; uniqueness and the wide selection of goods (Guiot & Roux; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015) lead to the ability to express personality through the combination of clothes (Isla, 2013; Xu et al., 2014; Becker-Leifold & Iran, 2018).

The phenomenon is conceptualised through three aspects, starting with the creative construction of the self (Tian, Bearden & Hunter, 2001). The creation of personal style through purchasing unique items seems to be the prevalent aspect (Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012), where consumers want to possess goods "representing me" (Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015). The construction of individuality can easily be achieved through second-hand items since the supply is limited, unique, and authentic (Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Parsons, 1999) and not generally available in traditional shopping channels (Becker-Leifold & Iran, 2018). Buyers online tend to spend much time browsing to seek variety (Lim & Dubinsky, 2004).

Second is the aspect of unpopular choice to counter conformity (Tian, Bearden & Hunter, 2001), where the individual differentiates themselves from consumer norms through purchases and use of items (Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012). A sense of consumer

sovereignty can be fed by the potential of breaking free from norms and the market (Guiot & Roux, 2010). Finally, the third aspect refers to the avoidance of similarity (Tian, Bearden & Hunter, 2001), which pleases the need for variety (Becker-Leifold & Iran, 2018) and enables the re-establishment of identity (Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012). One way to diversify from the masses is to engage in environment-friendly practices (Arnould & Bardhi, 2015; Becker-Leifold & Iran, 2018; Zaman et al., 2019). According to Tan et al. (2022), green consumption values are highly associated with egoistic values, where the consumer feels an improved self-image compared to others. With the aforementioned, we predict that consumers want to be unique in following hypothesis *H6:*

H6: *Uniqueness motivation has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*

3.3.7 Habit

The *habit* of everyday technology usage is an essential theoretical construct for understanding repetitive use behaviour (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). The construct of habit is an automating behaviour based on learning and experience (Limayem, Hirt & Cheung, 2007) and a practice based on prior behaviours (Kim & Malhotra, 2005). However, as Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012) explain, experience alone can not develop a habit, time, and consistent practices to become familiar with, for example, technology is necessary.

Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012) look specifically at the role habit plays in technology usage and the "underlying processes by which habit influences technology usage" (p. 161). How consumers use, for example, P2P platforms for consistent and repeated purchases is, as Kim and Malhorta (2005) noted, the experience of using the technology before can assist in understanding how potential future technologies work, thus leading to a more accessible understanding of why habits develop. Following Limayem, Hirt, and Cheung (2007) study, a habit performed consistently directly affects how technology is used and goes beyond the intention of using the technology.

A *habituation proposition* is a convention proposed by Kim, Malhotra & Narasimhan (2005) for the automaticity of habits. The consumer is guided towards a repeated purchasing behaviour once the performance initiates an instinctive behaviour based on emotions and previous experiences (Fazio, 1990). According to Novak, Hoffman, and Duhachek (2003), with non-directed and web-browsing behaviours, experiential is built on inner motives where

impulse purchases are practised. Fast fashion can be attributed to impulse purchases perpetuating the frequency of purchases on online platforms (Morgan & Birtwistle, 2009). However, adjusted expectations and antecedents can moderate the effects of repeated purchasing habits (Lin & Lekhawipat, 2016).

In summary, habit refers to the range of behaviours consumers perform automatically (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). Soni, Jain, and Kumar (2019) state that individuals often do what they have done in the past to minimise risks. Therefore, it can be a tool to predict individuals' future behaviours, hence the following hypothesis *H7*.

H7: Habit has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.

3.4 Summary of Hypotheses

Table 1: Summary of Hypotheses

Hypotheses	
H1	*Environmental sustainability has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*
H2	*Perceived functionality has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*
H3	*Social influence has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*
H4	*Price value has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*
H5	*Hedonic motivation has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*
H6	*Uniqueness motivation has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*
H7	*Habit has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*

4 Methodology

The methodological approach of the thesis is discussed in the following. First, we will discuss ontology and epistemology as aspects of our study philosophy. Then, the sampling technique, data gathering method, variable operationalisation, and measurements of the seven independent variables (IV) and one dependent variable (DV) are all covered in the second section. Finally, we assess the study's reliability, validity, and replicability.

4.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy is a set of assumptions connected to philosophical beliefs regarding the world (Burns & Burns, 2008). According to Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Jackson (2015), knowledge of the research philosophy can assist in research design, including what sort of evidence is necessary and how it should be collected and explained. It further provides an aid for the researcher in determining which design will be successful and which will not, as well as supports identifying and even creating novel designs. Indeed, the authors (2015) state that researchers have a responsibility to recognise and understand the fundamental concerns of the approach to have a clear perception of the uncontrolled role of the method. That being said, the research philosophy is used to guide the approach. As a result, the following parts discuss the ontological and epistemological philosophical underpinnings that underlie our research.

4.1.1 Ontology

Ontology is the study of the nature of reality and raises concerns about research's assumptions on how the world works and its commitment to particular points of view (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The nature of the sciences examined, generally divided into natural and social sciences, determines ontological viewpoints. Although there are some similarities between the two, there are also some differences, which result in various ontological perspectives applied in each area (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). Considering this study aims to research consumers' repetitive use behaviour on P2P platforms, it fits more into social science, which focuses on human behaviour instead of inanimate objects (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). When it comes to social sciences, the debates are often between the positions of internal realism, relativism and nominalism. Internal realism maintains that while reality exists, it is hazy and that factual truth, while available, is frequently difficult to obtain. Relativisms assert that several truths are accepted, which depend on the observer. On the other hand, there is no truth from a

position of nominalism, and the fascinating questions are how people try to build different versions of the truth (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015).

Considering the study aims to have multiple theoretical and practical contributions, an internal approach to concrete truths is needed. Additionally, repetitive use behaviour on P2P platforms exists; however, the difficulties rely on the complexity of the existence, strengthening the internal realism position of this study. Furthermore, social studies can be tricky for an internal realist since it includes human judgement (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). The concern lies in the measurements since the truth exists but cannot be understood without the participation of social actors in the knowledge creation process (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Based on internal realism, the study, as a result, intends to assess the constructs used and the truth of their interactions.

4.1.2 Epistemology

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality, whereas epistemology is concerned with what constitutes acceptable knowledge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Epistemological ideas shape how we learn about the physical and social environments and how data is gathered and analysed (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). According to the authors (2015), positivism and social constructionism are two schools of thought in epistemology. In the school of positivism, the researcher works with observable social reality. The final result of such research can be law-like generalisations akin to those produced by physical and natural scientists. Another significant aspect of the positivist approach to research is that it is conducted in a value-free manner as much as feasible. On the other hand, social constructionism arises from the belief that 'reality' is socially produced and given meaning by people in their daily interactions, rather than being objective and external (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

Ontology and epistemology are connected, whereas social constructionism generally adheres to a nominalist ontology, while positivism is associated with realism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). The study contains internal realism as it commits to the epistemological positivist approach arguing that knowledge can only be meaningful if it is gained from observing reality. In other words, because observations and opinions are prone to subjectivity and prejudice, they objectively measure social reality (Burns & Burns, 2008).

Ensuring the study follows a positivist approach, some philosophical assumptions are fulfilled. First, independence from what is studied is necessary. Second, the research has a value-freedom base to ensure that beliefs and interests are not influencing the research (Burns & Burns, 2008). The literature review allows the combination of assessed constructs. In addition, the research focuses on hypothesis testing and a deductive approach (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). Third, concepts must be outlined in simple terms in a positivist approach, and findings must be statistically generalised. As a result, a quantitative research design is used, described in the sections below.

4.2 Research Approach

The following section explains how the study was conducted. First, a logical approach is used based on the philosophical foundations. Furthermore, the research is cross-sectional because the sample is taken at a particular point for a single group of respondents. Finally, this study uses multiple linear regression analysis to analyse the correlations between drivers and repetitive usage behaviour.

4.2.1 Deductive Research Approach

Deductive rather than inductive reasoning is more common among positivist researchers, whereas inductive reasoning is more common among interpretive researchers (Burns & Burns, 2008). Instead, as our theoretical framework and hypotheses imply, we take a deductive approach to investigating the determinants of repetitive use behaviour. The assumptions are formulated based on past research, and the applicability of existing theories is examined in the context *(see 3.2 Conceptual Framework)*. The deductive process is based on existing theory following hypothesis, observations, and confirmation (Burns & Burns, 2008). Furthermore, the authors (2008) claim that a quantitative approach gives more efficient and precise evaluations of correlations among the constructs under investigation while perhaps ignoring certain contextual information.

4.2.2 Cross-Sectional Research Design

A cross-sectional research design is applied, which is common in studies of a positivist nature (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). According to the authors (2015), a cross-sectional design, also referred to as a sample survey research design, allows researchers to scrutinise respondents at a certain time and compare differences. Burns and Burns (2008)

state that this is especially useful when the study's goal is descriptive and predictive. A cross-sectional analysis appears acceptable following the study's predictiveness in identifying the fundamental drivers of repetitive use behaviour. Due to time constraints, a single cross-sectional design where data is collected from a single sample only once (Burns & Burns, 2008). We scrutinised consumers at a specific point in time and compared the findings within the research sample.

4.2.3 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

The collected data is analysed following a multiple regression analysis to test the conceptual framework. *Multiple linear regression* is "a technique for estimating the value on the criterion variable from values on two or more other variables" (Burns & Burns, 2008, p. 388). The form of analysis looks at one or more IVs to help understand if and how the DVs are related (Malhotra, 2010). The first step is to examine the data's correlation and directionality; the second is to estimate the model; and the third is to assess the model's validity (Burns & Burns, 2008). The strength of the linear relationship is then measured using an ordinal scale (Burns & Burns, 2008). The collected data can have a positive or a negative correlation or a zero/random correlation, with the midpoint being 0.00 (Malhotra, 2010).

There are various assumptions to consider when using multiple linear regression analysis. First, multicollinearity between the IVs with very high correlations should be avoided (Burns & Burns, 2008). Collinearity between IVs can be measured using the Variance of Inflation Factor (VIF). When the VIF exceeds 10.0, there is cause for alarm (Burns & Burns, 2008). The justification for performing this analysis is based on sampling. A confirmatory cross-sectional survey is being conducted to corroborate hypotheses based on the relationship between variables on an ordinal scale. As a result, a multiple linear regression analysis would be the most appropriate.

4.3 Sampling Process

The sampling process is divided into three steps: defining the target population, deciding on the sampling design, and establishing the sample size. The following sections will go over each of these processes in detail.

4.3.1 Target Population

Burns and Burns (2008) define a *sample* as "a representative portion of the population which is selected for a study" (p. 195). For this study, the target population is individuals of any age over 18 years old who regularly use a P2P platform to purchase second-hand fashion items. The data was collected through an online survey, allowing us to have no geographical bound of our target population. Furthermore, P2P platforms are tools for digital consumption, making an online questionnaire the most reasonable.

