Product Rental Service in the Premium Fashion Market: An Exploration of the Danish Female Consumer

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Resumé

Deleøkonomien har opnået et væsentligt omfang i en lang række industrier. På tværs af sociodemografiske grupper er man gået fra at 'købe sig ejerskab' til at 'købe sig brugsret' – en udvikling, der er stødt stigende. Denne udvikling er et afkom af økonomisk ustabilitet samt et stigende fokus på bæredygtighed. Dele af den moderne livsstil er kendt for at forårsage miljøskader, dog er det først i de senere år, at tøjindustrien er blevet kendt som en af de store klimasyndere. På trods af dette er salget af tøj steget med 60% de seneste to årtier. Endvidere, udskifter danskerne deres garderobe dobbelt så ofte som i år 2000. Som et resultat af dette, er der skabt stor fokus på implementering af bæredygtige initiativer og forretningsmodeller. Hertil er der opstået et nyt fænomen: *tøjudlejning*. Et fænomen, der nu er nået til Danmark. To danske premium brands har i september 2019 implementeret denne nye forretningsmodel, hvilket har skabt grobund for at undersøge markedet for tøjudlejning i Danmark.

Af samme grunde, ønsker dette studie at undersøge den danske kvindelige forbrugers perception af tøjudlejning samt de potentielle konsekvenser, som brands kan forvente at opleve ved implementering af denne forretningsmodel. Derudover klarlægges de kvindelige forbrugeres motivationer ved tøj køb. Afslutningsvis forsøger studiet at komme med forslag til, hvordan premium brands kan benytte disse motivationer som vejledning for, hvordan tøjudlejning bør positioneres.

Studiet består af en indledende eksplorativ fase. Denne er baseret på otte semi-strukturerede interviews, hvis data er tematiseret til **1)** konsekvenser, som premium brands kan forvente at opleve i forbindelse med implementeringen af tøjudlejning, samt **2)** kvindernes motivation(er) for tøjkøb samt perception af tøjudlejning. Dernæst består studiet af en forklarende kvantitativ undersøgelse. Dette gøres på baggrund af et spørgeskema med 360 respondenter. Disse data bruges til at udvikle en teoretisk model for at undersøge kausale sammenhænge vha. lineær regressionsanalyse.

På baggrund af analysen og den teoretiske model kan det konkluderes, at der - fra et forbrugerperspektiv - er et marked for premium fashion udlejning. Vores undersøgelse indikerer, at en tredjedel af de danske kvindelige forbrugere er villige til at leje, da de tillægger premium fashion udlejning værdi og udviser intention om at leje. Endvidere, ses der en positiv sammenhæng mellem forbrugernes *værditillæggelse* til premium fashion udlejning og *brand image*/*brand autenticitet* for

danske premium brands. Dette resultat antyder, at danske premium fashion brands kan styrke deres *brand image* og *brand autenticitet* ved implementeringen af en tøjudlejningsservice. Tilmed identificeres en øget intention om at købe tøj fra premium fashion brands efter implementering af en tøjudlejningsservice. Dette kan konkluderes af de positive sammenhænge fra *brand image*/ *brand autenticitet*/ *intention om at leje* til *intentionen om at købe*. Ydermere, findes der en sammenhæng mellem forbrugere, der tilskriver servicen stor værdi og motivationerne; *stimuli, social anerkendelse, etik* og *bæredygtighed*. Derfor argumenteres det, at premium brands, der ønsker at implementere en tøjudlejningsservice, har to mulige positioner at tage: **1)** en bæredygtig service; en kombination af *bæredygtighed, etik* og *social anerkendelse* eller **2)** en premium service; en kombination af *social anerkendelse* og *stimuli*. Afslutningsvis foreslår undersøgelsen, at det yngre segment, nærmere bestemt generation Y og Z, er det mest attraktive for premium fashion udlejning. Dette konkluderes på baggrund af alders signifikante betydning for to ud fire fundne sammenhænge: *stimuli* samt *social anerkendelse* og forbrugerens *værditillæggelse* af premium fashion udlejning.

Vores teoretiske model bidrager dermed med nye resultater til fænomenet: premium fashion udlejning. Dette gøres fra et forbruger-centreret perspektiv ved at tilvejebringe ny viden til litteraturen i form af potentielle motiver for tøjudlejning samt potentielle konsekvenser for premium brands.

God læselyst

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Signe, Emilie & Puk

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Chapter 1
Introduction

Sharing of resources, products, services, knowledge, and experiences is a fundamental practice that is widely embedded in human nature. However, with the advance of Web 2.0, the realm of sharing has drastically expanded – an evolution known as the 'sharing paradigm' (Belk, 2014). Within the sharing paradigm, consumers are shifting to a 'usage mindset' where they pay for the benefit of the product – what it does for them – without owning the product outright. This has generated a dynamic collection of industries that relies on 'access over ownership' – for instance, transportation, hospitality, and entertainment (Botsman & Rogers, 2011). Consequently, we are experiencing a shift towards more collaborative consumption styles, where services enable privately-owned products to be shared or rented, thus maximizing their usage as more people can use the same item. For the same reason, scholars and practitioners argue that the sharing phenomenon has the potential to contribute to a sustainable and resilient society. This claim was recently backed by the European Commission arguing that collaborative consumption functions as a supporting role in our transition into circular economy (EU, 2015). Therefore, consumers find this form of consumption appealing not only from an economic standpoint as upfront cost are lower, but also from a sustainable one.

For decades modern life has been widely known to cause environmental harm, e.g. by flying overseas, driving to and from home, using disposable plastic items. However, consumers have only more recently become aware of their individual contribution, including that of their clothing consumption. In the past years, the fashion industry has received heavy criticism for its trend-driven ways of pressuring consumers to buy new garments every season. In Europe, luxury fashion brands have gone from offering two collections every year (2000) to six (2017), whereas fast fashion brands release 12 to 24 collections per year (EU, 2017; Glein, 2017). This has not only created a 60% increase in items purchased per year from 2000 to 2014, but also generated a higher turnover of items, where consumers only keep the clothes for half as long (McKinsey, 2016; Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017).

This criticism is gaining momentum in the public discourse and has consumers questioning their conventional consumption patterns. This has led to a demand for sustainable alternatives to choose from. Consequently, practitioners look for ways to meet the instability of the industry leading to the rise of eco-labels, recycling initiatives, luxury second-hand shops, slow fashion, and fashion libraries (Sadin & Peters, 2018). In particular, an online, non-ownership-based business model known as product rental service is gaining international consumer attention. With this, consumers can for a monetary fee acquire a fashion garment for a predefined duration, and companies can integrate more impactful recycling systems, as it maintains the product throughout its life cycle (Sposato et al., 2017; McKinney & Shin, 2016). Although it is a growing business model, product rental service is still in its introductory phase accounting for a total of US$ 1,246M (GlobeNewsWire, 2019) compared to a global apparel market worth US$ 1,942,644M per year (Statista, 2020a). Thus, consumers have not yet fully adopted a 'usage mindset' when it comes clothes.

Looking into the Danish fashion market, it is found that fashion plays a significant role for Danish consumers. According to Statista (2020b), Danish fashion retail has experienced revenue growth of 1.0% per year since 2013. This growth is expected to increase, as forecasts anticipate an average 1.8% annual growth for the Danish apparel market throughout 2025, increasing the market value to US$ 5,295M in 2024 (Statista, 2020b). When looking into the user-statistics, women between 25-34 years old are the biggest consumer group as **1)** women account for 61% of Danish apparel sales, and **2)** 25-34 years old account for 25% of Danish apparel sales (of 5 age-group division) (Statista, 2020b).

Despite the stable growth throughout the years, studies indicate that the fashion industry is experiencing new implications in the form of a 'changing consumer'. There is detected a decrease in fast-fashion, and instead a growing interest in sustainability and ethical apparel is sprouting - especially in the market of female apparel (Passport, 2020). This change in consumer demand has led to the implementation of product rental service on the Danish fashion market. In September 2019, two premium Danish fashion brands adopted this new product-service system, namely GANNI and Malene Birger (GANNI, 2020; Malene Birger, 2020; Davis, 2020). For the same reason, we find it relevant to investigate product rental service on the Danish premium fashion scene from an academic standpoint.

Although premium fashion rental service is gaining international and domestic attraction, we find no existing literature determining **1)** consumers' perceived value of the service, and **2)** the brand implications connected with implementing such a service within a premium fashion brand. This is an essential first step, as consumers determine the value of an offering (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). Thus, we identify a knowledge-gap within the 'sharing paradigm' of fashion and consumer demands. To the authors' knowledge, no existing literature looks into product rental from a pre-purchase stage, meaning no studies have sought to provide new research that enhances scholars' and practitioners' understanding of introducing such product rental service to a market. The existing literature on product rental service takes on a resource perspective to analyze product-service systems' [a sharing economy initiative] contribution to circular economy.

According to Parguel et al. (2017), current changes in consumerism can be explained as: "*a paradigm shift towards more frugal ways of living*" (p. 49). In relation, Klein (2011) finds that people are adapting "*an alternative worldview to rival the existing at the heart of the ecological crisis*" (Klein, 2011, p. 19). This has created growing consumer demands for more economic and sustainable initiatives, which is seen in the transition from 'purchase for ownership' to 'purchase for usage' (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Belk, 2014). Despite the many observations and claims on changing consumer patterns, scholars have yet to "connect the dots" within fashion. We find no study that investigates whether these facts apply to the fashion market, more specifically whether the consumer is willing to adopt a usage-based approach to clothing. Currently, scholars have centered on investigating consumers' fashion demands; however, accommodating these with possible solutions lack academic ground.

Further, scholars point to the sharing paradigm's revolution of well-established industries, and thus stress the importance of established companies orienting themselves towards the opportunities of sharing-related technology (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Roy et al., 2009). Wolf et al. (2009) explain that the sharing paradigm's transfer of liability risk - from consumer to company - discourage established companies from adapting. However, existing literature finds that implementation of sharing-related technology - e.g. product rental service - will make a company better equipped to analyze customer satisfaction and continually improve its supply (Wolf et al., 2009; Roy et al., 2009). Along with this note, we find no study that looks toward the external implications of extending a company's services with a product rental service. For the same reason, we find it relevant to study consumers' brand perception. Accounting for a brand perspective is of significant relevance for the fashion industry, as brands play an important role in consumers' identity projects. Thus, consumers rely heavily on brands to express themselves and to self-enhance (Aaker, 1996).

Due to the lacking academic discussion on consumers' willingness to adopt an access-based approach to clothing, academia calls upon an exploration of consumer perceived value on the phenomenon premium fashion rental service. This thesis takes a consumer-centric approach to the phenomenon. According to Vargo & Lusch (2004; 2008), a consumer-centric approach is of great importance when evaluating a business idea, as: "*Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary"* (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p.7). For the same reason, a consumer-centric approach – outgrown from the Service-Dominant Logic - is implicitly undertaken in the empirical study. This research attempts to mitigate the identified gap between 'changing consumers' and existing business models within the Danish premium fashion market. This is done by inferring a theoretical basis for *premium fashion rental service* from the literature on Sharing Economy, Service-Dominant Logic, Consumer Behavior, and Evolutionary Psychology.

The thesis proposes a theoretical framework consisting of 20 hypotheses to explain whether premium fashion rental service resonates with the Danish female consumer. With this, the hypotheses aim at **1)** elucidating the brand consequences (outcomes) of offering a product rental service for a premium fashion brand, and **2)** identifying the motivations (antecedents) behind this occurring attraction. The proposed theoretical framework is developed in the context of the Danish women's premium fashion market. However, the theoretical framework seeks to provide a more generalized approach to evaluating consumer's perceived value of premium fashion rental services. Therefore, the theoretical framework can give inspiration to assess the business model within other markets.

1.1 Research Questions

The focal point of the thesis will be whether Danish female consumers perceive premium fashion rental service to be attractive, and thus willing to transition into a 'usage mindset'. The intent of the theoretical framework of premium fashion rental service is to illuminate the consumer perspective of the phenomenon and give aim to more extensive research on the topic. With this, the purpose of our thesis is to answer the following research question:

How does a premium fashion rental service resonate with Danish female consumers, and what are the consequences for premium brands when implementing such a service?

- *What are the brand outcomes of implementing a premium fashion rental service?*
- *Which consumer motivations correlate with Consumer Perceived Value of a product rental service, and how can these be used to most efficiently target the consumers?*
- *Does age play a significant role in the relationship between consumer motives and Consumer Perceived Value?*

By answering the above research question and supporting questions, our thesis contributes to academia with relevant consumer findings on the Danish female consumers' willingness to rent. Academically, we seek to contribute with a consumer-centric approach to product rental service in the field of fashion retail. We contribute with the new construct - *Willingness-to-Rent* - through our theoretical framework. Furthermore, we take on new perspectives on how to combine previously established scales: *The Consumer Motivation Scale, Consumer Perceived Value, Brand Image, Brand Authenticity*, and *Willingness-to-Buy*. This to ensure more holistic consumer findings, thus reaching a conclusion that does not lack results within this area.

At the same time, we ought to provide practitioners with a framework that can serve as a point of departure when brands evaluate whether to join the bandwagon of the 'sharing paradigm'. The authors argue that the knowledge provided will benefit premium fashion brands with an understanding of consumer motivations when purchasing clothes. Second, it enables practitioners to decide whether a product rental service is a good fit for their business and brand. Lastly, the authors aim to provide guidelines and recommendations on how to position and brand one's business.

Throughout the study, we utilize the capabilities of Sharing Economy, Service-Dominant Logic, Consumer Behavior, and Evolutionary Psychology. We seek to conclude on our research question through a sequential study leveraging a mixed-methods design. Initially, we have set up a preliminary study - consisting of eight semi-structured interviews - seeking to clarify the motivations for shopping. The results will feed into our theoretical framework, where we strive to explain the relationship between consumer value and product rental service through regression analysis based on cross-sectional data. Further, we discuss possible theoretical and managerial implications, including limitations and future research.

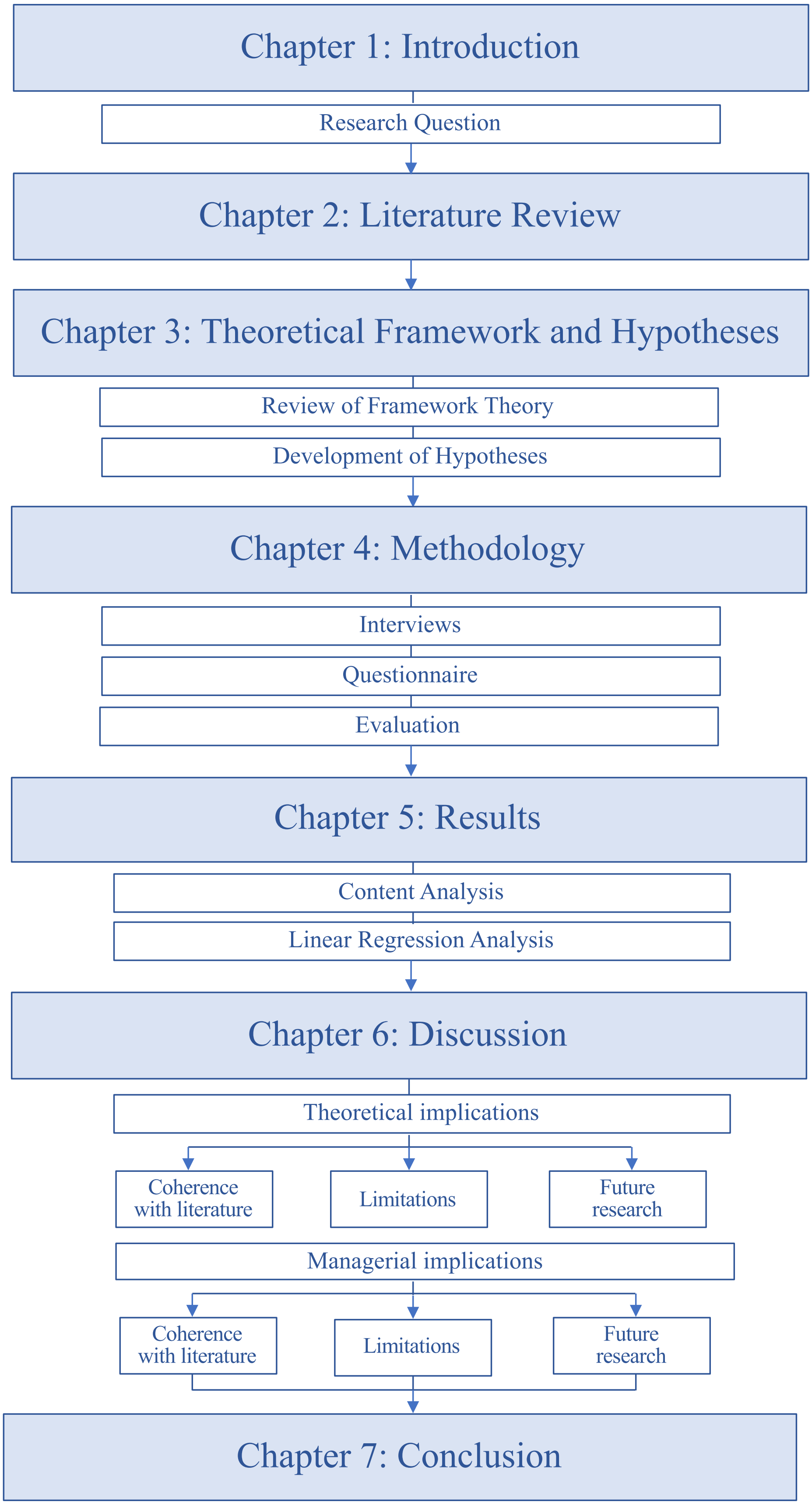

Figure 1. Structure of Thesis

Chapter 2
Literature Review

2.1 A world in change

In the past decade, both the academic and public debate has increasingly directed its attention towards the blurring boundaries between the public and private sectors (Rasche, Morsing & Moon, 2017). These blurring boundaries have become evident with private economies excessing public ones creating more powerful and political corporations that take over the activities of the private sphere. Consequently, there has been a change in how society views corporations' role and responsibilities on a global scale. Scholars specifically point to the economic crisis as a catalyst for a more critical debate on multinational corporation's role, thus capitalism's impact on society; how it has created material possession fostering consumerism, which has negative outcomes on the environment (Matten & Crane, 2005). The environmental debate has in recent years been intensified with interconnected, dense networks that spread and critically evaluate corporations' actions – or rather the lack thereof – and thus 'help' to increase the accountability and transparency of the private sector (Lyon & Montgomery, 2013). For the same reason, Rasche et al. (2017) argue that the private sector is both *the problem* of yet also *the solution* for sustainable development. However, by hoping corporations will make a change, we also create a risk of relying even more on them. Thus, we must demand otherwise and change our consumer preference (Stolle, Hooghe & Micheletti, 2005).

2.1.1 A changing consumer

Fordist production methods and consumption patterns are in large responsible for today's environmental pollution and depreciation of resources (Steffen, 2016), and the values of this time have survived up until now. Belk (2007, p. 136) argues that the modern consumer "*clings to an identity forged in the crucible of materialism*" and the problem hereof is that "*many of our consumer behaviors have become so habitual that we are unaware of our impact*" (Botsman & Rogers, 2011, p. 6). This materialistic living standard functions as: "*a mean of personal communication by which individuals express themselves*" and show their success (Gwozdz et al., 2017, p. 1), and so developed economies have generated an overflow of discarded items (e.g. clothes) creating a 'throwaway culture'. Thus, the majority of consumers still do not link clothing consumption patterns with environmental degradation (Gwozdz et al., 2017). This is related to the insufficient knowledge on the topic (Makower, 2005).

Johnson, Nelund, Olaison, and Sørensen (2017) argue: "*the problem is that the prevalent picture of sustainability, nature and society that we encounter today is framed within the values of this consumerist society*" (p. 8). It is found that consumers often lack reliable information, and so they do not have the autonomy to make unbiased choices and/or ethical alternatives to choose from (Jacobsen & Dulsrud, 2007). Society – especially western society - can simply not see its excessive consumption patterns as it has been locked in - politically, culturally, and physically - to a world built on capital (Klein, 2014).

Such arguments are gaining momentum in the public discourse and have the individual questioning the general fascination with consumerism. The environment and climate concerns have in the past decade been growing steadily, which reflects in the number of academic publications on the topic of environmental impact of textile recycling/re-use, which has increased from 1.5 publications per year a decade ago to 4.5 publications per year in recent time (Sandin & Peters, 2018). Thus, this implies that consumers are starting to acknowledge that shopping involves sustainable considerations and that there are drawbacks to the way we design, produce, and use clothes (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017).

These changes in consumerism and lifestyle choices have recently been referred to as: "*a paradigm shift towards more frugal ways of living*" and "*the progressive decay of materialism*" (Parguel et al., 2017, p. 49). With this, they argue that there is a conscious movement in society that makes a virtue out of returning to the values of previous generations. Here, quality is prevailing quantity, and it has become socially acceptable to claim a no-waste or minimalist lifestyle – especially in young, urban environments (Weinswig, 2016). As Botsman and Rogers (2011) put it: "*[people] revive neglected forms of social capital and regain meaning and community"* (p.46) as a response to the focus on economic capital and material possessions, and so consumers are slowly becoming aware that "*there are burdens to possessions*" (Belk, 2007, p. 137). Hence, they are adopting "*an alternative worldview to rival the existing at the heart of the ecological crisis*" (Klein, 2011, p. 19).

It can be concluded that a growing number of consumers are shopping for and with sustainable virtues in mind, which has scholars discussing the actual outcome of such behaviors. Micheletti (2003) argues that politics has entered the marketplace through the consumers' pocketbooks, and Jacobsen and Dulsrud (2007) elaborate that we have entered a time where consumers vote at the checkout. This behavioral and value change is spreading like rings in water and rapidly shifting the focus: "*to inter-dependence rather than hyper-individualism, reciprocity rather than dominance and cooperation rather than hierarchy*" (Klein, 2011, p. 19). Thus, we see a demand for more sustainable living; a meaningful minimalist lifestyle with social relatedness, and a decreased carbon footprint (Hansen, 2014).

Although some scholars question *consumer agency* in a world built on capitalism (Jacobsen & Dulsrud, 2007), Micheletti wrote in 2003 that individual action might not have an immediate impact. However, it is still necessary for continuing to push in the right direction (Micheletti, 2003). A decade later, multilateral instruments were created to push for greater business responsibilities, not to mention the development of a new generation of businesses – a development that has now made sustainability the main driver of business innovation (Nidumolu, Prahalad & Rangaswami, 2009).

2.1.2 A change in business

The increasing sustainable demand has manifested efforts to embody ethical perspectives within business practices. We are currently experiencing corporations attempting to rethink business models (Linder & Williander, 2015), hybrid organizations developing, and new constellations of business collaborations (Defourny & Nyssens, 2006) that all help to equalize economic, environmental, and social needs.

As previously mentioned, sustainable demand is unavoidable. It is found that this consumption change ranges from **1)** consciously selecting more sustainable and ethical products (e.g. renewable energy and fair trade) to **2)** slowing acquisition/replacement of goods to **3)** more radical lifestyle shifts i.e. *voluntary simplicity* (De Pelsmacker & Janssens, 2007; Cooper, 2010; Zralek, 2016). For the same reason, new initiatives and business models are gaining ground. Within the clothing industry, certification and eco-labeling are gradually considered "prototypical" and second-hand shops and repair services, etc. have become popular alternatives to conventional stores. Additionally, in recent time, a new generation of businesses have emerged. This generation shifts from a traditional resource-depleting form of capitalism and enters what has come to be known as *sharing economy*. Within this, we see initiatives such as clothing libraries, swap markets, and more recently product rental services.

In the following, we will investigate the academic debate on *sharing economy*; how this may impact companies and transform their business models, transfer risk from consumer to producer, and more importantly how this changes the habitual consumer pattern from owning to using.

2.2 A new paradigm: *Sharing Economy*

In 1988 Belk theorizes that we are what we own (Belk, 1988). However, with the inception of the World Wide Web in 1992, we have found new ways to express our identity without ownership (Belk, 2013). This has led to a new group of related business and consumption practices characterized as *sharing* (Belk, 2010), *collaborative consumption* (Botsman & Rogers, 2010), *the Mesh* (Gansky, 2010), *access-based consumption* (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012), *commercial sharing systems* (Lamberton & Rose, 2012), etc., which all point back to the paradigm change from *owning* to *using* goods and/or services, known as *sharing economy* (Cohen & Kietzmann, 2014).

As illustrated above, there lacks a connotative, clear-cut definition in academia of what *sharing economy* is. The most frequently-used concept 'collaborative consumption' by Botsman and Rogers (2010) may be described as an all-encompassing approach: "*systems that reinvent traditional market behaviors – renting, lending, swapping, sharing, bartering, gifting – in ways and on a scale not possible before the internet*" (p.15). This definition has received a fair amount of critique by marketing scholar, Belk (2010; 2013; 2014), who views this definition too broad; mixing the *marketplace exchange*, *gift-giving*, and *sharing activities*. On the contrary, Belk (2014) argues that sharing economy: "*is people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation*" (p. 1597). By using '*a fee or other compensation',* Belk (2014) encompasses giving and/or receiving non-monetary compensation (i.e. bartering, trading, and swapping), however, excludes *sharing activities* with your immediate circle and *gift-giving*, as this involves a permanent transfer of ownership (Belk, 2014).

Belk (2014) elaborates that sharing economy is built on two commonalities: **1)** reliance on the Internet and **2)** temporary access (non-ownership) models.

Firstly, sharing economy can simply not be an offline local activity. Belk argues that technology holds a vital role in the creation of the sharing economy; technology has made sharing convenient and organized, as well as expanded the scope of people that one can share with. Hence, without technology – more specifically, the Internet – there would only be *sharing* and not a *sharing* economy (Belk, 2014).

Secondly, sharing economy is built on temporary access (non-ownership) models that utilize consumer goods and services. This argumentation is similar to that of Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), who argue for the notion of *access-based consumption*, also called *market-mediated access* in sharing economy. They state: "*Instead of buying and owning things, consumers want access to goods and prefer to pay for the experience of temporarily accessing them*" (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012, p. 881). Thus, sharing economy is argued to be in the context of economic transactions where the outcome is temporary access.

Following the notion of Belk (2014) and Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012), it is argued that one of three sharing economy systems provided by Botsman and Rogers (2010) is eliminated, namely *redistribution markets*. However, the systems: *collaborative lifestyles* and *product-service systems* remain within the sharing economy paradigm. This research will focus on the latter, as we wish to investigate whether product rental service serves as a new source of revenue on the Danish premium fashion market.

2.2.1 Product-Service Systems

Several scholars claim that there is a thin line – if not a non-existing one - between product and service in the sharing economy (Belk, 2014). By offering a product for sharing or renting, one offers a service in itself. Following this notion, service-dominant logic scholars argue that sharing economy involves more types of value; from monetary to experiential created jointly by users and owners (more in-depth knowledge on Service-Dominant Logic in section 2.3). Consequently, consumers enjoy the experience of the shared consumption model rather than that of traditional ownership (Zhang, Jahromi & Kizildag, 2017). For the same reason, sharing economy is forcing traditional businesses to move their strategy from 'pure product sales' to 'product as a service business'.

Tukker (2004) defines a product-service system as: "*consisting of tangible products and intangible services designed and combined so that they jointly are capable of fulfilling specific customer needs*" (p. 246). This definition is broad and acknowledges a range of product-service system possibilities between one side of pure product and another side of pure service (figure 2).

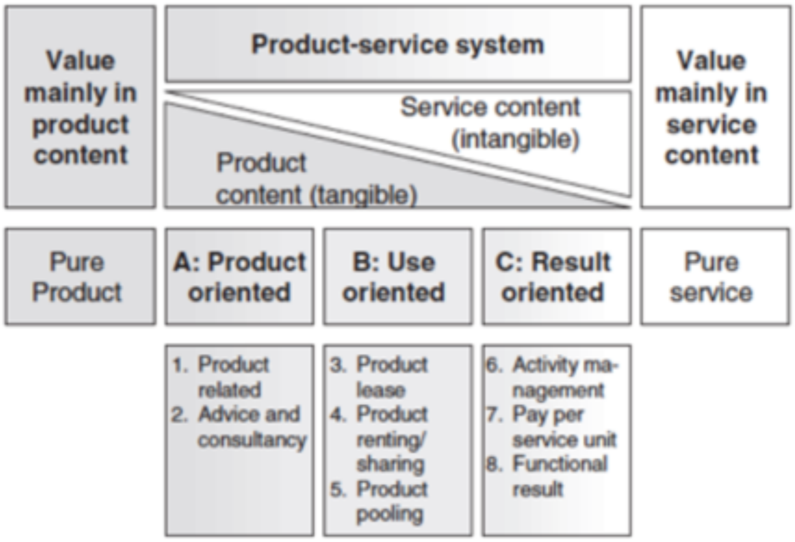

Figure 2. Main and subcategories of PPS

(Tukker, 2004, p. 248)

Due to the intertwined relationship between product and service in sharing economy, a product-service system may be slightly more product-oriented or service-oriented, however never heavily represented or detached from its counterpart. This is in accordance with the previously stated change; from an economy based on purchasing products to an economy based on usage of products (*cf. 2.2 A New Paradigm: Sharing Economy*), and thus we find that the principle of sharing economy is heavily represented in main category *B: Use oriented* with sub-categories such as *product lease, product renting/sharing* and *product pooling* (Tukker, 2004: 248). This is also the standpoint from which sharing economy scholars primarily use the term *product-service system*.

The strategy behind product-service systems is to offer *a product* and *an integrated system of products and services* to reduce the environmental impact through alternative ways of product use (Mont, 2002). In other words, the idea of the product-service systems is to get more value out of underutilized assets or resources to lower environmental impact and satisfy customer needs. More specifically, Botsman and Rogers (2010) explain that an individual or a company owns a product and a service – often enabled by Internet, applications, social networks, etc. - enabling multiple users to share the product's benefits. This scenario is especially suitable when a product has either **1)** 'high idling capacity' (e.g. cars), **2)** fulfills a temporary need (e.g. maternity clothes), **3)** has limited use because of fashion, **4)** diminishes in appeal after usage (e.g. films), and **5)** when a high start or purchasing cost is the barrier for product-entry (e.g. solar panels) (Botsman & Rogers, 2010, p. 101).

In the past decade, these scenarios have been played out and given rise to four business models (Sposato et al., 2017, p. 1798):

1. *P2P* (peer-to-peer) where the exchange happens among 'private' individuals
2. B2P (business-to-peer) among companies and single consumers (from B2C to B2P, as consumers now become individuals linked in a virtual community)
3. P2B (peer-to-business) among single consumers to companies
4. B2B (business-to-business) among companies themselves

These business models are mostly seen amongst start-ups, however, Matzler, Veider, and Kathan (2015, p.72) suggest that established companies can as well respond to the rise of sharing economy by adapting to the premise of selling use of the product rather than ownership.

Consequently, scholars argue that product-service systems will advance new forms of organization, role reconfiguration, customers, and stakeholders (Baines et al., 2007; Roy et al., 2009). By retaining ownership, a company becomes responsible for the product throughout its life cycle. Thus, it goes from traditional product producer to product supplier, where products are used or upgraded, maintained, or substituted throughout its lifetime. This change represents a transfer of liability risk from consumer to company. Wolf et al. (2009) explain that this transfer of risk may discourage established companies from adapting to a product-service system. However, this may as well facilitate the implementation of more efficient and advanced technologies, which eventually will make the company better equipped to analyze customer satisfaction and continually improve its supply (Wolf et al., 2009; Roy et al., 2009).

2.2.2. Perspectives on Sharing Economy

There is a lively debate in academia on the topic of sharing economy. Sposato et al. (2017) argue that the development of sharing economy brings not only new opportunities in economic terms, but also brings environmental advantages through resource savings and avoided waste. Consequently, sharing economy allows businesses to overcome the inefficiencies of linear economy and support the transition to circular economy. However, recent research raises questions about the rebound effects of the practices connected to a sharing model (Zink & Greyer, 2017).

For this reason, we will apply the academic discussion as we go through the life cycle phases of a *B2P product-service system:* **1)** *Pre-manufactory and manufactory,* **2)** *Packaging and distribution,* **3)** *Usage and consumption,* and **4)** *End of life*. We will start at *usage and consumption* to illustrate the circular principle and to demonstrate the customer-centric approach of the study.

Usage and consumption

The main claim of sharing economy in pop literature has been that environmental sustainability pertains primarily in the sharing of underutilized products lowering consumption. Further, consumers do not have to pay the full price of owning a product, thus relieved of the burdens associated with ownership, as well as eliminate inequality by allowing consumers with low purchasing power to get product access (Botsman & Rogers, 2010).

However, Demailly and Novel (2014) claim that different consumption does not necessarily mean consuming less. Firstly, they argue that a rebound effect of overconsumption may happen due to an increased purchasing power of the consumer. Secondly, they argue that the spread of sharing business models may produce an ambivalent response to public policies, such as limiting sustainable investments in i.e. public transportation. Thirdly, they state that there is no generalizability from one product-service group to another e.g. fashion is influenced by trends rather than the potential garment utility.

End of life

In this phase, Sposato et al. (2017) argue that the new, extended responsibility of the producer has the potential to create a significant sustainable change. This claim is primarily related to B2P product-service systems. They reason that with a focus on *usage*, producers will establish withdrawal systems that allow them to control product maintenance and directly manage disposal systems with greater regulation and efficiency (i.e. by re-introducing directly in other product cycles through industrial symbiosis principals). Thus, product-service systems offer new opportunities for closing the loop and becoming circular.

Pre-manufactory and manufactory

Similar to the views on consumption, there are different outlooks on production in relation to sharing economy. Built on the premise that sharing economy contributes to resource efficiency by optimizing the use of underutilized products, one argument finds that product-service systems will produce more durable products (Sposato et al., 2017). Products will be **1)** of higher quality – more durable, eco-design focused and innovative – as products have to be shared frequently, and **2)** potentially be made of re-used/degraded materials of previous products, and thus reduce the quantity of materials consumed in the product's life cycle (Botsman & Rogers, 2010; Cohen & Kietzmann, 2014; Sposato et al., 2017). This is also known as "dematerialization" (Li, Zhang, Li & Tong, 2010).

On the contrary, scholars highlighting the rebound effects of sharing economy argue that it may not be that obvious. The production may as well intensify its water, energy, and chemical usage in creating and maintaining shareable products. This ultimately depends on the motives of the company; do they have a long-term or short-term perspective (Frenken & Schor, 2019).

Packaging and distribution

In continuation of the above, the academic debate also points to the distribution - or rather the redistribution - of B2P product-service systems, especially in its online form. Frenken & Schor (2019) argue that the sharing model may have negative effects as it increases the level of transportation for delivery. Further, they connect this to energy levels in production. Although there may be a minimized use of energy in production, the increased purchasing power will then increase the level of energy connected to the distribution, and thus a Jevons Paradox is created.

However, Sposato et al. (2017) dispute that the distribution impacts connected to the sharing economy must be compared to that of the linear economy, which has significantly increased with online purchase distribution.

2.3 S-D Logic: Acknowledging the power of services rather than products

In extension to above, *Product-Service Systems*, we find it relevant to adopt a Service-Dominant Logic, as we seek to take on a consumer-centric approach when analyzing product rental services.

In 2004, Vargo and Lusch introduced the notion of Service-Dominant Logic (henceforth, S-D Logic), which stresses the importance of incorporating service in the marketing process and development of customer value propositions (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

The steps towards S-D Logic start by adopting a customer-centric approach (Tynan, McKechnie & Hartley, 2014). Historically seen, marketers have viewed value from a company perspective; hence marketers concentrated on the point of exchange and the company's outcome of selling i.e. the four/seven P's to create an optimal marketing mix (Tynan et al., 2014). However, in recent years, we have experienced a shift towards a more consumer-centric value definition, where marketers now interpret value to happen when using products. Thus, value is the service that a product provides. With this, the value proposition moves away from a goods-centered approach (G-D Logic) to a perspective where intangible service and exchange processes and relations are central to the customer experience (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). Further, Vargo & Lusch (2008) argue value to be: "(...) *uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary"* (p. 213), meaning that value can be seen as an experience ultimately assessed by customers. Thus,

> "T*he customer controls the value-in-use creation process, while the service provider (or firm) facilitates this by producing and delivering resources and processes that represent expected value-in-use for the customer. However, the customer may invite others (such as the firm and/or others) to join the process as a creator of value*" (Vargo & Lusch, 2018, Ch. 2, p. 2).

With this, Vargo and Lusch (2008) also acknowledge companies' role in value creation by stating it to be a co-creation process. Hence value happens in the interaction between the service provider and customer. Essentially, customers are value creators, whereas companies facilitate value for their customers (Vargo & Lusch, 2018).

2.3.1 Defining service: Both company and customer has agency

To understand the S-D Logic, we find it paramount to define the scope of the term 'service', as S-D Logic analyzes service as being the primary customer value generator.

According to S-D Logic, service is: "*the application of specialized competences (knowledge and skills) through deeds, processes and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself"* (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p. 2). With this, Vargo and Lusch (2004) extend the notion of service, as traditional marketers only define service as: " *a non-tangible good to be marketed with at a specific value (price) either as a main product itself or as something enhancing a good"* (Kotler et al., 2012,

p. 248). With this, S-D Logic refers to services as something that creates reciprocal value in the exchange process, where both company and customer have agency. In contradiction, traditional marketers view service as a singular marketable unit (e.g. a massage) or as an add-on to a tangible good (an assistant wrapping a gift).

Further, S-D Logic makes a distinction between operand resources and operant resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Operand resources are tangible, whereas operant resources are intangible. Operand resources refer to resources that only create value when an act is performed on it (e.g. animal life and plant life). With this, an operant resource must be deployed on the operand resource for it to create value. An operant resource refers to resources that produce an effect itself (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). In the case of rental clothes in the premium fashion industry, clothes are categorized as an operand resource, whereas the knowledge, skills, design process, and logistics are operant resources for the company.

2.3.2. The 11 foundational premises of S-D Logic

Vargo and Lusch (2004; 2008; 2016) build S-D Logic on 11 fundamental premises, which state how to adopt the Logic fully.

FP1: *The application of specialized skill(s) and knowledge is the fundamental unit of exchange; Service is the fundamental basis of exchange*
FP2: *Indirect exchange masks the fundamental unit of exchange*
FP3: *Goods are a distribution mechanism for service provision*
FP4: *Knowledge is the fundamental source of competitive advantage; Operant resources are the fundamental source of strategic benefit*
FP5: *All economies are service economies*
FP6: *The customer is always a co-producer*
FP7: *The enterprise can only make value propositions; enterprises cannot deliver values, but only offer value propositions.*
FP8: *A service-centered view is customer-oriented and relational*
FP9: *Organizations exist to integrate and transform micro specialized competencies into complex services that are demanded in the marketplace*
FP10: *Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary*

FP11: *Value co-creation is coordinated through actor-generated institutions and institutional arrangements*
(Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p. 6-11; Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p. 7)

Applying S-D Logic to the study provides us with a set of lenses that view product rental services as a strategic benefit, presumably even a competitive advantage (FP4). In this case, we identify a need for theoretical contributions that move beyond the sole function of the goods (G-D Logic), as a premium fashion brand's products will, to a large extend, offer the same whether they are purchased or rented. Further, we acknowledge the theoretical perspective arguing that consumers create value of the service and product provided - not companies (*FP6, FP7,* and *FP10*).

Essential for this study are the foundational premises: *FP1, FP4, FP6, FP7*, and *FP10*, as they all directly relate to operant resources i.e. a product rental service. Further, Vargo and Lusch (2016) adopt a customer-centric approach, hence seek to investigate the co-creation process between company and consumer. Moreover, FP9 sums up the reason for implementing renting services within the premium fashion industry: "*Organizations exist to integrate and transform micro specialized competences into complex services that are demanded in the marketplace"* (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p. 7). However, throughout this study, we acknowledge all 11 premises as they together constitute the perspective of Service-Dominant Logic. Hence, no foundational premises can be set aside.

In extension of S-D Logic, Heinonen (2013) introduces the notion of Customer-Dominant Logic. Customer-Dominant Logic adds to the established S-D Logic by stating that the customer-sphere is of utter importance for the value creation process. With this, Heinonen (2013) states value happens within the customer and/or together with others (Tynan et al., 2014). This add-on can be seen in relation to Lindenberg and Steg's (2007) Goal Theory - more specifically, the normative goal of social acceptance.

2.3.3 Rental models: A new kind of service

The rise of S-D Logic sparks new theoretical contributions such as *business-services, service-economies,* and *non-ownership* to unfold (Ehret & Wirtz, 2010).

New perspectives on service - *c.f. 2.2 A New Paradigm: Sharing Economy* - allow for new business models such as renting (Ehret & Wirtz, 2010). According to Lovelock & Gummesson (2004), the main difference between G-D Logic and S-D Logic lies within the transfer of ownership. Services are transactions without transferring ownership rights, whereas trading goods for money shift the ownership (Lovestock & Gummesson, 2004) i.e. from company to customer.

In relation, Vogel, Cook, and Watchravesringkan (2019) identify new business models that do not focus on "purchase-to-own" offerings. Instead, these models offer access-based consumption (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012), hence temporal ownership. Such models are based on "*sharing, collaborating or access-based consumption and renting*" (Vogel et al., 2019, p. 474). Vogel, Cook, and Watchravesringkan (2019) continue by stating that such service is directly related to and showcase new service-models. A rental offer does not transfer the ownership of the actual product, however, it does offer a time-limited ownership feeling, which can help consumers meet their motivational goal(s) (Vogel et al., 2019).