4.3.2 Sampling Design

The study will use convenience sampling as a non-probability sampling method since assertions made about the entire population based on the open-online survey are difficult to be confident about (Burns & Burns, 2008). Convenience sampling allows for quick access to sample units, the reasoning for it being a popular sampling method. Furthermore, the method considers the goal of data collection (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson & Jaspersen, 2018). Due to limited time and resources, convenience sampling was the most appropriate approach for this study. However, convenience sampling can also be considered flawed because the sampling error cannot be calculated. After all, the true mean and sample mean can not be calculated (Burns & Burns, 2008). With this in mind, the collected data can not be used to statistically generalise the population within the findings (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). Non-probability sampling has the disadvantage of not being able to generalise findings and, as a result, has a low sample representation (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Thus, convenience sampling will infer the hypotheses based on the samples collected. With this strategy, the purpose of the study is emphasised because it is aligned with the sampling design (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). The study aims to examine consumer use behaviours on P2P platforms. Thus, convenience sampling is the most appropriate strategy for the study because of the accessibility, time efficiency, and low costs (Malhotra, 2010). The representativeness and precision are essential because large quantities of data were collected (Burns & Burns, 2008; Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). Identifying the sampling frame can assist in assessing the eligibility of the sample units. Potential bias can be avoided by excluding groups of people, the distribution method, and the language used (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). The precision within the sampling process is important, particularly for how large the sample size will be. Small sample sizes will "always be less precise than large samples" (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018, p. 106).

4.3.3 Sample Size

According to Bryman and Bell (2011), there is no perfect formula for determining the size of sample size. The authors (2011) describe that absolute size outclass relative size, implying that the population size is of little account. In fact, the sample size is determined by the complexity of the model being used (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). A good rule of thumb is to multiply the number of measured variables by ten to get the minimum sample size (Garson, 2016). However, it is essential to remember that the minimal number is adjusted to other considerations (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). In this study, eight variables are measured, where the eighth variable is the DV of repetitive use behaviour. As a result, the minimum sample size is 80 participants. However, when using multiple linear regression analysis, a larger sample size provides more trustworthy findings (Burns & Burns, 2008).

4.4 Data Collection

In the following section, the data collection process is presented by explaining the data collection instrument, pre-testing, questionnaire design, and the dissemination of the questionnaire, followed by the final number of respondents. Then, the empirical data was collected using the online survey tool LamaPoll.

4.4.1 Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaires are a "formalised set of questions [used] for obtaining information from respondents" (Malhotra, 2010, p. 303) based on their various opinions and behaviours (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). The method is the most commonly used in deductive research because it is most applicable for business and market research (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Questionnaires are used as an instrument within a data collection process that consists of typically conducting 1) fieldwork; 2) offering a reward or payment to respondents; 3) providing communication aids (Malhotra, 2010). Thus, the questionnaire's objective is to first translate the needed information into well-constructed questions that can encapsulate the focus of the study (Malhotra, 2010). It can be challenging to attain the desired information through the question formulation. Additionally, a questionnaire must motivate the respondent to participate and complete the questionnaire (Malhotra, 2010). Finally, as an instrument for data collection, questionnaires should "minimise response error" (Malhotra, 2010, p. 303) where respondents give inaccurate answers.

For the study, the questionnaire will provide fieldwork procedures and instructions through the communication aid of the questionnaire instrument, LamaPoll. The questionnaire will not entail a reward because it can result in response errors. Using software programs, such as LamaPoll, has assisted in reducing the cost and time of constructing and designing surveys and has made them more accessible to a broader audience who would want to conduct a quantitative research study. LamaPoll was the preferred software program to assist in collecting data because it offered a variety of features that made the designing of the survey accessible and the transmission of data to SPSS possible. The software also visually displays results in a concrete understandable way. In addition, LamaPoll features design elements that create an aesthetically pleasing experience that would adjust to different devices. Burns and Burns (2008) highlight that the visual appearance of a questionnaire can impact the response rate.

Additionally, another factor for the choice of software was ensuring the anonymity of the respondents, which according to Easterby-Smith et al. (2018), is essential for respondents to partake in a questionnaire. Advantages of an online survey are that it is a continuous process of data collection, economical, increased generalisability of findings, cross-cultural research, and time-saving on entering data (Burns & Burns, 2008). However, some of the disadvantages of this method are that participants can submit multiple submissions, leading to biassed samples, there is little control on the setting or sampling, require much time in formulating a survey, ethical considerations, and the data storage of participants' information (Burns & Burns, 2008).

4.4.2 Pretesting of Questionnaire

To eliminate any errors, pretesting is the "testing of the questionnaire on a small sample of respondents" (Malhotra, 2010, p. 322). The questionnaire can be improved through pretesting, further enhancing the final data collection process. In the pretest, all questionnaire components should be tested, including the content, the features of the questionnaire instrument, the sequence of questions, the difficulty, the wording, and the instructions (Malhotra, 2010). The pretest questionnaire should be formulated the same way as the final questionnaire and drawn from the same sample population. According to Malhotra (2010), pretests are best done through interviews. However, due to time constraints, the pretest was conducted by dispersion of the questionnaire to individuals within our network. We informed

them that we would like to get as much feedback as possible and if there were any particular errors.

There are two procedures for analysing the feedback from the pretest respondents. The first is the protocol analysis, where respondents "think aloud while answering the questionnaire" (Malhortra, 2010, p. 322). The second procedure is debriefing after the questionnaire has been completed (Malhotra, 2010). Following the first procedure, we asked three out of the seven to write down their thinking process when answering the questionnaire, allowing us to follow the process of answering the questionnaire. The respondents were asked to write this on paper, numbering their steps. We were also able to get feedback on some of the errors through this first procedure while completing the questionnaire. Following the second procedure, we had four out of the seven respondents do the questionnaire without knowing it was a pretest, allowing us to get an honest first impression of the questionnaire once we debriefed. The insights from the second procedure helped cut down some of the questions because the questionnaire appeared to belong, which was initially not our intention. As Malhotra (2010) suggested, a pretest should be conducted after each correction. However, we decided to only conduct one pretest due to limited time. Therefore, we corrected the questionnaire with all the insightful feedback from the pretest and ensured that the corrections were coded and analysed in an Excel file. The analysis can provide a check for adequacy of the problem definition to obtain the necessary information for the research (Malhotra, 2010).

4.4.3 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire design (*Appendix A.1*) for collecting the empirical data is structured according to a confirmatory cross-sectional design. The design consists of existing scales used in previous studies and adjusted accordingly to the focus of the research and to confirm theoretical predictions (Burns & Burns, 2008). The questions will consist of single selected, sliding scales and open-ended questions, enhancing the opportunity to gather more rich data from the participant (Burns & Burns, 2008). To ensure that the questions could measure the right things, they were reviewed during the pretest phase, and some were eliminated. A couple of questions have also been formulated to attain more information on one specific construct unambiguously (Malhotra, 2010). The language used in the questionnaire is simple language to make the questionnaire less complex in terms of the concepts and jargon used for

the specific research (Birks & Malhotra, 2005). The questions were also formulated to prevent bias by conveying simple messages in the statements.

The questionnaire was structured consistently to include information on the questionnaire's aim, confidentiality, the questions, and closing remarks. The design first presents an introduction with the necessary background information for respondents to understand the scope of the study and the purpose of the questionnaire. We are aware that some questions might not apply to all respondents. Therefore the scaling answers allow respondents to judge their ability. The introduction also includes information on their contribution and how the data will be used. The collected data will remain anonymous and be discarded on the 7th of June 2022. Additionally, instructions on how the questionnaire will proceed are mentioned in the introduction, indicating that the questionnaire will take no longer than 5 minutes to complete.

The second part of the questionnaire aims at collecting the necessary data through the questions. The formulated questions make the completion of the survey easy and quick. The second part of the design is the different theoretical constructs. The first set of questions consists of structured multiple-choice questions focused on the demographics of the sample population. Questions include gender identity, age, educational level, and country of residence. The second set of questions is a combination of structured and unstructured questions looking at the dependent variable, which is the usage and activities of consumers on P2P platforms. The following eight sections consist of structured scale questions focused on the seven independent variable constructs (e.g. *environmental sustainability, functionality, social influence, price and value, hedonism, uniqueness, habitual, and repetitive use behaviour*). The questionnaire also consists of control questions to avoid bots from influencing the results. There are a total of 36 questions in the questionnaire. The last part concludes the questionnaire by thanking the respondent and providing space to give feedback.

The questions consisted of a scaling format following the Likert scaling approach. There are no right or wrong answers following this format and combined into a total score (Burns & Burns, 2008). The wording is specific for each desired question so that the respondents understand what is being asked (Malhotra, 2010). The word choice is ordinary and unambiguous and avoids leading the question in a direction and implicit assumptions (Malhotra, 2010). Furthermore, to ensure that participants respond more actively, the

questionnaire includes reverse worded questions to make the participant think twice about what is being asked (Burns & Burns, 2008). The final section concludes the questionnaire with necessary contact details and a space to write a comment or feedback. The structure thus guides the consumer through the various constructs in a logical order, with each new page providing a title for the set of questions.

4.4.4 Questionnaire Distribution

The web-based self-completed questionnaire was distributed on various platforms and to different networks such as social media platforms and discussion forums to reach the target sample size. Furthermore, the participation of the questionnaire was voluntary. The participants were selected based on their willingness and availability to self-complete the questionnaire (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018), corresponding to convenience sampling (Burns & Burns, 2008).

The questionnaire was first distributed amongst our networks of friends and acquaintances on various social media platforms such as LinkedIn and Facebook, as seen in *Appendix A.2*. We proceeded as follows; we constructed a message that could be used for multiple platforms. We began with a catchphrase or question to grab the attention of potential participants. Then, we provided a couple of sentences with background information on the questionnaire's aim. We ensured that the message was as neutral yet descriptive as possible to be able to capture a variety of participants who consumed second-hand fashion on P2P platforms.

We also distributed the questionnaire on different forums such as Reddit. On Reddit, we found various communities related to fashion, either sustainable fashion, thrifting, or specific platform pages. We thought that by sharing our questionnaire on pages with individuals sharing their practices of sustainable fashion consumption, the greater the chance that the respondents would feel motivated to participate. Therefore, we posted a total of 16 posts on different pages.

Additionally, we joined different Facebook groups focused on sustainable fashion consumption or shared and collected respondents for the questionnaire. We actively interacted with other individuals on the Facebook groups to exchange questionnaires while simultaneously obtaining more respondents.

4.4.5 Number of Respondents

The data collection ran for eleven days (from April 25th to May 7th, 2022), while continuously checking the number of respondents. As a result, by April 30th, we had reached our target sample size of 80 respondents. However, since we had time, we could let it run for another week to ensure more trustworthy findings and prepare for invalid responses.

Overall, we registered 185 participants when we closed the online survey. However, 44 participants dropped out before finishing the questionnaire and were excluded. Therefore, the total number of completed questionnaires was 142, leading to a response rate of 77%. Furthermore, we had two control questions ("What is 1+1?" and "What is 2+2?") indicating if the responses were fraudulent. Unfortunately, one of the respondents did not answer any control questions correctly and was therefore excluded from the study.

After the assortments, our final data set contained 141 respondents. Out of these respondents, no one was under the age of 18, and most people resided in Sweden, The Netherlands, Denmark, Germany, UK, USA, or Italy. The results are presented in *Table 2*.

Table 2: Sampling Results (own table)

Target Population	Sample Results
Age	18-25 years (69.5%), 26-36 years (28.4%), >37 years (2.1%)
Regions	Europe (94.3.7%), Asia (2.1%), North America (1.4%), Australia (0.7%), South America (0.7%), Middle East (0.7%)

4.5 Operationalisation of Variables and Measurements

According to Burns and Burns (2008), it is essential to be able to observe quantifiable entities from abstract constructs. Therefore, the conceptual frameworks' variables need to be described to allow them to be measured, both quantitatively and empirically. Scales are an effective way to make this possible, a sequence of questions or objects used to indicate a constructor's notion's existence (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). However, because of concerns about reliability and validity, it is advised that variables be operationalised using scales that have already been constructed (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015).

We will employ the *non-comparative scaling technique* to achieve the goals of this confirmatory study, which measures and scales each item independently rather than comparing them (Malhotra, 2010). Accordingly, we will utilise a Likert scale, as it is appropriate for assessing attitudes and opinions (Burns & Burns, 2008; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). Furthermore, a Likert scale is also simple to create and administer for the researcher and straightforward to understand for participants. (Malhotra, 2010). On the statements we will introduce to the participants, the Likert scale will be a 7-point range, with "1" indicating "strongly disagree" and "7" indicating "strongly agree". We intend to use ordinal measurements because they are the most common approach to test variables, according to Burns and Burns (2008). An ordinal scale also allows us to rank our observations in order. The operationalisation of each of our eight variables is described below.

In our conceptual framework, the DV refers to repetitive use behaviours of SHC on P2P platforms identified as *repetitive use behaviour*. Our study measured how often the participants purchased second-hand on P2P platforms to receive the frequency, which showed their repurchasing behaviours. The item was collected from Park et al, (2012).

Environmental sustainability, the first IV, refers to consumers' willingness to buy second-hand consumption due to the increased ecological conservation (Graf & Gimpel, 2017). Hamari, Sjöklint, and Ukkonens' (2016) four items were conducted when operating this variable. Due to the similarity of the research topic, only the SHC on P2P platforms needed to be modified. '*Second-hand consumption through P2P platforms is a sustainable mode of consumption'* was one item allowing us to measure the given variable.

Perceived Functionality is our second IV, referring to the platform's functionality leading to a more straightforward process of buying second-hand on P2P platforms. To measure this variable, four items were presented. The different questions used were, among others, '*peer-to-peer platforms are useful for second-hand fashion*' and '*using a peer-to-peer platform for second-hand fashion is helping me purchase fashion more quickly*'. These items were conducted by Pascual-Miguel, Agudo-Peregrina, and Chaparro-Peláez (2015), with slight changes to fit our research objectives.

The third IV of *Social Influence* is "the degree to which a person perceives that significant others believe they should use a particular technology" (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012, p. 159). The variable was measured through three items, as adjusted versions taken from Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012). An example of one of these items is '*I consume second-hand fashion because my friends do it too*'.

Price Value, consumers' monetary trade-off between potential advantages of services and the costs of using them (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012), acted as the fourth IV. The variable was operationalised through three items adapted from Singh and Matsui (2017) and Guiot and Roux (2010), which concretely asked, '*I buy second-hand fashion on P2P platforms because it has a better price value*'.

Hedonic Motivation has been a valuable variable in consumption practices since consumers are more likely to buy from a place that gives them a pleasant feeling and entertainment (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Diep & Sweeney, 2008). Therefore, hedonic motivation serves as our fifth variable. One example of items follows: '*buying second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms is fun*'. The three items chosen for this variable were adjusted based on Venkatesh, Thong and Xu (2012), who emphasised the importance of fun.

Uniqueness, the sixth IV, refers to consumers' want to feel unique as a determinant for purchasing, which is of importance when it comes to SHC (Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021;Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012). The variable was operationalised through three items inspired by the literature examining the driver of uniqueness on SHC. In contrast, one example item is '*I use peer-to-peer platforms for second-hand fashion to find unique pieces*'.

Habit, our seventh and last IV, refers to consumers' general daily use of technology. According to Venkatesh, Thong & Xu (2012), consumers' habits are connected directly to

their intention and use behaviour on platforms. However, since our DV is *repetitive use behaviour*, we have chosen to refer to the variable of habit as the general use of technology to not merge with our DV. In other words, we wanted to make sure the variables did not measure the same thing. That being the case, items used were adjusted for general use of technology as exemplified: '*I check fashion platforms for new fashion trends*'.

In *Appendix A.1* the eight variables are presented with corresponding items from the questionnaire.

4.5.1 Summary of Variables

Table 3: Summary of Variables of Interest (own table).

Variable Category	Variable
Dependent Variable (DV)	Repetitive Use Behaviour
Independent Variables (IV's)	Environmental Sustainability Perceived Functionality Social Influence Price Value Hedonic Motivation Uniqueness Habit

4.6 Research Quality Criteria

Depending on where you are on the epistemological spectrum, dependability and validity have different meanings (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). Because we adopt a positivist viewpoint, we explore these two quality criteria in this section. Furthermore, the study's replicability is assessed.

4.6.1 Reliability

According to Burns and Burns (2008), reliability is "the consistency and stability of findings that enables findings to be replicated" (p. 411). Thus, the same measures should provide the same results on other occasions for research to be reliable. In addition, other observers should come to similar conclusions and make the meaning of the raw data transparent (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

First of all, our research was mainly based on peer-reviewed articles that, in theory, raise the level of trustworthiness (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). Second, to further strengthen the internal consistency of items, we calculated Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha measures the "reliability that is equivalent to the average of all the split-half correlations from all possible splits into halves of the items in the measuring instrument" (Burns & Burns, 2008, p. 417). It is of use for creating attitude measures and questionnaires. The scale ranges between 0 and 1, where the number of $\alpha > 0.7$ implies that the level of reliability is acceptable (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2015). Our items were above 0.8, $\alpha > 0.8$, indicating a highly acceptable level for assuming item homogeneity (Burns & Burns, 2008).

Table 4: Reliability Statistics (own table)

Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items	.884
N of Items	30

4.6.2 Validity

Validity refers to what "extent does the testing instrument measure the construct/concept/variable it purports to measure" (Burns & Burns, 2008). The authors (2008) differentiate between two types of validity: internal and external, with the former being a requirement for the latter. As a result, we will concentrate on internal validity in the following discussion. Internal validity is established by how well the conditions in the experiment are controlled so that any differences or correlations can be assigned to the IV rather than extraneous factors (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). When analysing the internal validity of a questionnaire, content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity are terms used by researchers (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Several actions were taken to enhance all three categories.

Concerning the content validity, the questionnaire was pre-tested (*see 4.4.2)* to make sure the content was easy to understand and interpreted correctly. Following the feedback we received, the content of the questionnaire was adjusted. Pre-testing the questionnaire is a suitable way to increase the internal validity (Burns & Burns, 2008). Criterion-related validity (often known as predictive validity) is connected to the ability of the measures to make accurate predictions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). For our study, this aspect refers to

how the items in our study measure repetitive use behaviour. To address criterion-related validity, we have been consistent in using variables standard within the field of SHC and consumer behaviours. The final category of internal validity is the constructed validity, referring to if the items measure what is intended to be measured (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). As examined in the operationalisation of measurements chapter *(4.5)*, we base our research on peer-reviewed journal articles and adapt commonly used items and measurements. Furthermore, a reliability check of Cronbach's alpha was conducted, supporting the construct validity (Burns & Burns, 2008).

4.6.3 Replicability

Replicability refers to "the degree to which the results of a study can be reproduced" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 718). Replicability is of value in business research, especially within quantitative research. In addressing the replicability, we have described every step of this research transparently in the methodology chapter to the best of our ability. Furthermore, the measurements of the concepts are taken from previous research, guaranteeing replicability and further information. By doing this, the replicability increases (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

5 Analysis and Results

The following chapter will provide an overview of the conducted analysis and present the results for the corresponding formulated hypotheses presented in section 3.3. The chapter consists of a brief explanation of data preparation and presents the descriptive statistics and the assumptions checked for the selected analysis method. To conclude this section, a summary of the results will be analysed as well as a robustness check of variables.

5.1 Data Preparation

Using the data collection software, LamaPoll, the data was exported directly into an Excel file to upload into the statistical software SPSS. However, before we uploaded the data into SPSS, the Excel file was first cleaned up and organised to check for extreme errors, such as non-responses and outliers. It is vital to ensure that the collected data is valid and reliable.

The first step of cleaning was taking out incomplete and invalid responses and sorting them out further. Further, some respondents did not fill in minutes but hours for question 6, which was converted into minutes. Additionally, a coding system was established to give the 7-point Likert Scale values numerical data to ensure that the data is recorded correctly. Each variable was coded if the collected data was ordinal, nominal, or scale. The variables gender, level of education, and country are nominal levels of measurement. The time spent on a P2P platform was coded as a scale, and the remaining 30 questions were re-recorded as ordinal levels of measurement. For the ordinal scale was coded as follows: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat Disagree; 4 = Neutral; 5 = Somewhat Agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree. According to Burns and Burns (2008), variables are commonly ordinal because it allows the researcher to indicate the position of the specific object. We perceived this as the most appropriate way to observe the collected data according to the rank of answers for the data analysis.

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

The following sections will present the central tendency and dispersion of the seven different drivers, including a table outlining the socio-demographics of the sample population and the distribution across the eight constructs.