In continuation, Hwang and Griffiths (2017) find that rental services will rise with Generation Y (Gen Y). They argue that Gen Y will ascribe less value to property ownership compared to previous generations. Newer generations (i.e. Gen Y and Gen Z) ascribe value to the temporal access and limited use of benefits connected to the product, as the lower price of renting allows for new and more frequent opportunities (Hwang & Griffiths, 2017). Conversely, it does not commit the customer to one sole product. With this, Gen Y and Z are attracted by the non-ownership model to a larger degree than previous generations.

2.4 Consumer behavior: Identifying new market opportunities

According to Kotler et al. (2012):

> *"Consumer behavior is the study of how individuals or groups buy, use and dispose goods, services or experiences to satisfy their needs and wants. The needs and wants of consumers often vary across different cultures, situations and individual characteristics" (*p. 246).

Thus, the notion of consumer behavior helps marketers segment consumers and identify emerging trends - all to deliver purposeful consumer propositions, which might result in new market opportunities (Kotler et al., 2012). Further, Inman, Campbell, Kirmani, and Price (2018) argue that understanding consumers is of uttermost importance, as this allows a company to be a competitive market player.

When applying the notion of consumer behavior, one must adopt a holistic marketing view to gain an understanding of consumers and their perceived value (Kotler et al., 2012). According to Kotler (2012), this can efficiently be done by segmenting consumers, hence focusing one's energy towards segments that match the value proposition.

Segmentation can happen in various forms e.g. behavioral, demographic, and geographic; however, a multi-perspective combining different factors is recommended (Kotler et al., 2012). This study takes its delimitation in: *an exploration of the Danish female consumer*. However, further segmentation is applied as it groups consumers, hence allows for several identifications of how consumers perceive the phenomenon of product rental service within the premium clothing industry. This can further help determine attractive markets and aid companies on where to focus their branding of such service (Kotler et al., 2012).

2.4.1 Generational cohorts: We are what we experience in early age

Generational Cohort Theory (GCT) is a well-known practice used by marketers to segment consumers based on shared values, beliefs, and attitudes (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011). According to Strauss & Howe (1991), generational cohorts can be defined as: *"groups of people born during the same time period and living through similar life experiences and significant emotional events during their formative years" (*p. 549) Due to similar upbringing it is assumed that generational cohorts share common habitus and cultural norms, which distinguished them from other generational cohorts and vice versa.

Whereas a generation may span 20-25 years (Eastman & Egri, 2012), a generational cohort depends on global and local events. Hence the year span of the generational cohort relies on how excessive external events influence individuals' belief systems (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011). In a nutshell, external events impact individuals to such an extent that it allows for segmenting.

Meredith and Schewe (1994) and Parment (2013) support the notion of GCT, as they argue that experiences and events happening between the age of 17 and 23 shape individuals' values regarding money, jobs, sexual behavior, tolerance, technological advancement, etc. Therefore, individuals who experience the same political, cultural, and economic events will generate similar value systems and together shape societal subcultures (Egri & Ralston, 2004). According to Parment (2013), such experiences are '*defining moments'*. For this study, we focus on following generational cohorts (Jackson, Stoel, & Brantley, 2010; Priporas, Stylos, & Fotiadis, 2017):

1. **Gen X: 1960 - 1979**
2. **Gen Y: 1980 - 1994 (also known as Millennials)**
3. **Gen Z: 1995 - 2015**

However, Markert (2004) notes a problem related to inconsistency in the use of dates and years to define the span of the identified generational cohorts, as there is no unified span for the different cohorts. Going forth, we adapt Jackson et al. (2010) and Priporas et al. (2017) definition of Gen X, Gen Y, and Gen Z, as they are commonly used and offer a reasonable spread within all three generational cohorts.

2.4.2 Generation X

Generation X is a small generational cohort compared to its predecessors (Baby Boomers) and descendants (Gen Y and Gen Z)(Jackson, 2010). Plausible reasons for the small cohort is the invention of birth control, as Gen X was the first cohort to be actively "wished for" by parents, as abortion previously was not an option in Denmark (Danmarkshistorien, 2019).

Gen X grew up with both economic and societal uncertainty (the late 80's recession, new gender, and family roles) (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011). This uncertainty mark has led to Gen X to be characterized as materialistic and impatient (Lissitsa, 2015). Further, the rise of women working led to new family roles and a significant increase of individualism for Gen X (Egri & Ralston, 2004).

Of relevance for this study is Gen X's change in behavior and lifestyle with the introduction of the Internet in 1992 (Jackson, 2010). Gen X became the first-ever generation to adopt the Internet, thus experience a shift in the behavior of e.g. working, shopping, and communicating. This shift in behavior led to new buying behaviors, as Gen X slowly gained informational access and became more informed. This has led to the characteristic that Gen X does not accept generalized and slick promotion (Lissitsa, 2011).

The addition of new technologies and trends led Gen X to value personal freedom and a more balanced work-lifestyle (Egri & Ralston, 2004). Further, they are more supportive of social liberalism and environmentalism compared to previous generational cohorts (Ergi & Ralston, 2004).

2.4.3 Generation Y

Generation Y, also known as Millennials, are individuals born between 1980 and 1994 (Jackson et al., 2010). Gen Y is the first high-tech generational cohort as they grew up with technology; computers, the Internet, and mobile phones (Jackson et al., 2010). The sudden access to new technologies results in Gen Y being a cohort that needs constant activation and instant gratification (Pitta, Eastman & Liu, 2012). They have grown up with continuous activation remedies, which have sparked them towards constant stimuli. These constant stimuli relate to the characteristic of multi-tasking. Gen Y is characterized as having a high ability to multi-task and a high ability to process new information; hence Gen Y is faster at adopting new trends than previous generations (Lissitsa, 2015). In relation, they have a high-stress tolerance when being introduced to new opportunities (Parment, 2013).

Notable for Gen Y is the value they ascribe to education. Gen Y is currently the most educated generation to date, as they ascribe high value to education and modern knowledge-based economy sharing (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011). According to Rogers (2010), characteristics such as high-level education allows for easier adoption of new technologies, which relates to Gen Y's upbringing and constant exposure to new technologies - making them tech-savvy. Seen in the light of Belk's (2014) argument that technology enables sharing economy to exist, Gen Y is, theoretically, a good fit due to their high tolerance and adaptability.

Gen Y is also known for their social consciousness and awareness towards environmental impact (Pitta et el., 2012). And so, they are more consumption-oriented and sophisticated in terms of shopping preferences (Pitta et al., 2012) than previous generational cohorts.

Important for Gen Y is its hedonic value measurements. Studies show that the atmospheric qualities of the shopping environment, perceptions of excitement, and social motivatons positively influence their willingness and desire to return to the shopping destination in the future (Parment, 2013). In other words, people of Gen Y tend to ascribe value to how they are perceived by the social environment/peer's (*normative goal*). This relates to Gen Y's strong need to profile themselves and express their desired views of self through the way they consume (Parment, 2013). Thus, Gen Y is the first generational cohort to draw greater attention to *social risks.*

In relation, Gen Y's demand has changed both academics and practitioner's perspective on retailing, as Gen Y wants more than just tangible products (Lissitsa, 2015). Gen Y expects experiences; to be entertained and to be surprised (Lissitsa, 2015). With this, Gen Y ascribes high value to the hedonic elements of the product and the service - the atmosphere, in-store service, and buying environment. Gen Y shops from a more rational perspective, hence brand loyalty is no longer as strong as previously (Parment, 2013). Lastly, Gen Y is stated to be the most powerful consumer group, as they have the highest disposable income compared to other generational cohorts (Jang et al., 2011).

2.4.4 Generation Z

The last generational cohort to be taken into account is the upcoming Generation Z. Gen Z spans from 1995 to 2015, hence, the oldest Gen Z'ers are 25 years old in the year of 2020. With this, a smaller part of Gen Z (18 - 25 years old) is stated to influence the clothing industry directly, as they hold their own purchasing power, thus not dependent on family income and parents' willingness to buy (Dst, 2020). We acknowledge that this line might be blurry due to varying economic dependency from one's family.

Gen Z is stated to be the first genuinely global generational cohort, as they grew up in a globalized society where cultures are more intertwined than ever before (Yarimoglu, 2017). In essence, Gen Z listens to the same music, shop the same brands, eat the same food, and speak common languages. Hence, Gen Z is the most homogenous cohort to date (Yarimoglu, 2017). Gen Z is born into an on-demand technology-driven world that allows for easy information access and constant interaction, hence greater transparency. This has created not only a more digital consumer, but also a curious and conscious one (Yarimoglu, 2017).

On the conscious note, Gen Z is considered ultra-aware of environmental impact, as they ascribe high value to organizations, brands, and industries that seek to lower carbon footprint. Thus, recycling programs, shared economies, and buy-back programs are attractive strategic initiatives to attract gen Z (Priporas, 2017).

Notable is Gen Z' shopping practices, which can be divided into two parts: **1)** an online information search, and **2)** an offline, in-store purchase decision (Yarimoglu, 2017). Despite their digital upbringing, studies show that Gen Z shops less online than the previous cohort, Gen Y. Therefore, it is stated that Gen Z likes to investigate and search the market online, but purchase items in-store, after having had physical contact and sight of the items. Further, studies show that Gen Z has an even lower brand loyalty than Gen Y, as they are less price sensitive (Yarimoglu, 2017).

2.5 Consumer Psychology

Applying theories of consumer psychology as an addition to consumer behavior can give marketer researchers and practitioners a more holistic picture of consumers. This is argued as the extensive field of consumer psychology provides an understanding of consumers' cognition, emotions, knowledge structures, and decision-making process. Thus, we seek to explore internal mechanisms, hence gain a more comprehensive understanding of Danish female consumers using the notion of consumer psychology (Tybout & Artz, 1994; Bettman, 1986). This is done through research about how psychological factors such as consumers' information process, judgment, and decision making influence their behavior (Tybout & Artz, 1994; Bettman, 1986). Hence, the theories from consumer psychology are argued as valuable support in order to gain knowledge of whether Danish consumers are ready to take on product renting services.

Furthermore, theories from evolutionary consumer psychology are addressed in order to obtain insights, as to how humans' biological predisposition influences consumer behavior. Yet, it is important to stress that evolutionary psychology is not a single theory, but meta-theory relying on hundreds of theories (Kock et al., 2018). From a first glance, it might appear as if humans' ancestral past does not influence modern humans' consumption. However, the following theories can be said to argue against this. Hereto, research examining humans' history of sharing and if sharing lies within the human nature will be addressed. This is done in order to assess whether consumers from an evolutionary perspective are ready to and attracted by the new business models relying on non-ownership.

2.5.1 From *Evolution Theory by Natural Selection* to *Evolutionary Psychology*

The field of evolutionary psychology draws upon the theory of evolution by natural selection developed by Charles Darwin (1859) in his book 'The Origin of Species'.

In short, evolution by natural selection is the process by which living species continually modify, develop, and adapt, which Darwin (1859) refers to as a doctrine of modification (p. 445).

Hence, the process of organisms to gradually change over time through changes in heritable physical and behavioral traits. A process that gives living organisms the ability to adapt to its environment and hereby securing survival and offspring. These modifications happen gradually, and over many generations. Moreover, Darwin (1859) argues that the newest generation of a species will be more complicated and highly developed compared to earlier generations and hence better predisposed to survive. This can be put in relation to Herbert Spencer (1965) who coined the phrase "*survival of the fittest*" (p. 444), meaning that only the organisms capable of adapting to the current environment were able to reproduce and hereby secure survival of the given species (Hull, 2002; Wasieleski & Hayibor, 2009). The mechanisms responsible for the changes in species are what is referred to by "natural selection" (Wasieleski & Hayibor, 2009).

Hereby evolution theory by natural selection laid the foundation for the view of 'nativism'. The central premise behind 'nativism' is that certain skills and abilities are inherited and hereby 'native' (Fodor, 2001) - in other words, hardwired into the human brain. This is in contradiction to the ' blank slate' view, which denies human nature by believing that the human mind has no innate traits and thus is a blank slate (Steven Pinker, 2003). Hence the discussion of nature vs. nurture. Evolutionary psychology rests on 'nativism', and Kock, Josiassen, and Assaf (2018) define the founding idea behind evolutionary psychology as:

> "*The fundamental premise is that modern human beings have inherited psychological mechanisms that predispose them to act in ways that helped our ancestors to survive*" (p. 180).

Hereby, supporting the view that human nature does influence how consumers behave, mainly based on survival relevant needs (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013; Schaller et al., 2017). The ethologist Nikolaas Tinbergen (1963) presents several explanations of behavior, and with this, how survival relevant needs can be explained and identified. The explanations of behavior rely on diverse views and can be divided into four types (Griskevicius & Durante, 2017). However, all four are correct at the same time. Nevertheless, each one of them provides different fundamental types of explanations for the behavior (Griskevicius & Durante, 2017, p. 5):

1. Proximate mechanism – the relative immediate cause of a behavior
2. Development – how the behavior develops through a lifetime
3. Ultimate Function – the adaptive problem the behavior ultimately solves
4. Evolutionary history – the rise of the behavior in the species

Current consumer behavior relies on the *proximate mechanism* as an explanation of human behavior. Therefore, most marketer researchers and practitioners within the field only address the relative and immediate cause of consumer behavior, which only gives partial insight into the behavior (Griskevicius & Durante, 2017). In comparison, evolutionary psychology focuses on the *ultimate function* as an explanation by looking into which adaptive problem(s) the behavior solves; what survival relevant need it stems from (Griskevicius & Durante, 2017). Hereby it provides a deeper evolutionary and biological understanding of human behavior and thus gives valuable insights.

2.5.2 Fundamental motives

Recent years research stream, combining evolutionary theory and psychology, has provided great insights on **1)** what these survival relevant needs are and **2)** how they transform into fundamental motives (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013; Schaller et al., 2017). Griskevicius and Kendrick (2013) have presented a list of fundamental motives inspired by Kenrick, Griskevicius, Neuberg, and Mark Schaller's (2010) renewal of Maslow's (1943) 'Pyramid of Needs'. With the motives, Griskevicius and Kendrick (2013) seek to explain how humans are hardwired to secure survival. The motives are as follows (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013, p. 376):

1. Evading physical harm
2. Avoiding disease
3. Making friends
4. Attaining status
5. Acquiring a mate
6. Keeping that mate
7. Caring for family

These motives were very relevant for our human ancestors' survival and can still be identified as important for modern-day consumers (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 20013). However, how consumers, for instance, evade physical harm or avoid diseases today might be displayed differently nowadays due to societal changes, but originates from the same fundamental motive (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013).

Hence, using the above motives when studying consumer behavior is argued to help scholars and practitioners gain valuable insight, as to why consumers act the way they do from an evolutionary perspective. Conversely, it can also be used to predict how consumers receive a new product or service concept based on how it appeals to humans' fundamental motives. Therefore, this theory is valuable for assessing if consumers are ready and accustomed to sharing products, which is an essential premise for product rental services to exist.

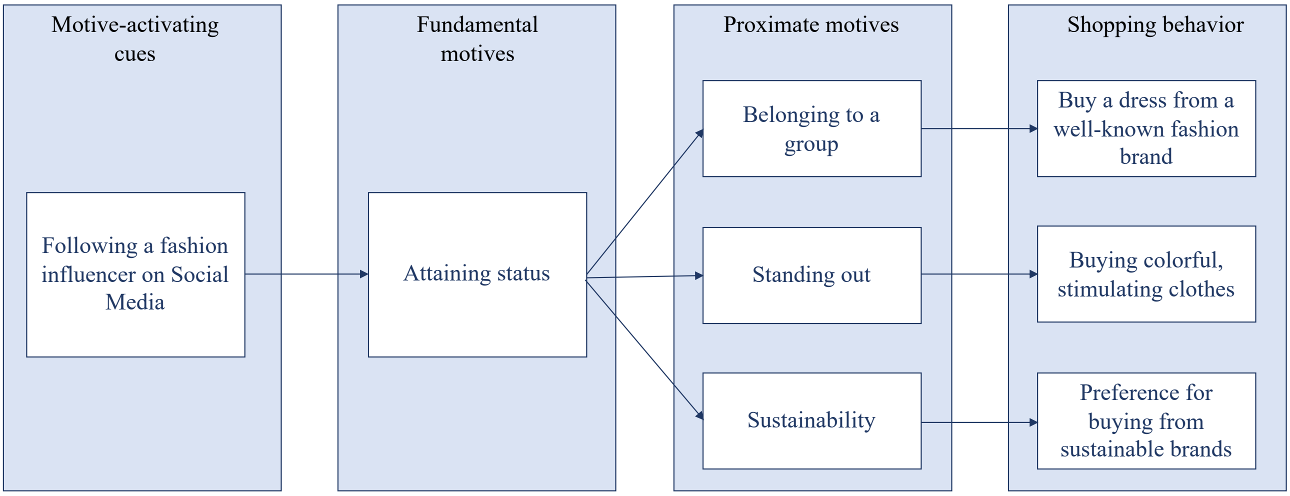

Figure 3. An Evolutionary Psychology-based Process Model using a Fashion Example

(Adapted from Kock et al., 2018)

We acknowledge that the theory of fundamental motives is highly related to current consumer psychology theories, which relies on the proximate motives for consumer behavior. These are more closely related to consumption and thus vital to achieving a holistic view of consumers' motivations and how they evaluate products and services. Therefore, the theories can be argued to supplement each other and together offer valuable insights on motivations in relation to the consumption of clothing.

2.5.3 Sharing

An essential element for the sharing economy to be successful is that consumers are willing to share services and products. Continuing in the notion of Belk (2007) *cf. 2.2 A new paradigm: Sharing*

Economy, sharing can be defined as: "*the act and process of distributing what is ours to others for their use*" (p. 126) and vice versa. Meaning that one can share by giving others access to something in possession or by receiving something others possess.

Hamilton (1963), who has researched kin selection, states from an evolutionary view that helping and sharing (e.g. food) is mainly seen in families, as families share the same genes and thereby help to secure the survival of one's genes (Durante & Griskevicius, 2017). This can be seen as an expression of the fundamental motive of 'caring for family' (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013). On the one hand, Belk (2007) states that humans started to share due to altruistic reasons. Thus, we sometimes share merely to show care and kindness towards others. On the other hand, Belk (2007) argues that this way of sharing is rarer today, as many have started to share for egoistic reasons. Following this, Dunn, Gilbert, and Wilson (2011) argue that sharing can be performed to obtain one's own happiness. In other words, by sharing we get a stronger feeling of happiness, as we are aware of the effect that the 'gift' has on the receiver. Allowing people to access one's good(s) can be seen as an act of prosocial spending, which theoretically makes one happier (Dunn, Gilbert & Wilson, 2011). This prosocial spending might also be done to make friends or enhance one's status within a group. Thus, the fundamental motives of 'making friends' and 'attaining status' by Griskevicius and Kenrick (2013) can be fulfilled through sharing. This happiness is bound in the self-verification, which one experiences when acting in a charitable manner.

Yet, Belk (2007) elaborates that we prefer to share with someone we trust and that we might do it to advance our own self-image. Hence, it is presumed people tend to share with others from their intermediate circle, which they have a strong and positive connection to like family members and friends (Belk, 2010; Hamilton, 1963). Conversely, Belk (2010) claims that sharing is a valuable tool to create a strong connection amongst people and thereby a way of building a positive and trustworthy relationship. Moreover, sharing is argued to possibly help to obtain Griskevicius and Kenrick's (2013) fundamental motives of 'making friends', 'acquiring a mate', 'keeping a mate' and 'caring for family'. Further, it is argued that altruistic sharing of e.g. food was actually done with multiple reasons in mind. Firstly, to help others out and be kind. Secondly, to make sure others will share their food, if they themselves needed help someday – thus to prevent future starvation, which can be related to the motive of 'evading physical harm' (Saad, 2013; Griskevicius and Kenrick's 2013).

Altruistic or not, it is definitely an evolutionary and historical perspective that humans have practiced sharing. When looking into the modern consumer and their options for sharing, we experience a gradual increase in sharing activities (Belk, 2014). This rise of organizations facilitating or offering sharing services and products is strongly driven by the development of the Web 2.0 and its ability to create online sharing platforms that connect people across cities and countries - allowing sharing to move beyond kinship (Belk, 2010; Belk 2014). This has facilitated platforms such as Airbnb and Gomore, which make traditional sharing of cars and homes more accessible to consumers (Airbnb, 2020; Gomore, 2020). However, such services can be argued to rely more on economic transactions than sharing, as consumers only gain access to the service for a limited time, usually in the exchange of money. Therefore, the modern way of sharing is assumed to move into the sphere of egoism because of the possible economic benefits (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012), which Belk (2007) states will spoil the altruistic motives for sharing.

This new kind of sharing is also referred to as collaborative consumption (Belk, 2014; Binninger, Ourahmoune & Robert, 2015). In regard to collaborative consumption Binninger et al. (2015) have conducted discursive research on whether consumers are motivated by the sustainable benefits of the concept. The findings showed that collaborative consumption is assessed as being more respectful to the environment - from the view of the organizations offering it and the consumers (Binninger et al., 2015). This is supported by Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh's (2010) study, wherein they found that environmental 'green' products indicate status and thus enhance the buyer's prosocial status. However, Binninger et al. 's (2015) study also found that utilitarian and economic motivatons were the dominating factors. Thus, there are multiple reasons for sharing; egoistic, economic, environmental, ethical, altruistic, utilitarian, and evolutionary. These support the fact that humans are willing to share and biological predisposed to it. To sum up, the modern ways of sharing help to obtain Griskevicius and Kenrick's (2013) fundamental motives of 'attaining status'.

2.6. *Consumer Perceived Value*

2.6.1 A trade-off between quality and price?

Consumer Perceived Value has been a strategic imperative for marketers since the 1990s (Vantrappen, 1992; Forester, 1999; Jensen, 2001). In 1992, Albrecht argued that: "*The only thing that matters in the new world of quality is delivering customer value*" (p. 7), elaborating Harnett (1998) reasons that: "*when [retailers] satisfy people-based needs, they are delivering value, which puts them* *in a much stronger position in the long term*" (p. 21).

In continuation hereof, Levy (1999) coins the term *value-driven consumer*. As illustrated here, the notion of *Consumer Perceived Value* (Henceforth, *CPV*) gained ground amongst both practitioners and academics, but more importantly, it demonstrated a starting-point of the consumer-centric approach. They argue that a consumer-centric approach is key to channeling resources more effectively and meeting customer expectations better compared to the conventional product-based approach (Garvin, 1983; Morgan, 1985) – a new belief system that permeates much subsequent marketing theory hereunder SD-Logic.

In 1988, Zeithaml suggested that perceived value could be regarded as: "consumer's *overall assessment of the utility of a product (or service) based on perceptions of what is received and what is given*" (p. 14). This definition was based on four consumer response patterns (CRP) that she found in her research: **1)** value is low price, **2)** value is whatever I want in a product, **3)** value is the quality I get for the price I pay, and **4)** value is what I get for what I give (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 13). These diverse meanings of value provide a partial explanation for the complexity of conceptualizing/ measuring the value construct, and why it has not been done before (Bowbrick, 1982; Monroe & Krishnan, 1985; Olson, 1977).

The first CRP finds that some respondents associate value with a low price. This finding corresponds to that of Hoffman (1984), which reveals the salience of price in the consumer value equation – amongst others (Schechter, 1984; Bishop, 1984).

In the second CRP, respondents emphasize the benefits they receive from the product or service as the most crucial component – making it similar to economists' definition of utility; a subjective measure of the satisfaction/usefulness that results from consumption (Schechter, 1984).

The third CRP conceptualizes value as a trade-off between the 'give' component, *price,* and the 'get' component, *quality*. A definition that is consistent with other scholars of the time (Dodds & Monroe, 1984; Doyle, 1984).

Lastly, the fourth CRP considers all relevant 'get' and 'give' components in the description of value. In other words, a "*ratio of attributes weighted by their evaluations divided by price weighted by its evaluation*" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 13-14) similar to the findings of Sawyer and Dickson (1984). Thus, all relevant choice criteria are in use.

As seen here, the most common definition of perceived value is found in the ratio between quality and price, which may also be termed '*value-for-money'* (Chang & Wildt, 1994; Monroe, 1990). However, Zeithaml (1988) also finds that value is weighted differently amongst consumers, and thus *CPV* goes beyond the two components: *quality and price*. For the same reason, there are more 'get'/'give' components and ratio compositions to account for. Zeithaml (1988) argues that value is a high-level concept as it is both individualistic and personal. Consumers may implicitly include other 'get' components to the value equation that are in themselves higher-level abstractions i.e. *prestige* and *convenience*. Here, one has to look more nuanced at intrinsic and extrinsic [lower level] attributes as these may add value through a higher-level abstraction.

As an example, Zeithaml (1988) finds that consumers looked for *Quality* in fruit juice, which they found through the attribute "*100% fruit juice*" and in the sensory attributes: taste and texture. More importantly, was obtaining higher-level abstractions as *convenience* and *appreciation* when buying juice. *Convenience* was found through fully reconstituted, ready-to-serve, and easy-to-open containers using both intrinsic and extrinsic attributes. *Appreciation* was obtained when children drank the beverages the mothers (as consumers) selected or evidenced thanks. The psychological benefit, *appreciation*, was not evoked directly through intrinsic and extrinsic attributes, but came through strongly in the laddering process. This indirect inferencing process shows the difficulty in using traditional utility and multi-attribute models in assessing perceived value. The intrinsic values are not always linked to value; instead they may be filtered through other personal benefits that are abstract (Holbrook & Corfman, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988).

Such arguments have led scholars to question the trade-off between quality and price, arguing that it is too simplistic. This is especially seen in relation to the service output retailers are able to offer, and the use of resources carried out by consumers (Bolton & Drew, 1991). As an example, Porter (1990) suggests that service output should include special features and post-purchase service in order to provide superior value to the buyer. Vettas (1999) elaborates that these post-purchase services should be seen in the light of consumer burdens, which are not all monetary resources, but also time resources.

2.6.2 A multidimensional construct

Such arguments from both Zeithaml (1988) and Porter (1990) led to a shift from a cognitive oriented perspective to a more experiential perspective. Further, Holbrook and Hirsch (1982) argue from an experiential perspective, as they believe that symbolic, hedonic, and esthetic aspects are present in consumers' decision-making process. Researchers, as Batra and Ahtola (1990) supported this discrepancy between utilitarian and hedonic measures - often referred to as 'thinking and feeling' dimensions. These findings led to the rise of theories relying on both utilitarian and hedonic components (e.g. Babin, Darden & Griffin, 1994).

In 1991, Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991a; 1991b) developed a broader theoretical framework. This framework concerns the perceived values that influence consumer choice. Sheth et al. (1991a, 1991b) assess consumer choice as a function of multiple consumer consumption values, which influence depends on the specific choice situation. The theory examines the consumption values and seeks to explain consumers' choices on several levels: *buy level* (to buy or not), *product level* (product A vs. B) and *brand level* (brand A or B) (Sheth et al., 1991b). Likewise, the theory is tested on a wide range of product types (consumer durables, non-durables, services, and industrial goods).

The framework consists of five consumption values: **1)** functional value, **2)** social value, **3)** emotional value, **4)** epistemic value and **5)** conditional value. Sheth et al. (1991b) address the values in relation to alternatives, thus the functional value of alternatives.

The *Functional* value can be described as follows: "*The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity for functional, utilitarian or physical performance*." (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 160). Thus, it concerns the functional value in relation to attributes as reliability, durability, and price (Sheth et al., 1991b). Furthermore, Sheth et al. (1991) find that functional value to be the most decisive influence on consumer choices and interpretations.

Sheth et al. (1991) describe the *Social* value as: "*The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific groups*" (p. 161). This value primarily influences the use of visible products or services, as these are easier to display for others (Belk's 1988; Levy, 1959). The social value can be related to theories of conspicuous consumption and signaling (Han, Nunes and Dréze, 2010). For example, a handbag or dress might be chosen due to the brand and designer behind it; thus, for the social image it contributes with rather than for its functional value (Han, Nunes and Dréze, 2010).

The *Emotional* value is described as: "*The perceived utility from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states*" (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 161). Hence, the emotional value focuses on the emotions consumers relate to products and services and even suggests that consumers' choices might not be driven by cognitive motives.

The *Epistemic* value is presented as: "*The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge*." (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 162). The epistemic value, therefore, refers to the value gained when trying a new experience or a product that can provide an opportunity to learn or be curious.

The *Conditional* value is "*The perceived utility acquired by an alternative as the result of the specific situation or set of circumstances facing the choice maker*." (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 162). In other words, the perceived value of products or services will depend on the situation – for instance, some products or services only have seasonal value (e.g. Christmas stockings or visiting Santa) or are used in emergencies (band-aid or ambulance service) (Sheth et al., 1991b)**.**

As mentioned, each of the consumption values can make various contributions depending on the specific context. However, common for all five consumption values is that they all seek to clarify *CPV.* Meaning that any or all of the five consumption values might be present in one situation and will, from time to time, contribute with different aspects. For example, one might choose to buy a yellow t-shirt on sale **1)** as it is cheap (functional value), **2)** because the color yellow lightens one's mood (emotional), and **3)** since it is made by a well-known designer (social), etc. Furthermore, the theory states that the consumption values might influence differently depending on the level of choice (*buy level, product level,* or *brand level*) (Sheth et al., 1991b). In regard to how the consumption values relate or not, Sheth et al., (1991b) state: "*The consumptions values identified by the theory are independent, relating additively and contributing incrementally to choice*" (p. 163).

2.6.3 The need for a new multiple-item scale

With the rise of Sheth et al.'s (1991a, 1991b) framework, the conceptualization of CPV as a multidimensional scale has been gaining popularity amongst scholars. The most acknowledged and widely used scale is Sweeney and Soutar's (2001) interpretation of CPV and their belonging arguments, known as *Consumer Perceived Value: The multiple-item Scale* (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).

As stated above, *cf. 2.6.2 A multidimensional construct,* the functional value of Sheth et al.'s (1991) framework showed to be the most decisive influence on consumer choices and interpretations. Thus, functional value plays a tremendous role in analyzing consumers' perceived value. Sweeney and Soutar (2001) argue the functional dimension as being too simplistic and inclusive in its area of investigation, as the dimensions cover both durability, reliability, and price. According to Sweeney & Soutars (2001), such simplistic dimensions do not contribute to an accurate and fair image of CPV. The main arguments are **1)** the subdimensions: durability and reliability can be seen as measurements for *quality* (Sebastianelli & Tamini, 2002; Garvin, 1987), and **2)** *quality* and *price* should not be investigated within one dimension. With this, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) indicate that a proper framework of CPV should consist of at least two individual dimensions: *price* and *quality*. The reasoning for this is that quality has a positive effect on CPV (get component), whereas price is said to have a more negative effect (give component) (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Zeithaml, 1988).

Further, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) present the third dimension; *emotion, which* stems from MacKay's (1999) study. This study proved that emotional factors play a role in every purchase decision. Further, MacKay (1999) argues that besides *emotion*, other factors still play a significant role. In conclusion, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) discuss several dimensions, all with the purpose of clarifying and contributing to CPV and ensuring a proper and holistic ground. This settles their framework and study to a final CPV multiple-item scale consisting of *Price, Quality, Emotion*, and *Social* dimensions (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001):

Price has always been a main variable and the driving role in marketing strategy, as price is set to play a dominant role for both companies and customers (Kotler et al., 2012). The dimension of price looks into the utility derived from a product or service and the positive experience of lower costs than estimated. The dimension of price fulfills traditional marketers' focus on price – often thought of as main dimension.

Price is often seen in relation to quality, as the two dimensions cover the functional aspect of value (Sheth et al., 1991a). Further, according to Zeithaml's (1988) findings, consumers tend to estimate value either on 'low price' or on balance between quality and price - also known as value-for-money.

Quality relates to the perceived quality of both product and service, hence the expected performance of the offering (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). *Quality* covers the importance of products being well-made, in an acceptable standard and consistent performance.

The third dimension of Sweeney & Soutar (2001) is ***Emotion.*** This dimension measures the utility derived from consumers' feelings and/or the affective states that a product or service generates for the consumer. The *Emotion* dimension is much related to the individual experience, whether this is positive or negative. A high *CPV* could, amongst others, consist of the feelings: happiness, and joy.

The ***Social*** dimension evaluates the consumers' perspective on utility derived from the offering's ability to enhance social self-concepts. To a larger extent, this dimension relates to the antecedent *Social Acceptance* stemming from Barbopoulos and Johansson's (2017b) Consumer Motivation Scale. A high *Social* value encompasses improvement in social status and/or positive feedback from members of the consumer's social sphere (Prior, 2013).

A pre-purchase scale

The multiple-item scale of *CPV* is a construct with roots in the pre-purchase stage (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Current constructs centers around the post-purchase and post-evaluation stage, thus an investment must have been made (Hunt, 1977). Post-purchase and post-evaluation are best described through the notion of *customer satisfaction*, which depends on previous experiences having bought or used the product or service. Further, satisfaction is conceptualized as a unidimensional construct. To support *CPV's* belonging in the pre-purchase stage, Sweeney & Soutar (2001) draws on the universal definition on perceived value: "*Value perception can be generated without the product or service being bought or used*" (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001, p. 206). Furthermore, studies such as Yang and Preston (2004) apply both the multiple-item scale of *CPV* and *customer satisfaction* measures to clarify value of a product both prior (*CPV*) and after purchase (*customer satisfaction*).

CPV from a retailing perspective

Sweeney & Soutar (2001) argue consumers to be highly value-driven. Hence the construct of *CPV* is of uttermost importance for retailers, as they often operate on highly competitive markets, thus seek to stay ahead of what consumers desire (Kotler et al. 2012). In relation, previous studies show that when retailers deliver value, it puts them in a much stronger market position, hence increases business performance in the long term (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). According to Sweeney & Soutar (2001), CPV influences on consumers' decision making, as marketers, staff, and strategists have the opportunity to aggregate value amongst consumers. Further, acknowledge one's consumers (being aware of value-driven elements) might spark consumer loyalty, which studies show will generate a better market position and higher profits (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).

Chapter 3
Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

Gill and Johnson (2002) define theory as: "*a formulation regarding the cause and effect relationship between two or more variables, which may or may not have been tested*" (p. 229). This chapter suggests a knowledge gap in current theory on use-oriented product-service systems - more specifically, product rental services within the fashion industry - and so, we set out relationships between variables that need testing. Whetten (1989) contends that *good* theory must ensure a plausible, coherent explanation for why we expect certain relationships of our data – expectations that are based on existing theoretical propositions and formed to hypotheses. Such hypotheses should be tested in a quantifiable manner in order to guarantee a scientific revised or new theory, thus progressively making more sense of the complex world we live in (Saunders et al., 2009; Field, 2009).

Going forth, the analysis of the sharing economy phenomenon, *product rental service,* rests on our assertion that the premium fashion market is attractive within in the fashion industry to establish such a business model in. This assertion is built on three reasons. Firstly, we find no existing literature investigating *product rental service* within the fashion industry. Secondly, we compare *product rental service* to literature's characterization of the fast fashion, premium fashion, and luxury fashion industry, and thirdly, we take real-life case-examples into account.

Scholars argue that the purpose of product rental service is to **a)** get more value out of underutilized assets to lower environmental impact (Mont, 2002; Sposato et al., 2017) and **b)** enable product access to satisfy customer needs (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Belk, 2014). As the business model is based on retaining ownership, the company is now responsible for the product throughout its life cycle. Thus, the product must be durable and of higher quality, as they are used more frequently (Sposato et al., 2017). This appears incompatible with the fast fashion business model, which primary objective is to quickly produce products in a cost-efficient manner (mass production) to maintain a profitable position (high turnover) (Bhardwaj & Fairhurst, 2010; Bruce & Daly, 2006). As an outcome, products are generally of low quality, poor craftsmanship, produced for a short lifespan, and offered at a low price to target a wide range of consumers. Due to the 'longevity' and 'high quality' characterization of product rental service, the premium- and luxury fashion industry is found to be a better fit due to its focus on consistently delivering premium quality (Okonkwo, 2007); a heritage of craftsmanship (Nueno & Quelch, 1998); price exclusivity (Moore & Birtwistle, 2005). However, scholars Aggarwal, Jun & Huh (2011) argue that the scarcity proposition specific to luxury brands functions as a status symbol, thus strongly congruent to a consumer's self-concept, which makes it so desirable. For the same reason, we argue that the brand identity of any given luxury fashion brand may be diluted the more accessible it becomes. Hence, product rental service resembles more to the premium fashion industry.

In continuation, the existing case-examples are within the Danish premium fashion market for women - more specifically, GANNI and By Malene Birger (GANNI, 2019; By Malene Birger, 2019). We believe that these arguments are sufficient evidence for moving forth. Consequently, we establish our research in the field of the Danish premium fashion market for women, thus, the following hypotheses will derive from this.

In the following, we will present our theoretical framework with hypotheses. We will start by presenting the relationship between *Consumer Perceived Value* and outcome variables: *Willingness-to-Rent, Brand Image, Brand Authenticity, and Willingness-to-Buy.* Further, we will introduce the framework antecedents: *Value-for-Money, Quality, Stimulation, Comfort, Ethics, Social Acceptance,* and *Sustainability*, which is controlled by the moderator: *Age*. Each section is built on a review of the construct and a hypothesis development.

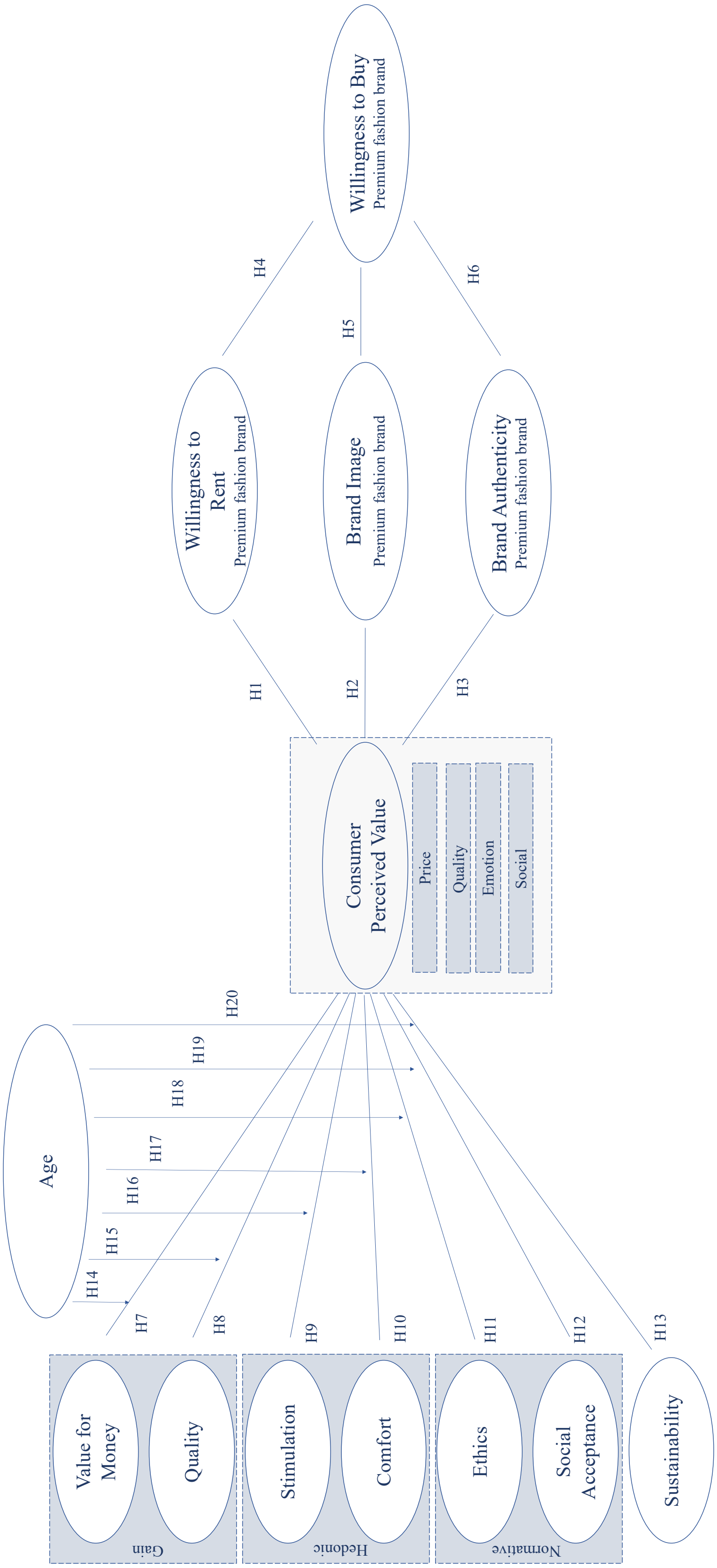

Figure 4. Theoretical Framework

3.1 Outcome Variables

3.1.1 Development of *Willingness-to-Rent* hypothesis

Review of *Willingness-to-Rent*

As this research seeks to investigate a product rental service within the premium fashion industry, we ought to understand whether Danish consumers are willing to adapt to such system and challenge their traditional market behavior; moving from 'purchase for ownership' to 'purchase for usage' (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Belk, 2014). Consequently, the behavioral intention of the customer to purchase - also known as the construct *Willingness-to-Buy* (Cheac et al., 2015) - will be slightly different, as the consumer purchases temporary access to a given product (rent) and not ownership of it (Botsman & Rogers, 2011). However, as a product rental service relies on a monetary investment in exchange, an adaption of *Willingness-to-Buy* is found applicable. Thus, the construct *Willingness-to-Rent* (Henceforth, *WtR*) is developed.