5.2.1 Central Tendency and Dispersion

The collected data is aggregated to present a convenient way of observing the "different value of a variable" (Malhotra, 2010, p. 454). *Table 5* presents the measure of location and a measure of variability displayed through the mean and the standard deviation. The measure of location are measures of central tendency that "describe the centre of … distribution" (Malhotra, 2010, p. 454). The aggregated data is presented through eight variables where the arithmetic means were computed, showing the variable score a mean value between three and six, with six mean values above the 'neutral point' of four, indicating positive connotations amongst the respondents in scaling their opinions. Two out of the eight mean values were below the neutral point indicating a less positive attitude towards the response. The mean score for environmental sustainability (ES) (5.3777) became the highest, indicating that the majority answered fairly positively on the 7-point Likert Scale. The lowest variable score is the repetitive use behaviour (RUB) (3.4486), indicating that respondents responded more negatively on average. The standard deviation across the eight variables ranges from 1.13831 to 1.58045, presenting the difference between the mean and the observed value (Malhotra, 2010).

Table 5: Central Tendency and Dispersion (own table)

	ES	PF	SI	PV	HM	U	H	RUB
Mean	5.3777	4.8564	3.5461	4.9929	4.7210	4.9504	4.7234	3.4486
Standard Deviation	1.27882	1.13831	1.46671	1.19488	1.58045	1.23952	1.49812	1.34414

ES=Environmental Sustainability, PF=Perceived Functionality, SI=Social Influence, PV=Price Value, HM=Hedonic Motivation, U=Uniqueness, H=Habit, RUB= Repetitive Use Behaviour

5.2.2 Socio-Demographics

To interpret the collected data more concisely, examining the demographics of the respondents' can provide a deeper understanding. With a few general background questions asking about the respondents' age, gender, level of education, and region, an overview of those who participated and filled out the questionnaire is created, serving as descriptive variables. In *Appendix B.1*, an overview of the socio-demographic data is presented. A total of 495 visitors opened the questionnaire, whereas only 185 respondents participated in the questionnaire with a response time of 00:04:34 minutes to complete. Once the collected data

was cleaned, 141 respondents remained with valid and reliable data. Respondents who did not complete questions after the background questions were removed from the data set, indicating that they were unaware of the questionnaire's purpose and selected target population.

Of the 141 respondents, 19,9% are male and 80,1% are female. The percentage difference can indicate that more women use a platform to purchase second-hand than men because women are generally more fashion and sustainability-conscious (Gazzola, Pavione, Pezetti & Grechi, 2020). Of the age difference among the respondents, 69,5% were 18 to 25 years old, 28,4% were between 26 and 36 years old, and 2,1% were older than 37 years. Younger generations are more advanced and familiar with using online technologies such as P2P platforms (Buck et al., 2020). Regarding the respondents' regions, 94.3% indicated to be from Europe, 1.4% from North America, 2.1% from Asia, 0.7% from Australia, 0.7% from South America, and 0.7% from the Middle East. The majority of respondents are located in Europe because the dispersion of the questionnaire was shared amongst our network, who mostly reside in European countries. Another descriptive statistic is the level of education. 52.5% completed a Master's or Magister degree, 37.6% a Bachelor's degree, 6.4% attained a secondary school diploma, and 3.5% indicated to have completed another level of education.

The socio-demographics present valuable insights into the respondents because the research scope did not target a specific population. The analysis will be discussed from a holistic perspective, disregarding the demographics.

5.3 Hypothesis Testing

The following subsection will test the assumption of multiple linear regression to ensure that the selected analysis applies to the study, followed by presenting the results of the multiple linear regression.

5.3.1 Assumption Check - Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

According to Burns and Burns (2008), six assumptions need to be met before executing a multiple linear regression analysis. A regression essentially assists in determining the relationships between the predictors and the DV; values of the outcome variable can be predicted by the IV (Malhotra, 2010).

The first assumption is determining whether the relationship between the IVs and the DV is linear. The second assumption refers to the linearity of the relationship between the variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). Using the ANOVA test, as seen in *Appendix B.2*, the F statistics with a value of 29.043 with an associated probability (p) of 0.00 < 0.05 indicates that we can reject the null hypothesis (H_0). As a result, there is no significant linear relationship between the IVs and the DV, concluding the assumption of linearity. Proceeding with the third assumption check, the normality of the error distribution of the DV (Burns & Burns, 2008). At first glance of the histogram (*Appendix B.2*), it is evident that the distribution of normality is met since it has a bell-shaped curve. Furthermore, looking at the normal p-plot *(Appendix B.2)* of the standardised error residuals of repetitive use behaviour shows no significant deviation from the diagonal line, further indicating the assumption of normality of the error distribution.

The fourth assumption check for multiple linear regression is checking the homoscedasticity. The concept refers to the variability of scores for one variable that needs to be similar to all the other variable values (Burns & Burns, 2008). Using the scatterplot (*Appendix B.2*) to assess the distribution level, we can see a random distribution that confirms homoscedasticity. The final required testing of assumption is the avoidance of high correlations between the IVs, also known as multicollinearity (Burns & Burns, 2008). Inspecting the correlation matrix for high correlations of 0.90 and above can indicate that "two variables are measuring the same variance and will over-inflate R" (Burns & Burns, 2008). As seen in *Appendix B.2* (table of collinearity), the correlations between the IVs have values that are less than 0.9, thus presenting an acceptable level of correlation.

As seen in *Table 6,* the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) are all less than 10, and Tolerance is greater than 0.1, which indicates normal levels of correlations according to Burns and Burns (2008).

Table 6: Collinearity Statistics (own table)

	Tolerance	VIF
Environmental Sustainability	.762	1.312
Perceived Functionality	.540	1.853
Social Influence	.760	1.315
Price Value	.592	1.689
Hedonic Motivation	.357	2.800
Uniqueness	.505	1.979
Habit	.795	1.259

5.3.2 Results - Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

After ensuring that the data met all of the analysis requirements, SPSS Statistics was used to run a multiple linear regression to look into the seven constructs. The Model Summary (*Appendix B.2)* shows an R-value of 0.778, displaying the IV correlation in its entirety. However, with multiple IVs, the coefficient of determination R^2 is important (Burns & Burns, 2008). The adjusted R^2 value of 0.584 in the run model indicates that variation in the seven IVs together may explain 58,4 per cent of the variation in repetitive usage behaviour. In contrast, only 41.6 per cent is unaccounted for. Furthermore, the ANOVA table also shows that the multiple linear regression model is resilient, with an F statistic of 29.043 and a probability $p < 0.001$ associated with it. In other words, the adjusted squared multiple correlations were substantially different from zero (F=29.043, $p > 0.001$), and the set of IVs explained 58.4 per cent of the variation in the DV.

The strength of the correlations between the indicators (IVs) and the DV evaluates the accuracy of the regression forecast (Burns & Burns, 2008). *Table 7* of coefficients indicates that multiple correlations were significant in the model ($p < 0.000$). However, the model indicated that multiple correlations do not mean that every IV is significant, whereas a few IVs could exhibit robust correlations (Burns & Burns, 2008). The significant regression coefficients are displayed in, precisely, *perceived functionality* at $p < 0.00$; *social influence* at

p=0.001 and *hedonic motivation* at p < 0.00. Furthermore, *environmental sustainability* at p=0.962, *price value* at p=0.160, *uniqueness* at p=0.555 and *habit* at p=0.647 were not significant. In other words, three out of seven IVs were drivers of repetitive use behaviour.

H1 sustained that environmental sustainability has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on P2P platforms. With this predictor showing β=0.003, t=0.048 and p=0.962, indicating an associated probability > significance level of 0.05, hypothesis *H1* was not supported. With that said, environmental sustainability has no significant positive effect on repetitive use behaviour. Furthermore, *H2* maintained that perceived functionality positively correlates with repetitive use behaviour. The results supported this hypothesis, implying that perceived functionality is a determinant of frequent use behaviour. Perceived functionality (β=0.361, t=4.113, p < 0.00) has a standardised beta coefficient of 0.305, a probability < 0.05, and is thus a predictor of repetitive use behaviour.

The third hypothesis, *H3*, indicated that social influence has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour on P2P platforms for SHC. With β=0.204, t=3.546, p=0.001 and a positive standardised beta coefficient of 0.223, hypothesis *H3* was supported, and social influence is a suitable predictor of repetitive use behaviour with associated probability < 0.05. Finally, hypothesis four, *H4,* stated that price value positively correlates with repetitive use behaviour. However, this hypothesis was not supported by the results with a β=-0.113, t=-1.412, p=0.160 and a negative standardised beta of -0.100. With that being said, price value and repetitive use behaviour do not have a significant relationship as specified, with an associated probability value of 0.160 > 0.05. In other words, price value is not a predictor for repetitive use behaviour and has a negative relationship with repetitive use behaviour.

H5 was supported, demonstrating a positive link between hedonic motivation and repetitive use behaviour. Hedonic motivation (β=0.373, t=4.803 and p < 0.000) was a predictor of repurchasing in the multiple regression analysis. It had a standardised beta coefficient of 0.028, suggesting a positive connection. Hypothesis *H6* proposes the positive relationship between uniqueness and repetitive use behaviour. Uniqueness (β=0.049, t=0.591, p=0.555) with a standardised beta of 0.045 was not supported due to the associated probability level > 0.05 suggesting no beneficial association between uniqueness and frequent purchase.

Finally, *H7* sustaining that habit has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of purchasing second-hand on P2P platforms was not supported. The variable containing individuals' everyday technology usage did not significantly correlate with repetitive use

behaviour (β=0.025, t=0.458, p=0.647, standardised beta coefficient = 0.028) since the associated probability > 0.05.

In summary, our analysis using multiple linear regression resulted in perceived functionality *(H2)*, social influence *(H3)* and hedonic motivation *(H5)* as drivers for repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand fashion through P2P platforms. These hypotheses were therefore supported. Contrastingly, environmental sustainability *(H1)*, price value *(H4)*, uniqueness *(H6)* and habit *(H7)* are not drivers for repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand fashion through P2P platforms, and their hypotheses were thus not supported.

Table 7: Results - Multiple Linear Regression Analysis (own table)

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	β	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	-.604	.451		-1.339	.183
Environmental Sustainability	.003	.066	.003	.048	.962
Perceived Functionality	.361	.088	.305	4.113	.000
Social Influence	.204	.057	.223	3.564	.001
Price Value	-.113	.080	-.100	-1.412	.160
Hedonic Motivation	.373	.078	.438	4.803	.000
Uniqueness	.049	.083	.045	.591	.555
Habit	.025	.055	.028	.458	.647

5.4 Summary of Results

Figure 3 illustrates the statistical results based on the multiple linear regression analysis visually. The bold arrows demonstrate the supported hypotheses *H2, H3* and *H5*.
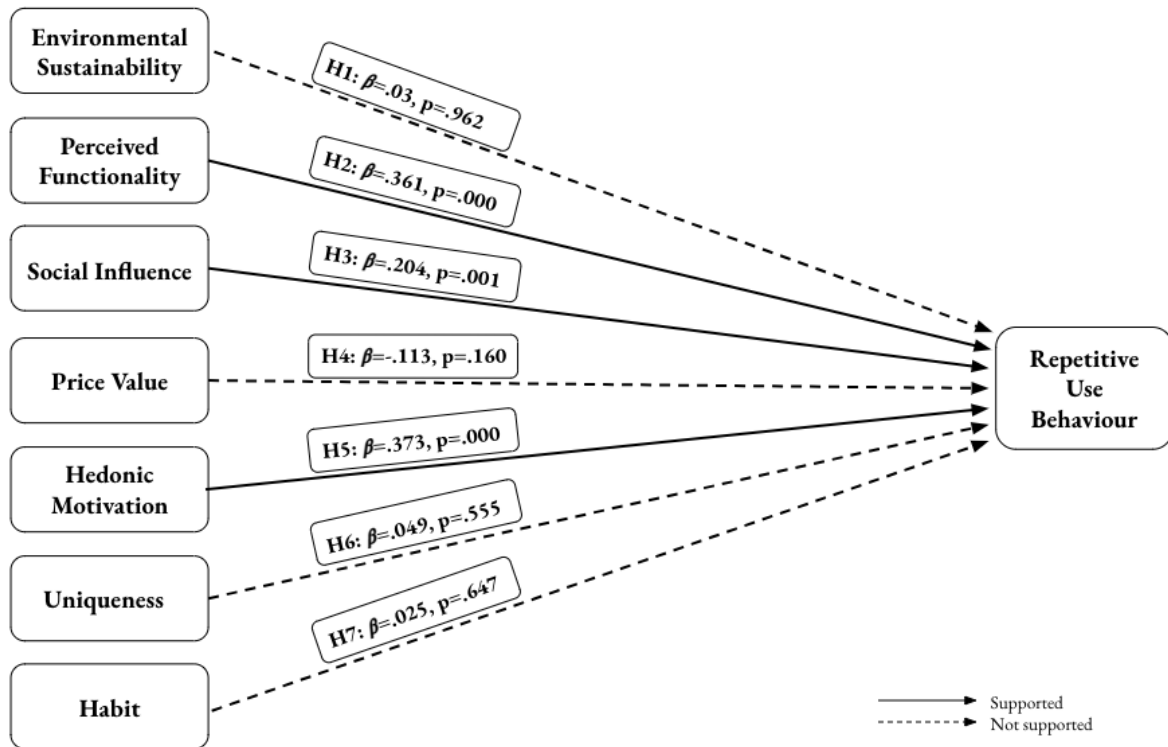
Figure 3: Conceptual Framework and Results (own figure)

Table 8 lists hypotheses and respectively results descriptively.

Table 8: Summary of Results (own table)

Hypotheses		Result	β	*p*
H1	*Environmental sustainability has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*	Not supported	.003	.962
H2	*Perceived functionality has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*	Supported	.361	.000
H3	*Social influence has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*	Supported	.204	.001
H4	*Price value has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*	Not supported	-.113	.160

H5	*Hedonic motivation has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*	Supported	.373	.000
H6	*Uniqueness motivation has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*	Not supported	.049	.555
H7	*Habit has a positive relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on peer-to-peer platforms.*	Not supported	.025	.647

5.5 Robustness Check - Squared Variables

Even though no specific hypothesis suggested non-linear correlations between variables, we believed that additional investigation could yield intriguing results. For example, according to Burns and Burns (2008), when data possess negative and positive relationships, the correlated data can report negligible or zero results. Therefore, environmental sustainability, price value, uniqueness, and habit were squared and ran in a curvilinear regression analysis with all original variables and the DV in SPSS.

5.5.1 Results - Curvilinear Regression Analysis

The variables were squared to test the quadratic relationship to see whether the data fit better in a curve. For example, when there is a bend, we might be able to predict outcome variables better using predictor variables in a curvilinear regression. As a result, the variables that were not significant in the multiple linear regression were squared to see if they would be significant in a model that did not explicitly assess linearity.

The curvilinear regression analysis (*Appendix B.3)* shows non-significant results for ES (β= 0.109, t= 0.315, p=0.753), ES^2 (β=-0.008, t=-0.237, p=0.813), PV (β=-0.695, t=-1.675, p=0.96), PV^2 (β=0.058, t=1.329, p=0.186), H (β=0.350, t=1.299, p=0.196) and H^2 (β=-0.039, t=-1.224, p=0.223), when runned together with all original and new variables. These variables continuing being non-significant shows robustness in the first model runned, since it did not differ. However, interestingly, the additional model resulted in a statistically significant U (β=-0.927, t=-2.048, p=0.043) and U^2 (β=0.099, t=2.174, p=0.032). In other words, by squaring the correlation, the relationship between U, U^2 and repetitive use behaviour became significant which is shown in *Table 9*.

Table 9: Results of U and U² - Curvilinear Regression Analysis (own table)

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	β	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Uniqueness	-.927	.453	-.854	-2.048	.043
Uniqueness²	.099	.045	.880	2.174	.032

6 Discussion

The following section discusses the findings of the analysis by connecting each construct to the literature review and hypotheses.

6.1 Environmental Sustainability

Although environmental sustainability is a consumer driver for SHC (Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Guiot & Roux, 2010) as it encourages the reuse and recycling of existing items (Bianchi & Birtwistle, 2010; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012; Peugeot et al., 2015), the hypothesis is not supported. In contrast to the hypothesised, environmental sustainability was not a predictor of repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand on P2P platforms. Hence, our research contradicts the findings of Graf and Gimpel (2017), suggesting that attitudes toward environmental sustainability have a favourable impact on technological usage.

On the one hand, previous research has shown that P2P platforms for SHC can increase the frequency of purchases by instilling a desire for environmentally sustainable purchases (Parguel, Lunardo & Benoit-Moreau, 2017; Bardhi & Arnould, 2005; Schor, 2014) and stimulating a SE. Fitzmaurice (2008) connects this to today's materialistic consumers. These consumers seek to overcome the anxiety of their consumption practices by purchasing a higher number of second-hand fashion items, indirectly still contributing to frequent consumption practices. On the other hand, based on our findings, a more reasonable hypothesis is that environmental sustainability is not correlated to repurchasing. Even though SHC is seen as a pro-environmental practice (Reints, 2019; Seo & Kim, 2019; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021; Khitous, Urbinati & Verleye, 2022), the question arises as to whether sustainability drives repetitive use behaviour. According to Lorek and Spangenberg (2014), individual fashion consumption must be restricted to ensure that human activities do not exceed extracted resources' limits. Following that aspect, Di Guilio and Fuchs (2014) alluded to the quantitative element of consumption, where individual garment consumption levels should be restricted to meet objective demands and the industry's quick response. Therefore, the DV of repetitive use behaviour could also be seen as counterproductive in connection to environmentally sustainable practices.

The findings could result from these opposing forces in the complexity of consumption. Modern consumption practices are characterised as the "endless pursuit of wants" (Campbell,

2018, p. 78). At the same time, the understanding and awareness of the extraction of resources being the consequence of these behaviours (Ilomen, 2011; Campbell, 2018) has increased. Even though the literature and the hypothesis suggest differently, frequency of purchasing and environmental sustainability are not necessarily connected. Essentially, the most sustainable way of consuming is not consuming at all. Therefore, the finding may reflect an evident opposing force contradicting consumers' behaviours.

6.2 Perceived Functionality

In contrast to environmental sustainability, perceived functionality resulted in one of the predictors of repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand fashion online. Therefore, following the hypothesis, technology must improve the job experience and promote the perception that it is vital in generating value through actual use (David, 1989). In correspondence with Hagiu (2009), Parker, van Alstyne and Jiang (2016), and Rohn et al. (2021), the result shows that P2P platforms enable consumers to become integrated members of an interactive ecosystem where the flow between humans and technologies is present (Novak, Hoffman & Duhachek, 2003). Through the flow, value can be created by facilitating the exchange of products and services not available in offline settings.

These findings support previous evidence that P2P platforms for second-hand fashion are seen as a reliable place to resell and purchase garments, where consumers seem to have a high level of trust in these platforms (Tan et al., 2022; Venkatesh et al., 2003). Hence, the accessibility to clothes and comprehensive narratives, combined with the availability of consumption at all times, seems to be of importance for consumers. Furthermore, in alignment with Campbell (2018), modern fashion practices embody a sense of speed and inventiveness. In this sense, the availability and accessibility of P2P platforms for second-hand fashion could be seen as a product of its time, allowing consumers to buy second-hand fast with the least amount of effort.

While the original theory included different aspects of functionality, such as performance expectancy, effort expectancy and facilitating conditions (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012), this study instead incorporated all aspects associated with functionality. Following Tang, Zhou, and Warkentin (2022), and Bharadwaj and Matsuno (2006), platforms could act as tools for, for example, enhancing performance, reducing transaction costs and time constraints. Therefore, the varied activities connected to P2P platforms allowed for an

overarching "functionality". The evidence of a positive relationship using the overarching construct of perceived functionality adds new insights into platforms and repetitive use behaviour and provides ground for future research.

6.3 Social Influence

The findings reveal a favourable association between social influence and repetitive use behaviour on P2P platforms for second-hand fashion, confirming the third hypothesis. The discourse amongst different academics, such as Borg, Mont and Schoonover (2020), Hur (2020), and Becker-Leifhold (2018), social norms and moral obligation by social pressures being motivation is thus accepted. Furthermore, the findings reinforce the understanding that consumers are motivated to participate in conscious consumption through purchasing second-hand fashion (Borg et al., 2020; Hur, 2020).

While the results support previous findings, it also provides a new direction for research investigating how marketing can socially influence consumers to purchase second-hand fashion on P2P platforms. Based on our findings, there is not enough evidence to conclude that social media has played a role in influencing consumers, despite the understanding that social influences from friends and families impact consumers' decision-making behaviours. The results thus support the explicit and implicit notions that behaviour is influenced by surroundings when using technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Thus, based on the findings, social peers and moral obligations can strongly motivate creating a positive relationship between consumers using P2P platforms to purchase second-hand fashion repeatedly.

Finally, the findings may indicate that subjective norms positively influence second-hand consumption. Indeed, the findings suggest that social influences can push people to consume more sustainably. In this way, while consensus is growing to minimise first-hand fashion consumption, the findings show that in the case of SHC on P2P platforms, the social impact influence is repurchasing.