The construct *WtR* thereby concerns the intention to rent a product. A higher *WtR* indicates a high probability that a consumer wants to rent, but not necessarily that they actually rent it. On the contrary, a lower *WtR* does not mean an absolute impossibility to rent (Dodds et al., 1991; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Thus, it is seen as a conscious plan of the consumer to make an effort to purchase (rent) a brand (Spears & Singh, 2004), which is much determined by the perceived benefits and value (Dodds et al., 1991).

As implied above, we find no established academic construct of *WtR*. Thus, we seek not only to contribute to this research, but academia within the fields of sharing economy and marketing, as product rental services are gaining ground in several industries (Botsman & Rogers, 2011).

Development of hypothesis

As previously mentioned, our study seeks to investigate the phenomenon of product rental services, known in the literature as use-oriented product-service systems. This is done in the premium fashion market. The theoretical background is that consumers are co-creators of value (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Thus, consumers hold the power to decide what creates value and whether the business initiative will succeed.

The intended measurement of the relationship between *CPV* and *WtR* springs from established theory, as Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012) argue: "*Instead of buying and owning things, consumers want access to goods and prefer to pay for the experience of temporarily accessing them*" (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012, p. 881). With this, Bardhi and Eckhardt argue that consumers 1) are likely to ascribe value to the rental service, and **2)** are willing to rent, as consumers gradually adopt the concept of temporal access. In our study, we seek to investigate whether or not these claims are valid amongst Danish female consumers and in the context of premium fashion rental.

Moreover, it can be argued that use-oriented product-service systems create value for consumers, as rental services relate to the consumer-driven parameters - conscious consumerism, sustainable, minimalist lifestyle trends and sharing economy initiatives; no-waste & non-ownership (Zhang, Jahromi & Kizildag, 2017; Belk, 2014; Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2017). However, to academically shed light on this, we analyze how consumers perceive product rental service through the notion of *Consumer Perceived Value.* To our knowledge, no study has yet investigated this.

Finally, Sweeney & Soutar (2004) argue that if a consumer perceives a product or service to be of high value (*CPV*), he or she is also more likely to buy the product (*Willingness-to-Buy*). However, as we explore the phenomenon of product rental services, Sweeney and Soutar's (2001) notion will be applied to the concept of renting, *cf. Review of Willingness-to-Rent*. Thus, we hypothesize:

> **H1:** A higher *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*] will increase *Willingness-to-Rent* from [*a premium fashion rental service*]

3.1.2 Development of Brand Image hypothesis

Review of *Brand Image*

Marketing scholars argue that in order to build a strong competitive position in the market, brands must be able to reinforce their image (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993; Park & Srinivasan, 1994). Accordingly, activities such as public relations and advertising have been stressed throughout traditional marketing academia as crucial levers to engage with (Aaker, 1996). However, it has recently been demonstrated that consistent ethical corporate behaviors can also lead to an improved *Brand Image* (Iglesias and Ind, 2016). The latter will be the starting point from which we will make our investigation on whether a *use-oriented product-service system* can enhance the *Brand Image* (henceforth, *BI*) of a premium fashion brand.

BI has been researched since the 1950s (Merz et al., 2009), however, there are still conflicting views on its conceptualization and measurement (Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990; Hsieh & Li, 2008; Keller, 1993; Park & Rabolt, 2009). Yet, we find that the majority of scholars conceptualize that *BI* is the perception a customer associates with a specific brand (Anselmsson et al., 2014; Cho & Fiore, 2015; Keller, 1993). Thus, *BI* is what people external to the organization believe is true about the brand; their feelings, expectations, and thoughts towards a product or a service's appeal, functionality, ease of use, fame, and overall value (Keller, 1993). Keller (1993) argues that brand associations consist of attributes, benefits, and attitudes.

Attributes are the descriptive features that characterize a product or service, essentially what the consumer thinks the product or service is; what is involved in the consumption of it. This evaluation distinguishes in product- and non-product-related attributes. Product-related attributes are the necessary ingredients for performing the product or service function. In contrast, the non-product related attributes ascribe to external aspects related to the consumption i.e. user and usage imagery (Keller, 1993).

Benefits are the personal values that consumers attach to the identified product and service attributes; what can the product or service do for them. Benefits are distinguished into three categories: *functional, experiential*, and *symbolic*. Functional benefits link to Griskevicius & Kenrick's (2013) fundamental motives i.e. 'Evading physical harm’ and ‘avoiding disease’. Experiential relates to cognitive stimulation; what does/would it feel like to use the service (Keller, 1993). Finally, symbolic relates to extrinsic advantages i.e. underlying needs for personal expression or social approval (Solomon, 1983).

Lastly, Wilkie (1986) defines ***attitudes*** as a consumer's overall evaluation of the brand. Hence, attitudes relate to the beliefs about the attributes and benefits of a product or service, which constitute the *perceived quality* of the brand (product-related attributes and functional and experiential benefits) and whether it can serve as a *'value-expressive' function* (non-product related attributes and symbolic benefits).

These associations vary according to their *favorability, strength*, and *uniqueness*, which help serve differential responses among other brands.

Favorability of brand association is defined as: "*consumers believe the brand has attributes and benefits that satisfy their needs and wants such that a positive overall attitude is formed*" (Keller, 1993, p. 5). MacKenzie (1986) argues that a consumer is unlikely to view an attribute or benefit as good if it is not considered important in their everyday life. Therefore, this evaluation is assessed as situational or context-dependent to consumers' particular goals with consumption.

The strength of brand association depends on how the information of a product or service is encoded and further maintained (stored). Thus, how much a consumer thinks about the information and the manner in which the consumer thinks about it. Strength is simply when a consumer actively thinks and/or elaborates on the significance of a service because stronger memories are created (Keller, 1993; Loftus & Loftus, 1980).

The uniqueness of brand associations is closely related to that of competing brands, thus, defined as: "*to what degree consumers feel that the brand differs from competing brands*" (Netemeyer et al., 2004, p. 211). This is one of the central cornerstones in marketing and is closely related to 'unique selling point' – thus, sustainable competitive advantage – which gives consumers a compelling reason for purchasing from that particular brand (Keller, 1993).

Ultimately, the more *favorable, strengthened*, and *unique* brand association a consumer has of a product or service, the more successful *BI* the consumer has of the brand. A successful *BI* helps to increase the likelihood of consumers buying a product or service of the organization (Hsieh, Pan & Setiono, 2004), thus enhance the brand's position in the market, and if sustained increase market share and brand performance (Park, Jaworski & MacInnis, 1986). Finally, it has been concluded that a successful *BI* will lead to brand loyalty and enhanced brand equity – two key drivers within marketing (Keller, 1993).

For the same reason, we find it relevant to evaluate *CPV* of a use-oriented product-service system*,* more specifically, a rental service*,* and how this impacts a premium fashion brand's image. In order to investigate this, we have adapted the brand image item scale of 6-items by Lam, Ahearne, and Schillewaert (2012). This is divided into the dimensions: **1)** Brand Prestige (a composition related to Favorability of brand association) and **2)** Brand Uniqueness (related to Uniqueness of brand associations).

Development of hypothesis

Sweeney and Soutar (2001) argue that if a product offering is perceived to be of value to the consumer, it will increase the overall brand perception, thus strengthen the *BI*

Taking the importance of *BI* into account as well as the changing landscape where: **1)** consumers value a shared consumption model as well as brand experiences and interactions (Belk, 2007; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Shobeiri, 2012), and **2)** businesses are increasingly adopting sustainable and ethical behavior (Rasche et al., 2017; Matten & Crane, 2005), little is known about what type of sustainable service a brand can take advantage of in order to strengthen its consumer bond and boost its image. Empirical evidence on this subject might help managers make better decisions on sustainable strategies in their brand-building process.

With the notion of Mont (2002) and Sposato et al. (2017), who find use-oriented product-service systems to be of sustainable nature, we find it essential to start this debate by investigating the relationship between *product rental services* and *BI* within the premium fashion market. The study of sustainability and ethics within marketing focuses primarily on the influence on socially responsible practices on: *product evaluation* (Brown and Dacin, 1997); *financial performance and market value* (Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006); *customer trust* (Swaen & Chumpitaz, 2008); and *purchase behavior* (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Luschs et al., 2010). However, and although scholars argue that it should be in the brand's best interest to behave ethically and provide sustainable solutions (e.g. Morsing, 2006; Story & Hess, 2010), this has limited research within brand management. Further, the few studies that exist are either theoretical or focused on goods. Interestingly, there is very little empirical research at the crossroad of business sustainability and corporate brands in the field of *service*. Therefore, we find it interesting to investigate the relationship between *product rental services* and *BI* within the premium fashion market. We believe the relationship to be positive. Hence, we hypothesize:

H2: A higher *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*] will increase *Brand Image* of [*a premium fashion brand*]

3.1.3 Development of Brand Authenticity hypothesis

Review of *Brand Authenticity*

It has previously been found that brands play an important role in consumers' identity projects. Thus, consumers rely heavily on brands to express themselves and to self-enhance (Aaker, 1996; Kirmani, 2009). Further, it is found in *cf. 2.1 A world in change* that growing transparency, as well as an enhanced focus on sustainability, is gaining ground. Consequently, we now find consumers that look for brands that are original, genuine and relevant; an increased search for authenticity (Arnould & Price, 2000; Beverland, 2006; Morhart et al., 2014). Gilmore and Pine (2007) argue that: "*authenticity has overtaken quality as the prevailing purchasing criteria, just as quality overtook cost, and as cost overtook availability*" (p. 5). This change is especially seen in Generation Z and Y (Pitta et al., 2012). For Generation Z, an authentic reputation is the second most important criterion when choosing to support a company (BCG, 2014).

Thus, we find it relevant to understand the nature of a branded product rental service and whether consumers experience this as a meaningful, authentic effort of a premium fashion brand.

Brand authenticity is not a new construct; however, only little examination of the construct has been conducted (Morhart et al., 2014). Therefore, scholars have not yet reached a commonly accepted conceptualization of it. On the contrary, the most recognized research refers to a variety of brand attributes (e.g. integrity, originality, continuity of heritage, sustainability, sincerity, etc.) when defining brand authenticity (henceforth, *BA*)

Boyle (2004) argues that authenticity is found in admirability, which is characterized by virtues that go beyond honesty. A brand must stand for something praiseworthy, focus beyond its own success, serve humanity, and minimize complexity. Thus, his research concludes that brands that downplay commercial motives and take on sustainability as a core focus are more likely to be viewed authentic.

Beverland and Farrelly (2010), however, find that a brand does not necessarily have to take on a sustainable role, but must stay true to its morals, thus virtuousness, to be authentic. With this, Beverland (2006) elaborates that staying true to one's morals is a commitment to continuity. Continuity is especially expected in terms of timelessness, quality consistency, and historicity.

More recently, scholars have found that not one or two dimensions can encapsulate the construct of *BA,* therefore, several dimensions are needed. Bruhn, Schoenmüller, Schäfer, and Heinrich (2012) identify *BA* as: "*a construct consisting of four dimensions, namely continuity,* *originality, reliability, and naturalness*"(p. 572). In continuation, Morhart et al.'s (2014) well-known study discovers four dimensions of perceived *BA*:

> "*The extent to which consumers perceive a brand to be faithful toward itself (continuity), true to its consumers (credibility), motivated by caring and responsibility (integrity), and able to support consumers in being true to themselves (symbolism)*" (p. 203).

As seen in the latest research, a higher level of agreement, thus a more cohesive idea of the construct is found. *BA* is associated with truthfulness, genuineness, and conveying meaning to consumers; hence, a multi-dimensional construct. However, this multi-dimensional construct has Akbar and Wymer (2017) wondering whether it is possible to condense existing literature to an actual definition. It is from this study that we have adopted a brand authenticity item-scale.

Based on a literature review of 40 different dimensions, Akbar and Wymer's (2017) comprehensive research cut to the chase of *BA* by eliminating dimensions through e.g. *shared semantic meaning*, *only applicable to certain brand types*, *could be a consequence of the construct*, etc. Conclusively, Akbar and Wymer's (2017) found that *BA* is based on **1)** *genuineness;* the degree to which a brand is perceived legitimate and undisguised, and **2)** *originality;* the degree to which a brand is considered unique and avoid of imitation. As an additional layer, they have developed a *reflective BA* construct consisting of three item-scale.

We have adopted Akbar and Wymer's (2017) item-scale in order to see whether a product rental service can strengthen a premium fashion brand's authenticity (Arnould & Price, 2000; Beverland, 2006; Morhart et al., 2014). This is especially interesting due to the growing demand for authentic brands, but more importantly, as it: **1)** acts as a self-verifying vehicle for consumers, which has a derived effect on **2)** fostering brand trust – and vice versa.

Morhart et al. (2014) examine the outcomes of *BA* by contributing to the understanding of other marketing constructs; they find that an authentic brand leads emotional Brand Attachment (EBA), positive Word-of-Mouth (pWoM), and Brand Choice Likelihood (BCL). They argue that these findings are evidence for an ideal self-congruence mechanism; the degree to which a brand's personality fits, and thus fosters aspiration for the consumer's future-self (whom he/she would like to be). Given that today's society considers authenticity as a positive trait, this pattern also suggests that *BA* acts as a self-verifying vehicle for consumers, moreover displaying an authentic brand may even self-enhance and give others a better impression of oneself (Wood et al., 2008; Morhart et al., 2014).

Hernandez-Fernandez and Lewis (2019) took their starting point in the general consensus that authenticity and behavioral involvement are highly entangled to the trust-building process; the process of making the consumer feel secure in the interaction with the brand. Thus, they set out to discover whether there is a correlation between *BA* and brand trust. The study finds that a high perception of *BA* report significantly higher perception of brand trust. If a consumer views a brand more authentic; responsible, and reliable for the welfare of the consumer, it will be more trusted than a brand that is not (Coary, 2013). *BA* will as well produce a higher reliance on a brand to fulfill its promise(s), thus, consumers will enjoy a feeling of safety (Hernandez-Fernandez and Lewis, 2019). Concluding, they argue that marketers can develop a long-term, mutually beneficial relationship with consumers by working for *BA*, which fosters brand trust, which then generates a higher customer lifetime value.

Development of hypothesis

As previously mentioned in *3.1.2 Development of BI Hypothesis*, we expect a positive correlation between *CPV* of product rental service and *BI* due to the business model's genuine and sustainable nature that holds consumer interest (Mont, 2002; Sposato et al., 2017). However, we do acknowledge that other factors may impact this relation. For the same reason, we wish to confirm that it is these factors: genuineness and sustainability that strengthen the overall *BI* of the product rental service. Thus, we find it relevant to investigate *Brand Authenticity*.

As previously stated, consumers are looking for authenticity in brands - a search that has prevailed and overtaken the purchasing criterion *quality* (Gilmore & Pine, 2007). Consequently, *BA* has captured the interest amongst marketers, who are keen on learning about **1)** consumer preference for authentic offerings and **2)** what such offering might entail (Taheri et al., 2018; Kim & Bonn, 2016).

Today, little examination on the construct of *BA* has been conducted (Morhart et al., 2014; Napoli et al., 2014; Akbar & Wymer, 2017) - especially the investigational composition of service and *BA*. This presents a noteworthy research gap, which is shared by Schallehn et al. (2014): "*brand authenticity theory is in its infancy*" (p. 195). Additionally, Napoli et al. (2014) argue that upcoming research: "*provides a tool by which firms can evaluate the effectiveness of strategic decisions designed to deliver an authentic brand offering to consumers*" (p. 1090). Hence, academics and practitioners both find the importance of authenticity for branding and consumer behavior (Morhart et al., 2015). With this, we wish to investigate which offerings can provide an authentic brand.

Jacobsen & Dulsrud (2007) argue that today's problem lies in the lacking autonomy of having ethical alternatives to choose from that redirect excessive consumption patterns ('throw-away culture') by rethinking conventional ways of purchasing. To that, Botsman and Rogers (2011) find that product-service systems are, however, reinventing traditional market behaviors in the interest of the consumer. Thus, enabling them access to products in a more sustainable manner. Given this, we compare the argument with that of Coary's (2013) on authentic brands, which is to make responsible and reliable offerings for the welfare of the consumer.

Therefore, we wish to investigate whether *CPV* of a product rental service will generate a perception of *genuineness* and *originality*, thus authenticity. Backing this, we find it crucial within the fashion industry, as it is claimed to be one of the least ethical and sustainable industries (Sandin & Peters, 2018). As a result, we hypothesis:

> **H3:** A higher *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*] will increase *Brand Authenticity* of [*a premium fashion brand*]

3.1.4 Development of Willingness-to-Buy hypotheses

Review of *Willingness-to-Buy*

The outcome variable of *Willingness-to-Buy* (Henceforth, *WtB*) seeks to analyze whether consumers are willing to buy a particular product or service. Hence, *WtB* investigates consumers' behavioral intention to purchase a product or service.

WtB is a widely used term amongst scholars, as the notion **1)** investigates consumers perceived intent to buy, and thus **2)** clarifies the market potential of the investigated product (Bradu, Orquin & Thøgersen, 2014).

According to Bradu, Orquin & Thøgersen (2014), the awakening of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has resulted in an increased need for investigating consumers' *WtB* ethical brands. Despite an increased interest in the ethical aspects of businesses, studies have yet to prove the direct link between ethical initiatives and higher *WtB* (Bradu et al., 2014). Newer studies have taken on the gap and sought to close it by investigating a direct link between *CSR* and *WtB* (List, 2006; Levitt & List, 2007; Bradu et al., 2014). However, according to Auger, Devinnet, Louviere & Burke (2008), one must adopt a more holistic consumer view when investigating and estimating consumers *WtB* ethical brands. Loose & Remaud (2013) supports this claim by arguing that conclusions cannot be made on the sole assumption that when a company increases ethical initiatives, *WtB* amongst consumer increases. Instead, they argue for a dimensional study investigating all possible motivations. In relation, Sweeney, Soutar & Johnson (1999) states that CPV is an important determinator for consumers WtB. Broadly speaking, *WtB* directly correlates with *CPV,* as a high *CPV* is expected to influence the *WtB* (Cheah. et al. 2016).

In conclusion, we adopt Sweeney, Soutar & Johnson's (1999) scale of *Willingness-to-Buy* as a broad ranging concluding construct.

Development of hypotheses

We assume a positive relationship between the *WtR* and *WtB,* as consumers tend to increase *WtB* when sensory marketing and service elements are introduced in the decision process (Lammers, H., 1991; Cheac et al., 2015). A product rental service enables a sensory experience to the greatest extent, i.e. the possibility to see, touch, smell and wear the product at several occasions. Therefore, one could argue that consumers create experiences with the brand through product rental services, which may increase *WtB* and reduce the pains associated with traditional shopping.

Further, experiential marketing theory *The Shaping Effect* (Shobeiri et al. 2012) can be seen as beneficial to our claim, as scholars argue that reinforcement of behaviors similar to desired ones affects future behavior. Hence, the establishment of a certain behavior (e.g. renting premium brands) might spark new behavior patterns (e.g. an established preference for premium brands). This is argued, as the rental service functions as a 'teaser' for potential future behaviors (Lammers, 1991). Moreover, this is known as operant conditioning, as the consumer might establish a tendency to choose the premium fashion brand, again (Lammers, 1991).

Lastly, consumers presumably start to think differently about themselves (self-perception) when starting to wear the premium rental brand, hence, they commit to a new truth about themselves (Lammers, 1991). This could potentially lead to a higher *WtB*, as the desired emotional state, which they have gained access to through renting, now becomes a 'reality' (self-labeling). This assumption is - of course - based on the rental service being a positive experience. Thus, we find that a product rental service may be a 'foot-in-the-door' phenomenon; the consumer yielding to a smaller, initial request (renting) may be more likely to yield a larger, subsequent request (buying). We therefore hypothesize:

> **H4:** A higher *Willingness-to-Rent* from [*a premium fashion rental service*] will increase *Willingness-to-Buy* from [*the premium fashion brand*]

As we wish to investigate whether consumers **1)** ascribe value to a premium fashion rental service and if so, whether this **2)** enables brands to strengthen its image. We find it relevant to investigate further whether such a strengthened *BI* affects consumers' purchase intention, thus traditional sales.

Marketing scholars argue that consumers base their purchase decision on informational cues: intrinsic and extrinsic cues (Zeithaml, 1988; Aaker, 1991). *BI* is an important - if not a fundamental - extrinsic cue, as it functions as a quick indicator of risk; the uncertainty, and adverse consequences of engaging with a product or service (Dowling & Staelin, 1994). The general consumer will, by all means, avoid uncertainty when shopping (Kotler et al., 2012), and so a positive, strengthened *BI* becomes vital as it lowers this uncertainty, thus risk. In a nutshell, the *BI* enables the consumer to put the brand offering in a context. If the context is associated with something positive, the consumer will be more willing to engage with (purchase from) a brand as they in reverse can obtain these recognitional (context) benefits, i.e. positive feelings and emotions, group identification and ego enhancement (Merz et al., 2009). Given this, we wish to investigate whether there is a positive connection between a premium fashion brand's image and WtB:

> **H5:** A higher *Brand Image* of [*a premium fashion brand*] will increase *Willingness-to- Buy* from [*the premium fashion brand*]

In continuation of consumers' self-labeling (Lammers, 1991), we find *BA*. Authenticity is considered a very positive trait and purchasing criterion in society today (Morhart et al., 2014), and so buying an offering of a genuine and original brand might provide the customer with recognition benefits (Akbar & Wymer, 2017). Morhart et al. (2014) find a significant relation between ideal self-congruence and *BA*. They argue that *BA* acts as a self-verifying vehicle for consumers, which self-enhance and give others a better impression of oneself (Wood et al., 2008; Morhart et al., 2014). According to Keller (1993), this will presumably lead to an increase in sales, thus *willingness to buy*. In this regard, Mohart et al.'s (2014) call for research on the effects of *BA* on brand outcomes - more specifically, brand consumption.

Moreover, Guo Hongwei & Bao (2018) argue that *WtB* mediates on trust. This is in direct relation to *BA,* as Hernandez-Fernandez and Lewis (2019) argue that authenticity and behavioral involvement are highly entangled to the trust-building process - the process of making the consumer feel secure in the interaction with the brand.

Given the two arguments, we heed Morhart et al. (2014) and hypothesize a positive correlation between *BA* and *WtB*:

H6: A higher *Brand Authenticity* of [*a premium fashion brand*] will increase *Willingness-to-Buy* from [*the premium fashion brand*]

3.2 Antecedents

3.2.1 Development of *Consumer Motivation Scale* hypotheses

Review of *Consumer Motivation Scale*

Understanding and predicting consumer behavior is an essential part of assessing the likelihood of success for businesses. According to Barbopoulos and Johansson (2017a), most consumer behavior is goal-driven. Thus, by examining consumer motivations based on goal theory, it should be possible to understand and predict behavior (Barbopoulos & Johansson, 2017a). However, Barbopoulos & Johansson (2017a) argue that goal theories are often studied in the specific fields they investigate, e.g., Babin, Darden & Griffin's (1994) hedonic goal theory being used to study emotions and moods. However, in 2007 Lindenberg and Steg presented a goal theory considering three overriding goals: **1)** *gain goals*, **2)** *hedonic goals,* and **3)** *normative goals* (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007). Thus, seeking to gather the different consumer goals into one theory.

In relation to the three overriding goals, Lindenberg & Steg (2007) states that the *gain goals* concern the "protection and improvement of own resources" (p. 119). Moreover, the hedonic goals cover the urge to "feel better right now" (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007, p.119) and the normative goals to comply with what is expected by others - in their terminology "*to act appropriately*" (Lindenberg & Steg, 2007, p.119).

On the bases of this theory, Barbopoulos and Johansson (2017a) developed their *Consumer Motivation Scale (Henceforth, CMS).* The *CMS* examines consumers' motivations on a multi-dimensional and context-sensitive scale that draws upon the academic fields of economics, marketing, and psychology (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b). With context-sensitive is meant, the ability to address the individual consumer, as well as the situational context. Furthermore, the *CMS* has relations to the fundamental motives earlier presented, e.g. by covering the need for 'making friends' with its dimension of *Social Acceptance* (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013)

Lindenberg and Steg's (2007) three overriding goals are the founding bricks of the *Consumer Motivation Scale* by Barbopoulos and Johansson (2017b). This has resulted in a multi-dimensional structure, which consists of:

Three *gain goals: Value-for-Money*, *Quality*, and *Safety*.
Two *hedonic goals: Stimulation* and *Comfort*
Two *normative goals: Ethics* and *Social Acceptance.*

With this, Barbopoulos and Johansson (2017b) eliminate Lindenberg and Stegs's (2007) sub-goals of *Pleasure* (Hedonic) and *Function* (Gain), as they find that these do not shed new light on consumers motivations. Thus, they do not contribute to the overall motivations.

The ***gain goals*** are based on Sweeney & Soutar's (2001) study, which concludes that consumers distinguish between value in terms of quality and value in terms of price (*c.f. 2.6 Consumer Perceived Value*). Furthermore, Barbopoulos and Johansson's (2017b) research supports this, as *Value-for-Money* and *Quality* are found to be distinct and differently related to consumer behavior (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b). Further, the concerns on *safety* - in terms of seeking harmony and stability -

were identified as relevant for consumer's behavior (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b).

When addressing ***hedonic goals***, it is found that the sub-goal of *Stimulation* concerns consumers' preference for adventurous experiences, searching for information beforehand, and sensation-seeking behavior (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b). In contrast, *Comfort* associates with having a restful and pleasant experience (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b).

The ***normative goals*** cover *Ethics* and *Social Acceptance*, which can be said to represent two different types of norms: personal norms and social norms. Personal norms are the consumer's intrinsic moral obligations. Whereas, the social norms are external regulations about what is expected for a person by others (Cialdini et al., 1990; Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b). The sub-goal of *Ethics* is the consumer's perception of obligations and related guilt. Whereas, *Social Acceptance* addresses the need to fit in and live up to the expectations of others (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b).

In regard to the theoretical framework, the *CMS* has been adopted, *cf. 4.5.2 Theoretical Framework & Hypotheses: A quantitative research: Questionnaire items*. Thus, the motivational factors are implemented as antecedents for the main variable of *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service. Additionally, we have added an antecedent examining the consumer motivation *Sustainability* (Landon, A. et al., 2018). This is due to the phenomenon *cf. 2.2.2. Perspectives on Sharing Economy*, being of sustainable nature, as it rests upon the sharing economy aspects such as sharing underutilized products and elimination of inequality (Mont, 2002; Sposato et al., 2017).[1]

Development of hypotheses

As mentioned in *cf. 2.2.1 Product-Service Systems,* consumers have increased bargaining power and are simultaneously becoming aware of the environmental consequences of current consumption patterns. This has resulted in a rise of new conscious movements driving change from a use-and-throwaway culture to the return of values of previous generations, e.g. quality over quantity (Parguel et al., 2017). Furthermore, it has resulted in a conversion from ownership to usage, which has enabled product rental services to thrive in several industries. However, how far along this change is, and if it has set its mark on the Danish female consumers' motivations and values are unclear.

This paper rests upon the general assumption that consumers' perceptions and behavior are influenced by how consumers think, feel, and are motivated. Hence, we find it interesting to assess not only how consumers perceive a product rental service of a premium fashion brand, but also which consumer motivations that are antecedents to the phenomenon. Therefore, we seek to draw relationships between the consumer's proximate motivations when doing traditional shopping for clothes and the perception of the phenomenon of premium fashion rental services.

As mentioned in *2.5.2 fundamental motives,* current consumer psychology theories regarding proximate motives for consumption are argued to be important, as we seek to obtain insights on consumers' motivations when fashion shopping. However, we are aware that the fundamental motives are still present, as the proximate motivations are founded upon these (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013). The proximate motivations are more clearly related to the specific situation and context of consumption, e.g. choosing a product based on its *Price*, *Quality*, or *Comfort* (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017a).

Such findings can serve as strategic insights that researchers and practitioners can use in the development of product rental services and targeting of the right consumers if wanting to change the current consumption patterns. Hence, knowledge about which values and motivations to emphasize when launching a premium fashion rental service.

Development of *Gain Goal hypotheses*

The first two potential underlying relations between motivational factors when fashion shopping and CPV of a premium fashion brand is related to gain oriented goals. Within gain-oriented goals, there is the assessment of how much a consumer is motivated by value for money and quality when fashion shopping. As mentioned, the two concepts are distinct and differently related to behavior (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Barboloulos & Johansson; 2017b). Rental services of premium fashion are argued to allow consumers to gain access to clothes of higher quality at a lower price, making it interesting to look into both motivations. We, therefore, hypothesize the following:

H7: A higher perceived *Value for Money* will increase the *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*]

H8: A higher perceived *Quality* will increase the *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*]

Development of Hedonic Goal hypotheses

Hedonic goals recognize consumers' urge to feel better in the moment. Based on the theory of hedonic goals and CMS, two potential underlying relations will be put forward: **1)** stimulation concerning consumers' preference for adventurous and sensational experiences and products (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b) and **2)** comfort in regard to how pleasant an experience or product is (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b). As a premium fashion rental service enable consumers to try more stimulating products (Lammers, 1991) or find the service pleasant and convenient, the following hypotheses are formed:

> **H9**: A higher perceived *Stimulation* will increase the *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*]
>
> **H10:** A higher perceived *Comfort* will increase the *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*]

Development of Normative Goal hypotheses

The two normative goals of Ethics and Social Acceptance are similarly assessed in relation to *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service. These motivations concern the consumers' intrinsic moral obligations and external expectation of action accordingly to social norms (Cialdini et al., 1990; Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b).

An assumption is that use-oriented product-service systems, i.e. product rental services, will make consumers with a high ethical concern value rental services higher. This is argued, as the product rental service model arises from sharing economy initiatives, which are founded upon ethical and sustainable concerns (Mont, 2002; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Sposato et al., 2017). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

> **H11**: A higher perceived *Ethics* will increase the *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*]

Furthermore, we assume that the product rental services of premium fashion brands can give consumers access to more premium and thus prestigious brands, which can increase Social Acceptance for consumers (Merz et al., 2009). This assumption leads to the hypothesis that consumers who have a higher concern for Social Acceptance might be more favorable in their perception of the product rental service of premium fashion. These assumptions result in the formation of the hypothesis:

> **H12:** A higher perceived *Social Acceptance* will increase the *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*]

3.2.2 Development of Sustainability hypothesis

Review of *Sustainability*

In extension to the above theoretical contribution of Barbopoulos and Johansson's (2017) *CMS,* we find it essential to add the construct *Sustainability,* as consumers have intensified their consumption for sustainable offerings in recent years, *c.f. 2.1 A world in change* and *2.2 A changing consumer.*

So far, studies within the field of *Sustainability* is limited. Current field studies primarily operate within the managerial implications related to sustainable behavior; thus, how businesses can spark more sustainable behavior amongst consumers (Tölkes & Butzmann, 2018; W-L Wu, Digiacomo & Kingstone, 2013). Few studies operate within the field of analyzing current consumer motivatons. In other words, determine whether or not consumers are motivated by *Sustainability*. Amongst these are Landon, Woosnam & Boley's (2018) study on tourists' voluntary adoption of pro-sustainable behaviors. Essential for their study is the development of the Value-Belief-Norm model (VBN), which is based on the adoption of 1) *The Values Theory*, and 2) *Norm Activation theory*. Both these will be reviewed in the following:

Woosnam & Boley's (2018) *Pro-Sustainable Behavior* construct measures an individual's intended behavior of being a sustainable consumer, hence how much individuals value 'green initiatives'. This is done through the three-item scales: *Ascription of Responsibility*, *Personal Norms*, and *Willingness to Sacrifice* (Landon et al., 2018). With this, the Pro-Sustainable Behavior scale looks into different motivations for being sustainable. Thus, the scale acknowledges that individuals hold different motivations for consuming the way they do, i.e. variance in behavior motives will happen.

The sustainable behavior scale draws on the *Value-Belief-Norm model* to obtain a better understanding of the psychological process that influences consumers' behavioral intent (Landon et al., 2018; Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano & Kalof, 1999). The *Value-Belief-Norm model* is a result of two theoretical traditions rising from the cognitive construct of psychology.

Firstly, the *Values Theory* (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987) argues that humans' attitudes and behaviors are a result of desired end states. Hence, we act in accordance with, what we believe our actions can achieve and lead us to (Landon et al., 2018) - we act in order to achieve something.

Secondly, the *Norm Activation Theory (Schwartz, 1977)* argues that all altruistic behaviors originate from individuals' moral obligations. Thus, individuals take responsibility for their actions and believe that some actions can be a threat to an object of value (Landon et al., 2018). For example, some individuals feel a greater responsibility for the way they treat nature through their consumption patterns.

With this, both theoretical contributions - *the Values Theory* & *the Norm Activation Theory* - argue that environmental behavior stems from non-egoistic values. In other words, it stems from **1)** altruistic values; the importance of others' well-being, and **2)** Biospheric values; judging the benefits and/or costs to the ecosystem or the biosphere (Landon et al., 2018).

Development of hypothesis

Consumers changing behavior and the increased focus on sustainable solutions have made us interested in examining the perspective of sustainability. More specifically, in relation to environmental concerns, as the service offering in focus is relatively new and relies on sharing economy. Likewise, S-D logic scholars argue that sharing economy involves more types of value - from monetary to experiential created jointly by users and owners (*cf. 2.2.1 Product-Service Systems*). As a consequence, consumers enjoy the experiences gained through shared consumption models more than those of traditional ownership models. As a result of this, we argue that there might be additional types of motivations and values present that go beyond the ones covered by the *CMS* (Landon et al., 2018). Therefore, we add the construct of Sustainability as an antecedent. With this, we ensure a holistic view.

As fashion rental services rely on the concept of sharing economy, we hypothesize that consumers motivated by *Sustainability* will perceive more value of rental business models within premium fashion, which result in us having the following hypothesis:

> **H13**: A higher perceived *Sustainability* will increase the *Consumer Perceived Value* of [*a premium fashion rental service*]

3.3 Moderator

3.3.1 Development of Age Hypotheses

Review of Age

As stated in *2.4.Consumer Behavior: Identifying new market opportunities*, we find it fundamental to adopt the idea of segmenting in generational cohorts, thus acknowledge that consumers might perceive rental services differently and ascribe different amounts of value to the service. Age is often found to be a contributing moderator, as age often influences consumers' basic values (George, Okun & Landerman, 1985), e.g. their ascription of value towards a product or service. In other words, what some consumers might find beneficial and valuable others might not (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Whereas some academic studies seek to investigate age on the segmentation scale of life-stages, marketing scholars argue GCT to be the most beneficial and appropriate segmentation scale. This is due to the fact that GCT considers environmental factors (Rumbaut, 2004).

As stated in *2.4.1 Generational Cohort Theory*, such segmentation looks into groups of individuals born during the same time period. GCT states that a generational cohort has experienced the same or similar external events during early adulthood years, which have influenced their preferences, attitudes, buying behavior, and values (Meredith & Schewe, 2006). Further, Ryder (1965) argues that these sets of values, etc. will remain with them over their entire lifetime. Thus, findings and conclusions based on generational cohort theory will go on.

As an example of Generational Cohort Theory, Lissitsa (2015) argues that Generation Y (age: 25 - 40) is the first generation willing to take more considerable risks when shopping, e.g. trying new business models. Gen Y consumers are more likely to expect experiential services related to the purchase of a product, hence, they value service elements highly. Lastly, a beginning interest in sustainable consumption arises with Gen Y (Pitta et al., 2012). The younger generational cohort, Gen Z (age: 18 - 24), ascribes value to some of the same elements, however, they strongly ascribe value to sustainable elements of shopping. Consequently, Gen Z is more attracted to sharing economy initiatives and recycling programs (Priporas, 2017).

Development of hypotheses

To ensure a set of strategic contributions to the premium fashion industry, we assume that some generational cohorts will ascribe more immense value to the rental service model than others. Deriving from theory, we expect that younger people find product rental service more relevant and appealing than older people, i.e. Generation Z will ascribe larger value to the given case than Generation X.

GCT rises from the idea that a cohort of people, who passes through time together, will come to share a common habitus and culture, thus leaving them with a collective memory (Brosdahl and Carpenter, 2011). In this sense, external events influence individuals' belief systems. As we adopt this belief, we acknowledge the influence of external events - unknown and uncontrollable factors. We do not seek to control the segments; however, we do seek to determine, which segments find product rental service beneficial, thus potential target group(s) for a premium fashion brand.

In relation to above, *cf. 3.3.1 Review of Age*, we argue age to be a contributing factor to our study, as theory states **1)** younger generations are more enticed towards non-ownership offers, and **2)** key characteristics about Gen Y and Gen Z correspond with the value proposition of a product rental service. This is seen as several of their priorities and desires can be fulfilled through use-oriented product-service systems, which rise from sustainability and are dominated by service elements (Mont, 2002; Priporas, 2017; Lissitsa, 2015). Thus, we argue that the characteristics of use-oriented product-service systems (product rental service) fit the demand of Gen Y and Gen Z. However, a gap lies in connecting the theories, hence proving the product-service systems' positive characteristics to be true.

Further, we hypothesize that all seven relations between antecedent and the main variable are influenced by age. As an example, Yarimoglu (2017) states that Gen Z consumers like to investigate and search the market online, but purchasing items in-store, after having had physical contact and sight of the item (Yarimoglu, 2017). Hence, Gen Z value the construct of stimuli. With this, we assume that product rental services release some of the pains connected to current shopping initiatives. Overall, we expect a lower age to strengthen the relationship between *all antecedents and Consumer Perceived Value* of a product rental service. Going forth, we hypothesize on the scale of 'age', based on *Generational Cohort Theory:*

H14: The relationship between *Value for Money* and *Consumer Perceived Value* will strengthen with a *lower age.*

H15: The relationship between *Quality* and *Consumer Perceived Value* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

H16: The relationship between *Stimulation* and *Consumer Perceived Value* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

H17: The relationship between *Comfort* and *Consumer Perceived Value* will strengthen with a *lower age.*

H18: The relationship between *Ethics* and *Consumer Perceived Value* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

H19: The relationship between *Social Acceptance* and *Consumer Perceived Value* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

H20: The relationship between *Sustainability* and *Consumer Perceived Value* will strengthen with a *lower age.*

Chapter 4
Methodology

Saunders et al. (2009) propose three research purposes: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory, whereas this research has an exploratory purpose in the preliminary research and continue with an explanatory purpose for the theoretical framework (Saunders et al., 2009).

Exploration is a valuable mean of finding out: "what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions; and to assess phenomena in new light" (Robson, 2002, p. 59), and so it is an insightful way to research a theoretical idea that has not yet been clearly defined (Ivankova et al., 2006). The concept of use-oriented product-service systems is gaining ground in the new paradigm of sharing economy. Therefore, we find it relevant to preliminary explore Danish consumers' motives and behavior when shopping, along with consumers' perception of product rental services on the premium fashion market, as this has not yet been investigated according to our knowledge.

With an exploratory purpose, we are prepared for changing direction due to the results of new data and insights. For the same reason, our research design is built iteratively; one step taken informs the next step. And so, exploratory studies are not necessarily useful in decision-making nor provide conclusive evidence on a practical level, however, it identifies if a theoretical idea is viable (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

After exploring the possible variables [antecedents and outcomes] of product rental service from a consumer-centric approach, we seek to explain the relations. Thus, we argue also to have an explanatory purpose, as such research establishes causal relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2009). In this context; whether the implementation of a premium fashion rental service can accommodate consumer motivations and thus leverage a premium fashion brand's image and *BA*.

With this chapter, we ought to lay the foundation of our study. Consequently, we wish to give insights to the research design that enables us to answer the research question and its underlying three questions (Saunders et al., 2009). Taking outset in Saunders et al.'s (2009, p. 138) research 'onion', we firstly present the study's research philosophy and its approach to theory development. Secondly, we outline the research design, thus methodological choice, strategy, and time horizon. Lastly, the research tactics – data collection and analysis techniques – is briefly presented in this chapter, however, will exhaustively be carried out in chapter 5 and 6.