6.4 Price Value

Contrary to the hypothesis, price value is not a predictor for repetitive use behaviour, thus not supported. The finding contradicts the assumption within academic literature that price value offers a rational trade-off for individuals using the technology (Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, 2012). Additionally, the literature suggests that price value motivates consumers to repeatedly

purchase second-hand because it provides an alternative option for consumers who are economically unable to afford first-hand fashion (Kim & Woo, 2021; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Williams & Paddock, 2003). However, the results reevaluate the significance of price value as a motivating factor for repetitive purchases of second-hand fashion on P2P platforms.

On the one hand, second-hand fashion offers lower prices for branded items than first-hand, creating the foundation for repetitive SHC. However, contrarily, the results could be a consequence of the fast fashion industry. According to Roux and Guiot (2008), individuals who consume second-hand often have the trait of frugality. Furthermore, Guiot and Roux (2010) and Wagner and Rudolph (2010) connect it to bargaining power, making people feel the pleasure of finding the best prices. While second-hand could be seen as value for money, the fast-fashion industry offers new pieces for low prices. Nonetheless, consumers might prefer the value of new items over pre-used used ones due to the fast-fashion industry shaping consumption patterns.

Finally, previous research has focused on the influence of price value on purchasing intention and the practice of second-hand consumption. However, these influences might not necessarily support repurchasing behaviours. Thus, this point could explain why the findings do not support our hypothesis. Consequently, price value is not a predictor of repeated purchases of second-hand fashion on P2P platforms.

6.5 Hedonic Motivation

The study indicates that hedonic motivations positively influence repetitive purchasing practices of second-hand fashion on P2P platforms, thus supporting the hypothesis. Furthermore, the results reinforce the notion that consumption practices and behaviours are rooted in hedonic motivations (De Witt Huberts, Evers & de Ridder, 2012; Khan and Dhar, 2006, Campbell, 2018). Within the literature, SHC provides an alternative practice (Szmigin & Carrigan, 2006; Bly, Gwodz, & Reisch, 2015) connecting to values of self-expressiveness (Bly, Gwodz, & Reisch, 2015) that come forward while purchasing second-hand fashion, generating internal satisfaction (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and the reinforcement of self-licensing (De Witt Huberts, Evers & de Ridder, 2012; Khan & Dhar, 2006).

Despite the obvious that consumption is associated with emotions, hedonism seems to not only lead to one purchase. According to Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012), the emotional

reasoning for consuming goes beyond the immediate pleasures of purchasing fashion. Our study points out that hedonic motivations are connected to repeated purchases, thus highlighting that hedonic motivations do go beyond one particular consumption moment. Furthermore, Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012) and Park et al. (2012) emphasise the hedonic part of consuming on digital platforms, often leading to a higher frequency of purchases. Namely, the digital part of buying second-hand on platforms can therefore explain the repetitive use behaviour. Thus, repetitive use behaviour of second-hand could reveal different results in an offline setting.

In summary, hedonic motivation has shown to be a significant predictor of repetitive use behaviours of consuming second-hand fashion on P2P platforms. Furthermore, the results reinforce the assumption that emotional factors drive consumption.

6.6 Uniqueness

Regarding hypothesis six, the construct of uniqueness was not supported as a predictor for repetitive use. The literature suggests that finding unique pieces for self-fulfilling purposes motivates purchasing second-hand fashion (Turunen & Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Yan, Bae & Xu, 2015; Kim, Woo & Ramkumar, 2021; Cervellon, Carey & Harms, 2012). Tian, Bearden and Hunter (2001) emphasise this point by defining consumers' desire to be unique as wanting to enhance their self-image through the acquisition of unique fashion items, which second-hand fashion provides an opportunity to gratify. However, the findings could be explained by understanding consumer behaviour. A social desire is achieved through fashion by emulating and adopting trends (Campbell, 2018; Simmel, 1957), which could explain that uniqueness is not a predictor.

Even though no hypotheses of a curvilinear relationship were previously stated, a robustness check was conducted. Interestingly, the additional analysis showed statistical significance for the IV uniqueness in a curvilinear regression. The results show a relationship between uniqueness and repetitive use behaviour, indicating a quadratic form rather than a straight line that could result from extreme values. Due to the robustness check, the generalisability of uniqueness as a predictor for repetitive use behaviour can be questioned. Simultaneously, the shown significance of the new construct in UTAUT2 opens new opportunities to research the novel variable uniqueness more extensively.

Finally, building upon this statistical significance of uniqueness opposes the idea that society

conforms to social norms to identify themselves. Uniqueness can be thus interpreted in various ways by how individuals identify themselves through fashion. Previously, fashion was custom-made to fit unique individual demands (Huynh, 2022). However, in present-day times, fashion is mass-produced to fit a broader range of individual demand. Inventing new fashion trends to maintain superiority, as Campbell (2018) highlights, try to achieve this through finding unique fashion items. The opposing forces can explain why the findings show significance in a curve and straight line.

6.7 Habit

The findings indicate that the hypothesis based on the habit of using technology is not supported. Within the literature, a habit has been seen as a construct that explains repetitive use behaviours, according to Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012). Automated practices based on previous experiences develop into repeated practices of purchasing items (Limayem, Hirt & Cheung, 2007; Kim & Malhotra, 2005; Kim, Malhotra & Narasimhan, 2005 ; Fazio, 1990).

Although technology is an integrated part of everyday lives and has become part of daily routines for many. At the same time, modern consumption practices happen within digital spaces. With these two different ideas, the habit of using technology, especially connected to consumption practices, could be a solid argument for creating habits connected to repetitive use behaviour. Contrarily, the phenomenon of P2P platforms is a new way of purchasing second-hand fashion. Hence, habits as a new concept connected to P2P platforms can be challenging to evaluate.Furthermore, habits in technology usage can be challenging to define. According to Kim and Malhotra (2005), a habit could be defined by how consumers operate. Nevertheless, it does not necessarily explain how frequent the technology usage needs to be to become a habit.

The habit of general web browsing has become a current consumer practice in today's society leading to a frequency of consumption (Novak, Hoffman & Duhachek, 2003; Park et al., 2012). However, according to our findings, the habit does not necessarily lead to actual purchase. When evaluating habits on platforms, it puts forward the definition of consumption. A platform can be continuously consumed without actual purchases or repurchases. Consumption essentially has the purpose of fulfilling a desire that in today's consumer society is difficult to realise (Bauman, 2001).

In summary, although individuals have habits of using technology, especially when purchasing, the hypothesis that technological habit has a relationship with repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand fashion on P2P platforms was not supported. Thus, the results could be a consequence of the vague definition of what a habit is, the novelty of P2P platforms, and the definition of consuming when it comes to technology.

7 Conclusion

The following chapter will conclude the research paper by restating the aim and purpose of the study, the main findings followed by the implications. Under implications, the study's theoretical contribution and practical implications will be discussed with additional suggestions for future research. Finally, the research paper will conclude with closing remarks.

7.1 Aim and Purpose

With digital innovations and environmental consciousness driving consumers to reevaluate their consumption practices, the research delves deeper into highlighting the motivating predictors towards repetitive use behaviour of buying second-hand fashion on P2P platforms. Grounded in the theoretical framework of the UTAUT2 and supported by academic research in the literature review, the objective was to find what drivers lead to repetitive use behaviour of buying SHC on P2P platforms. With the collected data, the study aimed to answer the following research questions:

***RQ1:** What drivers predict individuals repurchasing behaviours on peer-to-peer platforms for second-hand fashion?*

7.2 Main Findings

Although not all of our predicted hypotheses were supported, some were confirmed by the findings. Environmental sustainability was not a predictor of the repetitive use behaviour of SHC of P2P platforms. This could be explained by the opposing forces in the consumer society shaping consumer values. Furthermore, perceived functionality and social influence turned out as predictors, highlighting the importance of the platform's functionality and the social environment for consumers to repurchase. However, the price value trade-off as a predictor was not supported. The insignificance could demonstrate the result of the fast-fashion industry, offering affordable prices for new items compared to second-hand items. Moreover, hedonic motivation as a predictor for SHC was supported, emphasising the connection between emotions and consumption. As previously stated, hedonic motivation goes beyond one purchasing moment that could explain the repetitive part.

Our findings implied that uniqueness did not support the stated hypothesis. However, after a robustness check, the analysis showed significance, indicating that a relationship exists even if it is not linear. Furthermore, mainstream society could explain the non-existing linear correlation we live in, putting forward the internal resistance amongst some to stand out from the norm. Finally, the habit of using technology turned out to not be significant. The finding could be a consequence of the newness of SHC on P2P platforms. Furthermore, web browsing habits do not necessarily lead to actual purchases.

7.3 Implications

The following subsection will present the implications that the results have highlighted based on the studies theoretical contribution and the practical implications.

7.3.1 Theoretical Contribution

The study contributes to the theoretical field of consumer behaviour and platform usage by examining SHC on P2P platforms through the modified version of UTAUT2. In doing so, the study contributes four different theoretical contributions.

Firstly, this study highlights the opposing forces and complexity in today's consumer society. Compared to five decades ago, when consumers prefered tailor-made, high-quality clothes (Hur, 2020), today's society has evolved into a fast-paced throwaway culture (Shirvanimgohaddam et al., 2020; Castro-Lopez, Iglesias & Puente, 2021). The fast-fashion industry stimulates consumers' desire to consume and their endless pursuit of wants (Campbell, 2018). Meanwhile, initiatives to slow down this fast movement have been seen in the SE and SHC. The complexity then lies in the increased awareness of the fashion industry's impact.

Meanwhile, consumers still possess the subconscious behaviour of consuming. The anxiety consumers feel due to the opposing forces can be solved through the cognitive dissonance of consuming second-hand. Our research, therefore, extends the idea of individuals justifying consumption practices by being part of a "zero-waste" society. The satisfaction and the increasing frequency of consumption provide valuable insights into consumer behaviour.

An additional contribution of the study is the extension of research on digital platform usage. Currently, the focus has been on the adoption and intention of using platforms for consumption practices within academic literature. Technology usage has been seen as an

instrument for creating value (Davis, 1989) and has been perceived as a helpful tool in making consumption practices more interactive and easy to use (Moore and Benbaset, 1991). Platforms have created opportunities for consumers to create an interactive ecosystem of exchanging information, goods and services (Hagiu, 2009; Parker, van Alstyne, and Jiang, 2016; Rohn et al., 2021; Constantinou, Morton and Tuunainen, 2016). With experience and time, the ease of adopting technological innovations such as platforms drives consumption practices as consumers become accustomed to the usage of platforms (Limayem, Hirt & Cheung, 2007; Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). The modified UTAUT2 model has provided a technological angle on drivers' consumption through platforms. Through the technological perspective of repetitive use behaviour on P2P platforms, the study has depicted predictors in consumer behaviours based on theoretical concepts.

The final contribution of the study is the two additional constructs to the existing theoretical framework, environmental sustainability and uniqueness. The two constructs have added an element of novelty specific to the focus of the study. These are common within the research field of SHC; however, by including it in UTAUT2, a novel conceptual framework has contributed to valuable insights. Despite that environmental sustainability was not significant, the findings still provide beneficial insights that consumers are not necessarily guided by environmental motivations, contradicting previous research on SHC and technological usage. Furthermore, the uniqueness result also contributes to academic literature since the result differed between different analysis methods. In this sense, the theoretical contribution of uniqueness as a predictor highlights the need for further investigation. Hence, the two specific constructs of environmental sustainability and uniqueness emphasise that complex drivers motivate repurchasing behaviours.

7.3.2 Practical Implication

The findings of this study have a couple of practical implications for SHC on P2P platforms. First, understanding consumer behaviour opens up managers' ability to communicate easier with consumers. By understanding what drivers are significant for repeated purchasing behaviours, companies could more easily satisfy consumers who operate on these platforms. For instance, the importance of perceived functionality, social influence and hedonic motivations provide valuable insights into what to focus on when growing platforms for SHC. A second implication targeting society is the facilitating drivers that lead consumers into increased purchasing of second-hand fashion. In particular, in a world where

consumption practices have intensified, the urgency is raised to find ways to address the intense purchasing behaviours amongst consumers. By understanding these behaviours, discussions can be initiated amongst authorities, stakeholders, and society. The awareness could be increased and the discourse extended to alternative consumption practices and their consequences. When the evidence is available, only then action can be taken.

7.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Even though the study revealed exciting findings, we do acknowledge its limitations. By stating these, ideas for future research can be addressed.

To begin with, the chosen sampling method carries limitations. Not everyone in the population had an equal probability of being selected for the study due to convenience sampling. In reality, because of the sampling strategy, we were able to base our results on those who were available to help out, which may be considered sampling bias. That being the case, people with other perspectives who could- or did not want to participate were excluded. Hence, the non-probability sampling method of convenience sampling does not provide a comprehensive representation of the population, and, as a result, the findings cannot be generalised (Malhotra, 2010).

On the note of generalisation, our data skewed toward individuals aged between 18-25 years (69.5%), whereas most people reside in Europe (94.3%). In addition, the chosen instrument for data collection, a web-based questionnaire, could be the reason for the results since most of the sample was young. Hence, future research should be based on equal samples of age and countries, using a different method and instrument to conduct demographic-based analysis. Furthermore, due to the focus on the consumers who continuously purchase second-hand, we turned to digital groups where we knew people were interested in this topic. Hence, the snowball effect of the sampling method used resulted in females with higher education. As a result, we accept that the sample is skewed since it contains too many similar units, signifying a coverage issue (Burns & Burns, 2008). We suggest a less skewed coverage for future research.

Additionally, our study was limited by the quantitative approach used to obtain empirical data regarding the methodology. While this strategy allows us to increase the generalisability of our findings and detect trends behind participants' opinions (Bryman & Bell, 2011), it does not enable us to comprehend the fundamental reasons for our results. As a result, a qualitative

analysis of the relationship between drivers and repetitive use behaviour of SHC of fashion on P2P platforms would be beneficial for future research.

Another identified limitation of the study is the element of novelty. Even though the study has identified a gap within academic literature which is the factor of repetitive use behaviour of SHC on P2P platforms, the literature on this topic is limited. The angle of technology usage in alignment with the consumption of second-hand fashion is a fairly recent phenomenon that has only begun to be examined in the last couple of years. With consumption practices moving into virtual environments, the challenge of capturing these behaviours has yet to be concretely documented.

Technology usage on platforms has been extensively researched through the theoretical framework of UTAUT, providing grounds to examine how technological innovations have shaped how consumers adopt or intend to adopt technology usage. However, the angle in which the study approaches technology focuses on the repetitive use behaviour of technology in achieving the goal of consuming second-hand fashion. Thus, the constructs presented in the conceptual framework are built upon what is present within available literature. We acknowledge that various additional constructs can contribute to the understanding of repetitive use behaviour on platforms that have yet to be identified. Additionally, looking deeper into constructs applicable to repetitive use behaviour can also be examined through the negative impact of digital platform usage. Simply understanding previous experiences with technology for predicting future purchasing behaviours is not sufficient to support the focus of this specific study.

A final limitation is the interpretation of consumption practices on platforms. The complexity of consumption in terms of the motivating factors that guide consumers' purchasing practices is challenging to actualise. Moreover, it differs per individual in what guides them towards certain consumption decisions. When discussing consumption on platforms, this can encompass visiting the platform and consuming the information but not actualising purchases of fashion, for example. Thus, this particular perspective of how consumption on platforms is performed can be extended through further research and can build upon Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu's (2012) theory of UTAUT with a new angle.

7.5 Concluding Remarks

Moving forward in a digitally advanced world where constant change influences consumer behaviour, how to consume in reaction to changing environments will provide an opportunity of reflection. With influencing factors such as globalisation, geopolitics, social justice, and the environment, the ever changing nature in which consumers consume is never the same. Economies are changing, introducing business models such as the sharing economy to adjust to the demands while remaining a system of consumption to perpetuate the cycle of consumption. At the same time consumers find themselves at a crossroad of having to make conscious decisions that can have an impact on the future. Nothing ever stays the same, and constructs will change depending on the nature in which societies find themselves in. With factors such as hedonism, technology usage and social influences guiding the fashion industry towards a sustainable transition, how we consume will remain a question that will shape and determine the impact of consumption on the environment. It goes to show that opposing forces, drivers and consumer behaviour are complex and change at a rapid speed.

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Appendix A

A.1: Questionnaire Design

Dear participant,

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire for our Master thesis!
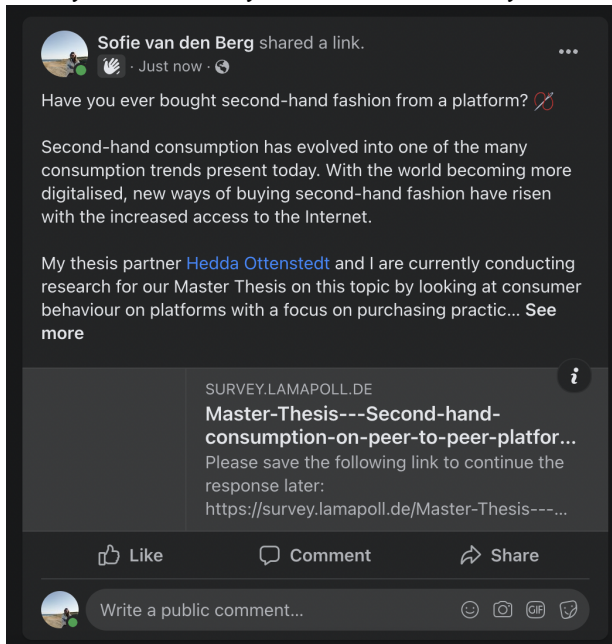
Second-hand consumption has evolved into one of the many consumption trends present today. With the world becoming more digitalised, new ways of buying second-hand fashion have risen with increased access to the Internet. Peer-to-peer platforms such as Depop, eBay and Facebook groups have made it possible to easily access pre-worn garments.

The questions are based on your opinions and experiences and will not require further explanations. The questionnaire will only take up to 8 minutes to finish and is based on voluntary participation, therefore allowing you to quit at any point. The data collection will follow GDPR guidelines and all the information gathered remains confidential and anonymous and will not be further used for any other purposes than our thesis.

For our Master thesis we are investigating the consumption practices on these platforms, and we would really appreciate your time and effort of sharing your experience!

If you have any inquiries regarding the research, you can contact us:

Hedda Ottenstedt: he6165ot-s@student.lu.se

Sofie van den Berg: so5531va-s@student.lu.se

Thank you in advance!

Demographics:
1. Gender
   a. Female
   b. Male
   c. Nonbinary
   d. Other
   e. Prefer not to say
2. Age (Open question)
3. Educational level
   a. Secondary School Diploma
   b. Bachelor
   c. Master or Magister
   d. Other
4. Geographical location
   a. Open Answer

The following statements will require you to rate which best describes your opinion or purchasing behaviour where **1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.**

Dependent Variables	Questions	Source
Usage of platforms	5. How often do you visit a peer-to-peer platform in a week? 6. How much time do you spend on average on a peer-to-peer platform per week? (*Open Answer*) 7. Visiting a peer-to-peer platform is part of my daily routine	Park et al., (2012)
Repurchasing through platform	8. How often do you purchase items from the peer-to-peer platform? 9. Peer-to-peer platforms inspire me to buy second-hand fashion 10. The likelihood that I will buy second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms in the future is high	Park et al., (2012)
Functionality of platform	11. Peer-to-peer platforms are useful for second-hand fashion 12. Using a peer-to-peer platform for second-hand fashion is helping me purchase fashion more quickly 13. Interacting with the peer-to-peer platform does not require a lot of mental effort 14. Peer-to-peer platforms are easy to use	Pascual-Miguel et al. (2015); Venkatesh, Thong & Xu (2012); Pascual-Mgieul et al. (2015);
Control question	1+1	
Social influence	15. I consume second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms because my friends do it too 16. People who influence my behaviour motivate me to use peer-to-peer platforms for second-hand fashion 17. People's whose opinions I value prefer that I use peer-to-peer platforms for second-hand fashion	Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, (2012)
Control question	2+2	
Hedonic motivation	18. Buying second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms is fun 19. I enjoy buying second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms	Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, (2012)

	20. Visiting a peer-to-peer platforms gives me an enjoyable experience	
Price value	21. I usually buy products on sale 22. I buy second-hand fashion because it has a better price value 23. In my opinion, I save money buying second-hand fashion	Singh & Matsui, (2017); Guiot & Roux (2010); Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, (2012);
Habit	24. How often do you purchase fashion online? (*Open Answer*) 25. I only buy online when I know what I want 26. When buying fashion online, I always think twice 27. I check fashion platforms for new fashion trends	Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, (2012)
Control question	1+4	
Sustainability	28. I choose second-hand fashion on peer-to-peer platforms saves natural resources 29. Purchasing second-hand fashion online is a sustainable mode of consumption. 30. Purchasing second-hand fashion online is environmentally friendly 31. Purchasing second-hand fashion is ecological	Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, (2016)
Uniqueness	32. I use peer-to-peer platforms because they offer more unique items 33. When purchasing second-hand fashion, I can find unique items that make me stand out 34. I use peer-to-peer platforms to find unique pieces	Venkatesh, Thong & Xu, (2012)

A.2: Questionnaire Distribution

LinkedIn Posts:

Facebook Posts:

SurveyCircle/Survey Panel - Post Survey, Find Participants, Get Responses

Reddit Group Posts:

Ethical Fashion Group

Sustainable Fashion Group

Appendix B
B.1: Socio-Demographics

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	28	19.9	19.9	19.9
	Female	113	80.1	80.1	100.0
	Total	141	100.0	100.0	

Country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sweden	60	42.6	42.6	42.6
	Italy	4	2.8	2.8	45.4
	UK	12	8.5	8.5	53.9
	Netherlands	17	12.1	12.1	66.0
	Germany	22	15.6	15.6	81.6
	USA	2	1.4	1.4	83.0
	Denmark	10	7.1	7.1	90.1
	Austria	1	.7	.7	90.8
	China	1	.7	.7	91.5
	Australia	1	.7	.7	92.2
	Pakistan	1	.7	.7	92.9
	Taiwan	1	.7	.7	93.6
	Syria	1	.7	.7	94.3
	Brazil	1	.7	.7	95.0
	Spain	1	.7	.7	95.7
	Portugal	3	2.1	2.1	97.9
	Belgium	2	1.4	1.4	99.3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Poland	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	141	100.0	100.0	

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Secondary School Diploma	9	6.4	6.4	6.4
	Bachelor	53	37.6	37.6	44.0
	Master or Magister	74	52.5	52.5	96.5
	Other	5	3.5	3.5	100.0
	Total	141	100.0	100.0	

B.2: Regression Analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.778[a]	.605	.584	.86725

a. Predictors: (Constant), HabitCheckingOnline,Price Value,Social Influence, Environmental Sustainability, Functionality, Uniqueness, Hedonic Motivation
b. Dependent variable: Repetitive Use

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	152.908	7	21.844	29.043	.000[b]
	Residual	100.032	133	.752		
	Total	252.940	140			

a. Dependent Variable: Repetitive Use
b. Predictors: (Constant), HabitCheckingOnline,Price Value,Social Influence, Environmental Sustainability, Functionality, Uniqueness, Hedonic Motivation

Coefficients[a]

Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig	Zero-Order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
1	(Constant)	-.604	.451		-1.339	.183					
	Perceived Functionality	.361	.088	.305	4.113	.000	.641	.336	.224	.540	1.853
	Social Influence	.204	.057	.223	3.564	.001	.472	.295	.194	.760	1.315
	Hedonic Motivations	.373	.078	.438	4.803	.000	.707	.384	.262	.357	2.800
	Price Value	-.113	.080	-.100	-1.412	.160	.373	-.122	-.077	.592	1.689
	Environmental Sustainability	.003	.066	.003	.048	.962	.195	.004	.003	.762	1.312
	Uniqueness	.049	0.83	.045	.591	.555	.521	.051	.032	.505	1.979
	Habit	.025	.055	.028	.458	.647	.240	.040	0.25	.795	1.259

a. Dependent Variable: Repetitive_Use

Collinearity Diagnostics

| Dimension	Condition Index	Variance Proportions						
		ES	PF	SI	PV	HM	U	H
1	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
2	8.280	.05	.00	.75	.00	.01	.00	.02
3	9.357	.00	.02	.07	.02	.12	.00	.43
4	11.825	.18	.01	.10	.06	.13	.03	.29
5	16.038	.19	.39	.00	.04	.05	.12	.01
6	16.179	.13	.02	.04	.55	.02	.27	.20
7	17.877	.43	.12	.03	.06	.08	.42	.04
8	22.497	.01	.43	.00	.27	.60	.15	.00

ES=Environmental Sustainability, PF=Perceived Functionality, SI=Social Influence, PV=Price Value, HM=Hedonic Motivation, U=Uniqueness, H=Habit

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	.5157	5.6070	3.4486	1.04508	141
Residual	-2.25006	2.05202	.00000	.84529	141
Std. Predicted Value	-2.806	2.065	.000	1.000	141
Std. Residual	-2.594	2.366	.000	.975	141

a. Dependent Variable: Repetitive_Use

Charts

Histogram
Dependent Variable: Repetitive_Use

Mean = 1.01E-15
Std. Dev. = 0.975
N = 141
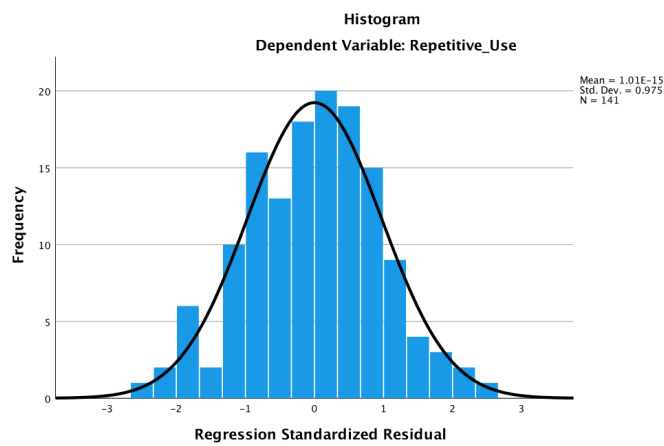
Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Repetitive_Use

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: Repetitive_Use
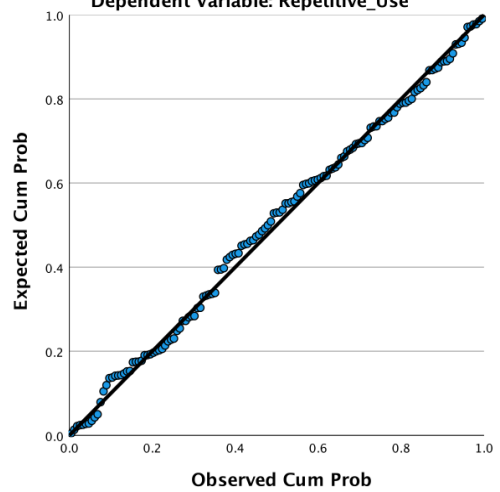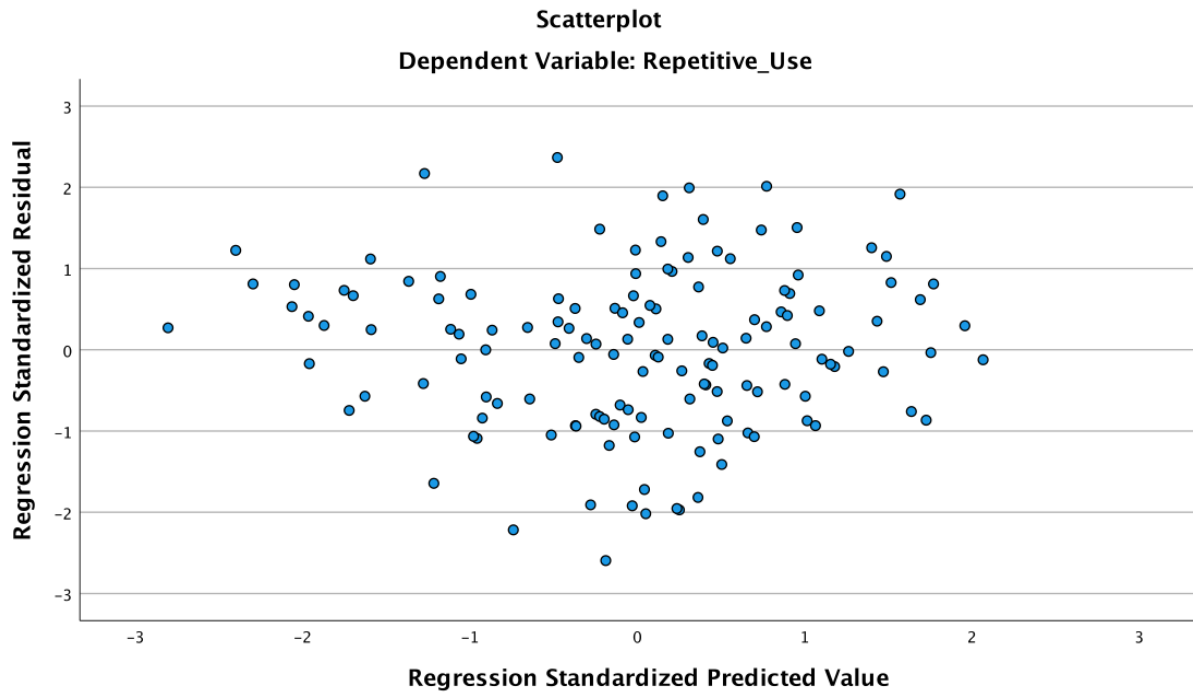
B.3: Curvilinear Regression Analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.778[a]	.605	.584	.86725
2	.795[b]	.631	.600	.85006

a. Predictors: (Constant), HabitCheckingOnline,Price Value,Social Influence, Environmental Sustainability, Functionality, Uniqueness, Hedonic Motivation

b. Predictors: (Constant), HabitCheckingOnline,Price Value,Social Influence, Environmental Sustainability, Functionality, Uniqueness, Hedonic Motivation, H2, ES2, PV2, U2

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	152.908	7	21.844	29.043	.000[b]
	Residual	100.032	133	.752		
	Total	252.940	140			
2	Regression	159.724	11	14.520	20.094	.000[c]
	Residual	93.216	129	.723		

Total	252.940	140		

a. Dependent Variable: Repetitive Use
b. Predictors: (Constant), HabitCheckingOnline,Price Value,Social Influence, Environmental Sustainability, Functionality, Uniqueness, Hedonic Motivation
c. Predictors: (Constant), HabitCheckingOnline,Price Value,Social Influence, Environmental Sustainability, Functionality, Uniqueness, Hedonic Motivation, H2, ES2, PV2, U2

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-.604	.451		-1.339	.183
	Functionality	.361	.088	.305	4.113	.000
	Social Influence	.204	.057	.223	3.564	.001
	Hedonic Motivation	.373	.078	.438	4.803	.000
	Environmental Sustainability	.003	.066	.003	.048	.962
	Price Value	-.113	.080	-.100	-1.412	.160
	Uniqueness	.049	.083	.045	.591	.555
	Habit	.025	.055	.028	.458	.647
2	(Constant)	1.911	1.230		1.554	.123
	Functionality	.345	.089	.292	3.872	.000
	Social Influence	.241	.058	.263	4.174	.000
	Hedonic Motivation	.412	.077	.485	5.341	.000
	Environmental Sustainability	.109	.345	.103	.315	.753
	Price Value	-.695	.415	-.617	-1.675	.096
	Uniqueness	-.927	.453	-.854	-2.048	.043
	Habit	.350	.269	.390	1.299	.196
	ES2	-.008	.036	-.079	-.237	.813
	PV2	.058	.043	.489	1.329	.186
	U2	.099	.045	.880	2.174	.032
	H2	-.039	.032	-.366	-1.224	.223

a. Dependent Variable: Repetitive_Use