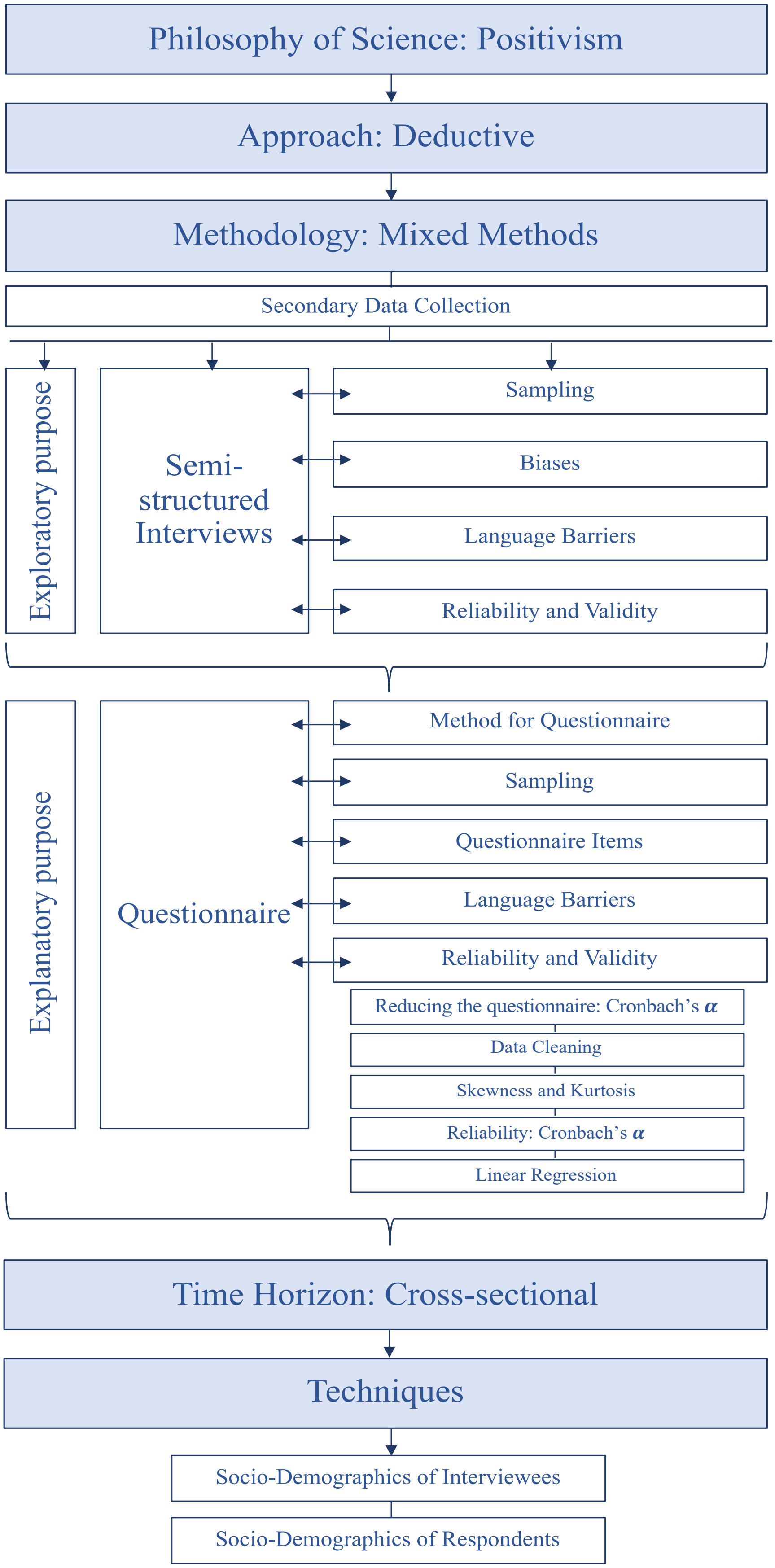

Figure 5. Structure of Methodology

4.1 Secondary data collection

Our study is based on existing literature (secondary data) and qualitative and quantitative data (primary data). With this, we adopt a triangulation in our study. Triangulation refers to the use of multiple data collection techniques within the same study to ensure that the data collected - both primary and secondary - are true (Saunders et al., 2009).

All used literature is carefully selected and sorted through the Australian Business Deans Council 2019 Journals Quality List (ABDC, 2019). Therefore, our thesis consists mainly of top-rated articles from A+ and A journals. If an article from a B journal is used, we have carefully checked the background and credibility of the authors, thus ensured that they had published articles within higher ranking journals (A+ and/or A). C-ranked journals have not been used for this thesis, as we argue it reflects poor quality. Thereby, we have carefully selected the literature to ensure a high-quality thesis.

4.2 Philosophy of Science

In accordance with Saunders et al. (2009)'s research 'onion', we will start by presenting our adopted research philosophy: Positivism. Research philosophy relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of from which it was produced, and so it contains assumptions about the way we as researchers view the world. This will ultimately influence the research strategy and the methods chosen as a part of this strategy (Saunders et al., 2009), which we will elaborate on throughout 4.0. Methodology.

Further, we will examine the two ways of thinking about research philosophy: ontology; the nature of reality, and epistemology; the constitution of acceptable knowledge.

Positivism is a philosophical stance of the natural scientist. Remenyi, Williams, Money, and Swartz (1998) explain positivism as: "working with an observable social reality and that the end product of such research can be law-like generalisations" (p. 32), and so only observable phenomena will lead to the production of credible data. To collect this data, one is likely to use existing theory to develop hypotheses. These hypotheses will predominantly be tested using quantitative methods to compare and generalize the tested as well as give concrete answers, i.e. yes or no/more or less likely/highly agree or disagree (Saunders et al., 2009).

Prior to this study, we made an extensive literature review in the field of sharing economy, Service-Dominant Logic, segmentation, and consumer psychology (c.f. 2.0 Literature Review). Consequently, our theoretical framework and connected hypotheses were developed on this existing theory. Lastly, we tested these hypotheses to either confirm or refuse to lead to further literature (theory) development. Thus, we wish to scientifically explain the world by deriving rules and not interpret the world in order to understand it as the opposing interpretivist would (Remenyi et al., 1998).

Ontology

As previously mentioned, ontology relates to the nature of reality, thus the way the world operates. There are two contrasting ontology positions: objectivism and subjectivism, where we hold an objective view (Neuman, 2003).

As positivist researchers, we believe that we are apart from reality; hence reality is independent. Social entities exist in reality external to us as social actors, thus a social phenomenon confronts us as an external fact that is beyond our influence. However, it is our job to discover this reality using conventional scientific methodologies (Saunders et al., 2009). Therefore, we argue that a premium fashion rental service is an objective entity, and that generational cohorts are repositories of widely shared values into which individuals are socialized to conform. Thus, such a social entity comes across as external to the actor with an almost tangible reality of its own. As these objects are separate from us researchers, we also believe that the collected data is far less open to bias, hence objective.

Epistemology

Epistemology relates to the ways of knowing about social realities, and so it poses questions such as "how do we know what we know?"; "what is the relationship between the knower and what is known?"; "what counts for knowledge?" (Neuman, 2000, p. 95). Positivism sees science as an organized method that combines deductive logic with exact empirical observations of individual behavior with the aim to discover and confirm probabilistic causal laws to predict general patterns of e.g. human activity – in our case, consumer behavior (Crotty, 1998; Neuman, 2003). Thus, the main goal is to develop the most objective method for obtaining knowledge to get the closest approximation of reality.

For the same reason, our study, namely the theoretical framework, is measured in quantitative terms. Hence, the research is based on statistical analysis. We aim to explain laws of cause and effect; how variables interact (i.e. consumer motivations and *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service), and cause outcomes. Using this highly structured methodology, we generate reliable data that can be replicated (Saunders et al., 2009).

However, we do use a qualitative method for our preliminary research. With a positivist outlook on the research, we are somewhat wary of in-depth interviews due to its flexible nature, which makes responses hard to enumerate, thus generalize. Further, in-depth interviews are purposively sampled and of a small sample size, which makes statistical techniques for inferences inapplicable (Saunders et al., 2009). However, we do carry out semi-structured interviews as an exploratory stage of our quantitative research study, which is in accordance with a positivist explorative study. We used semi-structured interviews with predetermined questions to 1) minimize interpretation of the interviewer, thus create consistency and generate objectivity and 2) make a frame of reference for the interviewees. This preliminary research was conducted to provide some grounding and orientation of the theory and to develop our theoretical framework.

4.3 Research approach

There exist two research approaches: induction and deduction (Saunders et al., 2016). We adopt a deductive approach, as previously illustrated in *Figure 5. Structure of Methodology*. Deduction is the dominant research approach for the natural scientist "where laws present the basis of explanation, allow the anticipation of phenomena, predict their occurrence and therefore permit them to be controlled" (Collis & Hussy, 2003, p. 124). Robson (2002) lists five sequential stages that demonstrate how deductive research will proceed: **1)** deduce a hypothesis from theory, **2)** express the hypothesis through operational terms, thus propose a relationship between two or more variables, **3)** test the operational hypothesis**, 4)** examine the outcome of the inquiry (either confirming the theory or indicating a need for modification), and **5)** if necessary, modify the theory.

Similarly, this research takes a starting point in the existing literature and seeks to explain new relationships between variables to enhance existing theory further. Hence, we take the standpoint that theories are created to account for observations. However, we do acknowledge to have some inductive elements in our preliminary research, due to its qualitative and exploratory purpose.

Saunders et al. (2009) argue that deduction has certain characteristics, specifically that it: **1)** aims to explain the causal relationship between variables, **2)** is predominantly quantitative by nature, **3)** has an independent researcher, and **4)** is generalizable to a larger population.

Firstly, this research seeks to provide explanations for relationships between variables, e.g. *CPV* of premium fashion rental service, and *WtR*, perceived *BI* and *BA*; and further causality between consumer motivations (e.g. Stimulation) and *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service. This is done by developing a conceptual model in *Figure 4. Theoretical Framework.*

Secondly, the hypotheses are tested using quantitative data. Our research was carried out through an online questionnaire, thus consists of quantitative data. If our test fails – if the data collected is not consistent with the hypotheses set out, thus, our conceptual model must be false, and therefore abandoned (Blaikie, 2010).

Thirdly, deduction requires the researcher: "*to be independent of what is being observed*" (Saunders et al., 2009: 125). As we are in search of the truth, it is recognized that language, culture, and knowledge of previous experiences of the researcher does not make a presupposition-less data collection possible, thus, detachment is ideal for producing reliable knowledge (Blaikie, 2010). For the same reason, objectivity was accomplished by activating our network to share our online questionnaire. Hence, the principle of scientific rigor can be seen as fulfilled.

Lastly, generalizability is strengthened with a bigger sample size, as it increases the representativeness of our data collection (Saunders et al., 2009). In 4.7 Techniques, we will explain how we generated a sample that was diverse and big enough to be generalizable, enabling us to derive a conclusion on the population (Farquhar, 2012).

4.4 Mixed methods

In addition to the above, we have chosen to adopt a mixed methods methodology. Mixed methods are per definition a methodology that collects, analyses, and 'mixes' or integrates both quantitative and qualitative data in a study to gain a well-rounded explanation of the researched phenomenon (Ivankova, Creswell & Stick, 2006). Thus, the theory of mixed methods argues that neither quantitative nor qualitative is solely sufficient evidence to answer a research question.

In general, the concept covers equally distributed propositions of the quantitative and the qualitative method (Ivankova et al., 2006). With this, we note that the quantitative method is dominant, however, we do believe that qualitative method features as support to generate the questionnaire. Thus, the qualitative part of our study is significantly smaller than the quantitative one.

Creswell (2007) argues that a sequential exploratory, mixed methods design is primarily used to explore a phenomenon or when a study is based on yet unknown variables. As we study Danish females' consumer behavior in relation to a premium fashion use-oriented product-service system, which has not yet been determined, we believe that this design applies to us. Further, this design is appropriate when wanting to generalize results to the population, not to mention different consumer segments (Creswell, 2007).

Thus, the strength of this study lies within its ability to reach representative conclusions through a questionnaire, which is backed by qualitative data finding emergent categories – and so we find that a sequential exploratory, mixed methods design is accurate for this study.

4.5 Strategy

4.5.1 Preliminary research: A qualitative research

As mentioned, this study consists of a preliminary exploratory study relying on qualitative data to explore the motivations and behaviors of Danish female consumers when shopping or potentially renting clothes. The purpose of the preliminary study is to gain a greater understanding of the research area and thus obtain knowledge to refine and revise the primary study. Qualitative data essentially refers to data collection techniques and analysis procedures that create or utilize nun-numerical data e.g. interviews and video (Saunders et al., 2009). The preliminary study consists of eight semi-structured interviews. The interviewees have been selected using the non-probabilistic sampling method: purposive sampling (Dudovskiy, 2018). The advantages and disadvantages of using this method will be addressed in the following paragraphs, along with an assessment of the reliability and validity of this preliminary study.

Semi-structured interviews

According to Kvale (2007), dealing with interviews can be chaotic. Therefore, the semi-structured interviews are carried out based on Kvale's (2007) seven stages to maintain a linear approach when developing, conducting, analyzing, and reporting the interviews. The advantage of using the seven stages is that they are ideal for maintaining a general overview and upholding the initial vision and engagement throughout the research, which increases the quality of the interviews (Kvale 2007).

Moreover, semi-structured interviews are characterized by having an interview guide stating a list of themes and possible questions to cover those themes (Saunders et al., 2009). How exactly these questions are asked, and the order of them can vary to adapt to the flow of the interviews. Hence, allowing the researcher to uncover new unexplored areas within the investigated phenomenon or organization (Kvale, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). Furthermore, it is possible to ask additional probing questions to get the respondents to elaborate on their answers. The interviews are all conducted on a 1-1 basis: one interviewer and one interviewee.

A content analysis has been made on the data obtained through the semi-structured interviews. Thus, semi-structured interviews are coded in themes (Charmaz, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Our aim of coding into themes is to categorize the statements accurately and thus to identify patterns within the consumers' motivations and behavior when shopping for clothes. According to Charmaz (2014), codes must be 1) immediate, 2) short, and 3) truthfully define the action or experience described by the interviewee. The coding was done in two steps. First, the creation of the initial codes by continually comparing the statements given to identify similarities and dissimilarities. Second, we revised the initial codes by focusing on the most significant and/or frequent codes to ultimately have focused and coherent thematic codes.

It can be difficult to generalize the findings due to the more flexible approach and primary use of open questions, but beneficial for gaining insights on 'what', 'how', 'why' etc. and thereby a general understanding of a phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2009). Nevertheless, eight interviews were carried out to improve the degree of reliability, and an interview guide was carefully created to ensure validity. Beforehand, a test-interview was conducted to ensure that the interviewees understood and felt comfortable with the questions. The interviews were all audio-recorded, which gives the researcher the possibility to cite the respondents, as they have the full and precise answers given (Saunders et al., 2009). Despite all of this, there is still the possibility of interviewer and response bias, how and what we have done to limit these biases are explained in the next paragraph.

Sampling

The eight interviewees of the semi-structured interviews are purposively selected (non-probabilistic sampling method: purposive sampling) as we seek to maximize the richness and depth of our data (Dudovskiy, 2018). Thus, we have conducted interviews with a broader selection of demographic splits such as age, region, and occupation. This was done to ensure heterogeneity and maximum variation amongst the interviewees. A detailed overview of the interviewees' socio-demographic factors is accounted for in 4.7 Techniques. The interviews were conducted face-to-face to the extent possible. However, with the aspiration of having interviewees from different regions of Denmark and the occurrence of COVID-19 in Denmark primo March, we were forced to conduct three out of the eight interviews over the phone. This is a limitation in terms of observing the interviewees' non-verbal cues (Saunders et al., 2009).

Interviewer and response bias

The pitfalls of using a semi-structured approach for interviews is found in the lack of standardization of the interview guide, and thus the probing questions asked (Kvale, 2007). This means that there is a higher likelihood of interviewer bias. Interviewer bias occurs when the interviewer influences the interviewee, e.g. if the interviewer uses a specific tone of voice or non-verbal behavior, which makes the interviewee biased (Saunders et al., 2009; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). This may happen if the interviewer (subconsciously) imposes certain beliefs or a frame of reference through the questions asked and comments said (Saunders et al., 2009). Consequently, this leads to concerns about reliability.

These concerns of reliability are more likely avoided with structured interviews, where all questions are asked precisely as written and without variation in the use of probing questions. Nevertheless, we have chosen the semi-structured interview because of the possibility to ask probing questions due to the exploratory nature of the study, *cf. 4.2 Philosophy of Science: Epistemology.* Thus, it is essential to actively listen and ask further questions to obtain full insights about consumers' motivations and thoughts about the new phenomenon: product rental service (Saunders et al., 2009), and with this obtain valid answers.

However, an interview guide had the purpose of ensuring that all interviews covered the same topics (App. 9). In other words, we have created a reference frame for all interviews to minimize the interpretation of the interviewer (us), thus preventing passing on beliefs through the questions. Additionally, the interviewers focus on having a neutral tone of voice and nonverbal behavior.

Furthermore, it is important to be aware of response bias when seeking reliable and valid answers (Saunders et al., 2009). Response bias takes into consideration that the interviewee might be sensitive to the unstructured exploration of specific themes - as the interviewee might fear intruding questions on sensitive information (Saunders et al., 2009; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Thus, interviewees might deliberately hide aspects of a topic instead of giving the full truth because of a lack of trust and uncertainty. To avoid this bias and ensure reliability and validity, all interviewees were informed about the topics of the interview beforehand and again as an introduction to the actual interview, e.g.

shopping behavior of apparel. Additionally, the interviewers paid attention to if any respondents felt uncomfortable with certain topics or questions. Concerning trust, the interviewer focused on creating a good environment for the interview, as it can affect the value of the information given. This was done by letting the interviewees choose the setting of the interview (Saunders et al., 2009).

Language Barriers in the qualitative research

In the preliminary study of female Danish consumers, the semi-structured interviews were conducted in Danish. This was chosen due to the interviewee's Danish origin, and thus a Danish mother tongue. It is favorable to conduct the interviews in the mother tongue of the interviewees, to ensure that the interviewees fully understand the given questions, hence avoiding miscommunications (Saunders et al., 2009). Furthermore, it allows the interviewees to be more relaxed and express themselves more nuanced and precisely. Ultimately, this helps to improve the validity of the semi-structured interviews (Saunders et al., 2009).

In regard to the technique of the translation, the interview guide was translated to Danish using the principle of back-translation. Back-translation is characterized by 1) translating the source - e.g. interview guide - into a chosen language, 2) having another translator translate the interview guide back to the original language, and 3) analyze for possible misunderstandings or points of differentiation to revise the interview guide (Saunders et al., 2009). This makes it possible to revise the target interview guide and improve the overall reliability of the interview (Saunders et al., 2009).

The principle of back-translation demands more resources than, for instance direct translation, however, back-translation is, according to Saunders et al. (2009), the best translation technique to discover possible problems. When citations from the interviews are used in the analysis and discussion, we applied the technique of back-translation again. Thus, ensuring that the statements are as true as possible to the original.

It is important that the questions carry an accurate meaning to all respondents for them to answer truthfully. For these reasons, Usunier (1998), as referred to by Saunders et al. (2009), suggests looking into the lexical, idiomatic, and experiential meaning along with the grammar and syntax. Firstly, the lexical meaning refers to the accurate meaning of individual words (Saunders et al., 2009). Secondly, the idiomatic meaning refers to the meaning of a cluster of words that are natural to native speakers (Saunders et al., 2009), such as the saying 'a piece of cake' meaning that something is easy to accomplish. Thirdly, the experiential meaning looks into whether the words and sentences are used in the respondents' everyday experiences, hence the familiarity of the words. This is done when changing the interview guide from theoretical questions into clear wording that the interviewees are found to be familiar with (Saunders et al., 2009). Lastly, grammar and syntax address the correct use of a language, e.g. the order of words and phrases to construct meaningful sentences. Such changes in wording are done with the overall research question and theoretical perspective in mind to ultimately improve the validity of the interviews.

Reliability and validity in the qualitative research

When accounting for the methods used for the qualitative part of the research, several measures have been taken to ensure and improve the reliability and validity of the research. The reliability concerns the extent to which other researchers can conduct the same study and end up with the same results. Hence, if it is possible to repeat the study. The validity refers to whether the research and methods used actually give true answers (Saunders et al., 2009) - thus examines what it is intended to do. It is important to note that interviews conducted with an explorative purpose are not necessarily meant to be repeatable (Saunders et al., 2009). Since semi-structured interviews are often used to gain insights about a phenomenon at a given time, hence the data reflects complex and dynamic circumstances. However, we do remain as objective as possible by creating a frame of reference (thematize) for our interviewees.

First, we have sought to improve the reliability and validity by being aware of the possible biases and taking appropriate measures to avoid it. Measures such as diminishing the influence of the interviewer by having a focus on tone of voice, nonverbal behavior, and the construction of an interview guide, *cf. Interviewer and Response Bias*.

Second, to ensure validity amongst the interviews, we have conducted test interviews. This is done to make sure that interviewees understood and felt comfortable with the questions asked both in terms of the topics discussed and the language used *cf. Language Barriers*.

Third, we have ascribed the technique of back translation to improve the reliability and validity, *cf. Language Barriers*.

Fourth, eight interviews were conducted to ensure the reliability of the semi-interviews, *cf. Interviewer and Response bias*. We further sought to improve reliability by selecting respondents that vary in terms of socio-demographics. This was done to gain as representative a sample as possible.

Last, we have used triangulation of the qualitative data, *c.f. 4.1 Secondary Data Collection*. The collection of qualitative data sampled by the semi-structured interviews can, therefore, be assessed as a way of triangulating the quantitative data collected by the questionnaire - vice versa.

4.5.2 Theoretical Framework & hypotheses: A quantitative research

Quantitative data is characterized by its focus on numeric data (Saunders et al., 2009). Thus, it is primarily used to describe techniques of data collection or procedures of data analysis, which either generates or uses numerical data (Saunders et al., 2009). In terms of strategy within the quantitative part of the research, a survey strategy is chosen. This allows us to collect quantitative data and analyze it quantitatively by using descriptive and inferential statistics (Saunders et al., 2009). Moreover, it can examine possible correlations between variables in order to create frameworks of relationships (Saunders et al., 2009), like the one proposed in this study. The methodological considerations made by the researchers is assessed in the following paragraphs.

Method for questionnaire

How researchers choose to formulate, design, and distribute a questionnaire is vital for the validity and reliability of the collected data and whether the questionnaire is adequate to answer the proposed hypotheses. Thus, the strategic choices in regard to this study's questionnaire will be presented and evaluated.

Through the preliminary research (exploratory phase), we identify interesting relationships, which enable us to develop an explanatory research. Explanatory research is useful for the examination and explanation of relationships between variables – especially when looking into cause-and-effect relationships (Saunders et al., 2009). This is the purpose of the research, as the relationships between the concepts of the proposed framework are in focus to ultimately explore a new phenomenon (*Figure 4. Theoretical Framework)*. Furthermore, explanatory research commonly relies on standardized questions, where the researcher can be confident that the questions will be interpreted the same way by all respondents and thereby enlarge the validity and reliability (Saunders et al., 2009).

The questionnaire relies on closed questions, these: "*provide a number of alternative answers from which the respondent is instructed to choose*" (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 374). Such type of question is argued to be quicker and easier to answer, and likewise more suitable for online distribution and easier for researchers to compare (Saunders et al., 2009). Additionally, there are different types of closed questions. This research mainly uses ratings, as most questions are operationalized in the form of a continuous 5-point Likert scale that is denoted with numbers:

(1) Strongly disagree

(2) Partly disagree

(3) Neither disagree nor agree

(4) Partly agree

(5) Strongly agree

However, the opening, socio-demographic questions, i.e. gender, occupation, and residency, were all nominal variables and purely used for descriptive statistics. Further, 'age' was a discrete variable with a value range from 1-100 (Saunders et al., 2009).

The constructs investigated are measured by dimensions consisting of at least three items *cf. Cronbach's alpha: reducing the questionnaire*. Many of the items are related, therefore, we use the form of matrix questions, where two or more questions are in the same grid. This can make the questionnaire seem shorter, and the design more pleasing (Saunders et al., 2009).

Before the final questionnaire was distributed, two pilot-tests were conducted to measure for 1) the time used to complete the survey, 2) clarity of questions, 3) if any major topics/answers were absent along with 4) the user-friendliness and attractiveness of the questionnaire design. These are all essential areas to cover, according to Saunders et al. (2009), and pilot-tests can help to bring forward possible problems. Thus, enabling the researcher to revise and improve the questionnaire, which can result in a maximization of the response rate, validity, and reliability (Saunders et al., 2009). After the quantitative pilot-test, the questionnaire was revised mainly in terms of defining some statements more clearly and cutting the number of questions to shorten the length and hereby the time used – see *cf. Cronbach factor analysis* and *Language barriers.*

Advantages and disadvantages of online sampling

Our questionnaire is solely completed by respondents with no involvement from the interviewers and administered electronically. Thus, our questionnaire is self-administrative and internet-mediated (Saunders et al., 2009). We chose this type of questionnaire and distribution for several reasons.

Firstly, it reduces participant biases, as the respondents do not have any direct contact with the interviewer, and so the role of the interviewer is eliminated (Saunders et al., 2009). Likewise, it offers full anonymity of the respondents, which is assumed to affect the response rate and the truthfulness of the responses (Saunders et al., 2009).

Secondly, it gives the opportunity to reach a larger sample size as the questionnaire is shared through our personal profiles on online media, such as Facebook, as well as our network's (Saunders et al., 2009). This way of distributing the questionnaire and obtaining respondents can result in a lack of control over who responses to the questionnaire. To ensure we had the right respondents; Danish women, our cover letter gave a brief introduction to 1) the purpose of the survey, 2) a clear explanation of who we needed as respondents, and 3) how we were to handle the answers received (anonymous). In regard to contamination of the dataset, validation questions were added. The respondents were asked about their gender and age, so that all men, along with women below the age of 18, could be identified and directed to the end of the questionnaire. Hence, these respondents' answers would not contaminate our dataset.

Thirdly, this type of distribution is less time-consuming in comparison to other methods and, therefore, relevant due to our time limitation (Saunders et al., 2009).

Fourthly and maybe of greatest importance, the internet is assumed to be a natural environment for the target group examined, as the primary segments of generation X, Y, and Z are all comfortable with being online (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Furthermore, as most rental services rely on online platforms, an online data collection is argued to increase the possibilities of reaching the target audience and thus improve the validity.

As support for the data collected online, we had planned to make use of the *delivery and collection* type of distribution. We planned to execute this by handing out the questionnaires to commuters on a train ride. This is a favorable way of obtaining respondents to more extensive questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2009). However, due to the outbreak of COVID-19 primo March in Denmark, where the Danish government recommended people to stay home and avoid public transport. Thus, we had to cancel this distribution method. Therefore, the questionnaire was solely distributed on internet-mediated platforms.

As a result, the dominating sampling technique has been that of convenience sampling, which lowers the probability of the sample to be representative (Saunders et al., 2009). However, efforts were made to increase the variation and make the study more representative. These measures include sharing of the questionnaire by others than the researchers, as well as sharing it in public online groups with a greater representation of the population. Nevertheless, Saunders et al. (2009) state that the usage of convenience sampling is not abnormal in studies conducted with strict time limitations. The exact representation of the sample is assessed in *Table 4. Distribution of survey respondents based on socio-demographic factors.*

The questionnaire itself is internet-based, as it was created in Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2020). An advantage of using an online questionnaire tool is that most of these are practical due to their user-friendly design and specialization in creating questionnaires. Likewise, it is a very convenient tool in terms of gathering and handling large amounts of data.

Questionnaire items

This study's questionnaire is constructed using adapted and adopted constructs. The constructs were adapted or adopted from A and A+ journals to ensure reliability, *cf. 4.1. Secondary data collection*. A number of items have been removed from the questionnaire based on a Cronbach's alpha test, *cf. Cronbach alpha: Reducing the questionnaire*. Each questionnaire construct will be addressed below, and there will be accounted for whether these are adapted or adopted. See section *3.0 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses* for a review of the theories below.

The main variable of Consumer Perceived Value by Sweeney & Soutar's (2001) is primarily adopted to the questionnaire. However, minor adaptations were made to make it suitable to investigate a business model relying on product rental service and clothing. *CPV* consists of the dimensions *Quality*, *Emotion*, *Value-for-Money*, and *Social*, all composed of three items.

There are several outcomes in the proposed framework: 1) *Willingness-to-Rent*, 2) *Brand Authenticity,* 3) *Brand Image*, and 4) *Willingness-to-Buy*. All constructs, except the construct of *WtR*, have been adopted from other studies. The construct of *BI* is adopted from Lam, Ahearne, and Schillewaert's (2012) study, which is divided into two dimensions: *Brand Prestige* and *Brand Uniqueness*. The construct of *BA* is adopted from Akbar and Wymer's (2017) study on reflective *BA*. The construct of *WtB* is adopted from Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson's (1999) study. Moreover, the construct of *WtR* is adapted from the study of *WtB*. Thereby, we adapt the item scale by replacing the word 'buy' with 'rent' referring to the difference within the ownership form. Nevertheless, the adaption is based on the notion that both constructs rely on a monetary investment in exchange for a service or product.

The antecedents are based on Barbopoulos and Johansson's (2017a) *CMS*, which addresses three overriding forms of motivations 1) the gain goals (*Value-for-Money* and *Quality*), 2) the hedonic goals (*Comfort* and *Stimulation*) and 3) the normative goals (*Ethics* and *Social Acceptance*) each concerning two constructs. Overall it can be said that all constructs are adopted directly from Barbopoulos and Johansson's (2017a) study. Yet, the construct safety has been completely removed from the framework and thus from the questionnaire. This was decided, as we through the preliminary research, Semi-structured interviews, found that items of safety were covered by the constructs *Value-for-Money*, *Quality* and *Comfort*, *cf. 5.1.11 Sum Up: Theoretical Framework Building*.

In continuation, the antecedent *Sustainability* developed by Landon, Woosnam, and Boley (2018) has been adapted to the study, as the original study looks into the field of tourism. Thus, slight changes in wording have been made to a few items to fit the context of shopping clothing. The construct relies on behavioral variables and therefore seeks to obtain data about the respondents' past, present, and future perception of *Sustainability* as a motivaton. To assess this, the moderator consists of the dimensions 1) *Ascription of responsibility,* 2) *Personal Norms*, and 3) *Willingness-to-sacrifice*.

Our moderator; Age, has not been adopted or adapted from previous studies, but is a discrete variable with a value range from 1-100 (Saunders et al., 2009). However, we have sought theoretical backing in *Generational Cohort Theory* stemming from Priporas et al. (2017) and Jackson et al. (2012), amongst others. We have not clustered the moderator into generational cohorts, as this is not possible for our study. Hair (2013) argues that clusters must consist of a minimum of 150 respondents to be representative. Due to our convenience sampling and limited time frame, we have not obtained a sufficient dataset to do so. Thus, we operate on a discrete scale, hence hypothesis on age instead of specific cohorts. Regarding wording, we have extracted the data from our opening, socio-demographic question: "*What is your age?*" (App. 11).

In our theoretical framework, we find all the outcomes to be reflective scales. Meaning that the dimensions and items are essentially interchangeable, as the information they provide to some extent correlate (Josiassen, Assaf, Woo & Kock, 2016).

Further, we identify two formative scales, namely that of *CPV* and the *CMS*. Within formative scales, the dimensions form the construct, and so each dimension is assessed to provide new information (Josiassen et al., 2016). For example, the dimensions within *CPV*: *Price, Quality, Social,* and *Emotion* can be said to provide differential and new insights to *CPV*. Due to the varying contributions of the dimensions, formative scales are often analyzed at a dimensional level (Hair, 2013). Thus, explaining our reason to divide the *CMS* into: 1) *VfM*, 2) *Quality*, 3) *Stimulation*, 4) *Comfort*, 5) *Ethics*, and 6) *Social Acceptance* allowing us to analyze the specific correlations between a given motive and the *CPV*.

However, we seek a holistic view of *CPV* of premium fashion rental services. Therefore, *CPV* is kept at a construct level within the theoretical framework. With this being said, we have chosen to analyze the formative scale of CPV at both construct and dimensional level.

Language barriers in the quantitative research

Similar to the preliminary research, the questionnaire was also translated to Danish with the principle of back-translation *cf. Language barriers in the qualitative research* for description of translation technique used and the reason behind the translation.

As earlier stated, the items were mainly adopted from other studies, however, some were also adapted to suit the given research area of this study: fashion consumption. To ensure that the meaning of the items was intact, we ascribed to the back-translation technique. In regard to the questionnaire, the items asked were close-ended, as mentioned in 4.5.2 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses: *Questionnaire Items*. It was, therefore, of great importance that the respondents fully understood both the items and possible answers. Thus, we carefully assessed the wording in accordance with the lexical, idiomatic, and experiential meaning besides the grammar and syntax of each item asked and the stated answers (Saunders et al., 2009). This was to make sure the respondents were likely to be familiar with the wording and, therefore, able to give an accurate answer, thus increasing the validity of the questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2009).

Reliability and validity in the quantitative research

Overall, 4.0 Methodology, including appendices, has the goal of improving the possibility to replicate our study, as our method is thoroughly described (reliability).

First, we adopt and adapt constructs from previous studies of high quality (A & A+) to transfer elements of reliability and validity to our study. Further, it demonstrates validity, as we acknowledge that we are not capable of defining questions and measurement scales of the different variables, e.g. *WtB*, which is measured through the adoption of previous studies.

Second, we sought to improve the reliability of the quantitative data by distributing it online. This was done to reach as large a sample size as possible - thus increasing the representativeness *cf. Disadvantages and advantages of online sampling*. Further, it was done to improve validity, as the target audience was assumed to be online.

Third, we *cf. Language barriers in the Quantitative research* ascribed to the principle of back-translation and checked the lexical, idiomatic, and experiential meaning of wording used. This was then tested in a pilot-test and slightly revised - all done to ensure validity.

Fourth, when looking into the external validity of our study, we argue that it is doable to transfer results from GANNI Repeat to the overall phenomenon; Rental services within the premium fashion industry. This is argued as GANNI Repeat only functions as an example. Hence, we do not look into which features of GANNI Repeat that are said to create value, instead we look into the overall business model of GANNI Repeat. The concrete example of GANNI Repeat controls for externalities. Hence make sure that respondents do not think of different brands/examples, as this would interfere with the quality of the results and not give a true image of the possible development that consumers might experience in e.g. *CPV, WtB, BI.*

Cronbach's Alpha: reducing the questionnaire

Prior to distributing our questionnaire, we conducted a Pilot Test-1 consisting of 10 female consumers. This was done to ensure that our respondents did not perceive the questionnaire as exhaustive. We were present during Pilot Test-1, as we sought to 1) get direct feedback on the questionnaire, and 2) answer any unforeseen questions. Our Pilot Test-1 indicated a high number of dropouts, as it the respondents pointed to the length of 78 items as too extensive. As a consequence, we found it necessary to conduct Cronbach's alpha ($\boldsymbol{\alpha}$) on all constructs and dimensions to reduce the number of items yet still account for internal consistency and communality, thus the reliability of the items (Cortina, 1993; Hair, 2013). This was done through an online distribution of Pilot Test-2 consisting of 30 respondents.

The alpha coefficient was calculated for all 12 constructs' items in IBM SPSS 25th. Edition. All measures were considered suitable (internally consistent) at the limit of α = .6 (Hair, 2013), where the alpha coefficients were between .6 and 1 (App. 13). As an example, the construct *Value-for-Money* consists of five items (*VfM*1, *VfM*2, …. *VfM*5) (Barbopoulos & Johansson, 2017a) with a Cronbach's α = .648, however, the test showed that by deleting *VfM*2 the Cronbach's α would increase to α = .653, thus increase reliability. *VfM*2 was deleted, and continuingly, another test of Cronbach's α was conducted with a Cronbach's α = .653. Further, the test showed that by deleting *VfM*1, the Cronbach's α would be α = .690, and so *VfM*1 was deleted. Like this, all constructs and dimensions were reduced to a minimum of three items except constructs *BA*, *WtR* and *WtB*, which only consist of three items (Hair, 2013). Any larger reduction of items would result in unsatisfactory representations of the different scales.

Worth mentioning is the dimension *Ascription of Responsibility* of the construct Sustainability (App. 13), which has a low α value of .581. One might argue that this calls for actions. However, as an alpha coefficient will vary between 0 (no internal reliability) and 1 (perfect internal reliability), the measure of *Ascription of Responsibility* is not considered completely unreliable, but is questionable. In spite of this, we do argue that a high-quality study (A+ article) has defined three items to cover the dimension, and so we do not find it suiting to interfere with this. Further, the overall construct Sustainability has an α = .818, which is found to be highly acceptable (Hair, 2013).

Carrying out Cronbach's α tests, we were able to narrow our questionnaire down from 78 to 61 items, and thus ensure 1) a more pleasant and less exhaustive experience for our respondents, and thus 2) possibly increase the number of respondents without compromising on scale reliability (Hair, J. 2013).

Data cleaning

To ensure high accuracy within our data, we implemented the following steps prior to analyzing our data: **1)** delete un-useful data, **2)** series replacement, and **3)** checking for satisficing.

We closed down our survey for respondents after two weeks of distribution, as we received a fair amount of 417 responses. Out of the 417 responses, 57 were unusable. Within this questionnaire, 'unusable' is categorized as a) being under the age of 18, as this is unethical (Borger, 2020) and b) the gender male, as we have narrowed our thesis to focus on the female premium fashion market. These respondents were redirected to the end through the initial socio-demographic questions (App. 11) to make sure they did not contaminate the results. This left us with a total of 360 useful cases.

After extracting our data, we found three cases that had two blank fields, and so we conducted a series replacement for these to ensure our data was complete for an SPSS regression analysis. A series replacement was done by finding response cases with similar item values 2x prior to the unanswered field and 2x after the unanswered field. Lastly, we checked that our response cases were satisficing, hence, no cases were found to have answered generic throughout i.e. no response cases appeared to have an unnatural amount of repetitions (e.g. five identical answers in a row).

Normality of our dataset

To ensure validity within our dataset, we tested for normality. This was done in SPSS, by retrieving the skewness and kurtosis. The test was conducted on a limited number of data (random testing of our dataset). Both skewness and kurtosis involve empirical data on a distribution's shape characteristics:

Skewness is conducted to measure the symmetry of data. Skewness values within -1 and +1 are acceptable, thus indicate a normal distribution of data (Hair, 2013). A positive (0 - 1) skewness value indicates a lower amount of higher values, resulting in a longer tail to the right (right-skewed). A negative (-1 - 0) value indicates a few smaller values, resulting in a longer tail to the left (left-skewed). Skewness values outside of the scale (-1 to +1) indicates a skewed distribution, which is not desired (Hair, 2013).

Kurtosis data indicates the flatness or peakedness of the data, compared to a normal distribution (Hair, 2013). A positive kurtosis value indicates a more peaked distribution, whereas a negative value indicates a more flattened distribution of data. See *5.2 Research Framework and Hypotheses* and Appendix 14 for the results of these.

Reliability analysis: Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's α is an internal consistency reliability analysis carried out to ensure that the measure of items consistently reflects the dimension measured (Hair, J. 2013). Hence, Cronbach's α functions as a tool for measuring the internal consistency of one's study, and therefore not a statistical test.

The results of our Cronbach's α can be found in table 1. Scale Reliability, where we consider an α value of .6 (and above) to be an acceptable Cronbach's α. Values below .6 indicate an unreliable consistency scale (Hair, J. 2013), which we do not accept for this study.
Further, item parameters for all items can be found in the table.

Construct	Dimension	Cronbach's α	Item	Mean	Stand. Deviation
Value for Money		0.634		4.02	.728
			VfM1	3.38	0.972
			VfM2	3.67	1.022
			VfM3	4.57	0.871
Quality		0.788		3.75	.803
			Qual1	3.54	0.934
			Qual2	4.09	0.933
			Qual3	3.62	1.005
Stimulation		0.768		3.16	.897
			Stim1	2.78	1.160
			Stim2	2.89	1.091
			Stim3	3.81	0.999
Comfort		0.697		4.23	.700
			Comf1	4.22	0.923
			Comf2	4.12	0.873
			Comf3	4.36	0.865
Ethics		0.888		3.89	.858
			Ethics1	4.06	0.952
			Ethics2	3.83	0.922
			Ethics3	3.78	0.973
Social acceptance		0.840		2.63	1.009
			Socialacc1	2.20	1.096
			Socialacc2	2.92	1.185
			Socialacc3	2.78	1.195
Sustainability		0.934		3.91	.798
	Ascription of responsibility	0.838		4.05	.774
			Ascr.resp1	4.11	0.873
			Ascr.resp2	3.90	0.941
			Ascr.resp3	4.13	0.857
	Personal norms	0.901		3.93	.774
			Pers.norms1	3.84	1.018
			Pers.norms2	3.90	0.968
			Pers.norms3	4.05	0.908

	Willingness to Sacrifice	0.947		3.75	1.008
			Will.sacr1	3.73	1.052
			Will.sacr2	3.77	1.094
			Will.sacr3	3.75	1.03

Consumer Perceived Value		0.895		3.11	.759
	Quality	0.789		3.85	.782
			Qual1	3.62	1.000
			Qual2	4.01	0.872
			Qual3	3.91	0.920
	Emotion	0.872		3.03	1.060
			Emo1	2.65	1.304
			Emo2	3.26	1.111
			Emo3	3.19	1.139
	Price	0.909		2.99	1.017
			Price1	2.94	1.131
			Price2	2.95	1.102
			Price3	3.09	1.083
	Social	0.913		2.58	1.060
			Soc1	2.55	1.141
			Soc2	2.61	1.134
			Soc3	2.59	1.172
Willingness-to-Rent		0.96		2.50	1.246
			WtR1	2.73	1.397
			WtR2	2.37	1.197
			WtR3	2.38	1.285
Brand Image		0.900		3.77	.767
	Prestige	0.864		3.88	.825
			Pres1	3.99	0.902
			Pres2	3.86	0.922
			Pres3	3.79	0.965
	Uniqueness	0.940		3.66	.896
			Uniq1	3.74	0.956
			Uniq2	3.73	0.927
			Uniq3	3.51	0.962
Brand Authenticity		0.757		3.68	.699
			BA1	3.55	0.859
			BA2	3.98	0.878
			BA3	3.51	0.818
Willingness to Buy		0.968		3.36	1.235
			WtB1	3.53	1.286
			WtB2	3.26	1.244
			WtB3	3.29	1.291

Table 1. Scale Reliability

Linear Regression Analysis

We have chosen linear regression analysis as the primary method of analyzing the data achieved. Linear regression analysis is a statistical technique that analyzes the relationship between one independent variable and one dependent variable (Hair, 2013). Meaning, the independent variable can help explain the dependent variable. In order to perform a linear regression analysis: 1) the data must be metric, and 2) before the regression equation, the research must decide which variable is dependent and which variables remain independent (Hair, 2013). Firstly, we use a 5-point Likert scale on all variables that are to be analyzed except Age, which uses a discrete scale. Thus, the variables are metric. Secondly, we have divided the variables into dependent and independent, as seen in Table *2. Linear Regression Variables*. Notice that there are different compositions of dependent and independent variables due to the different steps, thus a variable can be both dependent and independent throughout the study. Further, all tests are conducted separately, e.g. in the first step, we do not conduct one test, but three tests. This is done, as we seek to test the relations individually. The linear regression ensures that the relations investigated, e.g. *CPV* to *WtR*, are investigated and analyzed individually, thus not interfered with by the other independent variables.

In order to run a linear regression analysis in SPSS 25th Edition, all corresponding items within a dimension and/or construct had to be computed into new variables, so they are represented by one variable (e.g. *Value-for-Money* is the scores of *VfM*1, *VfM*2 and *VfM*3 computed into one). The complete data set can be found in Appendix 12. All hypotheses were accepted as proof of significance with the value of p. <.05, however, we do consider p.<.01 and p.<.001 more significant, thus more reliable (Hair, 2013).

	Independent variable(s)	Dependent variable (s)	Hypothesis
First step	• Consumer Perceived Value	• Willingness to Rent • Brand Image • Brand Authenticity	H1 – H3
Second step	• Willingness to Rent • Brand Image • Brand Authenticity	• Willingness to Buy	H4 – H6
Third step	• Value for Money • Quality • Stimulation • Comfort • Ethics • Social Acceptance • Sustainability	• Consumer Perceived Value	H7 – H13
Fourth step (Moderator)	• StimulationXage • EthicsXage • SocialacceptanceXage • SustainabilityXage	• Consumer Perceived Value	H14 – H20

Table 2. Linear Regression Variables

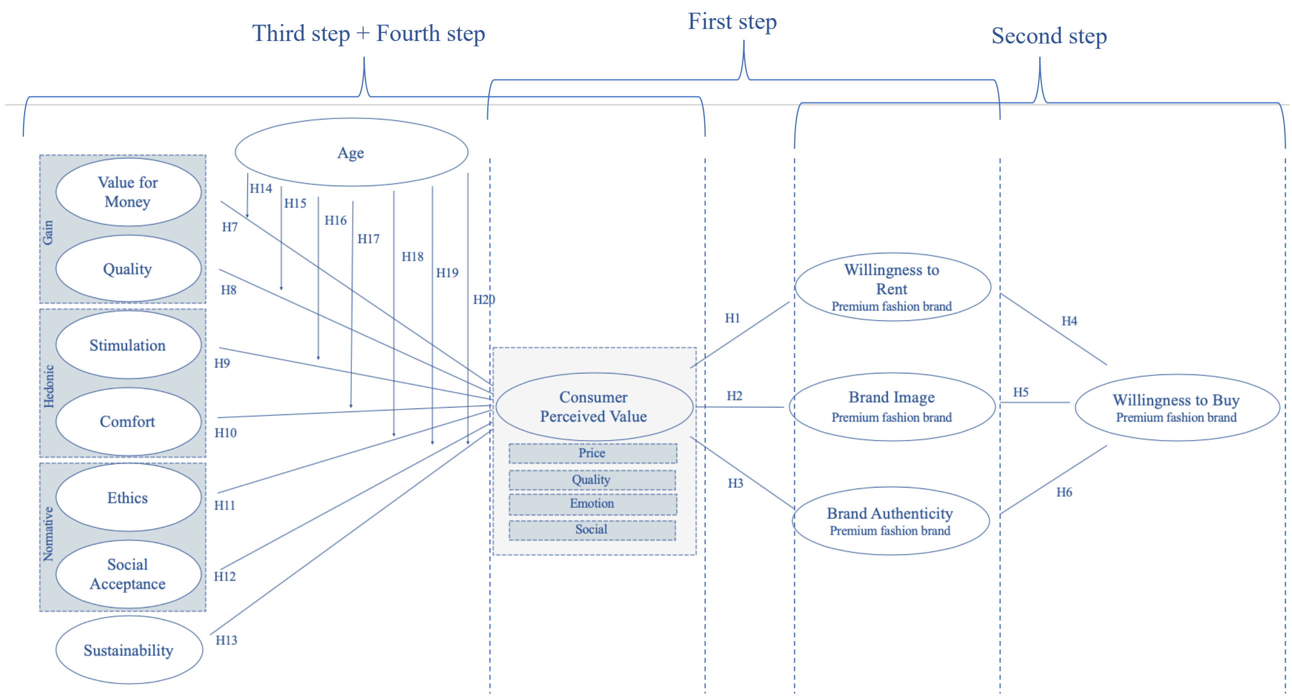

Figure 6. Theoretical Framework including steps

4.6. Time horizon

Our study is conducted as a cross-sectional study, as we make observations at a single point in time: both qualitatively and quantitatively. The time horizon of a cross-sectional study allows us to observe several subjects at once, which allows for the investigation of differences and comparisons amongst the subjects (Saunders et al., 2016).

This type of study often looks into people's perceptions at a given time and/or how different factors are related (Saunders et al., 2016). In our study, we investigate Danish women's CPV of rental services within the premium fashion market, hence, we investigate in one given time. Further, we investigate which consumer motivations that have an effect on CPV, thus we investigate which constructs are related. As an example, does the antecedent Value for Money directly affect *CPV* /do we see a relation between the two. Additionally, we also investigate relations between CPV and the outcome variables.

On the contrary to a cross-sectional study, a longitudinal study looks into patterns of a subject over a given time. This enables researchers to test the cause-and-effect relationship of the investigated subject (Saunders et al., 2016). With this, a longitudinal study would test e.g. whether Danish consumers would change their perceptions on rental services, as they become more informed or as rental services become more common. We do not find a longitudinal study relevant for this stage of the phenomenon investigation, nor do we find it possible to carry out due to the time-duration of our thesis. Opposite, we find the cross-sectional study relevant, as the phenomenon of rental service is at its beginning phase, thus are consumers even W*illing-to-Rent*. Worth mentioning is that cross-sectional studies are often used when investigating new phenomena and doing research projects, as cross-sectional studies have the benefit of having a more undemanding time constraint.

4.7 Techniques

As mentioned above, *cf. 4.4 Mixed Methods*, our study implements a mixed method using both qualitative and quantitative data.

As mentioned in section *4.5.1 Preliminary study: A qualitative research,* our exploratory design consists of eight semi-structured interviews. They have all been purposively selected to ensure the richness and depth of the data.

Interviewee	Name	Age – Gen. cohort	Occupation	Region
I1	Sofie	21 years old - Gen Z	Full-time (Gap year)	Zealand
I2	Cille	21 years old - Gen Z	Full-time (Gap year)	The Capital
I3	Anne Louise	22 years old - Gen Z	Student, University (Bachelor degree)	The Capital
I4	Kathrine	25 years old - Gen Z	Student, University (Bachelor degree)	Capital Region
I5	Camilla	25 years old - Gen Z	Student, University (Master degree)	Southern Denmark
I6	Pia	36 years old - Gen Z	Full-time	Central Jutland
I7	Susanne	41 years old - Gen X	Full-time	Capital Region
I8	Lise	56 years old - Gen X	Full-time	Southern Denmark

Table 3. Socio-demographic overview of the Interviewees

Our respondents were exposed to a total of 61 questions, including the new concept of GANNI Repeat (a product rental service), which we did not expect our respondents to be familiar with. This may have increased the response time, as respondents have to develop a thought about the concept before answering. The complete questionnaire can be found in Appendix 11.

Moving forth, we confess to an uneven spread in the quantitative sample profile. Especially within socio-demographics: age and region. This is shown in a high number of respondents with a profile: 25-year-old living the Capital Region. This is most likely due to the distribution method, where we are the primary sender of the questionnaire. All three of us have shared the questionnaire multiple times with our social network, which has a bias towards our demographic profile. However, we did try to even the sample profile by getting our network of other ages, occupations, etc. to share the questionnaire. Also, as mentioned in 4.5 Disadvantages and advantages of online sampling, we intended to take the train across Denmark to uneven the demographic spread. However, due to unforeseen circumstances of COVID-19, this was unfortunately not possible.

360 respondents completed the survey (See 4.6 Data cleaning). This number is found to be satisfactory. Further, we did manage to obtain a sufficient amount of respondents within all of the

investigated generational cohorts (Gen X, Y, Z), Capital Region, Southern Denmark, Central Jutland, and occupation Student: University & Full-time Employee. Thus, we lack respondents within the socio-demographics: Northern Jutland, Zealand, Student: Youth Education, Part-time Employee, and Not Active Workforce. With this being said, we believe that we have a satisfying amount of respondents in both rural and urban areas of Denmark, and thus comparable to other areas of Denmark with a lower response rate.

Age	N	Percentage
18	5	1,4%
19	4	1.1%
20	9	2.5%
21	20	5.6%
22	8	2.2%
23	11	3.1%
24	32	8.9%
25	85	23.6%
26	31	8.6%
27	16	4.4%
28	7	1.9%
29	7	1.9%
30	4	1.1%
31	2	0.6%
32	4	1.1%
33	7	1.9%
34	0	0.0%
35	5	1.4%
36	4	1.1%
37	7	1.9%
38	1	0.3%
39	5	1.4%
40	5	1.4%
41	2	0.6%
42	2	0.6%
43	3	0.8%
44	4	1.1%
45	4	1.1%
46	5	1.4%
47	1	0.3%
48	4	1.1%
49	1	0.3%
50	5	1.4%
51	4	1.1%
52	4	1.1%
53	4	1.1%
54	5	1.4%
55	7	1.9%
56	8	2.2%
57	3	0.8%
58	4	1.1%
59	3	0.8%
60	2	0.6%
61	2	0.6%
62	1	0.3%
63	2	0.6%
64	1	0.3%
Total	360	100%

Gender	N	Percentage
Female	360	100%

Generational Cohort	N	Percentage
Gen X:	86	24.7%
Gen Y:	185	51.4%
Gen Z:	89	24.7%
Total	274	100%

Region	N	Percentage
The Capital	196	54.4%
Zealand	27	7.5%
Southern Denmark	62	17.2%
Central Jutland	59	16.4%
Northern Jutland	16	4.5%
Total	360	100%

Primary Occupation	N	Percentage
Student, youth education	10	2.8%
Student, University	140	38.9%
Part time employee	35	9.7%
Full time employee	165	45.8%
Not part of workforce	10	2.8%
Total	360	100%

Table 4. Distribution of questionnaire respondents based on socio-demographic factors

Chapter 5
Results

5.1 Preliminary research: Exploring the phenomenon

As our study focuses on Danish female consumers' readiness to adopt premium fashion rental services, we find it is necessary to identify the motives present when women shop for clothes and how they perceive the phenomenon, product rental service.

In order to identify the motives present when shopping, we conducted a qualitative study and asked the interviewees about what clothes mean for them, and what considerations they do when they shop for clothes. Further, we asked the interviewees about their perception of a premium fashion rental service. Through a content analysis of the semi-structured interviews, we present the findings below.

5.1.1 *Value for Money*

One theme, which all interviewees mention they do when shopping, is evaluating whether they obtain *VfM*, and thus do not waste money. This evaluation is made as a trade-off between a 'get' and 'give' component:" *I would never buy a dress that was expensive if I was only going to use it a couple of times*" (I3, 18:04-18:13). Our interviews reveal that the 'give' component refers to the monetary costs of the products. The evaluation of the 'get' component covers product features, where the interviewee-focus were on two product features: **1)** quality and **2)** design. First, quality is addressed in terms of the fabric used in relation to the price:

> "*I have become fund of Zalando, where you can choose to pay a month later. They wait to withdraw the money until you have tried the clothes at home (...) you can feel the clothes and see if it is of a quality you then want to pay for*" (I4, 6:15-6:55).

Second, I1, I3, I4 and I6 (*App. 10*) states the importance of timeless and neutral designs both in terms of the models and colors used, as the products are more unlikely to go out of fashion. For example, I6 says:

> "*I just bought a jacket, which I paid 6.000 DKK for. Here, I thought: 'a black jacket, that will be fine, I can use it for a long time'. Had it been bright orange or mint-green,*

> *which is trendy now, I would probably have thought about it an extra time before spending that much money on a jacket* ". (I6, 18:32-18:54)

In continuation of this I4 states:

> *"I might quickly buy something where I think it is really nice or that I should try a new style - then you fall in love with a dress (...) and then after wearing it two times, you start thinking 'Eh, now I actually do not want that style anymore' - and that is just a waste*" (I4, 14:55-15:26).

Third, we find that *VfM* is most often a holistic evaluation of the two product features, quality and design, with the monetary cost that influence the consumer's overall assessment of *VfM*:

> "*I buy Woolford stockings because I know they last a long time and look nice (…) and even though I might pay the double, I know, I can wear them to several parties without them ripping*" (I8, 08:20-08:50).

Similarly, I4 states:

> "*I sometimes choose not to buy any clothes, and then buy one really nice piece (…) then I must do without clothes from Zara or H&M some months, as I rather use the money on something exquisite*" (I4, 5:40-6:00)

Thus, we identify that the evaluation of the products' *VfM* is seen in relation to their durability. Meaning that the interviewees ascribe value to high quality and timeless design, as it results in long-lasting products.

5.1.2 *Quality*

As illustrated in the theoretical framework, we identify the theme Quality. Through the interviewee's answers, we identify some areas where the evaluation of the products solely focuses on quality: "*With my jackets, shoes, handbags, and so on, I would never compromise. I would always evaluate it based on quality*" (I2, 20:16 - 20:34). Further, we find a distinction in the evaluation of the quality, depending on the type of clothing being assessed.

Following, we identify that the interviewees assess the craftsmanship of products and the quality of the fabrics. Thus, how it feels and looks in terms of color and design: "*I can easily see the difference between a good cashmere sweater and another sweater - and that is just how it is!"* (I8, 09:56-10:04). Similar I2 argues: "*An advantage of [physical] shops is that I get to feel the clothes, see the quality, see the colors"* (I2, 8:19-8:27). Moreover, we find that I2 seeks to eliminate risks when checking the quality; thus, the reliability of the products. This is supported by I6, who states: "*I do not want anything that itches, but neither clothes that shrink or change form (…) so I always check the quality of the fabrics*" (I6, 20:42-20:54). In the statements from I2, I6, and I8, we, furthermore, find that they ascribe great value to the senses, as they like to see and touch the clothes to ensure quality.

5.1.3 *Stimulation*

In relation to *Quality*, we identify a theme of *Stimulation* concerning the interviewees' expressions of the pleasure and satisfaction they obtain through clothes: "*You get a bit satisfied and get a rush when you have bought some nice, new clothes*" (I4, 4:57 - 5:12). In continuation, we find that particularly the younger interviewees are emotionally connected to getting and wearing new clothes:" *I love getting new clothes!"* (I3, 35:07 - 35:10. Likewise, I2 states: "*I like to wear new clothes every weekend!*" (I2, 02:32-02:35). The interviewee's emotion thereby argued to be positively related to gaining and using new clothes.

Following, we discover that stimulation and pleasure are often related to the design and quality of the clothes, as the interviewees seek something unique with good craftsmanship and fitting:

> "*They [premium brands] make designs with fun details (…) something nice that is not basic – maybe a little extra feature, where you can see it is nicely made (…) I have to buy something proper instead of buying three different things because I know what will make me happier. It just suits better and is nicer*" (I8, 09:34-10:43).

Following this, I7 states the importance of wearing something unique:

> *"I do not wish to be perceived mainstream - instead unique. I don't really care about what brand it is, but it has to be special. The older I have gotten, the more*

environmentally conscious, I have become (...) that clothes are not just thrown away and is of better quality. It as mix" (I7, 3:38-4:40)

Moreover, the theme of *Stimulation* is related to that of *Quality* and *Comfort*, as we identify a correlation between the themes in terms of craftsmanship, well-fitting and somewhat uniqueness.

5.1.4 *Comfort*

Through the semi-structured interviews, all eight interviewees express the importance of *Comfort*. We identify four characteristics, which play a vital role for comfort **1)** the experience of shopping clothes, **2)** physical comfort; the fit and feel of the clothes, and **3)** mental comfort; how the clothes make one feel.

We find that *Comfort* is closely linked to the retail experience. Here, the interviewees state a different preference for shopping online vs. offline, as some find it more comfortable and convenient to shop online: "*There is something doable about online shopping. Especially with the kids – it is an easy way to look at clothes together. It is a quick-fix - it is fast and not inconvenient*" (I7, 7:48 - 8:36). Comparable I2 expresses:

> "*The advantage of online shopping is that I get to see it on a model (...) how it fits and so. Then I like to see if they have it [the clothes] in stock. Sometimes, I receive it faster than if I have to go and find out 'Eh, on Thursday I have time to go to the shop' (...) and then there are discount vouchers online*" (I2, 7:35-8:11).

As seen here, some find it more convenient to shop from home, as it is a more manageable and foreseeable way of shopping, hence avoiding the pains associated with physical stores.

On the opposite, others find it more pleasant to go to the actual physical store, as it gives them the possibility to interact with a salesperson, feel and try the clothes:

> "*You cannot [with online] see how it looks and evaluate the fit on yourself because all models look alike (…) you cannot feel the quality or see the colors – and then it is a more fulfilled experience to buy clothes in a [physical] shop – get an experience with another human being*" (I3, 07:35-07:57).

Similar to this, I1 states: "*I like to get help from a salesperson. I make use of this when I shop offline*" (I1, 7:40-7:55). Moreover, I7 explains: "*[In physical shops] You can feel the quality, see the colors (…) see and try the sizes. See how it looks, feels, and fits on the body*" (I7, 8:40 - 9:08). Therefore, the comfort of physical stores lies within the reliability and reinsurance of the clothes. On the contrary, the uncertainties with buying clothes online are potential misfits and disappointments in terms of the fabric color and/or feel. Further, a pleasant experience with possible guidance is a motivation along with an instant opportunity to feel and try if the clothes are comfortable to wear. With this, we see a close relationship between quality and comfort.

Additionally, we find that there is not just physical comfort associated with clothing, but also mental comfort. I2 expresses that the price of the clothes affects her comfort: "*But when it gets too expensive, then I will not use it (…) I feel too neat and uncomfortable*" (I2, 6:42-7:17). Following this, I3 explains how she mentally experiences comfort: *"Comfort can also be to feel, that you look good in it [the clothes]" (I3, 02:12-02:19).* Ultimately, we find that comfort is crucial and that it is very individual what the interviewees believe to be comfortable for various reasons.

5.1.5 *Ethics*

Within the theme of ethics, we find that several interviewees - I3, I5, I7, and I8 - have various ethical considerations when shopping for clothes (App. 10). Further, we see that all interviewees have sustainability related considerations and motivations when shopping, therefore, we choose to thematize these separately.

Through the interviewees' answers, we experience that the interviewees care about and feel responsible for supporting local entrepreneurs and one's community: "*Something that I am very conscious about is to support the shops in the city, I live in*." (I8, 12:09-12:22). Further, we identify that the general conditions of the workers and the production of fast-fashion clothes are inconsistent with some interviewees' values:

> "*It is properly not always manufactured in the best way and under the best conditions. (..) now, I care more about having few good things that I will be happy about for a*

> *longer time – and this is a consequence of focusing on working conditions*" (I5, 28:05 - 29:00).

In relation to extending the life of one's clothes, an interviewee states the importance of peer-to-peer sales and recycling: "*I think it is important to sell to others or donate to recycling (...) there is already a circular thought behind the things I buy, as I think, I can sell it later on*" (I3, 20:04-20:33). Moreover, I3 continues to explain that she shops second-hand clothes, which I4 also explicit states (App.10).

Thus, we have explored several ethical considerations and motivations that influence how interviewees consume. These considerations primarily address circumstances under which the clothes are made and/or purchased.

5.1.6 *Social Acceptance*

When asked about the meaning the interviewees ascribe to clothes, eight out of eight mentions the importance of clothes in social relations - and that they have considerations about how others perceive them: "*I probably think 70-80% about appearance (...) Of course, it means something that they [friends & family] think I look great*" (I2, 02:38-04:01). Following this, I1 states: " *I think a lot about what others think. I think about the impression that the clothes give (...) I think clothes play a huge part in creating an impression of someone."* (I1, 21:56-22:26).

Moreover, clothes can be said to play a prominent role in gaining social acceptance, as the interviewees spend time considering how others perceive them. This is stated both in terms of the interviewees' intermediate circle and when they generally meet people. Further, I7 states how it is a part of her identity: *"Clothes are essential to me and my identity. It might sound crazy - important for my superficial identity - I think that many people remember me for my visual appearance" (I7, 2:41-3:24).* This is in correlation with I3, who says*: "It [clothes] also becomes a way of expressing oneself or something you use to show who you are to the world" (I3 02:00-02:15).*

Additionally, I1, I4, I6, and I8 reveal that it is important to wear certain types of clothes in specific situations in order to conform to the social norms, e.g. appropriate business clothes for work or school and extraordinary clothes for special occasions. For example, I4 states:" *It [clothes] has to look good that is obvious. Of course, it has to be nice, I study at CBS, and there it is important to look nice*" (I4, 3:20-3:32). Additionally, I6 states:

> "*For me, it has to be something I can wear at work, so it cannot be revealing. It has to be presentable and very business-like (...) and then I, of course, buy something else for special occasions*" (I6, 2:26-2:47).

Further, I5 outlines how she gains inspiration through her social relations, e.g. through social media:

> " *I care a lot about wearing the right things. I base it on social media content and friends (…) You quickly get a sense of what is trendy right now*" (I5, 4:08-4:46).

Correspondingly, I3 states that she uses social media to find clothes she likes: "*What I see on Instagram and think 'fuck that looks nice'*" (I3, 02:44-02:59). In this regard, we identify a wish to convey with current trends and social norms. Thus, throughout the interviews, we discover that clothes have an essential role when seeking social acceptance. This is displayed throughout this section, as several interviewees state they spend time thinking about how others perceive them. Likewise, the interviewees mention how they spend time evaluating what to wear as it reflects their identity, so the clothes lead to an accurate expression of themselves.

5.1.7 ***Sustainability***

As previously mentioned, the interviewees clearly express sustainable concerns when shopping for clothes. Here, they mention concerns about the environmental consequences of clothing production. I3 argues: "*The fashion industry has to reorganize its way of doing things because it is so harmful to the environment*" (I3, 12:52-12:59). This statement addresses *who* should take on the responsibility for the damages made, namely the fashion industry itself, and thus restructure its business practices.

Subsequently, six out of eight interviewees implicitly state that they as individuals should take responsibility by making more sustainable choices (App. 10): "*I would like to care more about being environmentally conscious. I must be honest and say that I do not right now*" (I1, 15:53-16:07). Similarly, I3 states:

> "*I wish that I bought fewer things from new. I wish, I was a bit better at looking at those second-hand websites (…) the whole thought of sustainability has become more present in everything I do*" (I3, 03:19-03:41).

Such statements show that consumers have a need to and wish for change. However, several interviewees do not feel they are doing enough. Thus, we identify a lower willingness to sacrifice for sustainable clothes despite several having concerns and suggestions on what to do, also known as an intention-behavior gap. Furthermore, I7 explains a growing focus on sustainability as a consequence of growing older and moving life stage: "*Sustainability is more and more important to me - even more after I have become a mother (...) there is a feeling of responsibility, it is a biological process as you grow older"* (I7, 10:40-11:30).

In terms of personal norms, the interviews reveal that five out of eight interviewees take various actions to be more sustainable. Here, they highlight recycling clothes and the deliberate choice of buying clothes of high quality to prolong the clothes durability (App. 10). Thereby, they seek to minimize the need to buy more. As an example, I4 states: "*I can get something nice (...) so I sometimes buy some nice second-hand*" (I4, 3:41-3:53), and I3 says: "*A good deal for me is something I know I will use many times during the years*" (I3, 16:28-16:34). Thereby, they seek to minimize the need to buy new clothes. Additionally, we find that being sustainable influences how people perceive themselves and others: "*I would like to signal that I care about the environment (...) I might feel better about myself as well - especially, compared to going out and buying new [clothes] all the time*" (I5, 32:16-33:03). Thus, it is implied that 'sustainability' is an attractive characteristic.

5.1.8 Product rental service

Through the interviews, it is found that all eight interviewees intend to try or make use of a premium fashion brand product rental service after having showcased an example. However, it differentiates amongst the interviewees how frequent and for what purpose they will use it. I2, I3, and I4 explain that they attend to use it regularly: "*I would especially do it often during the summer, where I have many things to do*" (I2, 18:32-18:38), whereas I6, I7, and I8 imagine they would use it occasionally. I6 argues: "*If I were to do this [rent], it would only be for special events – a wedding or something like that. I would not do it in everyday life*" (I6, 13:54-14:01). Thus, we find that the younger interviewees intend to use it more frequently compared to older interviewees.

Moreover, it is identified that consumers ascribe value to the rental service for different reasons, we find four: **1)** *enabling access*, **2)** *economic solution*, **3)** *sustainable aspect*, and **4)** *more fashionable choices*. These reasons have been accounted for as four or more interviewees subscribe to them.

Firstly, several interviewees point to the premium fashion brand product rental service as a service that enables them – and others – access to goods of high quality: "*I definitely think there is something about this concept that would allow you to get some clothes of a higher quality than usual*" (I6, 20:07-20:17). In continuation, I3 (12:25-12:36) shows excitement towards attaining status: "*I think it is nice! As one can get access to exclusive goods without having to be a part of the segment that usually can afford those things*". Moreover, I1, I7, and I8 recognize '*enabling access'* as a value that satisfies their own or other's needs.

Secondly – in continuation of the above – there is an economic aspect to a product rental service, which is identified as valuable to the consumer. I2 explains that she regularly uses an item one to two times, and therefore: "*It [renting] creates more value for money in my case, as I quickly get tired of looking at the same item. It would save me money!"* (I2, 19:04-19:25). Further, I8 - a 56-year-old woman – states that: "*I would buy access [to clothes] rather than rent (...) but I would probably use it [renting] for festive clothes – I would consider that! I think it is a waste of money – buying something really nice that is only used a few times"* (I8, 16:48-17:01) - an attitude that is similar to stances of I1, I6, and I7.

Thirdly, six interviewees - I1, I2, I3, I4, I6, and I8 - argue that product rental service is more sustainable compared to conventional shopping. I1 (14:51-15:05) reasons: "*It [renting] seems more environmentally conscious. When you rent, it seems you would buy less. I think that is good for the environment – we can save on material usage*". In connection to this, I3 (34:28-34:33) describes: "*For me, it would eliminate overconsumption*". However, I7 shows uncertainty towards the sustainable aspect of the service: "*There is something cool about not having a buy-throw away mentality (...) Conversely, I think it might create needs that one does not have now*" (I7, 28:34-28:55). With this, I7 suspects that the outcome of renting might be two folded; one that brings value to society and one that does not. However, the majority of the interviewees find the service sustainable.

Lastly, several interviewees – I1, I4, I6, I7, and I8 - highlight that the temporary-access and non-ownership principle would enable one to challenge oneself and explore new designs, thus facilitate more fashionable and colorful choices. I3 (18:14-18:22) recognizes that: "*It would definitely create and give me the incentive to put on more wild stuff – the fact that I don't have to spend so much money* *on it*". In continuation, I7 reasons that product rental service may empower consumers: "*It might change what I signal, as I would be able to try some wild things that I would not otherwise have access to*" (I7, 31:22-31:32). Further, I8 explains that the service might stimulate and evoke emotions: "*We would probably emphasize more happy colors when renting*" (I8, 31:09-31:13).

With this, it is identified that the interviewees intend to make use of the premium fashion brand product rental service, thus rent. However, they subscribe to the service for different reasons, thus perceive their value differently.

5.1.9 From rent to buy

Seven interviewees indicate a connection between renting and buying. It is found that a premium fashion rental service might spark new consumer preferences: "*There are many who are not able to wear such a nice dress – but now, they would be able to, due to the low cost (...) it might open their eyes to (...) you know, turn people to see that it [premium clothes] is pleasant to wear"* (I8, 29:23-30:00). In continuation hereof, I6 implies a fear towards the service, as it serves as a teaser for expensive clothes: "*I think you would come to love it [the rented premium clothes] and then you would end up giving full price for it. So I think it would be dangerous*" (I6, 14:33-14:48).

On the contrary, I4 sees the service as an opportunity. She refers to it as an indicator of a good (potential) investment: "*If I had looked at something – let us say it was their latest collection (...) then I would definitely try to rent it before buying it!*" (I4, 22:42-22:59). Further, both I4 and I8 cite that they would expect to be able to buy the rented item at a reduced price, i.e. the rental price would be deducted from the original retail price: "*If I knew that I (...) wanted to use it every day, then I would probably be able to do as with car leasing and buy it after – I assume?"* (I8, 21:48-22:04).

5.1.10 The provider of product rental service

It is found that five interviewees are familiar with *premium fashion rental service* prior to the interviews, hereunder four interviewees – I2, I3, I4, and I7 - refer to a specific provider of such service. I3 says:

> "*I have heard that GANNI has started doing it [product rental service] or at least it was a proposal from them (...) Instead of buying a brand new dress that you only use*

> *once, you can rent from them [GANNI] - and I think it makes a lot of sense!*" (11:12-11:35).

Thus, I3 associates a positive attitude towards the product rental service and GANNI. On the same note, I4 expresses: "*I love GANNI (...) GANNI has a concept, where you share clothes and where you can buy them cheaper (...) really nice!*" (I4,10:25-11:00). In continuation hereof, it is identified that both I3 and I4 speak highly of the premium brand, GANNI, throughout the interviews. As an example, I3 states: "*Their [GANNI] stuff and what they do help create or frame what will happen next*" (06:19-06:33), and "*It [GANNI] is a brand others orient themselves towards*" (I3, 26:14-26:18); hence, GANNI is claimed to be a pioneer of the Danish fashion industry.

As previously identified, the majority of the interviewees take sustainability into account when they buy clothes (*cf. 5.1.7 Sustainability*) and ascribe value to the product rental service as it is perceived to be a sustainable solution (*cf. 5.1.8 Product Rental Service*). In continuation hereof, several interviewees as well point to the fashion industry's environmental impact. I8 argues that product rental service can accommodate the negative impact of the conventional way of producing and consuming: "*As much as the clothing industry pollutes, I definitely think it would be better for our society to rent*" (I8, 31:25-31:33). I8 continues by arguing that the negative impact of the product rental service would be smaller compared to the negative impact of today's procedures: "*This [product rental service] would be a big help – the frequent distribution would account for a smaller part of the pollution than that of production*" (31:47-31:59). In accordance, I4 argues that more fashion providers should offer such service: "*Maybe more companies should do it [product rental service] due to sustainability - so we don't keep on producing a lot of clothes that actually could be shared among people*" (I4, 13:55-14:05).

As product rental service is found sustainable, I3 and I7 express affection towards providers of premium fashion rental services. As an example, I7 says: "*These things [product rental service] show that we think of something more than just ourselves (...) ego. There is something else that matters*" (I7, 10:31-10:43). She continues: "*It [product rental service] seems hugely sympathetic and meaningful*" (I7, 15:39-15:47). Thus, the providers are found admirable for serving humanity. Further, I3 explains that providers of product rental services would help her make more environmentally friendly decisions, and thus help her self-image: "*To contribute to a more* *sustainable solution is also something that can give one a good conscience, I think (...) that I would see myself in a more environmental-positive light*" (I3, 35:15-35:26).

5.1.11 Sum up: Theoretical framework building

The thematization of the preliminary study identifies seven motives: **1)** *VfM*, **2)** *Quality*, **3)** *Stimulation*, **4)** *Comfort*, **5)** *Ethics*, **6)** *Social Acceptance*, and **7)** *Sustainability.* This finding harmony with Barbopoulos and Johansson's (2017a) *Consumer Motivation Scale*. Thus, we find the *CMS* applicable for determining Danish female's motivations when shopping for clothes. We do, however, find that the interviewees do not regard *Safety* as a separate motive: "*To feel safe, calm and prepared for the unforeseen"* (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b, p. 120). Instead, the reliable aspect of safety is found in connection to the motives *Quality* and *Comfort*. Thus, *Safety* will not be included in our primary research. Further, we identify a distinction between how the interviewees refer to **1)** the circumstances under which the clothes are made or purchased and **2)** the actual aftermath (effects) of clothing production on the environment. We reason that the motive *Ethics*: *"To act in accordance with one's moral principles and obligations, avoid guilt"* (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017b, p. 120) does not account for the latter. Thus, we apply Landon, Woosnam & Boley's (2018) *Pro-Sustainable Behavior Scale* to measure consumers' sustainable motives. Therefore, the motivations for shopping clothes are measured through *CMS* (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017a; 2017b) and *Pro-Sustainable behavior Scale* (Landon, C., Woosnam, K. & Boley, B., 2018).

Further, we find that all interviewees have a behavioral intention to try or make use of a premium fashion rental service if they were provided with an option to do so. As a product rental service relies on a monetary investment in exchange, namely rent, an adaption of Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson's (1999) *Willingness-to-Buy* construct is found applicable; thus, the construct *Willingness-to-Rent* is developed and measured.

It is identified that the interviewees intend to use the product rental service for different reasons, and thus ascribe value to the service differently. Value perceptions can be generated without the service being brought out or used, which applies to our study. For the same reason, we find Sweeney and Soutar's (2001) *Consumer Perceived Value Scale* to be suitable for measuring the Danish female's perceived value of this service.

Moreover, the interviewees indicated that the opportunity to rent a premium garment would give rise to buying it posteriorly. Thus, we will use Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson's (1999) *WtB construct* to account for this.

Additionally, several interviewees point to the fashion industry and (potential) providers of a premium fashion rental service. A positive attitude towards brands that have or would offer the service is found. For the same reason, we find it relevant to test whether a premium fashion brand's image would increase by offering a product rental service. As a result, we will use Lam, Ahearne, and Schillewaert's (2012) *Brand Image Scale*. In continuation, some interviewees even find product rental service admirable and meaningful, arguing that providers of such service serve humanity; the consumers' interest. Consequently, we find it relevant to test for *BA* with Akbar and Wymer's (2017) Brand Authenticity Scale.

5.2 Research framework and hypotheses

After conducting an exploratory qualitative phase, we now present a framework for empirical testing. Due to the split in formative and reflective scales, we seek to overcome any potential obstacles by testing the formative scale *CPV* on both construct and dimensional level. With this, our primary research continues to investigate our established hypotheses. However, within the hypotheses concerning *CPV*, we have further tested *CPV-Price, CPV-Quality, CPV-Social,* and *CPV-Emotion*, as these dimensions relate to *CPV*'s formative nature. This is done with Hair's (2013) perspective in mind: "*They [formative constructs] are viewed as indices where each indicator is a cause of the construct"* (Hair, 2013. p. 611).

To ascertain if multicollinearity was a threat to our dataset or not, we tested for variance inflation. Our test showed that all VIF were below 2, thus clearly below the tolerance value of .10, corresponding to a VIF of 10 (Hair, 2013). This allows us to conclude that multicollinearity is not a problem within our study (App. 15). Lastly, the tested skewness and kurtosis coefficients were within the acceptable limits: -1 to +1 (Hair, 2013). Thus, the tested constructs are normally distributed (App. 14).

Figure 7. Theoretical framework with results gives a visual overview of our results. As seen in the figure, we find significant relationships between four of the antecedents and the main variable. Age moderates two of seven relationships. Lastly, we find significant relations between all outcome

variables, indicating that product rental services have a positive effect on businesses. Relations with the most significant relationships have been marked ***, representing a $P<.001$. Similar, significant relationships with a P-value of $P<.01$ are marked **. P-values of $P>.05$ are marked *. When no relation was found between the independent and dependent variables, the line is marked N.S. (no-significant relation).

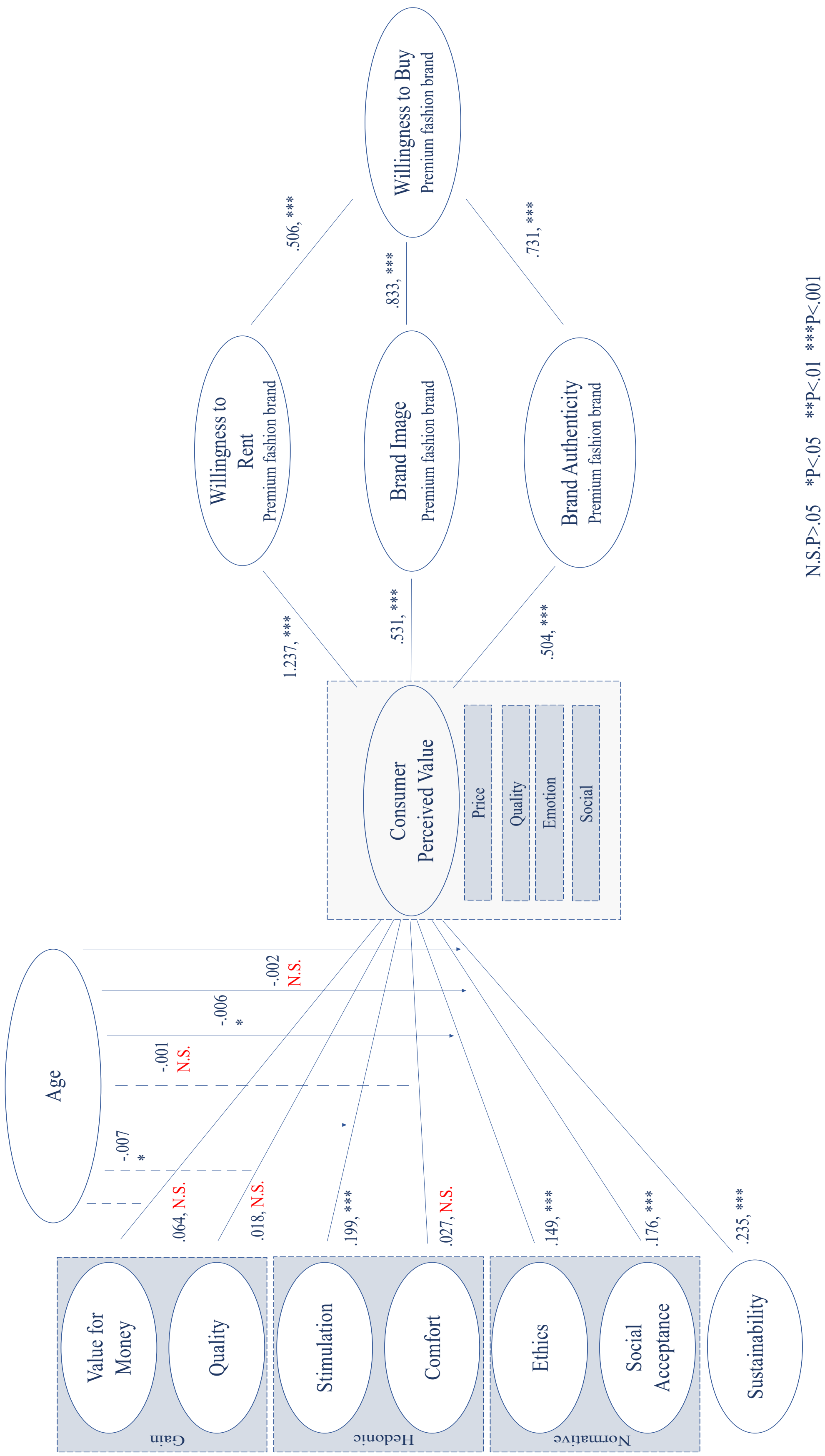

Figure 7. Theoretical Framework with results

5.2.1 Outcomes of *Consumer Perceived Value*

Willingness-to-Rent

In H1, we hypothesize that a higher *CPV of [a premium fashion rental service]* will increase *WtR [a premium fashion brand].*

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between CPV and WtR, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between CPV and WtR is positive (β = 1.237). With this, we accept our H1, which means that an increase in CPV correlates with an increase in *WtR*. Furthermore, we see a significant relation between *WtR* and the *CPV* dimensions; Price (P<.001, .610), Quality (P<.001, .690), Social (P<.001, .597) and Emotion (P<.001, .934).

Brand Image

In H2, we hypothesize that a higher *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*] will increase *BI* of [*a premium fashion brand*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between CPV and BI, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between CPV and BI is positive (β = .531). With this, we accept our H2, which means that an increase in CPV correlates with an increase in BI.

Furthermore, we see a significant relation between BI and the CPV dimensions; Price (P<.001, .206), Quality (P<.001, .485), Social (P<.001, .288) and Emotion (P<.001, .318).

Brand Authenticity

In H3, we hypothesize that a higher *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*] will increase *BA* of [*a premium fashion brand*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between *CPV* and *BA*, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between *CPV* and *BA* is positive (β = .504). With this, we accept our H3, which means that an increase in *CPV* correlates with an increase in *BA*.

Furthermore, we see a significant relation between *BA* and the *CPV* dimensions; Price (P<.001, .239), Quality (P<.001, .461.), Social (P<.001, .242) and Emotion (P<.001, .293).

The relationship between *Willingness-to-Rent* and *Willingness-to-Buy*

In H4, we hypothesize that a higher *WtR* from [*a premium fashion rental service*] will increase *WtB* from [*a premium fashion brand*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between *WtR* and *WtB*, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between *WtR* and *WtB* is positive (β = .506). With this, we accept our H4*,* which means that an increase in *WtR* correlates with an increase in *WtB*.

The relationship between *Brand Image* and *Willingness-to-Buy*

In H5, we hypothesize that a higher *BI* of [*a premium fashion brand*] will increase *WtB* from [*a premium fashion brand*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between BI and WtB, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between BI and WtB is positive (β = .833). With this, we accept our H5*,* which means that an increase in BI correlates with an increase in WtB.

The relationship between *Brand Authenticity* and *Willingness-to-Buy*

In H6, we hypothesize that a higher *BA* of [*a premium fashion brand*] will increase *WtB* from [*a premium fashion brand*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between *BA* and *WtB*, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between *BA* and *WtB* is positive (β = .731). With this, we accept our H6*,* which means that an increase in *BA* correlates with an increase in *WtB*.

5.2.2 Antecedents of *Consumer Perceived Value*

Value for Money

In H7, we hypothesize that a *higher perceived VfM will increase the CPV of [a premium fashion rental service]*.

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed no significant relation between *VfM* and *CPV,* as P>0.5 (N.S., .064). Thus, we reject our H7 hypothesis.

However, when looking into the dimensions of *CPV*, we see a significant relation between *VfM* and *CPV*-quality, as P<.01 (.175). No significant relation (N.S.) was found between *VfM* and the remaining *CPV* dimensions; Price (P>.05, -.104), Social (P>0.5, .065), and Emotion (P>.05, .120).

Quality

In H8, we hypothesize that a higher perceived *Quality* will increase the *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed no significant relation between *Quality* and *CPV*, as P>0.5 (N.S., .018). Thus, we reject our H8 hypothesis.
Furthermore, we find no significant relation (N.S.) between *Quality* and the *CPV* dimensions; Price (P>0.5, .034), Quality (P>.05,.017), Social (P>0.5, -0.36), and Emotion (P>0.5, 0.57).

Stimulation

In H9, we hypothesize that a higher perceived *Stimulation* will increase the *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*].
The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between *Stimulation* and *CPV*, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between *Stimulation* and *CPV* is positive (β = .199). With this, we accept our H9*,* which means that the more a consumer is motivated by *Stimulation*, the higher their perceived value will be.
Furthermore, we see a significant relation between *Stimulation* and the *CPV* dimensions; Quality (P<0.5, .116), Social (P<.000, .291), and Emotion (P<.000, .273). We found no significant relation between stimulation and CPV-price (P>0.5, .115).

Comfort

In H10, we hypothesize that a higher perceived *Comfort* will increase the *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*].
The regression analysis in SPSS revealed no significant relation between *Comfort* and *CPV*, as P>0.5 (N.S., .027). Thus, we reject our H10 hypothesis.
However, when looking into the dimensions of CPV, we see a significant relation between *Comfort* and *CPV*-Quality, as P<.05 (.117). No significant relation (N.S.) was found between *Comfort* and the remaining CPV dimensions; Price (P>0.5, 0.69), Social (P>0.5, -.106), and Emotion (P>.05, .026).

Ethics

In H11, we hypothesize that a higher perceived *Ethics* will increase the *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*].
The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between *Ethics* and *CPV,* as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between *Ethics* and *CPV* is positive (β = .149). With this, we accept our H11*,* which means that the more a consumer is motivated by *Ethics*, the higher their perceived value will be.

Furthermore, we see a significant relation between *Ethics* and the *CPV* dimensions; Price (P<0.5, .147), Quality (P<0.01 .150), Social (P<.05, .140), and Emotion (P<.05, .159).

Social Acceptance

In H12, we hypothesize that a higher perceived *Social Acceptance* will increase the *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV*, as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV* is positive (β = .176). With this, we accept our H12*,* which means that the more a consumer is motivated by *Social Acceptance,* the higher their perceived value will be.

Furthermore, we see a significant relation between *Social Acceptance* and and the *CPV* dimensions; Social (P<.001, .404) and Emotion (P<.001, .187).

No significant relation (N.S.) was found between *Social Acceptance* and the remaining *CPV* dimensions; Price (P>0.5, .034) and Quality (P>.05, .080).

Sustainability

In H13, we hypothesize that a higher perceived *Sustainability* will increase the *CPV* of [*a premium fashion rental service*].

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed a significant relation between *Sustainability* and *CPV,* as P<.001 (***). Additionally, we found that the beta coefficient between *Sustainability* and *CPV* is positive (β = .235). With this, we accept our H13*,* which means that the more a consumer is motivated by *Sustainability*, the higher their perceived value will be.

Furthermore, we see a significant relation between *Sustainability* and the CPV dimensions; Price (P<.0.5, .154), Quality (P<.001, .269), Social (P<.01, .216), and Emotion (P<.001, .300).

5.2.3 The Relationship between Motive and *Consumer Perceived Value* moderated by Age

The relationship between *VfM* and *CPV* moderated by Age

Not applicable.

As we found no significant relationship between *VfM* and *CPV*, *cf. 5.2.2. Value for Money,* we do not conduct a multiple regression analysis with the moderator in play. This is determined as the moderator sought to investigate whether or not age plays a significant role in the relation between *VfM* and *CPV*. The analysis is therefore rejected.

The relationship between Quality and CPV moderated by Age

Not applicable.

As we find no significant relationship between *Quality* and CPV, *cf. 5.2.2. Quality*, we do not conduct a multiple regression analysis with the moderator in play. This is determined as the moderator sought to investigate whether or not age plays a significant role in the relation between quality and CPV. The analysis is therefore rejected.

The relationship between Stimulation and CPV moderated by Age

In H16, we hypothesize that the relationship between *Stimulation* and *CPV* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed that the relationship between *Stimulation* and *CPV* will be strengthened with lower age, as P<.05 (*, -.007). With this, we accept our H16*,* which means that a lower age will strengthen the relationship between *Stimulation* and *CPV*.

The relationship between Comfort and CPV moderated by Age

Not applicable.

As we find no significant relationship between *Comfort* and *CPV*, *cf. 5.2.2. Comfort*, we do not conduct a multiple regression analysis with the moderator in play. This is determined as the moderator sought to investigate whether or not age plays a significant role in the relation between *Comfort* and *CPV*. The analysis is therefore rejected.

The relationship between Ethics and CPV moderated by Age

In H18, we hypothesize that the relationship between *Ethics* and *CPV* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed that age does not have a significant effect on the relationship between *Ethics* and *CPV,* as P>.05 (N.S., -.001). With this, we reject our H18.

The relationship between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV* moderated by Age

In H19, we hypothesize that the relationship between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed that the relationship between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV* will be strengthened with lower age, as P<.05 (*, -.006). With this, we accept our H19*,* which means that a lower age will strengthen the relationship between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV.*

The relationship between *Sustainability* and *CPV* moderated by Age

In H20, we hypothesize that the relationship between *Sustainability* and *CPV* will strengthen with a *lower age*.

The regression analysis in SPSS revealed that age does not have a significant effect on the relationship between *Sustainability* and *CPV,* as P>.05 (N.S., -.002). With this, we reject our H20.

Chapter 6
Discussion

In this chapter, we will discuss **1)** our results in relation to existing literature, **2)** the research design's limitations and how this may impact the results, and **3)** propose future research that accommodates these limitations and build upon our results in a new context.

6.1 Theoretical Implications

This thesis should be looked upon as a preliminary attempt at elucidating the phenomenon of premium fashion rental services. A phenomenon that potentially can mitigate the gap between changing consumer behavior and conventional ways of driving sales. The research addresses both motives of shopping for clothes and consumers' perceived value of premium fashion rental services. Further, it addresses the potential consequences of adding a product rental service onto a premium fashion brand's existing business model. Based on the previous chapter *c.f. 5.0 Results*, some implications seem relevant to discuss.

6.1.1 Consequences of *Consumer Perceived Value* of premium fashion rental service *Willingness-to-Rent* and *Willingness-to-Buy*

In recent years, academic research has devoted considerable attention to service and the benefits that it can bring to both consumers and businesses (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Vargo & Lusch (2004) argue service to be the most essential element when developing customer value propositions. Thus, service must be integrated into the business model if companies are to succeed in current business-landscapes (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Further, S-D logic claims that consumers are co-creators of value. Thus, consumers play a significant role in determining the success of new business implementations, e.g. product rental service. With this, we take on a consumer-centric approach and investigate 'service' as an intangible operant resource: "t*he application of specialized competences (knowledge and skills) through deeds, processes and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself*" (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p. 2).

The previous determinant of value, namely the 'price scale', is now outdated (Kotler et al., 2012). Instead, new scales have found its way to the field of marketing strategy as a result of new experimental and sustainable initiatives (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Linder & Williander, 2015; Kotler et al., 2012). As consumer demand has changed, companies have sought to follow. Among these new initiatives, we identify product rental services of premium fashion brands. However, studies have yet to investigate whether the service can be seen as a strategic benefit for companies to implement. In essence, is rental services an attractive add-on for businesses? This is identified through a consumer-centric approach, thus the main variable: *CPV* (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).

The first step of this study was to examine **1)** if consumers perceive product rental services to be valuable (main variable), and if so **2)** whether consumers are willing to rent clothes (H1). The findings show that consumers do perceive the rental service to be of value. In numbers, 50.55% (182 out of 360 respondents) perceive the product rental service to be valuable (App. 12). The relation between CPV and *WtR* has a significant score of .000. This indicates a 1/1000 chance of a relationship this strong emerging within a dataset of this size. Further, the β of CPV to *WtR* is 1.237. The measures of the survey were done on a 5-point Likert scale, which indicates that *CPV* has an impact on consumers' *Willingness-to-Rent*. Due to the significant relation, we conclude that there is a linear relation between *CPV* and *WtR*.

Furthermore, when weighing the β of *CPV*, we find that *CPV-Emotion* is a more significant dimension of *CPV* compared to those of *CPV-Price, CPV-Quality, and CPV-Social*. The *CPV-Emotion* β = .934. However, as all dimensions are above .500, meaning they are relatively strong. We argue all four play a significant role in determining consumers' *WtR* premium fashion brands.

Sweeney & Soutar (2001) argue that experiences ascribe to the dimension of *Emotion*. In relation, Bardhi and Eckhardt's claim (2012): "*Instead of buying and owning things, consumers want access to goods and prefer to pay for the experience of temporarily accessing them*" (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012, p. 881). Thus, when consumers engage with a rental service, they will gain experiences. This is a possible explanation for the high β of *Emotion*. In conclusion, product rental services can fulfill the wish of having emotional senses awakened, when shopping for clothes.

Notable for the relation between *CPV* and *WtR* is the case-example of GANNI Repeat. Prior to our study, we found it necessary to control for externalities; thus, we conducted our data around one case-example. This was done to **1)** ensure the validity of our results and give an accurate and fair image of what consumers might experience during the investigation, and **2)** to ensure a similar understanding of the concept between interviewees and respondents. This led to the inclusion of GANNI Repeat in both semi-structured interview and questionnaire.

We identify two limitations when controlling for externalities. First, the limited time frame of a questionnaire might not have given the respondents the actual time needed to reflect on the unfamiliar service, and thus evaluate its value. Second, the brand perception of GANNI may or may not have made the respondents favor the concept of product rental service more. However, seen from the study's time-limited perspective, we argue that our method was the most comprehensible solution. However, the pilot-test1 found that a case-example enabled our respondents to understand the concept of product rental service better compared to not having one. Further, the example of GANNI was used in **1)** *BI*, **2)** *BA*, and **3)** *WtB*.

Moreover, we recognize that our interviewees and respondents might reflect minor differences. In the qualitative interviews, we had the opportunity to explain the concept of product rental service and ask if the interviewees had any questions or thoughts in this regard. On the contrary, we did not have the same possibility with the questionnaire. Saunders (2009) argues that a limitation/advantage of a questionnaire is the limited contact between the researcher and respondents. In this particular example, we argue it a limitation, as the respondents could not ask questions regarding the untried service. Thus, respondents had to use their imagination - and the three-line description provided - when asked about *CPV* and *WtR*. We argue this limitation to be an inherent issue to studies, where yet unknown phenomena are investigated.

Concerning *WtB* - the second step of the linear regression (see *figure 6. Theoretical framework including steps*) - we identify a strong relation between *WtR* and *WtB*. This indicates that consumers are willing to buy clothes from a premium fashion brand that has implemented a product rental service. Thus, **1)** consumers still find it relevant to purchase from the brand although a rental service has been implemented, and **2)** they would be more willing to buy the clothes after having been allowed to rent it (try it). In this regard, interviewee I6 states: "*I think you would come to love it [the rented premium clothes] and then you would end up giving full price for it. So, I think it would be dangerous*" (I6, 14:33-14:48). With this, it can be argued that companies offering product rental service could expect an increase in sales. This claim is based on both our qualitative and quantitative data, where eight interviewees state that they would expect a permanent purchase to be a consequence of rental. Further, the quantitative results show a significant relation between *WtR* and *WtB* = .000.

This finding can be seen in relation to *The Shaping Effect Theory*. Shobeiri et al. (2012) argue that the reinforcement of behaviors similar to desired ones affects future behavior. This indicates that rental services might spark new behavior patterns amongst consumers; thus, rental services might be a 'teaser' for consumers who have not yet engaged with the premium brand. Further, the rental service might commit consumers to a new truth about themselves (Lammers, 1991), thus give hope to the "desired self" that consumers can be said to have (Belk, 1988).

As *WtR* is the independent variable of *WtB*, *WtR* is beneficially compared to the other independent variables of *WtB*, namely *BI* and *BA*. Among the independent variables, we see the weakest relation between *WtR* and *WtB*; $\beta = .506$. The relationship between BI and WtB shows the strongest relation with a $\beta = .833$. Thus, BI is the most significant contributor to an increase in WtB.

Brand Image

BI is an essential concept in marketing literature, as it is a key player in all purchase phases: pre, during, and post-purchase (Keller, 1993). A positive *BI* will not only stimulate consumers' actual purchase behavior but will eventually lead to brand loyalty, which enhances brand performance, ultimately increasing brand equity (Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1996; Hsieh, Pan & Setiono, 2004). Sweeney & Soutar (2001) argue that the beneficiary always determines value. They find that if a consumer perceives a product or service valuable, it will increase the overall brand perception. Consumers are increasingly valuing shared consumption models as well as brand experiences and interactions (Belk, 2007; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Shobeiri, 2012). Therefore, it is suggested that offering a product rental service will increase *the BI of* a premium fashion brand – as implied in H2. This study supports the notion that consumers ascribing high value to a premium fashion rental service will strengthen the *BI* of the premium fashion brand, as the impact of *CPV* on *BI* was significant ($P < .001$) with a positive β coefficient = .531.

Keller (1993) argues that a *BI* builds on brand associations, which is formed by attributes, benefits, and attitudes. For the same reason, a possible explanation for *CPV's* impact on *BI* may be found in these.

Attributes are related to what consumers think the product or service is (Keller, 1993). As the study is conducted on a service that the majority of respondents have not yet used (N=352), one might raise questions towards the explanation of the service; *Was it comprehensible?; Was it accurate?; Were* *any product and non-product related attributes abstained?*; etc. As mentioned above (*cf. 6.1.1 Consequences of Consumer Perceived Value of Premium Fashion Rental Service: Willingness-to-Rent and Willingness-to-Buy*)**,** respondents' understanding of the service was solely built on the explanation provided in the questionnaire. The phrase on product-related attributes: "*The price includes quality assurance, insurance, dry-cleaning, and delivery*" (App. 11) may illustrate the 'ideal' service, as there was no further information on what, e.g. *delivery* or *quality assurance* account for. However, the explanation of the service was built on GANNI's website explanation to control for externalities (GANNI, 2020), and a limited timeframe that kept respondents from dropping out of the questionnaire. Moreover, the preliminary study uses the same explanation in order to account for possible questions. Here we asked: "*Do you have any questions in regard to this?*" (App. 9) where to all interviewees answered no.

Nevertheless, we do account that this may affect the respondents' evaluation of the actual product-related attributes to be more positive. Further, one might argue that these product-related attributes may have been overshadowed by what the respondents already know, namely the non-product related attributes, i.e. user imagery of the well-known brand-example, GANNI, or the concrete price information of the service. In regard to user imagery, companies invest in ideal users e.g. celebrities, spokespersons, and social media influencers to promote the exclusivity of the brand (Aaker, 1996). Thus, one might argue that being exposed to a premium brand i.e. GANNI, will evoke a profile or mental image within the respondents of the actual user or more idealized, inspirational user of the brand. Further, the exact price of such service is mentioned: "*The price is 15-18% of the retail price for a week's rental*" followed by the retail price of the given dress-example (App. 11), making the non-product related attributes more tangible in the questionnaire. Thus, the respondents know what to expect of the non-product related attributes, thus rely more on these attributes when evaluating the service.

Benefits are the personal values that question; *what can the product or service do for the consumer*? (Keller, 1993). Functional benefits are linked to basic motivations, e.g. safety needs and a desire for problem removal (Rossiter & Percy, 1987). A possible argument for why respondents value the service lies within the transfer of liability risk from consumer to company (Baines et al., 2007). The interviewees indicate that it would be an economic solution, as it would remove the significant investment (give component) related to special occasion-wear, which is only used a few times (get component). Thus, the premium fashion rental service might save consumers money that can be used otherwise. In regard to experiential benefits, the respondents [consumers] may find sensory pleasure in the service, as they, through product rental service, can access a new segment of clothes (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). In the interviews, it is indicated that premium fashion brands use better fabric-quality, *cf. 5.1.2 Quality*, which relates to how the clothes feel and look on the body - making it a more pleasant experience. Moreover, I8 explains that: "*They [premium brands] make designs with fun details (…) something nice that is not basic – maybe a little extra feature, where you can see it is nicely made*" (I8, 09:34-10:05). Thus, it is arguable that the respondents find stimulation in the ability to use clothes of unique design and craftsmanship on a more frequent basis.

The symbolic benefits gained by using the premium fashion rental service may as well be the reason for the relationship between *CPV* and *BI*. The interviewees indicate that the service apt to serve the need for self-expression and social approval. More specifically, the interviewees point to two ways of attaining status through the service: **1)** the premium way, and **2)** the sustainable way.

Firstly, the interviewees imply that the limited upfront investment in premium fashion rental service allows them to take more daring and fashionable choices (e.g. seasonal colors), thus enhancing their ability to stand out. From a consumer psychology perspective, Wang & Griskevicius (2014) claims that standing out and expressing high status is a tool that women use to scare off possible competition [other women], which is related to Griskevicius and Kenrick's (2013) fundamental motive of *'keeping that mate'*. However, this may also give rise to frequent renewal of premium clothes, which reflect the financial success of the user, thus signal wealth and create outer-directed self-esteem (Solomon, 1983; Belk, 1988). Moreover, consumers use brands' user-imagery to create their self-image (Aaker, 1996). This access-based service may be seen as a unique opportunity to be associated with those the respondents aspire to be like (Escalas & Bettman, 2003) e.g. influencers and celebrities wearing GANNI. After all, Han, Nunes, and Dréze (2010) argue that one has: *"the potential to signal status through the use of luxury goods"* (p. 18); thus, the potential to signal status is not found in the actual ownership, but in the usage.

Secondly, the majority of interviewees view the product rental service as sustainable, as an example: "*It seems more environmentally conscious. When you rent, it seems you would buy less. I think that is good for the environment – we can save on material usage*" (I1, 14:51-15:05). Such a statement is arguably an offset of the growing public discourse that questions the general fascination with consumerism (Sandin & Peters, 2018). This discourse has led quality to prevail quantity and made it socially desirable to claim a no-waste, minimalist lifestyle, especially amongst consumers born in 1980 to 2000 (Weinswig, 2016; Johnson & Chattaraman, 2018) - the consumer group of I1. The socially desirable aspect of sustainability may make product rental service seem beneficial to the respondents, as it proclaims her to be a conscious consumer. In continuation, I3 explains the symbolic benefits of the service: "*To contribute to a more sustainable solution is also something that can give one a good conscience. I think (...) I would see myself in a more environmental- positive light*" (*I3, 35:15-35:26*). With this, one could argue that the service has potential self-signaling abilities. Thus, the motivation that started altruistically may not be utterly unselfish in the way that individuals receive personal gain – social approval – when providing support for the environment. Thus, one may gain the fundamental motive "*attaining status"* (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013, p. 376) through a premium product rental service. With this, Belk (2007) might be right. Maybe the modern way of sharing might spoil the altruistic motives for sharing, and thus sharing might be given new meaning? This may as well be an interesting angle to the theoretical framework, namely, to explore whether consumers are motivated altruistically or egotistically by the sustainable aspect of premium fashion rental service.

The evaluation of the attributes and benefits of the service constitute the overall attitude towards the brand. The significant relationship of H2 indicates that consumers ascribing value to a premium fashion brand product rental service will strengthen their perception of the given premium fashion brand's image. The sample shows a mean score > 3.5 on all six *Brand-Image*-items indicating a favorable attitude towards the premium fashion brand providing a product rental service. Especially, the items on the values' respected' (mean = 3.99) and 'admirable' (mean = 3.86) show that the mean would "agree" (5-point Likert scale) to associate these values to the brand. This finding may be seen in the light of the preliminary study, where interviewees find the service admirable and meaningful, arguing that providers of such service serve humanity.

Further, we see a significant relation P<.001 between *BI* of [a premium fashion brand] and *WtB* from [a premium fashion brand] in H5. With this, one could argue that a strengthened BI is vital within sales, as it lowers the uncertainty/risks connected to shopping, thus increases the willingness to purchase from the premium fashion brand (Merz et al., 2009).

Brand Authenticity

Gilmore and Pine (2007, p. 5) argue that: "*authenticity has overtaken quality as the prevailing purchase criteria*" – a change that is closely related to the enhanced focus on corporate transparency and sustainability. In a nutshell, consumers look for brands that are original, genuine and relevant; an increased search for authentic brands (Arnould & Price, 2000; Beverland, 2005; Morhart et al., 2014). This demand is significantly growing within the fashion industry – an industry with a heavy history of unethical and unsustainable production/actions (Sadin & Peters, 2018). Thus, our study ought to provide premium fashion brands with a framework that evaluates the effectiveness of the product rental service to deliver authenticity to the brand (Napoli et al., 2014). The significant relationship of H3 ($P<.001$; $\beta = .504$) expresses that consumers who ascribe value to the product rental service are also more likely to view the service-providing brand as authentic. Hence, we do argue that a product rental service will deliver authenticity to the premium fashion brand.

The possible explanation for the increased *BA* with an increased *CPV* may be found in interviewee I7's quote: "*These things [product rental service] show that we think of something more than just ourselves - one's ego. There is something else that matters*" (I7, 10:31-10:43). She continues: "*It [product rental service] seems hugely sympathetic and meaningful*" (I7, 15:39-15:47). This argument is found similar to Botsman and Rogers' (2011) notion that PSS reinvent traditional market behavior in the interest of the consumer. Simply, enabling them access to products in a more sustainable manner and accommodating the lacking autonomy of having ethical, alternative purchase ways to choose from (Jacobsen & Dulsrud, 2007). Thus, the respondents valuing the product rental service may have found the premium fashion brand to be uttermost genuine and sincere in downplaying commercial motives and take on sustainable initiatives.

In connection to this and as hypothesized, we expected a positive correlation between *CPV* and *BI* due to the service's genuine nature that holds consumer interest (Mont, 2002; Sposato et al., 2017). Thus, we wished to confirm that it was in fact values related to *BA* that also strengthened the overall *BI*. The items that had the highest mean on the *BI* item-scale was 'respected' (mean = 3.99) and 'meaningful' (mean = 3.86) – meaning that the respondents agreed to these values being true of the premium fashion brand providing the service (5-point Likert scale). It may be possible that the increased *BA* – an offspring of the product rental service implementation – strengthens the overall *BI*. Therefore, it would be interesting to test the relationship between *BA* and *BI* - thus, how much *BA* contributes to the overall *BI*.

Beverland (2006) and Morhart et al. (2014) argue that consumers expect continuity in an authentic brand. Being faithful towards the brand heritage as well as keeping a consistent quality is required. In this regard, we find a possible limitation to the study's generalizability, namely the case-example of GANNI and its mission statement. Through the questionnaires pilot-test1, we found that a mission statement was vital for respondents with lower awareness on the premium fashion brand [GANNI] to form an opinion on whether the product rental service is consistent with the brand or not. Thus, the inclusion of GANNI's mission statement may have influenced the high level of agreement with *BA*-item1: "*GANNI stays true to itself*" (mean = 3.55/5-point Likert scale) and *BA*-item3: "*GANNI delivers what it promises*" (mean = 3.51/5-point Likert scale). However, we do argue that consumers in general associate premium brands with durability and stronger human content/ideals (Keller, 2009) – similar to that of GANNI's mission statement - thus, we find the results relatively applicable to the premium fashion industry at large.

Further, we heed Morhart et al.'s (2014) call for research on *BA*'s effect on brand consumption. We see a positive significant relation (P<. 001; β = .731) between *BA* of [a premium fashion brand] and *WtB* from [a premium fashion brand] in H6. A possible explanation of this may be that of Hernandez-Fernandez and Lewis (2019), who argue that authenticity is closely related to trust-building. Authentic brands are often considered responsible and reliable, acting in the interest of the consumer (Coary, 2013). Thus, *BA* will produce a higher reliance on a brand to fulfill its promise(s) creating a feeling of safety, presumably increasing sales (Hernandez-Fernandez and Lewis, 2019). Moreover, the positive significant relation may also be a sign of 'self-labeling'. Authenticity is considered a very positive trait and purchasing criterion in society today (Morhart et al., 2014), and so buying an offering of an authentic brand might provide the customer with recognition benefits (Akbar & Wymer, 2017). This may be a self-verifying vehicle for consumers (Morhart et al., 2014). According to Keller (1993), this will lead to purchase intention.

6.1.2 Antecedents of *Consumer Perceived Value* of premium fashion rental service

Consumer motivation(s) is an essential concept within marketing and consumer psychology, as it assesses pre-purchase motivations and considerations, which can be used for understanding and predicting consumer behavior (Barbopoulos and Johansson, 2017a). Therefore, the antecedents to *Consumers Perceived Value* of a premium fashion rental service is necessary to examine, as these consumer motivations can help scholars and practitioners understand which motivations correlate positively with *CPV*. Thus, which motivations that might be beneficial to examine further and/or put emphasize on when introducing product rental services to Danish female consumers.

Value for Money

In this research, we hypothesize that there is a positive correlation between *VfM* and *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service. This is based on product-service systems' opportunity to give consumers access to a product at a reduced price (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Tukker, 2004). However, we do not find a positive correlation between the two constructs. A possible explanation might be that consumers almost always care about gaining value for their money. The mean of the three items asked about *VfM* can support this, as the mean is 4.02 (5-point Likert-scale), thus implying that most respondents answered: "*partly agree"* when asked e.g. "*The product should not be a waste of money*" (*VfM* item3). Regarding this, one can argue that the items are leading. However, we sought to stay true to our methodology of either adopting or adapting scales from previously validated studies. Therefore, the items might not be perfect for showing the variation in people's ascription to *VfM*.

Additionally, the rejection of the relation between *VfM* and *CPV* might be because the consumers still find the premise of *Value-for-Money* to be related to obtaining ownership, thus not ready to adopt a 'usage mindset'. Thereby, indicating that consumers are not ready for non-ownerships models within premium fashion. This can be seen in contradiction to the growing 'usage mindset' within other industries, e.g. transportation, hospitality, and entertainment (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). Further, findings from the preliminary study show that the interviewees have different associations with the construct *VfM*. Some associate it with quality of the fabrics, others with neutral design, and lastly, some have a more holistic view including both. Nevertheless, they all closely associate *VfM* with the durability of the products, *cf. 5.1.1 Results: Preliminary study: Value for Money*. Durability can be assessed as relatively low as product rental service only grant one access to the products for a limited time. More research is required to investigate the influence of durability in association with *VfM* and its relationship to *CPV* of product rental service.

Despite the rejected hypothesis, we do find a positive correlation when looking into *VfM* and the *CPV* dimension of *Quality*. This implies that the ones having a high motivation for *VfM* also perceive the quality of the rental service and its products to be high. In terms of Sweeney and Soutar's

(2001) *VfM* theory, we argue that consumers 'get' much quality through product rental service, but it does not make up for the' give' component; the price. Further, the other get-components, *CPV* dimensions: *CPV-Social* and *CPV-Emotion,* do not add-up for this sacrifice made.

Quality

Looking at the relationship between *Quality* and *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service, we hypothesized a positive significant correlation, as rental service allows customers to wear clothes of a premium brand; thus, high quality (Okonkwo, 2007; Nueno & Quelch, 1998). However, the motivation for quality products when shopping is not related to the perceived value of a premium fashion rental service, implying that consumers usually motivated by quality when shopping do not necessarily find the product rental service valuable.

One reason could be that consumers do not believe that premium fashion rental service can offer access to better quality than what they are used to in terms of e.g. fabrics or a good and reliable service. However, the *CPV* dimension of *Quality* has a mean of 3.85 – implying that consumers overall perceive the premium fashion rental service to offer *Quality*. This indicates that not only the ones motivated by *Quality* perceived the premium fashion rental service as valuable. This might be the explanation for the rejection of the hypothesis. Another reason could be that the ones usually caring for quality are more critical when it comes to their evaluation of products and services.

Stimulation

Our framework depicts how the consumer motivation of *Stimulation* affects *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service. The significant relation between *Stimulation* and *CPV* implies that the motivation of *Stimulation* affects the perceived value of premium fashion rental service positively. With this, suggesting that consumers who are motivated by *Stimulation*, e.g. seeking more adventurous and sensational products, are more likely to perceive a higher value of premium fashion rental services.

These findings correlate with the ones found in the preliminary research, were I1, I2, I3, I7 and I8 state how they find it essential that clothes are stimulating (adventurous and sensational) - to this I7 states: *"I wish not be perceived as mainstream and instead be unique. I do not really care about what brand it is, but it has to be special" (I7, 3:38-4:20)*. Similar I8 says: "*They [premium brands] make designs with fun details (…) something nice, that is not basic – maybe a little extra feature, where* *you can see it is nicely made"* (I8, 09:34-10:12). Following this, our interviewees continue to state how the proposed rental service would give them access to wear more 'wild' and colorful clothes, e.g. I7 says: "*I would definitely try it [rental clothes] out to see how it works. Especially the wild dress that I dreamt about, but in reality could not afford*" (I7, 27:14-27:28), and I3 follows this: "*It [rental] really makes sense (...) You could try many clothes and test it and dare to be more courageous in your choices*" (I3, 28:50-29:06). These findings are similar to Botsman and Rogers (2010), who argue that consumers are more prone to use a PSS when a product fulfills a temporary need or has limited usage e.g. fashion.

However, we are aware that the case example of GANNI Repeat, including images of GANNI garments, might have influenced the relationship between *Stimulation* and *CPV* to be higher. GANNI is known for its colorful and detailed clothes (Costume, 2020; Gammelgaard, 2018), which is in direct relation to the item of *Stimulation*. Thus, consumers "*partly agreeing*" or "*strongly agreeing*" with the statements: "*It is important that the clothes are…":* "…not too dull or routine", "…unique or gives unique experiences", and "…interesting" are assumed to perceive a higher value of GANNI Repeat [product rental service] (App. 11).

Nonetheless, Danish premium fashion brands are known for their distinct and playful design, which is often rather stimulating in terms of colors, prints, details, etc. (Costume, 2020; Gammelgaard, 2018). Thus, we argue that the findings may apply to the Danish premium fashion industry as a whole.

Comfort

We do not find a positive relationship between *Comfort* and *CPV*. We argue that consumers caring for *Comfort* find rental services too risky, as the consumers cannot see or feel the clothes before renting it and thereby know its comfort. Thus, the uncertainties connected to shopping and renting online might lead to a lower perceived value of the rental case exemplified: GANNI Repeat. This is suggested based on several of the statements in the preliminary research:

> "*You cannot see how it looks and evaluate the fit on yourself, because all models look alike (…) you cannot feel the quality or see the colors – and then it is a more fulfilled experience to buy a piece of clothes in a [physical] shop – get an experience with another human being*" (I3, 7:35-7:57)

Similarly, I1 states: "*I mainly shop in physical stores, because I like to try the clothes before I buy it*" (I1, 6:44-6:53). However, other interviewees state that comfortability and convenience are found in shopping from home, as it is more manageable and foreseeable: "*There is something doable about online shopping. Especially with the kids – it is an easy way to look at clothes together. It is a quick-fix, it is fast and not inconvenient*" (I7, 7:48 - 8:36). Similar, I2 states:

> "*The advantage of online shopping is that I get to see it on a model (...) how it fits and so on. Then I like to see if they have it [the clothes] in stock. Sometimes I receive it faster than if I have to figure out 'Eh, on Thursday I have time to go shopping*" (I2, 7:35-8:09).

Thus, we suggest that an online platform of a rental service might not cause pain - in fact, the opposite. With this, we identify different perceptions of whether offline or online shopping is comfortable. This variance might be the reason why there is no correlation. For future research, we, therefore, suggest making a distinction between the *Comfort* gained online versus offline.

However, we do find a relationship between *Comfort* and *CPV-Quality*. A possible explanation may be item similarity in *Comfort* [antecedent]: "*It [shopping] has to be a comfortable experience*", and *CPV-Quality* [main variable]: *"[The concept of GANNI Repeat] would perform consistently*". Thus, comfort in *CPV* might be partially covered in the notion of *Quality*.

Ethics

The findings show that the consumer motive *Ethics* is strongly related to *CPV* of premium fashion rental service. This correlates positively, which implies that a consumer with increased ethical motives when shopping will ascribe higher value to the premium fashion rental service. Further, we see an increased focus on conscious consumption, as consumers show their political, thus ethical opinion at the checkout (Micheletti, 2003; Jacobsen & Dulsrud 2007), *cf. 2.1.1 Changing consumer.*

However, the items asked in the questionnaire does not ask about specific ethical concerns, such as if the respondents are against e.g. child labor and only consume from brands that disassociate themselves from this. Instead, the three items on ethics focus on the consumer's motivation to only shop products (from brands) that comply with the consumer's principles, opinions, ideals along with personal and moral obligations. Thus, the items do not explicitly distinguish between ethical and sustainable concerns. This might be due to the earlier mentioned close relation between the two.

However, the motivation of *Ethics*, as proposed by Lindenberg & Steg (2007), concerns how consumers are motivated by acting appropriately – and what is appropriate has changed and gained drastically more attention during the recent years. This environmental and ethical debate has been intensified with interconnected, dense networks that spread and critically evaluate corporations' actions (Lyon & Montgomery, 2013). Therefore, the private sector has focused on increasing accountability and transparency, as this critical information is easily shared with stakeholders and the general public (Lyon & Montgomery, 2013). Further, Yarimoglu (2017) argues that today's consumers, especially Gen Z, are more enlightened about corporations' actions and, therefore, often take a conscious stance. Although, the items do not explicitly address the different areas of ethics, we still find that consumers are more conscious than previously seen. Thus, we argue that the items adapted are useful to assess if the consumers are motivated to consume in line with their ethical stance. The relationship between *Ethics* and *CPV* is therefore relevant, as practitioners can use this to highlight the ethical elements of choosing to rent premium fashion clothes.

Social Acceptance

In chapter *5. Results*, we find a positive relationship between the motive *Social Acceptance* and *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service. This relationship was hypothesized, as a product rental service can give consumers access to more premium clothes, thus prestigious brands, *cf. 3. Framework and Hypotheses*. Therefore, we presume that consumers motivated by *Social Acceptance* will value a premium fashion rental service more. This hypothesis was accepted, thus valid.

Consumers motivated by *Social Acceptance* can obtain social approval through the use of premium clothes. However, this is not necessarily true. Lindenberg and Steg (2007) argue that *Social Acceptance* merely concerns the need to fit in and live up to the expectations of others. This is not necessarily related to premium clothes. Thus, the items related to *Social Acceptance* do not directly concern whether the social accept is obtained as the consumer wears prestigious brands. Nevertheless, it is implicitly assessed through the items. First, Han et al. (2010) state that by using prestigious brands, consumers can attain status. Second, it can be argued, based on Belk's (1988) theory of possessions and extended self, that how consumers dress is part of their self-image. Third, this can be related to the earlier mentioned fundamental motive of attaining status by Griskevicius and Kenrick (2013). So, despite the items not stating the importance of wearing certain brands, it is argued that premium brands are beneficial to improve one's status and gain social acceptance.

Additionally, the motive of *Social Acceptance* is related to *Stimulation* and *Sustainability.* Firstly, wearing certain brands that are distinct in design and more expensive (related to stimuli) can help people show wealth and know how to dress fashionable (Han et al., 2010). As mentioned, Han et al. (2010) state that this is not limited to owning and, therefore, status can be obtained merely through rental services. Hereby, supporting the correlation between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV.* Secondly - as earlier discussed - the recent focus on sustainability has led to new ways of signaling status. Thus, consumers can - through a product rental service - obtain status by signaling themselves as being conscious and responsible (Weinswig, 2016; Johnson & Chattaraman, 2018).

Overall, we argue that the preliminary research findings support these, *cf. 5.1 Preliminary research: Exploring the phenomenon*, as we found that consumers **1)** care about how others perceived them **2)** seek to make an impression through clothes by complying to current trends and **3)** seek to obtain status by being perceived sustainable. Having identified these various distinctions within *Social Acceptance*, it would be interesting to investigate these further.

Sustainability

The regression analysis showed a positive relationship between consumer motivation *Sustainability* and *CPV* of a premium fashion rental service. This was hypothesized, as we find that premium fashion rental service's - a subcategory of use-oriented product-service systems - objective is to maximize an item's usage, thus decrease the environmental impact connected to production (Tukker, 2004; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Sposato et al., 2017). The acceptance of the hypothesis **H13** displays that consumers motivated by sustainability will ascribe a higher value to premium fashion rental services.

The motivation *Sustainability* distincts itself from *Ethics,* as *Ethics* mainly concerns the circumstances under which the clothes are made or purchased, *cf. 5.1. Preliminary research*. Conversely, *Sustainability* focuses on the effects (aftermath) of clothing production and consumption on the environment. Further, the items concentrate directly on consumers' ascription of responsibility, personal norms, and willingness to sacrifice, which assess how motivated they are to act sustainable (Landon, Woosnam & Boley, 2018). With this, we argue that three areas drive Pro-Sustainable Behavior, thus contribute with valuable insights as to how consumers are motivated to act in environmentally friendly ways. Further, the relation implies that the product rental service is a more sustainable way of consuming clothes. Thus, product rental service is attractive, as it is perceived to change current consumption patterns and help the environment.

A limitation to *Sustainability* is that the items asked can be assessed as leading. Some of the items mainly focus on what consumers can do. Hence, respondents might feel guilty if they answer "*strongly disagree*" or "*partly disagree*" with e.g. "*I am willing to pay more for clothes if it helps the environment*", especially given the enhanced focus on the fashion industry's negative impact on the environment. Thus, the respondents might be led to answer "*strongly agree*" or "*partly agree*" in order to stand out as sustainable. This could be related to the intention-behavior gap by Carrington, Nelville, and Whitwell (2010), which in essence, concerns that ethically-minded consumers rarely purchase ethically. Meaning that the respondents might have the intention to purchase sustainably e.g. use premium fashion rental services, but in reality, never end up doing it.

General Limitation

A general limitation of the research is that it is hard to gain insights and paint a full picture of consumer motivations. Firstly, consumer behavior is primarily driven by unconscious decisions. This results in consumers not being aware of or fully understand their motivations (Kotler et al., 2012). Thus, making it hard for respondents to put their behavior into words - let alone a questionnaire. For the same reason, respondents may be tempted to argue according to their intentions and how they would like to see their purchasing behavior. However, we do not deny the attitudes and motivations expressed, but merely state that consumer behavior literature finds that unconscious motivations influence the actual situation.

As an example, Social Acceptance showed a relatively low mean: 2.63. This indicates that the general motivation of *Social Acceptance* is relatively low and that many - to various extents - disagree or remain neutral. However, from a cultural and social perspective, it is argued that we unconsciously are influenced by our reference groups, both the ones we aspire to be a part of and the ones we wish to disassociate from (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004; Kotler et al., 2012). Thus, the consumers are not aware of how others influence them and, therefore, implicitly seek *Social Acceptance*. Additionally, the correlation between *Social Acceptance* and *CPV* does make sense in regard to the preliminary study and the current theories discussed, as the more one cares about others' perception of oneself, the more one would value a premium fashion rental service.

Secondly, the phenomenon is new to the Danish market. Therefore, we base the research on hypothetical questions in regard to *CPV* of a product rental service. This enables us to address general consumer perceptions, as we are not limited to the minority who have already tried the concept (N=8).

Additionally, the hypothetical case is not able to control for an intention-behavior gap. Hence, we cannot observe consumers' actual motivations and behavior. With the development of product rental services in Denmark, we could continue our research to observe consumers and thus produce more conclusive results on actual behavior. Here we recommend the post-purchase scale of *Customer Satisfaction* (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Yang & Preston, 2004).

6.1.3 Moderator of the relationship between antecedents and *Consumer Perceived Value*

Age is often a contributing moderator in theoretical studies. Strauss & Howe (1991) find that years of one's upbringing influences one's habitus and cultural norms, thus influence one's perception and ascription of value throughout life.

These firm beliefs led to the development of age as a moderator, H14 – H20: *The relationship between [motive] and Consumer Perceived Value of [premium fashion brand product rental service] will strengthen with a lower age*. With this, we expect age to influence the relations found in H7 – H13. More specifically, we expect that lower age will strengthen the relationship between tested antecedent [motive] and the main variable [*CPV*]. This postulation is based on Generational Cohort Theory (Jackson, Stoel, & Brantley, 2010; Priporas, Stylos, & Fotiadis, 2017).

The results of age as a moderator show significant relations between two previously found significant relations, namely *Stimulation* to *CPV* and *Social Acceptance* to *CPV*. This indicates that younger consumers ascribe more value to **1)** the stimulation gained through product rental service, and **2)** the social acceptance gained through product rental service. This aligns with current Generation Cohort Theory, as Elmore & McPeak (2019) argue Gen Z to be more bold, trendy, and timeless in their appearance. Thus, younger consumers tend to ascribe value to products and services that are not perceived 'dull' or 'routine' (Stimulation Item1). Further, younger consumers tend to consider others' opinions as more important compared to older consumers (Parment, 2013). This further aligns with Yarimoglu's (2017) finding that Gen Z tends to buy the same brands. Thus, one wishes to stand-out while remaining within the sphere of acceptance.

On another note, we find no significant impact of age moderating the relations of *Ethics* to *CPV* and *Sustainability* to *CPV*. The rejection of H20: *The relationship between Sustainability and Consumer Perceived Value will strengthen with a lower age,* does not align with existing theory. Pripora (2017) claims that Gen Z ascribes higher value to organizations, brands, and industries that seek to lower its carbon footprint compared to any other generational cohort. Thus, we experience a clash between already established empirical studies and our research results. Therefore, we recommend further and more extensive research within the area of young consumers. More precisely, future research on young consumers ascription of value to rental initiatives that are perceived sustainable. Further, it could be interesting to see which initiatives that Gen Z perceive as sustainable, hence if they are more critical - and more educated on sustainability - than previous generational cohorts.

As seen in *2.4. Consumer behavior: Identifying new market opportunities*, this study adopts the segmentation mark of generational cohorts. However, our final dataset has not split into generational cohorts. Instead, our data set, hence hypotheses, takes its measures on the discrete scale of age: 1–100 years old (App. 11). This change in notion - from generational cohorts to age - might have led to a blurred line within our results, as we cannot conclude where the dividing line of age is found. With this, we conclude one limitation within age. The thesis cannot recommend an age-specific target group; however, a broader one. We do argue that our results allow us to determine some characteristics of the beneficiary target audience - more precisely, Gen Y and Gen Z. Future research should beneficially look into determining the age-specific target group of premium fashion rental services.

Concerning the moderator, we acknowledge the potential to test our hypotheses with other moderators e.g. socio-demographic factors such as *income* and *residence* (Kotler et al., 2012). However, we argue age to be the most influential moderator for this study, *c.f. 3.3.1 Development of age hypotheses.*

6.2 Managerial implications

This section seeks to provide premium fashion brands with practical implications of a product rental service. We seek to provide knowledge on **1)** the opportunities of offering a product rental service, **2)** how to position such service, **3)** which segment(s) to target, and **4)** the possible obstacles connected to implementing a product rental service within a premium fashion market.

Before doing so, we find it necessary to underline that this study is an academic phenomenon investigation. Thus, we seek to provide introductory findings to the field of product rental service on the premium fashion market. As we take on a customer-centric approach, our primary focus is on the Danish female consumer's interest towards the subject; are they, in fact, willing to rent? In essence, our findings are not a satisfactory blueprint on how to implement a premium fashion rental service for a premium fashion brand.

6.2.1 The opportunities of offering a product rental service

Given the results in 5.0 Results and 6.1 Theoretical Implications, we argue that there are at least three opportunities connected with the implementation of a product rental service: **1)** a source of revenue, **2)** strengthened *BI*, and **3)** *BA*.

Firstly, we argue that there is a considerable number of respondents in the sample that ascribe value to a premium fashion rental service and indicate a *WtR*. The results show an overall *WtR* mean value = 2.50, which on a 5-point Likert scale implies that the average Danish female consumer is not willing to rent, *c.f. Table 1. Scale Reliability*. However, we do see **a)** a high standard deviation = 1.25 indicating high variation in regard to *WtR* and **b)** a positive significant relation between *CPV* and *WtR* (P< .001), which calls for further investigation. When looking more closely, we find that 50.55% (N=182) respondents ascribe value to the product rental service (App. 12). This amount is found satisfying. Further, 38% (N=137) of the sample "*would consider renting [a premium fashion brand]*" (WtR-Item1)(App. 12), thus meaning that they have answered "partly agree" (= 4) or "strongly agree" (= 5) to the item. As 50.55% of the sample ascribe value to the premium fashion rental service, and further 1/3 show *WtR,* we find that there is a Danish market for renting premium fashion products, thus a potential source of income for the premium fashion industry. With this being said, the exact consumer-demographics of the market have yet to be investigated. However, we do find that *Age* plays a role in perceiving the service as valuable.

Secondly, the product rental service has a derived effect on the overall *BI.* More specifically, the results show that there is a significant relationship between *CPV* and *BI* (P< .001). Thus, the more consumers value the product rental service, the more strengthened *BI* they will have of the premium fashion brand [accepted H2]. This is an important finding, as a strengthened *BI* helps increase the likelihood of consumers buying an actual garment from the company – renting or not (Hsieh, Pan &

Setiono, 2004). This is as well found in the significant relation between *BI* and *WTB* (P< .001) of H5. Further, one may even argue that a product rental service will enhance one's brand position. The preliminary study found that an existing provider of premium fashion rental service was spoken highly about and seen as a pioneer of its category, *cf. 5.1.10 The provider of product rental service*. Thus, the service is also seen as an effort to stay relevant and sustain one's brand performance (Keller, 1993).

Thirdly, both marketing scholars and practitioners find that consumers are in an increased search for authenticity (Gilmore & Pine, 2007; BCG, 2014), and so managers ought to seek new offerings that characterize as authentic. As this study finds a significant relationship between *CPV* and *BA* (P< .001), it is argued that the product rental service can add authenticity to the brand. More specifically, the preliminary study indicates that the service is admirable and meaningful, serving consumer interest, *cf. 5.1.10 The provider of product rental service*. If a consumer views a brand more authentic; responsible and reliable for the welfare of the consumer, it will be more trusted than a brand that is not (Coary, 2013).

6.2.2 Positioning the premium fashion rental service

Managers must understand consumers' motivations and desired end-goals for shopping clothes, as this enables one to define a customer-relevant conceptual place for the brand offering – thus maximizing one's brand value (Aaker, 1996). For a premium fashion brand wanting to implement a product rental service, this means that it needs to use the experience of individuals as a starting point rather than departing in the service (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). The results of the study serve as an indication of which conceptual approach to take when branding the product rental service. In *6.1.2 Antecedents of Consumer Perceived Value of premium fashion rental service,* we find that the respondents ascribing value to the service [possible customers] are increasingly motivated by *Stimulation* (P<.001; β=.199), *Ethics* (P<.001; β=.149), *Social Acceptance* (P<.001; β=.176), and *Sustainability* (P<.001; β=.235) when shopping clothes. Given these results, the present study yields at least two overall positions for a premium fashion rental service: **1)** *the sustainable service*; a combination of *Sustainability, Ethics* and *Social Acceptance* motivations and, **2)** *the service of premium gratification*; a combination of *Social Acceptance* and *Stimulation*.

Firstly, Mont (2002) argues that the strategy behind implementing a PSS – more specifically, a use-oriented PSS - should be to reduce the environmental impact of one's company. Sposato et al. (2017)

elaborate that this service, in particular, allows businesses to overcome the inefficiencies of linear economy and transition into circular economy. In connection to this, the study indicates that this notion about PSS has diffused and prevailed consumers motivated by *Sustainability* [accepted H13]. For the same reason, a sustainable service approach may be a customer-relevant conceptual position for a premium fashion rental service.

However, as previously identified, the interviewees indicate that a sustainable motive for purchasing clothes may have different underlying motives, more specifically altruistic versus egoistic motives, *cf. 6.1.1 Consequences of Consumer Perceived Value of premium fashion rental service: Brand Image.* Especially, egoistic motives may have gotten more significant impact amongst consumers as **a)** sustainability has grown in popularity (Sandin & Peters, 2018), **b)** as 'modern sharing' is moving beyond kinship and into a sphere of strangers (Belk, 2007), and **c)** as the respondents valuing a product rental service also search for social approval [accepted H12]. For the same reason, it would be interesting to apply an underlying-motivation scale [altruistic/egoistic motives] as a moderator of the relation between antecedent(s) and the main variable to the theoretical framework. With this, managers will have a more concrete point-of-departure from which they can start their own, brand-specific investigation on a conceptual narrative.

These underlying motives could paint a picture to which extent the message orientation should appeal to collectivism and the desire to enhance the welfare of others or personal, functional benefits of purchasing 'green apparel' (Belk, 2007). This may as well serve as ideation for more service add-ons. As an example, an infographic of the customer's online account, informing about her carbon-footprint using the premium brand's product rental service: "*By sharing [x-amount] of items with [x-amount] of people, you have saved [x-amount] of kilo CO2*". Followed by a social-media sharing function to serve, e.g. underlying egoistic motives.

By taking a sustainable position, the study as well finds that managers should be aware of critique. Interviewee I7 shows uncertainty towards the sustainable aspect of the service: "*There is something cool about not having a "buy-throw-away" mentality (...) Conversely, I think it might create needs that one does not have now*" (I7, 28:34-28:55). With this, I7 suspects that the service might generate a new form of consumerism. This notion is similar to Demailly and Novel (2014). They argue that a different form of consumption does not necessarily mean consuming less. Instead, a rebound effect of overconsumption may happen due to the increased purchasing power of the consumer. Some may even call it capitalism in green disguise.

Further, some may point to the distribution - or rather the redistribution – connected to a product rental service. The sharing model may have negative effects, as it increases the level of transportation for delivery. I8 acknowledges this notion, however, she believes that the negative impact connected to product rental services would be smaller than procedures of today: "*This [product rental service] would be a big help – the frequent distribution would account for a smaller part of the pollution than that of production*" (31:47-31:59). In this connection, Sposato et al. (2017) argue that one must look more nuanced at the transportation connected to sharing economy, as this must be compared to that of linear economy, which has significantly increased the last decade with online purchase.

As a counterargument to the potential critique, brands should highlight the opportunities connected to implementing this service, namely a withdrawal system that enables resource efficiency and contributes to circular economy (Sposato et al., 2017). This was highlighted by the interviewees as sincere and meaningful (App. 10), indicating authenticity (Morhart et al., 2014; Akbar & Wymer, 2017). Thus, practitioners should communicate this authentic attribute of the product rental service - especially in a time where "*authenticity has overtaken quality as the prevailing purchasing criteria"* (Gilmore & Pine, 2007, p. 5).

Secondly, a positional opportunity is found in the gratification of being able to use premium clothes. In regard to *Stimulation*, the interviewees argue that premium fashion brands offer unique craftsmanship and design, enabling a more stimulating and pleasant experience, as it simply feels and looks better on the body, *cf. 5.1. Preliminary research: Exploring the phenomenon.* In continuation hereof, the younger interviewees – I2, I3, and I4 - imply that purchasing and wearing new clothes gives certain instant gratification. This finding is similar to that of Pitta, Eastman and Liu (2012), who find that Gen Y is in constant need of stimulation and activation. As the results show that respondents with higher motivation for *Stimulation* ascribe value to the product rental service [accepted H9], it is possible to argue that the respondents find that the service gives many unique moments. Thus, it is the product rental service [non-tangible good] marketed with a specific temporal-access-price that enhances the clothes value – making it a new and unique experience every time one uses it (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Moreover, one may argue that this type of stimulation is closely related, thus hard to disconnect from the need for self-expression and social acceptance. I3, I6, and I8 argue that the limited investment of premium fashion rental service will enable them to take more fashionable choices; using seasonal colors, prints, and fabrics (App. 10). This implies that a form of self-expression is valued. Again, the operant resource – the product rental service – can be a strategic benefit allowing customers to express themselves in new and fresh ways (outer-directed self-esteem), which may have the derived effect of signaling wealth (Aaker, 1996; Han et al., 2010). It is possible to argue that the respondents with a motivation for high *Social Acceptance* believe so, as we find a significant relationship between *Social Acceptance* and ascribing value to the premium fashion rental service [accepted H12]. Therefore, a market position of *continuously new and unique experiences of being 'in season'* may be found consumer-relevant.

6.2.3 Which age groups to consider when implementing rental services

In 6.1 Theoretical implications, we encourage future research within broader socio-demographic fields to ensure a more satisfactory segmentation. Thus, this paragraph only looks into the segmentation of age, as age has been the contributing moderator to our study. As a result of already established theory and our findings, *cf. 2.0 Literature Review* and *5.0 Results*, we recommend targeting the younger generations: Gen Y (1980 - 1994) & Gen Z (1995 - 2015).

Rocha, Hammond & Hawkins (2005) argue that marketers should always have younger segments in mind when seeking to establish new businesses. Younger consumer groups constitute a large percentage of the affluent consumer group. Thus, younger generations hold a tremendous purchasing power, which could spark financial stability for a company. In relation, Jang et al. (2011) state Gen Y to be the cohort with the highest disposable income, thus the most attractive segment to target.

Further, as stated in *2.4. Consumer Behavior*, Gen Y tends to **1)** have a need to express their desired views of self through consumption, and **2)** seek constant activation, experiences, and excitement (Pitta et al., 2012; Lissitsa, 2015). Moreover, both Gen Y and Z are perceived as conscious (Pitta et al., 2012; Priporas, 2017), tech-savvy (Jackson et al., 2010) and well-educated consumers, which indicates high adaptability and interest towards new products and services - also known as innovators or early adopters (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011; Rogers, 2010). All the above characteristics align with the theoretical characteristics of product rental services. Thus, product rental services will meet Gen Y and Gen Z' desires. Furthermore, current scholars argue that product-service systems, e.g. product rental services, will rise with Gen Y, as they ascribe less value to property ownership compared to the previous generation (Hwang & Griffiths, 2017).

Lastly, our findings indicate that consumers of lower age strengthen the relationship between *Stimulation* and *CPV* and *Social acceptance* and *CPV*. This could indicate that younger consumers perceive product rental services to **1)** be stimulating, and **2)** 'help' attain and/or strengthen their social status, which is a desirable outcome for the younger segments (Pitta et al., 2012).

On another note, Rocha et al. (2005) argue that marketers should not neglect the older segments when defining their marketing-mix. Studies show that older segments are more affluent than they were a generation ago. Thus, previous – and more generic - descriptions of age might not be as permanently marked down, as previously thought. With this, we find it relevant not to 'write-off' Gen X. As an example, I8, our oldest interviewee - a 56 years old female - states: "*I would buy access [to clothes] rather than rent (...) but I would probably use it [renting] for festive clothes"* (I8, 16:48-16:56). In continuation, she argues that her generation [Gen X] hold greater purchasing power, as a result of their financial strength: "(…) *Due to my high purchasing power, which is higher than younger consumers, I would probably use it [renting] less"* (I8, 16:18 -16:31). Gurau (2012) follows this claim by arguing that Gen X has fulfilled their life-investments i.e. house, car, kids, etc. Thus, Gen X has a higher spending power than those of younger generations, who set money aside for the future. However, I8 does not state the high spending power as an enabler of using product rental service. On the contrary, she indicates that this may lead to limited usage due to a low price sensitivity when buying premium clothes.

In relation, we conclude that future research on life-stages could be of contribution to the theoretical framework. This is also seen in I4's statement: *"Sustainability is of greater importance - even more after I have become a mom"* (I7, 10:40 - 11:10). I4 argues that her transition in life-stage has had a significant impact on her shopping behavior and motivations. In essence, we argue that generational cohort theory and life-stage theory support each other well and allow for a more specific segmentation, thus leading to more concrete recommendations for practitioners (Gurau, 2012).

Taking the above considerations into account, we find it relevant to look into the actual business model of premium fashion rental services. In other words, how to structure the rental service offering. Through the semi-structured interviews, several of our younger interviewees – namely, I2, I3, and I4 – indicate that they would make frequent use of the rental service (App. 10). On the other hand, our older interviewees – namely I6, I7 & I8 - said that they would only rent clothes on an occasional basis (App. 10). With this, we recommend future research within the frequency of rental. We argue that although rental services should include specific product-related attributes, e.g. dry-cleaning, delivery, insurance, etc., the concept still leaves room for modeling. More specifically, should premium brands only offer one-time rental [occasional], or should they adopt a subscription model with more frequent offers? Taking the latter into consideration, this might lead to an actual change in consumer behavior, yielding a more sustainable impact on the environment (Sposato et al., 2017).

Lastly, we argue that the target segment also depends on the individual brand. Thus, each premium fashion brand needs to make an individual assessment on whether these generations are in one's target segment. Thus, one should never compromise one's brand to the extent that it would dilute one's *BI* or similar.

6.2.4 Obstacles connected to implementing a product rental service

Diluting the brand

As seen in *6.2.1 The opportunities of offering a product rental service*, we argue that there are opportunities connected to implementing a premium fashion rental service on the Danish market. However, we do also acknowledge possible obstacles connected to implementing a product rental service for a premium fashion brand, namely its accessibility, which may entail new customer segments. In the following, we will discuss the pros and cons.

Cândido & Santos (2015) argue that businesses always risk the change of disrupting one's brand when implementing new initiatives. Thus, we argue that premium fashion brands must somewhat 'protect' its premium status when assessing the rental price point - open up, yet not too much. We argue that by enabling consumers to acquire premium clothes at a considerably lower price temporarily, new segments will gain access to previously unreachable markets, e.g. premium clothes. In a nutshell, new customer groups will arise with the implementation of rental service, mainly those of lower-income classes. As I3 states:" *the fact that you can rent it [premium clothes] at a lower price is really nice! That way, it becomes accessible also for those segments that generally cannot afford these things"* (I3, 12:20 – 12:30). Further, I8 states: *"I would believe that this [renting] would speak to young consumers, as they can afford the [premium] clothes this way. Especially as students, it must mean a lot"* (I8, 27:00 – 27:20). These statements align with our findings, as younger consumers ascribe higher value to the concept of premium fashion rental service.

However, future research is recommended to determine which customer groups are empowered by rental services and whether these will discourage premium fashion's existing customers from buying in the future. However, one may argue that the primary customer of product rental services is younger consumers with lower income, e.g. students, who in a foreseeable may earn more, and thus become a frequent premium fashion customer herself.

One of the ways premium brands might suffer from new segments gaining access to them is in its symbolic signaling. Clothes have in many years been used as an indicator of social hierarchy (Han et al., 2010). Our possessions, such as clothes, are used as a way of attaining and signaling status (Belk, 1988; Levy, 1959). Hereto, the brands behind the clothes play a huge role in terms of the symbolic value consumers possess (Han et al., 2010). Lynn (1992) and Han et al. (2010) describes how consumers in various ways engage in costly signaling, also referred to as conspicuous consumption, where consumers often through luxury goods seek to signal status. In continuation of this, Lynn (1992) claims this is due to the scarcity, and therefore uniqueness of the products**.**

Brands (especially luxury) obtain this symbolic value through exclusiveness, which created through scarcity in terms of supply and a premium price setting (Han et al., 2010; Lynn, 1992). Following this, Heribert & Huettl (2010), along with other researchers, find it advantageous within marketing to communicate product scarcity, namely for products used for conspicuous consumption (Aggarwal, Jun, Huh, 2011). However, both the scarcity of the products along with the price might be jeopardized with a rental service. Here, the usage of the products will be increased, which may decrease the exclusiveness making it more mainstream. Thus, the brand might lose prestige and consumers will, therefore, choose alternative brands, when wanting to make use of conspicuous consumption.

Further, Vogel et al. (2019) argue that new ways of offering, i.e. rental, can negatively influence brand awareness, brand association, brand credibility, brand leadership, and brand loyalty. Thus, a premium fashion rental services might dilute a premium fashion brand.

Vogel et al. (2019) find that once luxury brands increase their accessibility, the brand is negatively affected. However, we argue that Vogel et al. 's findings cannot be brought forward in this study one to one, as they center around **1)** luxury brands, **2)** millennials, and **3)** American consumers. Especially the demarcation of luxury brands can be said to distinguish from our study. Vogel et al. (2019) and Han et al. (2010) argue that luxury brands heavily rely on their extensive exclusiveness and their high prices. Premium brands are: "*ones that give you the best features at the best value.*

They operate with a close to one ratio of functionality and price" (Kumar, 2018, p. 2). Thus, luxury brands have other characteristics and key competencies than premium brands.
In conclusion, premium brands must be aware of the possibility of diluting their brand. However, as premium brands are known for their correlation between price and quality, it can be argued that the lower price enabled by product rental service might spark existing one-time consumers to wear the brand more frequently. Thus, consumers who can justify - rationally and financially – the benefits of renting will become new or more frequent users of the premium clothes, thus a new source of income.

Cannibalizing one's business model

As mentioned in 5.0 Results, we identify a *Willingness to Buy* premium clothes after the implementation of rental services, as 204 out of 360 respondents claim to be willing to buy (number of respondents answering above "3" (neutral) in our questionnaire)(App. 12). Further, we identify significant relations between **1)** *WtR* and *WtB*, **2)** *BI* and *WtB*, and **3)** *BA* and *WtB*. According to Conner (1988), brands must be aware of the risk of cannibalizing one's own business when introducing new products. We argue the same claim to be valid for services, as "*operant resources* [services] *are the fundamental source of strategic benefit"* (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Vargo & Lusch, 2008).

Thus, premium fashion brands must make sure that their new service, e.g. product rental service, does not compete with the brands existing service, e.g. conventional sales. If so, the new service should at least go beyond the sales of the existing brand service or enhances the existing brand service. To sum up, product rental services should not eliminate conventional ways of purchasing. We argue that product rental services may be a potential threat for businesses, as consumers might find it more valuable to rent instead of purchase. As our interviewees state: "*It [rental] would eliminate my overconsumption* "(I3, 34:28 – 34:33) and *"For someone like me, where 50% of my clothes are always hanging in my closet, renting could be a good solution (...) I am never going to use it [her previous purchases] again, I know that"* (I2, 11:09 – 11:25) indicating that rental would make them buy less clothes, and instead adopt a 'usage mindset' to clothing consumption. On the opposite, we find a relation between WtR and WtB ($P<.001$), which indicates that consumers would be more willing to buy the clothes after having been able to rent it [try it]. Nevertheless, we recommend an investigation of product rental services from a financial perspective. This might also help businesses set a price, thus make premium fashion rental services a profitable investment.

Chapter 7
Conclusion

Our study aims to contribute with a consumer-centric approach to the phenomenon of product rental service on the Danish female premium fashion market. Firstly, our research suggests that one-third of Danish female consumers are willing to adopt a 'usage mindset', as they ascribe value to the product rental service and intent to rent. Thus, one-third of Danish female consumers resonate with premium fashion rental service. Secondly, we conclude that consumers intend to purchase from a premium fashion brand, although a rental service is implemented. In this relation, consumers show a higher purchase intention after having been given the opportunity to rent an item. Thirdly, we find that premium fashion brands can leverage the ascribed value of the service to strengthen *Brand Image* and *Brand Authenticity*. Lastly, we conclude that premium fashion brands should target consumers motivated by *Stimulation, Social Acceptance, Ethics,* and *Sustainability* when implementing a product rental service. The thesis also outlines that Generation Y and Generation Z of Danish female consumers are more likely to resonate with a premium fashion rental service. In essence, the academic contribution is made by answering the following research question:

How does a premium fashion rental service resonate with Danish female consumers, and what are the consequences for premium brands when implementing such a service?

- *What are the brand outcomes of implementing a premium fashion rental service?*
- *Which consumer motivations correlate with Consumer Perceived Value of a product rental service, and how can these be used to most efficiently target the consumers?*
- *Does age play a significant role in the relationship between consumer motives and Consumer Perceived Value?*

The content analysis within our preliminary study enabled us to suggest that the following seven motivations are key when women shop for clothes:

1. Value for Money
2. Quality
3. Stimulation
4. Comfort

5. Ethics
6. Social Acceptance
7. Sustainability

This led us to adopt Barbopoulos and Johansson's (2017a) *Consumer Motivation Scale* and Landon, Woosnam & Boley's (2018) *Pro-Sustainable Behavior Scale.* Second, we condensed the interview data to the following four key consequences of implementing a premium fashion rental service:

1. Willingness-to-Rent
2. Improved Brand Image
3. Improved Brand Authenticity
4. Willingness-to-Buy (posterior to renting)

This led to **1)** the academic contribution of the new construct; *Willingness-to-Rent* inspired by Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson (1999), **2)** the adoption of Lam, Ahearne, and Schillewaert's (2012) *Brand Image Item-scale*, **3)** an adoption of Akbar and Wymer's (2017) *Brand Authenticity Item-scale* and **4)** the adoption of Sweeney, Soutar and Johnson's (1999) *Willingness-to-Buy Item-scale*. These constructs allow us to analyze the possible consequences of implementing a product rental service.

Further, we identify that the consumers intend to use the product rental service for different reasons, thus ascribe value to the service differently. Therefore, we adopt Sweeney and Soutar's (2001) *Consumer Perceived Value Scale*.

After conducting the exploratory qualitative study, we presented a theoretical framework for empirical testing. This was done in the quantitative phase with a sample size of 360 Danish female respondents. The research suggests that ≈ 35% of Danish female consumers intend to rent premium clothes. This is concluded as we identify a positive significant relation between *Consumer Perceived Value* and *Willingness-to-Rent*. Further, we identify a positive significant relation between consumers' *Willingness-to-Rent* and their *Willingness-to-Buy.* This indicates that Danish female consumers have a higher purchase intention after having been given the opportunity to rent an item (try it).

When investigating the consequences that product rental service might have on premium fashion brands, we find a positive significant relation between *Consumer Perceived Value* and *Brand*

Image. This indicates that premium fashion brands can strengthen their *Brand Image* by implementing a product rental service, thus increase the likelihood of consumers buying a garment from the company. This is found in the positive significant relation between *Brand Image* and *Willingness-to-Buy*. In extension, it is found that premium fashion brands can be perceived as more authentic when implementing a product rental service. This is concluded based on a positive significant relation between *Consumer Perceived Value* and *Brand Authenticity*. Moreover, *Brand Authenticity* is also found to increase the likelihood of buying a garment from the company (*Willingness-to-Buy*). Thus, product rental service can enhance companies' brand position and possibly increase turnover.

Further, the research allows us to conclude that the respondents motivated by *Stimulation, Social Acceptance, Ethics,* and *Sustainability* perceive product rental service to be of higher value. This is concluded, as we identify positive significant relations between these four motivations and *Consumer Perceived Value* of a product rental service within the Danish premium fashion women's market. Thereby, our research suggests that companies implementing product rental services have two prominent ways to position themselves, when seeking to attract Danish female consumers: **1)** *the sustainable service*; a combination of *Sustainability, Ethics* and *Social Acceptance* motivations and, **2)** *the service of premium gratification*; a combination of *Social Acceptance* and *Stimulation*.

Lastly, we conclude that age plays a significant role in the relations '*Stimulation* and *Consumer Perceived Value'* and '*Social Acceptance* and *Consumer Perceived Value'*. Thus, companies must take potential target segments of product rental services into account when seeking to implement such service. We suggest that lower age groups - Generation Y and Generation Z - are target segments of premium fashion rental service. In conclusion, we find that premium fashion rental service resonates with the most attractive Danish consumer group, namely 25-34-year-old females.

As a concluding remark, our theoretical framework illuminates the phenomenon of premium fashion rental service from a consumer-centric approach. This is done by providing insights about the phenomenon's antecedents and outcomes to the literature.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Audio file: I1

Appendix 2: Audio file: I2

Appendix 3: Audio file: I3

Appendix 4: Audio file: I4

Appendix 5: Audio file: I5

Appendix 6: Audio file: I6

Appendix 7: Audio file: I7

Appendix 8: Audio file: I8

Please see attached audio files.

Appendix 9: Interview guide

Danish Version of Semi-structured Interview Guide

<table>
<tr><td>Etiske overvejelser</td><td>• Ønsker du at være anonym i dette interview?
    o Hvis ikke, hvad er dit navn?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Introduktion til interviewee</td><td>• Hvor gammel er du?
• I hvilken by bor du?
• Hvad er din højeste uddannelse?
• Hvad er din primære beskæftigelse?
• Må jeg spørge, hvad din månedlige indkomst er?
    o Hvis ja, hvad er den?
    o Hvor stor en procentdel af din månedlige indkomst bruger du på tøj? (Et estimat)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Introduktion til interviewee’s forbrugsmønster ved tøjkøb</td><td>• Hvilken rolle spiller tøj for dig?
    o Hvilke overvejelser gør du dig?
• Hvordan vil du karakterisere dit forbrug af tøj?
    o Hvor ofte køber du nyt tøj?
    o Hvor handler du oftest fra?
        ▪ Er det også dit (dine) yndlings brands?
            ▪ [Hvis ikke] Hvad er så dit yndlings brand?

    o Handler du online og/eller offline?
        ▪ Hvad er mulige fordele/ulemper ved denne form for handel?</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr>
<td>Fænomenet “deleøkonomi”</td>
<td>
Kender du til begrebet ‘deleøkonomi?
<table>
<tr><th>Hvis ja</th><th>Hvis nej</th></tr>
<tr>
<td>Hvad associerer du med deleøkonomi?</td>
<td>[Forklar til interviewee]:

“Deleøkonomi er forbrugere og virksomheder låner/lejer/leaser sig adgang til produkter fremfor at købe produktet”

(Innovationslab.dk, 2015)

Eksempler:
Gomore, Airbnb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bruger du/eller har du brugt deleøkonomisk(e) ydelse(r)?
[Hvis ja] Hvilke?
Hvorfor?</td>
<td>Bruger du/eller har du brugt deleøkonomisk(e) ydelse(r)?
[Hvis ja] Hvilke?
Hvorfor?</td>
</tr>
</table>
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduktion til tøj udlejning</td>
<td>
Har du hørt om tøj udlejning?
[Hvis ja] Hvilke?
[Forklar begrebet til interviewee for at skabe overensstemmelse for begrebet tøj udlejning]:

“Tøj udlejning er en service hvorved virksomheder lejer deres produkter ud til en reduceret pris, alt efter forbrugerens (dit) valg af produkt og varighed. Alt tøj renses af virksomheden og leveres direkte til forbrugeren”.
</td>
</tr>
</table>

	• Har du nogle spørgsmål til denne forklaring? *[Reducér uklarhed/evt. forvirring]* • Hvad er din(e) umiddelbare tanke(r) om denne ydelse? • Kunne du finde på at benytte dig af sådan ydelse? o Hvis ja, hvorfor? o Hvis nej, hvorfor?
Fordele og ulemper ved tøj udlejning	• Hvad er fordelen ved sådan ydelse? • Hvad er ulemperne ved sådan ydelse?
Konkret eksempel af tøj udlejning *[Stimuli-opgave]*	***[Forklar interviewee om eksemplet]:*** *"Jeg vil nu introducere dig for GANNI's nye koncept, GANNI Repeat. Ved GANNI Repeat kan du leje GANNI produkter (tasker, kjoler, jakker, etc.) til en reduceret pris alt efter ønsket lejeperiode (1 - 3 uger) og produktets originale købspris. Prisen er 15-18% af originalprisen ved en uges leje. Prisen er inklusiv kvalitetssikring, forsikring, rens, vask og levering."* • Hvad er din umiddelbare reaktion, når du ser denne ydelse? • Kunne du finde på at benytte denne ydelse? o Hvis ja, hvorfor? o Hvis nej, hvorfor?

Fordele og ulemper ved eksempel	***[I forlængelse af interviewees foregående svar søges der nu mere dybdegående forklaring]:*** • Hvad er fordelen ved denne ydelse? • Hvad er ulemperne ved denne ydelse?
Intention-behavior gap	*"Vi har lavet et samarbejde med Ganni, så hvis du har lyst til at leje tøj fremadrettet, så skal jeg lige bede om din mail, så modtager du i løbet af de næste par dage en mail fra Ganni med mere information"*

English Version of Semi-structured Interview Guide

Ethical considerations	• Do you wish to stay anonymous in this interview? ○ If not, what is your name?
Introduction to interviewee	• How old are you? • In which city do you live? • What is your highest degree of education? • What is your primary occupation? • May I ask you, what your monthly income is? ○ If yes, what is it? ○ How big a percentage of your monthly income do you use on clothes? *(An estimate)*

<table>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to interviewee’s consumption pattern when shopping clothes</td>
<td>

What role does clothes play for you?
Which considerations do you make?
How would you characterize your clothing consumption?

How often do you buy new clothes?
Where do you most often shop?
Is this also your favorite brand(s)?
[If not] What is your favorite brand?
Do you shop online and/or offline?
What are the possible advantages/disadvantages of this form of shopping?

</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The phenomenon “sharing economy”</td>
<td>
Do you know concept of ‘sharing economy’?
<table>
<tr><th>If yes</th><th>If no</th></tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you associate with sharing economy?</td>
<td>[Explain the interviewee]:

"Sharing economy is where consumers and businesses lend/ rent/lease access to products rather than buying products"

(Innovationslab.dk, 2015)

Examples:
Gomore, Airbnb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you use or have you used sharing economy services?
[If yes] Which?
Why?</td>
<td>Do you use or have you used sharing economy services?
[If yes] Which?
Why?</td>
</tr>
</table>
</td>
</tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to fashion rental service</td>
<td>
Have you heard of fashion rental services?
[If yes) Which?
[Explain the term to interviewee to create conformity of fashion rental service]:
“A fashion rental service is a service, where a company rents its products at a reduced price depending on the consumer’s choice of product and duration. All clothing is cleaned by the company and delivered directly to the consumer”.
Do you have any question in regard to this explanation? [Reduce the possibility of confusion]
What is your immediate thought(s) on this service?
Would you like to use such service?
[If yes] Why?
[If no] Why?
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages and disadvantages of fashion rental service</td>
<td>
What are the advantages of such service?
What are the disadvantages of such service?
</td>
</tr>
</table>

A concrete example of a fashion rental service *[Stimulation task]*	***[Explain the interviewee about the example]:*** *"I will now introduce you to GANNI's new concept, GANNI Repeat. With GANNI Repeat you can rent GANNI products (handbags, dresses, jackets etc.) at a reduced price depending on the length of the rental period (1-3 weeks) and the products original sales price. The price is reduced to 15-18% of the original price for a week's rental. The price includes quality assurance, insurance, dry-cleaning, and delivery".* • What is your immediate reaction when you hear of such service? • Would you like to use this service? ○ [If yes] Why? ○ [If no] Why?
Advantages and disadvantages of the example	***[I forlængelse af interviewees forhenværende svar søges der nu mere dybdegående forklaring]:*** • What are the advantages of this service? • What are the disadvantages of this service?
Intention-behavior gap	*"We have partnered with Ganni, so if you are interested in renting their clothes, then I will need your mail and you will receive an email from Ganni during the next few days with more information"*

Appendix 10: Content analysis

I 1-8	Time	Content
Consumer motivations		
Value for Money		
I6	18:32-18:54	(...) Jeg har lige købt en jakke, som jeg har givet 6.000 kr., hvor jeg tænker 'en sort jakke det går jo nok, den kan jeg bruge i lang tid' Havde den været skrig-orange eller mint-grøn som er fremme nu, så havde jeg nok tænkt mig ekstra om, inden jeg havde givet så mange penge for en jakke.
I1	16:40-17:12	Af de ting [produkter] jeg ikke har brugt er der ikke nogen, der er vanvittigt dyre, så derfor gør det mig ikke noget. Det havde været noget andet, hvis jeg skulle gå og ævre mig over, at jeg havde spildt mine penge
I3	16:28-16:34	Et godt køb for mig er noget jeg ved, at jeg får brugt mange gange i løbet af de næste mange år.
I7	16:12-16:48	Hvis ikke det var så dyrt [favorit brand], så ville jeg jo stadig synes det var fedt og specielt. Jeg tror dog mange tillægger tøj værdi, på baggrund af den materielle værdi - kroner og øre.
I3	18:04-18:13	Jeg ville aldrig nogensinde købe en kjole, der var dyr, hvis jeg kun ville få den brugt enkelte gange.
I4	6:15-6:55	Jeg er blevet ret glad for Zalando, hvor man kan vælge først at betale måneden efter. Hvor de først trækker pengene når du har prøvet tøjet derhjemme. (...) du kan mærke tøjet og se om det overhovedet er en kvalitet du vil betale for.
I4	3:50-3:58	Hvis jeg ønsker mig tøj til jul, så ønsker jeg mig nogle gange også noget fra dyre mærker, men så er det også fordi jeg ikke selv bruger penge på det, jeg synes jo stadig det er lækkert.
I8	08:20-08:50	Jeg køber sådan noget som Woolford i strømpebukser - fordi det ved jeg holder og er pænt, og så er det bare anerledes end de andre. Og så kan

		det godt være, at jeg giver det dobbelte, men så kan jeg også have dem på til flere fester uden de går i stykker.
I4	5:40-6:00	...Jeg kan godt vente med at købe tøj og så købe ét lækkert stykke tøj, noget tid efter, så spare op til det. Så det er ikke fordi jeg går ud og køber tøj hver måned, men hvis jeg for eksempel har set et eller andet: en fed skjorte (...) så må jeg undvære tøj fra Zara eller H&M nogle andre måneder og så hellere bruge pengene på noget lækkert.
Quality		
I6	20:42-20:54	Jeg gider ikke have noget der kradser også ift. om tøjet krymper eller ændre form(...) så jeg tjekker altid kvaliteten af stoffet.
I8	03:47-03:59	Da mine børn var mindre, der har jeg købt meget kvalitet til dem, men har nok glemt mig selv mere. Men i mine unge dage købte jeg meget kvalitetstøj, og det gør jeg også nu.
I8	04:05 – 04:32	Jeg tror måske, at jeg er kommet til den konklusion (...) at jeg heller vil have et godt stykke end 3 dårlige.
I8	09:56-10:04	Og så kan jeg jo sagtens se forskel på en ordentlig cashmere sweater og så en anden sweater. Og sådan er det bare!
I2	20:16 - 20:34	Med mine jakker, sko, tasker og så videre. Der ville jeg aldrig gå på kompromis. Der ville jeg altid vurderer ud fra kvalitet.
I2	05:10-05:31	Jeg er lidt mere til de der ligesom Ganni - de der mellem ting. Så går jeg ind, og så køber jeg et styk tøj derfra. Jeg kan godt lide sådan noget som Ganni, Acne, Saks Potts har jeg meget af, Marien Sehr. Jeg har da sådan lidt i det små, men det er ikke noget, der bryder det overordnede billede.
I2	8:19-8:27	Fordele i butikker er jo så, at jeg får lov at mærke det, se kvaliteten, se farverne: "Hov, den så anderledes ud i virkeligheden"
Stimulation		
I3	35:07 - 35:10	Jeg elsker at få nyt tøj!
I6	15:05- 15:24	For mig er det ikke vigtig at have det nyeste nye hele tiden (...) det tror jeg ikke så vigtig for min aldersgruppe.
I8	09:34-09:51	De [premium brands] laver jo nogle designs med nogle sjove detajler - noget sjovt ved ærmerne - et eller andet pænt, der ikke er det der basic -

		der er måske en lille ekstra feature, hvor man kan se at det er lækkert lavet.
I4	4:57 - 5:12	Man bliver lidt tilfredsstillet og får sådan en rush når man har købt noget lækkert nyt tøj (...) fordi man føler 'nu har jeg lige noget nyt jeg kan tage på'. Man føler sig da bare lidt nice.
I6	14:06-14:14	...og så er det ikke så vigtigt for mig hele tiden at have noget nyt på i hverdagen, det er vigtigere til et bryllup.
I2	02:53-02:58	Jeg har en vild ting [premium brand] på, og så er resten basic.
I8	02:14 -02:32	Jeg er nok ikke den store overvejer - jeg lader mig nok rive med af lækre ting - når jeg ser dem, så lader jeg mig nok rive med og så tænker jeg, ej det kunne jeg også godt bruge.
I8	03:16-03:30	Ja, det [impulskøber] kan jeg faktisk rigtig godt være, hvis jeg ser et lækkert stykke tøj og tænker: "ej, det der, det ville også være godt at have og vare i mange år, da det er en god kvalitet" - altså, så taler jeg mig selv ind til, at det nok ikke ville skade at have den.
I8	10:25-10:43	Jeg skal købe noget ordentlig i stedet for 3 forskellige ting, fordi jeg kan jo godt mærke, hvad jeg bliver gladest for. Det sidder anerledes og er bare mere lækkert.
I2	02:32-02:35	Og jeg kan godt lide at have nyt tøj på hver weekend!
I2	13:45 - 13:55	Jeg synes, det er fedest, når jeg går med noget kun, jeg har
Comfort		
I1	2:29 (+7:26)	Jeg går meget op i min tøjstil, fordi jeg godt kan lide at se godt ud... Det er vigtigt at det sidder godt på mig og at det er flot (...) Jeg skal helst prøve tøjet inden jeg køber det.
I7	8:40 - 9:08	Fysiske butikker: "Det er det der med at man kan mærke kvalitet, se farverne (...), se og prøve størrelserne. Mærke hvordan det falder, føles og sidder på kroppen.
I3	06:44-07:14	Jeg kan bedst lide at handle offline (...) det er også fordi jeg bor i København, hvis jeg stadig boede i Jylland, så ville det være meget mere online (...) Det der med, at hvis jeg ser noget på nettet, så kan jeg gå ind i butikken i København for at se, hvordan det ser ud og prøve det.

I7	7:48 - 8:36	Der er noget doable ved online shopping. Især med børnene - der kan vi kigge sammen på en let måde. Det er quick-fix, det er hurtigt, det er ikke besværligt.
I5	4:55 - 5:02	...Men det skal også være noget jeg føler mig tilpas i. Det er meget vigtigt for mig.
I3	07:35-07:57	Man ikke kan se [ved online handel] hvordan det ser ud og kan ikke vurdere fitted på sig selv fordi alle modeller ligner hinanden (...) man kan heller ikke mærke kvaliteten eller farverne - og så er det også en mere fuldende oplevelse at købe et stykke tøj i en butik - få en oplevelse med et andet menneske [ved offline handel].
I8	05:48-05:55	Der er mere med at mærke kvaliteten og passe størrelsen
I2	05:40-05:46	Det ville jeg også købe online - alt sammen (...) Jeg hader og stå derinde og de ikke har det. Det undgår jeg bare!
I2	6:42-7:17	Hvis det var luxury blandet med premium brand (...) for eksempel NikexSupreme [collaboration], så er jeg helt vild med det! Så bruger jeg det vildt meget, så kan jeg godt holde ud og gå i det. Men når det bliver for dyrt, så får jeg det ikke brugt (...) Så føler jeg mig for fin - ikke tilpas.
I5	6:10 - 6:25	Jeg kan godt lide at kunne komme ud om mærke, føle og prøve. Mærke kvalitet, se det fysisk og have det på - prøve det.
I1	6:44-6:59	Jeg shopper klart mest i fysiske butikker, da jeg godt kan lide at prøve tingene inden jeg køber det. Jeg kan godt lide at når man finder noget man kan lide, så har man det nu og her.
I2	7:35-8:11	Fordelen ved online er at jeg kan se det på en model (...) hvordan det sidder og sådan noget. Så kan jeg godt lide, at jeg kan se om de har det på lager. Det kommer hurtigere nogen gange end hvis jeg skal finde ud af: "Åh, på torsdag har jeg tid til at tage derind" (...) Og så er der rabatkoder online.
I3	02:00-02:19	Det er et eller andet med, at det også bliver en udtryksform eller noget man bruger til at vise, hvem man er til verdenen (...) komfort kan godt være det med at føle, at man ser godt ud i det.

I1	7:40-7:55	Jeg kan godt lide at få hjælp af ekspedienterne. Det gør jeg brug af, når jeg shopper offline
I4	2:02-2:15	Jeg synes bare det skal være behageligt. Jeg tror især efter jeg er begyndt at studere, så (...) går jeg mere op i at bruge det samme tøj, altså det jeg har.
Ethics		
I3	20:04-20:33	Jeg synes det er vigtigt, at sælge til andre eller donere meget til genbrug (...) der er allerede en cirkulær tanke i det, jeg køber, da jeg tænker, kan jeg sælge det her videre på et andet tidspunkt. Men det er overhovedet ikke hele mit klædeskab, jeg får brugt, og det ville jeg da ønske jeg gjorde. Jeg ville ønske, at jeg bare fik brugt de items, jeg købte - igen og igen.
I7	17:38 - 18:00	Det er lidt sjovt i forhold til mine værdier hvor jeg jo går meget op i økologi osv. Jeg tænker at jeg burde gå op i det - at jeg skulle have ja-hatten på.
I7	33:08 - 34:14	Jeg synes der er noget med at de skaber et behov jeg ikke har, som faktisk understøtte en mindre bæredygtig tilgang. De fortsætter spiralen med forbrug. Der er noget samfundsmæssigt og opdragelsesmæssigt for unge mennesker - vi kommer ud på et skråplan. Det er noget crap. Vi skaber et behov, som de ikke skal have
I3	33:01-33:34	Jeg ville få bedre samvittighed eller det bidrager også til en eller anden samlede positiv følelse, at man har god samvittighed over, at det her tøj er ikke er ikke blevet produceret kun for mig og min skyld, men produceret for 500 andre menneskers skyld.
I8	05:10-05:39	Jeg handler i fysiske butikker (...) i Esbjerg for det meste (...) Jeg undersøger markedet først og ser om jeg kan få det i byen, så jeg kan støtte vores lokale butikker - hvis ikke, så handler jeg online.
I8	11:40-11:55	Jeg forstår ikke holdningen til, at man ikke støtter sine fysiske butikker. Der er jo ikke nogen af os, der kan se os fri for, at det at gå ind og mærke varen er lækkert - og det at få en god hjælp.
I5	28:05 - 29:00	Jeg er blevet mere bevidst omkring at tøjindustrien ikke (...) har de bedste vilkår [referer til arbejdere], så det vil jeg selvfølgelig ikke støtte

		op omkring (...) Det [fast fashion] er nok ikke altid den bedste metode det er fremstillet på og på de bedste vilkår (...) nu går jeg mere op i at få færre gode ting som jeg er glad for i længere tid - og det er som følge af at der er kommet fokus på vilkår og bæredygtighed.
I8	12:09-12:22	Noget jeg er meget bevidst om, det er at jeg skal støtte butikkerne i den by, jeg bor i (...) og jeg er meget erhvervsorienteret, og vi skal støtte de erhvervsdrivende i vores by.
I3	10:17-10-30	Hvis vi har ressourcerne, så synes jeg ligeså godt, at vi kan deles om dem i en løsning, hvor alle bliver tilfredse (...) Altså, noget af der før har været forbeholdt de få
Social Acceptance		
I7	2:41 - 3:24	Tøj har stor betydning for mig og min identitet. Det lyder måske lidt voldsomt. Stor betydning for min overfladiske identitet. Jeg tror også at mange folk husker mig for min visuelle fremtræden.
I3	02:44-02:59	Det har nok i høj grad været tidligere, da jeg var yngre, været sådan en - jeg vil godt have at folk tænker, at jeg er cool-agtig. Men jeg tænker i høj grad nu - hvad synes jeg selv er fedt? og hvad ser jeg på Instagram og tænker fuck det ser nice ud.
I5	4:08 - 4:46	Jeg går op i at jeg har det rigtige på. Det vurderer jeg gerne ud fra sociale medier og venner (...) Man får hurtigt en fornemmelse af hvad der er tendens lige nu.
I4	3:20-3:32	Det skal også se godt ud det er klart. Selvfølgelig skal de se pænt ud og jeg studerer på CBS og der er det også vigtigt at se pæn ud.
I2	02:38-04:01	Jeg tænker måske 70-80% udseende (...) Det er klart, at det betyder noget, at de [omgangskreds] synes, at jeg ser godt ud.
I1	21:56 - 22:26	Jeg tænker rigtig meget over hvad andre tænker. Jeg tænker over hvilket indtryk tøjet giver (...) Jeg synes tøj er meget med til at skabe et indtryk af folk.
I6	02:26-2:56	For mig er det rigtig noget jeg tænker skal kunne bruges arbejdsmæssigt, så det skal ikke være noget der er nedringet. Det skal være præsentabelt og meget businessagtigt (...).Så køber jeg selvfølgelig noget andet til

		specielle lejligheder, men det er enten mit afslapningstøj hjemme eller fordi det er noget jeg kan bruge på arbejde.
I8	18:36-18:44	Jeg mener bare med festtøj, så er man bare stadig i de samme omgangskredse og gider ikke have det samme på hver evig eneste gang.
I3	01:34 - 01:53	Den spiller en rimelig afgørende rolle, synes jeg. Jeg går meget op i tøj og bruger meget tid på at kigge på pænt tøj (...) og tænker meget på hvad for noget tøj, jeg skal have på om morgenen. Jeg tror i høj grad, at det er en identitets ting for mig.
I5	3:10 - 4:00	Tøj betyder meget for mig. Jeg går en del op i det. Det er med til at udtrykke min personlighed. Jeg vil gerne udtrykke noget via min påklædning. Jeg vil gerne ud at have det rigtige - det der passer til mig. Selvfølgelig følger jeg også med i hvad der er oppe i tiden. Man vil gerne være med. Nogle gange betyder det måske for meget - det at det skal være det rigtige.
I7	3:38 - 4:40	Jeg har et klart ønske om ikke at fremstå så mainstream og i stedet skille mig ud. Jeg går ikke særlig meget op i hvilke brand, men det skal være specielt og jo ældre jeg er blevet, jo større kobling er der kommet til at være mere miljøbevidst - at tøj ikke smides væk, er bedre kvalitet. Det er jo et mix.
I2	11:28 - 11:58	Jeg køber et sæt tøj til at jeg skal noget - og så tænker jeg ikke over om det er komfortabelt, og jeg kan cykle i det osv. (...) og når jeg har haft det på, det behøver ikke engang være til et arrangement hvor andre har set det, men når jeg ved at jeg har haft det på, så har jeg set det og så gider jeg ikke have det på igen. // Jeg hader at have noget på, som jeg ved jeg har haft på før (12:06 - 12:10)
Sustainability		
I2	12:55 - 13:12	Jeg kan godt lide at shoppe genbrug - både sneakers og møbler
I7	4:00 - 4:21	Jo ældre jeg er blevet, jo større kobling til det at have en øget mere miljøbevidsthed, at tøj ikke bliver køb-smid væk, at det er bedre kvalitet. Det er jo et mix.

I2	23:30 - 23:50	Det der med at et stykke får lov til at blive gået med så meget, er jo en bæredygtig løsning. Men omvendt så smider jeg jo ikke mine ting ud - så det kan da godt konkurrere lidt.
I7	10:40 - 11:30	Bæredygtig har større og større betydning, endnu mere i kræft af at jeg er blevet mor (...) der er noget ansvarsfølelse, det er en natur proces også i og med at man bliver ældre.
I5	32:16 - 33:03	Jeg vil gerne udstråle at jeg tænker på miljøet (...) Jeg ville måske have det bedre med mig selv også, end at skulle gå ud og købe nyt hele tiden
I3	03:19-03:41	Altså jeg ville ønske, at jeg købte færre ting fra ny. Jeg ville ønske, at jeg blev lidt bedre til at orientere mig på sådan second-hand sider (...) Jeg får for eksempel dårlig samvittighed hver gang jeg køber noget fra H&M, fordi det der hurtig forbrug og hele den der bæredygtighedstanke bare er blevet mere tilstedeværende i alt, hvad jeg gør.
I1	15:53-16:07	Jeg gad godt gå mere op i det miljøbevidste. Jeg må være ærlig og sige at jeg ikke gør det lige nu.
I3	12:52-12:59	Tøjindustrien er nødt til at omlægge deres måde at gøre tingene på fordi, det er så klimabelastende.
I4	3:41-3:53	Jeg også godt kan få noget pænt der er billigere, så kan jeg godt finde på at købe noget brugt og pænt.
I8	05:54-06:11	Jeg synes, det er meget meget forkert at folk handler ind og poster det frem og tilbage for vores miljø. Jeg synes, det er ressource spild, at man bare tænker 'at jeg kan bestille 10 stykker og bare sende de 8 af dem tilbage'.
Product Rental Service		
I6	21:38-21:43	Jeg synes det er et meget fedt koncept, hvis man får det brandet rigtigt.
I4	22:35-22:42	Jeg kunne godt finde på at leje kjoler hvis jeg skulle noget, hvis jeg vidste jeg havde et event.
I8	16:04-16:31	Der er jeg nok lige en kende for gammel. Altså, jeg ville sagtens kunne finde på det, hvis jeg skulle til en fest og jeg ikke vil give en 3-4000 for en kjole (...) alt efter om prisen var rimelig. Men i og med, at jeg er mere

		købestærk end de unge mennesker, så ville jeg nok benytte mig mindre af det i den alder, jeg har.
I6	13:47-14:06	Jeg tror bare mere jeg har sådan nogle ting som jeg holder virkelig meget af, som jeg ikke vil af med igen. Så hvis jeg skal gøre det her [leje] ville det kun være til speciel lejlighed, et bryllup eller lignende. Jeg vil ikke gøre det i hverdagen, der ville jeg være træt af at skulle af med det igen hvis det var noget jeg synes var rart og jeg kunne bruge igen.
I2	18:32 - 18:40	Jeg ville især gøre det tit om sommeren hvor jeg har en masse ting man skal til; fester, festivaler osv.
I2	17:48 - 18:14	Det [rental] tænker jeg er sindssygt. Det ville jeg hundrede procent. Helt ærligt, det tror jeg. Nogle måneder ville jeg måske afmelde det.
I7	25:20 - 25:40	Jeg ville få lyst til at prøve det, men jeg tror lidt det ville være som drugs (...) mer vil have mer. Jeg ville nok skabe nogle behov jeg egentlig ikke havde.
I3	14:18-14:24	Det synes jeg er helt vildt smart (...) og mega convenient
I6	21:38-21:43	Jeg synes det er et meget fedt koncept, hvis man får det brandet rigtigt.
I1	20:21 - 20:46	Ganni er et godt eksempel på hvad jeg kunne finde på at leje - jeg synes det er for dyrt at købe (...) men jeg synes de laver nogle rigtig flotte ting.
I8	16:04-16:31	Der er jeg nok lige en kende for gammel. Altså, jeg ville sagtens kunne finde på det, hvis jeg skulle til en fest og jeg ikke vil give en 3-4000 for en kjole (...) alt efter om prisen var rimelig. Men i og med, at jeg er mere købestærk end de unge mennesker, så ville jeg nok benytte mig mindre af det i den alder, jeg har.
I2	11:09 - 11:25	Jeg synes det [rental] er mega fedt, især for sådan en som mig hvor 50% af mit tøj bare altid hænger i skabet. Jeg kommer aldrig nogensinde til at bruge det hele igen og alligevel har det lidt affektionsværdi og sælger det ikke videre. Det er så ærgerligt, men jeg må jo bare være ærlig.
I7	13:02	Lige præcis med tøj synes jeg det er vildt personligt. Jeg tror jeg ville have det anderledes hvis jeg gik meget i dyrt tøj, eller hvis jeg cravede

		det (...) Hvis jeg gik op i den slags ville det [udlejning af tøj] være attraktivt
I6	10:43-11:06	Jeg ville så aldrig gøre det [leje] på en taske (...) jamen det er nok mere mig personligt, det der med lige at skifte tasken til en eller anden bestemt, det gør jeg ikke lige. Det er nok mere noget jeg gør med kjoler og så har jeg nogle få tasker jeg er glad for, så er det altid dem jeg har på til alting.
I4	21:50-22:20	Jeg tror aldrig at min garderobe vil komme til at bestå 100% af leje (...) der er også noget værdi i at man har noget lækkert det er 100% éns eget. Det kunne være en taske eller som jeg nævnte, at jeg havde købt en mega lækker læderjakke som jeg havde sukket over i lang tid. Den købte jeg selv, det var dyrt (...) det havde bare noget værdi og man fik selv lov at slide den og give den patina...
I8	23:11-23:32	Jeg synes måske det er mærkeligere at leje en taske end et stykke tøj (...) Jeg elsker mine tasker og dem tror jeg ikke, at jeg vil dele med nogen.
I7	17:11 - 17:18	Jeg knytter mig meget til det [tøj]. Jeg synes det er meget personligt og intimt at skulle dele tøj. Det ville være mærkeligt
I2	15:24 - 15:31	Jeg synes det virker virkelig smart - men jeg ville gerne have en leje mulighed, der bare hed en dag, en nat eller en weekend
Sustainable aspect		
I4	51:15-51:20	[Ved leje af tøj] så tror jeg, jeg ville begynde at føle mig ekstra bæredygtig.
I1	14:51	Det [leje af tøj] virker mere miljøbevidst. Umiddelbart når man lejer, så køber man måske mindre. Det tænker jeg er godt for miljøet - vi kan spare på materialer
I8	26:33-26:44	Det [rental] sustainable i det her er selvfølgelig, at disse stykker tøj bliver brugt igen og igen, men selvfølgelig har vi fragt delen, som ikke er særlig sustainable.
I3	16:53-17:43	Noget [leje af tøj] der er reserveret de der lidt mere vilde ting (...) de der helt almindelige Nørgaard bluser er noget jeg bruger meget og vasker meget (...) det er jeg mere betænkelig ved [referer til at leje tøj af dette]

I3	16:53-17:43	Noget [leje af tøj] der er reserveret de der lidt mere vilde ting (...) de der helt almindelige Nørgaard bluser er noget jeg bruger meget og vasker meget (...) det er jeg mere betænkelig ved [referér til at leje tøj af dette]
I4	18:40-19:35	jeg lidt fanget af den tanke om at man i virkeligheden ikke behøver særlig meget i sit liv for at være glad og have det godt. Så måske bare det her med at lade tingene gå videre og så bare sige 'nu har jeg det i en uge eller to og så give det videre, så kan jeg få noget nyt ind', så man ikke bare hamstre for at have det, men at man egentlig bare kan give det videre eller leje det igen. (...) jeg vil da gerne være med til at mindske mit Co2 aftryk og tage ansvar.
I7	28:34 - 28:55	Der er noget fedt ved at man ikke kommer til at køre køb-smid væk mentalitet (...) Omvendt tror jeg, at det kan skabe nogle behov, som man ikke har.
I6	17:23-18:05	Ja, jeg synes klart det er mere bæredygtigt at leje tøj
I2	20:39 - 20:52	Det [rental] er jo meget bæredygtigt og det er jo praktisk på den måde at man kan vælge og vrage mere som man har lyst
I3	34:28-34:33	Det ville eliminere overforbrug ved mig.
I8	24:03-24:28	Det tror jeg måske, at jeg ville synes var noget mærkelig noget i min omgangskreds (...) altså jeg ville sagtens kunne forstå det, da jeg går ind for, at man skal begynde at tænke den vej [bæredygtigt] (...) men når jeg har en taske med, så er det en del af mig.
Economic solutions		
I8	16:48-17:01	Jeg ville købe mig adgangen [til tøj] fremfor at leje (...) men sådan noget som festtøj, det kunne jeg nok godt finde på. Det synes jeg godt kan være lidt trælse penge - noget rigtig flot, som man kun bruger få gange.
I6	7:48-8:03	Hvis jeg står og skal til et bryllup og har forelsket mig en kjole som koster 4.000 kr. Jeg ved jeg aldrig kommer til at bruge den igen, så at kunne leje den til et reduceret beløb lyder godt.
I8	27:00-27:20	For eksempel for de unge, der tror jeg, at det vil tale til dem - specielt hvis de er studerende og har råd til at tage x-antal penge ud af deres budget (...) og de kan stadig sidde hjemme på nettet, som de ynder sig

I6	7:48-8:03	Hvis jeg står og skal til et bryllup og har forelsket mig en kjole som koster 4.000 kr. Jeg ved jeg aldrig kommer til at bruge den igen, så at kunne leje den til et reduceret beløb lyder godt.
I1	17:10	Da jeg gik på Herlufsholm kostskole var der ofte bal. Det krævede lange kjoler, hvilket jeg normalt ikke går i. Her har jeg da købt kjoler som jeg aldrig har brugt igen, så ja jeg kunne nok godt finde på at leje til bal.
I5	18:00	Hvis jeg står og skal til et bryllup og har forelsket mig i en kjole som koster 4.000 kr., så kunne jeg godt finde på det. Jeg ved jeg ikke kommer til at bruge kjolen igen, så der synes jeg det er en god ide
I4	46:48-47:10	(...) sådan en lækker kjole fra Ganni, det kunne da være meget fedt at have derhjemme, så kunne jeg lige tage den på i morgen til Valentines dag i princippet. Uden at jeg skulle lægge 3.000 kr. men egentlig bare kunne nøjes med at lægge 500 kr. og så kunne jeg være mega lækker for min kæreste. Det kunne være mega nice! Det ville jeg klart få optur over.
I1	13:11	Jeg kan godt se det smarte i at gøre det [udlejning af tøj]. Men jeg tænker meget over om det kan betale sig rent økonomisk, fremfor at gå ud og købe det. Jeg synes det virker dyrt i forhold til at man blot lejer det.
I7	26:10 - 27:00	Jeg synes hel klart at der er value-for-money ved det her. For virksomheder kunne det være en guldgrube - det er lidt som med et fitness abonnement. Man kunne godt glemme at bruge det. Omvendt; får man brugt det, så kunne man virkelig få value for money.
I2	19:04 - 19:25	Det skaber mere værdi for pengene i mit tilfælde, da jeg hurtigt bliver træt af at se på det samme. Det ville spare mig for penge.
I6	8:15-8:26	Fordelen er helt klart det her med at hvis jeg ikke skal bruge den igen, hvorfor skal den så hænge indeni skabet. Så hvis jeg kan spare nogle penge i stedet for at give den fulde pris.
I3	23:58 - 24:37	For noget man skal bruge i en uge, så synes jeg det er en dyr løsning - for eksempel den der taske til 2500 retail, men som jeg for meget nyligt har set i en luksus secondhand til 1200kr, og hvor jeg kan se her at først

		uges leje koster 400 (...) der er bare ikke særlig langt op til 1200, hvor jeg så kunne få tasken for evigt. Det er måske ikke særlig attraktivt.
I3	12:20-12:39	Så det der med at man kan leje den til et lavere beløb, det synes jeg er nice! Fordi så kan man få adgang til eksklusive goder uden at man beøver at være en del af det segment, som normalt har råd til de der ting. Det er ressourcer vi alligevel har, så vi kan måske lige så godt deles om dem - og der er flere mennesker, der kan få gavn af dem.
I8	28:46-29:09	Hvad der er sparret, er tjent, kan man sige (...) altså, hvis det er noget, du ved du ikke får brugt igen (...) Hvis det er sådan en silkekjole, som du også kunne bruge i hverdagen - så kunne man sige, at den kunne man måske godt købe, hvis man kunne bruge den bagefter.
I1	18:00	Jeg kunne nok godt finde på at leje det i en situation hvor jeg vidste at jeg skulle bruge det til en speciel lejlighed, men ikke skulle bruge det igen.
I8	16:04-16:31	Der er jeg nok lige en kende for gammel. Altså, jeg ville sagtens kunne finde på det, hvis jeg skulle til en fest og jeg ikke vil give en 3-4000 for en kjole (...) alt efter om prisen var rimelig. Men i og med, at jeg er mere købestærk end de unge mennesker, så ville jeg nok benytte mig mindre af det i den alder, jeg har.
I8	16:48-17:01	Jeg ville købe mig til adgangen fremfor leje (...) men sådan noget som festtøj, der kunne jeg nok godt finde på det. Det synes jeg godt kan være lidt trælse penge for noget rigtig flot, som man kun bruger få gange.
I6	10:26-10:42	Jeg kan se det cirka er 15%. Det tænker jeg egentlig er okay, for jeg havde lige siddet og tænkt jeg maks. ville give 20% af købsprisen for at leje det.
I5	12:30 - 12:42	Jeg synes det [udlejning af tøj] er dyrt taget i betragtning at man ingen andel får i den. Hvis man lægger penge til en taske fra ny, så har man den og så kan man jo sælge den og få nogle penge igen.
I4	14:55-15:26	Man kan hurtigt komme til at købe et eller andet hvor man bare tænker det er mega fedt eller man lige skal prøve noget nyt af: en ny stil - så forelsker man sig i en kjole (...) og når man så får den hjem og har gået med den to gange, så bliver man sådan lidt 'nå, nu gider jeg faktisk ikke

		den stil mere' og det er jo spild. Så er det totalt smart man kan få det hjem, leje det i en uge eller to og så aflevere det tilbage, når man er færdig med at prøve den stil af.
More fashionable choices		
I7	31:22-31:32	Jeg ville muligvis kunne ændre signalværdi, fordi jeg ville kunne prøve nogle vilde ting som jeg ellers ikke ville have adgang til.
I3	16.01-16:07	Det er nok en tjeneste, der er reserveret for de der lidt mere crazy ting.
I3	18:14-18:22	Det ville da helt klart også skabe incitament til, at jeg ville få nogle vildere ting på, det der med, at jeg ikke behøvede at give så mange penge for det.
I8	31:09-31:13	Vi ville nok få nogle flere glade farver frem ved leje
I5	26:26 - 27:10	Jeg synes det er meget smart hvis man har et konstant behov for nyt. Det ville være frås at gå ud og købe konstant, så at kunne begrænse mængden af køb er godt! Det giver noget fleksibilitet at kunne bytte rundt som man vil, så hvis man får noget hjem man ikke kan lide, så kan man hurtigt bytte det.
I3	16:02-16:20	Oven i mit hoved er det [rental] nok en tjeneste som er reserveret for de der lidt mere crazy ting og fest ting.
I3	28:50-29:06	Det [rental] giver helt vildt god mening (...) Man ville kunne prøve en helt masse ting og få testet en masse ting af og turde være lidt mere modig i sine valg.
I4	18:25-18:31	Jeg kunne godt finde på at bruge det hver måned og have sådan en garderobe der bare skiftede.
I8	30:30-31:02	Jeg synes, at det er fedt, når folk bruger farver - der går jeg mere mod det sikre valg (...) jeg tør alligevel ikke nok til at bruge 4000 på noget, der er vildt og som jeg usikker på, om jeg næste år, synes er fedt.
I6	18:20-18:30	[Ved udlejning af tøj] så skal jeg da netop bare have den modefarve der kører lige nu, for den behøver jeg ikke være bange for jeg ikke kan bruge igen.
I3	18:04-18:23	Jeg ville aldrig nogensinde købe en kjole, der var så dyr, hvis jeg kun ville få den brugt enkelte gange. Så det [rental] ville helt klart også skabe et incitament til at få nogle vildere ting på.

I1	25:30 - 25:50	Ja, jeg tror at jeg ville gå i mere farverige valg, mere vilde farver. Tage nogle andre valg. Det synes jeg er en klar fordel. Jo, ja. Det tiltrækker mig da.
I2	20:58 - 21:49	Jeg ville helt sikkert udvide min horisont og jeg ville gøre nogle ting som jeg normalt aldrig ville gøre (...) der ville jeg jo kunne sige "ej en orange, det prøver vi da bare" (...), så jeg ville give mig selv mere lov til nogle ting (...) der ville slet ikke være nær så mange bekymringer.
Enabling access		
I6	20:07-20:17	Jeg synes helt klart der er noget ved det her koncept, der gør man ville kunne få noget tøj af en højere kvalitet end normalt.
I7	23:50 - 24:04	Det første jeg tænker er at mange unge piger ville bruge det. Det ville være reachable, acccesable og der for dem er meget prestige i at have noget fra et hvis brand.
I7	27:14 - 27:28	Jeg ville afprøve det og se hvordan det var. Netop den der vilde kjole jeg drømte om, men i virkeligheden ikke kunne komme i nærheden af.
I3	11:42-11:53	Det er sygt smart, at man sådan der - hvis man lige skal til fest i weekenden og gerne bare vil have sådan en vanvittig Chanel taske på i stedet for at bruge 50K på den, at man så bare låner den
I1	20:21 - 20:46	Ganni er et godt eksempel på hvad jeg kunne finde på at leje - jeg synes det er for dyrt at købe (...) men jeg synes de laver nogle rigtig flotte ting.
I8	23:45-24:00	Jeg ville synes, at det var mærkeligt rent venindemæssigt at sige: "Du havde sådan en lækker taske her i sidste uge" og svare: "Det er rental bag". Men det er nok også min alder - sådan vil i andre nok slet ikke have det.
Rent to buy		
I8	29:23-30:00	Der er mange, der ikke ville kunne gå ud og få så lækker en kjole på - men det ville de godt nu fordi den koster mindre (...) Og de vil måske få øjnene op for (...) altså, kunne vende folk til at se, at det [premium tøj] er lækkert eller anderledes at have på

I3	16:34-16:45	Den der idé om at det var noget man lejede i 3 måneder for så at sende det tilbage, så vil det næsten være sådan lidt trist, at man skulle sende det tilbage fordi man var blevet glad for det.
I1	21:14 - 21:39	Jeg ville overveje at købe det, hvis jeg efter leje fandt ud af at det var noget jeg kunne lide (...) Men kun hvis det var til en reduceret pris.
I7	27:28 - 27:35	Så ville der formegentlig ske det at jeg bare blev nødt til at eje den
I7	18:42 - 19:16	Det er jo det her der er genialt, set fra et business to consumer perspective. Det er jo super smart fordi man kiler sig ind hos folk der ikke ville bruge det eller har råd til. Det er samme mekanisme som ved smagsprøver i supermarkedet.
I6	14:33-14:53	Jeg tror man ville komme til at holde meget af det [lejet tøj] og så ville man ende med at give fuldpris for det. Så det tror jeg ville være farligt (...) så jeg tror ikke jeg ville gøre det i hverdagen.
I5	20:25 - 21:05	Jeg kan godt lide ideen om at kunne købe ting brugt, uden at det har påvirket kvaliteten (...) Det kan jeg fint affinde mig med (...) Det ville klart være en fordel, hvis man kunne købe det til en reduceret pris efter leje. Jeg ville nemlig have en bekymring om at blive for glad for det jeg har lejet.
I8	21:37-22:04	Jeg kunne godt finde på, at hvis jeg skulle til en fest at leje (...) og hvis jeg så vidste, at jeg havde haft det godt i den og ville bruge den til hver dag, så ville jeg vel kunne gøre som en leasingbil og købe den efter - tænker jeg.
I4	13:25-13:55	For sådan nogle som mig, som ikke lige synes de har økonomien til at gå ud og bruge 3.000 kr. på en kjole. For det kan det jo hurtigt koste for Ganni. Der synes jeg bare det er mega fedt man kan leje det og hvis der så er mulighed for at købe det til en reduceret pris efter det måske har været lejet ud X antal gange (...) Det synes jeg er mega nice!
I4	22:42-22:59	Hvis jeg havde gået og kigget på et eller andet, lad os nu sige det var deres nyeste kollektion (...) så ville jeg helt sikkert lige prøve at leje det først inden jeg købte det!
I5	19:10	Jeg tænker også, at jeg måske ville finde nogle ting som jeg bare ville beholde, altså eje og så ville jeg synes det var træls.

Providers of product rental services		
Brand Image		
I3	6:19-06:33	Ganni og Mads Nørregaard er nok sådan dem, jeg sådan mest orienterer mig i mod (...) Deres kollektioner og deres ting og det de gør er med til at skabe en eller ramme for, hvad der kommer til at ske næste sæson agtigt.
I3	11:12-11:35	Jeg har hørt, at Ganni er begyndt at gøre det [udeleje tøj] - eller det i hvert fald, var et udspil fra dem (...) at de ligesom overvejede sådan noget, at når du sådan skal til fest i weekenden, så i stedet for og købe en helt ny kjole, som du alligevel kun for brug for en gang, så kan du leje den hos os - og det synes jeg giver vanvittig god mening!
I3	14:26	Det er fint, hvis de der virksomheder formår og gøre det så attraktivt som muligt (...) Hvis man vælger at udbyde sådan en ydelse, så har man også gjort sig nogle tanker om, hvordan man bruger... får det til at fungere.
I3	26:14-26:18	Det [Ganni] er et brand andre orienterer sig i mod.
I4	10:25-11:00	Jeg elsker jo Ganni (...) Ganni har sådan et koncept hvor man deler tøj og hvor man så kan købe det billigere (...) der er bare sådan nogle lækre ting, virkelig nice!
I4	16:08-16:32	Man køber lidt mere i de der High Street butikker, altså H&M, hvis man kan kalde dem det..., og Zara, som jo nogle gange også laver noget tøj, som er rigtigt fint, super og lækkert, som sagtens kan holde, men det er bare ikke den samme kvalitet og man føler bare ikke man får det samme fordi der står H&M i nakken.
I4	50:10-5045	Jeg er nok sådan typen der ville være: 'ej den har jeg lejet på Ganni repeat, nu skal i bare høre!' Det kunne jeg godt finde på. (...) Jeg ville fortælle folk om det, fordi jeg synes det er en mega fed ide.
I2	10:11 - 10:25	Det [udeleje af tøj] ser super lækkert, nemt og tilgængeligt ud og stemmer godt overens med Ganni's brand
I8	17:58-18:08	Det er noget af en opgave rent markedsføringsmæssigt og få det ud til min aldersgruppe - spørgsmålet er om man kan det?
Brand Authenticity		

I7	15:39 - 15:47	Det [udlejning af tøj] virker enormt sympatisk og betydningsfuld
I3	23:05-23:36	Jeg synes, at det spiller meget godt ind i hele den der (...) italesættelse af Ganni som et bæredygtigt brand. Den der med (...) at man kan leje først, og så derefter vurdere, at det er noget, man gerne vil comitte sig til - det synes jeg giver god mening.
I7	9:41- 10:43	Deleøkonomi er 'the new black' (...) Som miljø bevidst forbruger er det noget der betyder rigtig rigtig meget for mig. Jeg er nysgerrig omkring det (...) De her ting viser at vi tænker på andet end blot os selv - éns ego. Der er andet der har betydning.
I3	20:36-20:56	Det er måske der, de [udlejnings brands] kommer ind. Det med, at jeg så ikke behøver at overveje mit køb så meget, altså om det er noget man får brugt igen og igen, for så kan de bare sende det videre til den næste (...) det synes jeg er meget fedt!
I3	35:15-35:26	Og at bidrage til en mere bæredygtig løsning, synes jeg også er noget der kan give én god samvittighed (...) at jeg ser mig selv i et sådan mere miljø-positivt lys
I8	31:25-31:33	Jeg tror at så meget som tøjindustrien forurener, så tror jeg helt sikkert, at det ville være bedre for vores samfund at leje.
I8	31:44-31:59	Den vej vi skal de næste 30 år eller sådan noget, så ville det her hjælpe stort - fragten ville være en mindre del af forureningen end selve produktionen.
I4	13:55-14:05	Måske burde flere firmaer gøre det [udlejning af tøj] i forhold til bæredygtighed, så man ikke bare bliver ved med at producere en masse forskellige stykker tøj, som i virkeligheden godt kunne deles blandt folk.

Appendix 11: Questionnaire

Danish Version of Questionnaire

Introduktion
"Kære alle kvinder
Min specialegruppe og jeg søger information om kvinders forbrugsvaner ved tøjkøb ifb. med vores kandidatspeciale på Copenhagen Business School. Din besvarelse vil være anonym og vi håber virkelig du vil bruge 7 min. på at besvare vores spørgeskema.

Tusinde tak,
Puk, Signe og Emilie"

Kategori/Dimension	**Spørgsmål**	**Svarmuligheder**
Sociodemographic	Hvilket køn identificerer du dig mest med?	1. Kvinde 2. Mand
Sociodemographic	Hvad er din alder?	skala fra 1-100+
Sociodemographic	Hvor er du bosat?	1. Region Hovedstaden 2. Region Sjælland 3. Region Syddanmark 4. Region Midtjylland 5. Region Nordjylland
Sociodemographic	Hvad er din primære beskæftigelse?	1. Studerende ungdomsuddannelse 2. Studerende videregående uddannelse 3. Deltidsansat 4. Fuldtidsansat 5. Arbejdsløs eller uden for arbejdsmarkedet
Consumer Motivation Scale		
Hvad er vigtigst for dig, når du køber tøj.		
Value-for-Money	1. Det skal være en god handel 2. Jeg skal have meget for den pris, jeg betaler 3. Produktet skal ikke være spild af penge	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig

Quality	1. Produktet skal være af højeste kvalitet 2. Produktet skal være veludført 3. Produktet skal leve op til mine højeste krav og forventninger	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Stimulation	1. Det er vigtigt, at produktet ikke er for 'basic' eller rutinepræget 2. Produktet skal være unikt (eller give mange unikke momenter) 3. Produktet skal være interessant	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Comfort	1. Produktet skal være komfortabelt 2. Produktet eller ydelsen skal ikke være for kompliceret eller anstrengende 3. Det skal være en behagelig oplevelse	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Ethics	1. Produktet skal ikke overtræde mine principper 2. Produktet skal stemme overens med mine personlige og moralske forpligtelser 3. Produktet skal stemme overens med mine idealer og meninger	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Social Acceptance	1. Produktet skal være populært i min vennekreds 2. Produktet skal gøre et godt indtryk på mennesker, der er vigtige for mig 3. Mennesker, som er vigtige for mig, skal kunne lide produktet	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Sustainability		
Forhold dig til følgende udsagn:		

<table>
<tr><td>Ascription of Responsibility</td><td>1. Det er mit ansvar at mindske min indvirkning på miljøet som forbruger
2. Jeg føler et fælles ansvar for tøjindustriens indvirkning på miljøet
3. At mindske min indvirkning på miljøet er delvist mit ansvar</td><td>1. Helt uenig
2. Delvist uenig
3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td>Personal Norms</td><td>1. Som forbruger af tøj, føler jeg mig moralsk forpligtet til at gøre, hvad jeg kan for at mindske min miljøpåvirkning
2. Jeg er forpligtet til at gøre min del for at reducere min indflydelse på miljøet, som forbruger af tøj
3. Mennesker, som jeg, skal gøre, hvad vi kan for at mindske vores indvirkning på miljøet, når vi køber tøj</td><td>1. Helt uenig
2. Delvist uenig
3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td>Willingness to Sacrifice</td><td>1. Jeg er villig til at betale mere for tøj, hvis det hjælper miljøet
2. Jeg er villig til at betale mere for miljøvenlige brands
3. Jeg er villig til at købe miljøvenlig brands, selvom det kan være dyrere</td><td>1. Helt uenig
2. Delvist uenig
3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3"></td></tr>
<tr><td>GANNI - tøjudlejning</td><td>Har du brugt GANNI Repeat?</td><td>1. Ja
2. Nej</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">GANNI Repeat Introduktion</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Introduktion til GANNI Repeat:
“Vi vil nu introducere dig for GANNI’s nye koncept, GANNI Repeat.

Ved GANNI Repeat kan du leje GANNI produkter (tasker, kjoler, jakker, etc.) til en reduceret pris alt efter ønsket lejeperiode (1 - 3 uger) og produktets originale købspris. Prisen er 15-18% af originalprisen ved en uges leje. Prisen er inklusiv kvalitetssikring, forsikring, rens, vask og levering.”</td></tr>
</table>

Se vedhæftet eksempel fra GANNI Repeat:

Consumer Perceived Value

Hvordan tror du, at GANNI Repeat vil performe? Konceptet GANNI Repeat…

Price	1. har en fair pris 2. tilbyder "value for money"	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>3. vil være en god service til prisen</td><td>3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td>Quality</td><td>1. vil være veludført
2. vil have en acceptabel kvalitetsstandard
3. vil være en pålidelig oplevelse</td><td>1. Helt uenig
2. Delvist uenig
3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td>Emotionel</td><td>1. vil få mig til at bruge konceptet 'leje af tøj'
2. vil få mig til at føle mig godt tilpas
3. vil give mig glæde</td><td>1. Helt uenig
2. Delvist uenig
3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td>Social</td><td>1. vil forbedre måden, som andre opfatter mig på
2. vil give folk et godt indtryk af mig
3. vil give mig højere social accept som forbruger</td><td>1. Helt uenig
2. Delvist uenig
3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Brand Authenticity</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">GANNI siger:

"Vi udfylder et hul i det moderne marked med tøj, der er ubesværet og let at bære og som kvinder instinktivt ønsker sig dag ind og dag ud".

Taget GANNI's seneste aktiviteter i betragtning, i hvor høj grad er du enig i følgende udsagn?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Brand Authenticity</td><td>1. Ganni er tro mod sig selv
2. Ganni skiller sig ud fra andre brands
3. Ganni leverer, hvad de lover</td><td>1. Helt uenig
2. Delvist uenig
3. Hverken enig eller uenig
4. Delvist enig
5. Helt enig</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Willingness-to-Rent</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">I hvor høj grad er du enig i følgende udsagn?</td></tr>
</table>

WtR	1. Jeg vil overveje at leje tøj fra GANNI Repeat 2. Jeg vil leje tøj fra GANNI Repeat 3. Der er stor sandsynlighed for, at jeg vil leje tøj fra GANNI Repeat	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Brand Image		
I hvor høj grad er du enig i følgende udsagn?		
Prestige	1. GANNI er respekteret 2. GANNI er beundringsværdig 3. GANNI er prestigefyldt	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Uniqueness	1. GANNI er anderledes fra andre brands 2. GANNI adskiller sig fra andre brands 3. GANNI er unik sammenlignet med andre brands	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig
Willingness-to-Buy		
I hvor høj grad er du enig i følgende udsagn?		
WtB	1. Jeg vil overveje at købe tøj fra GANNI 2. Jeg vil købe tøj fra GANNI 3. Der er en stor sandsynlighed for, at jeg vil købe tøj fra GANNI	1. Helt uenig 2. Delvist uenig 3. Hverken enig eller uenig 4. Delvist enig 5. Helt enig

English Version of Questionnaire

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Introduction
“Dear all women
My thesis partners and I are looking for information about women’s fashion shopping behavior in relation to our graduate thesis on Copenhagen Business School. Your answers will be anonymous. We really hope that you have 7 minutes to answer our questionnaire.

Thanks
Puk, Signe & Emilie</td></tr>
<tr><td>Category/dimension</td><td>Item</td><td>Possible answers</td></tr>
<tr><td>Sociodemographic</td><td>Which gender do you associate yourself with the most?</td><td>1. Female
2. Male</td></tr>
<tr><td>Sociodemographic</td><td>What is your age?</td><td>Scale from 1-100+</td></tr>
<tr><td>Sociodemographic</td><td>In which region do you live?</td><td>1. The capital region
2. Zealand
3. Southern Denmark
4. Central Jutland
5. Northern Jutland</td></tr>
<tr><td>Sociodemographic</td><td>What is your primary occupation?</td><td>1. Student: youth education
2. Student: University
3. Part time employee
4. Full time employee
5. Not active workforce</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Consumer Motivation Scale</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">What is important for you, when you shop clothes?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Value-for-Money</td><td>1. That it is economical
2. It offers value for money
3. That it i s not a waste of money</td><td>☐ Strongly disagree
☐ Partly disagree
☐ Neither nor
☐ Partly agree
☐ Strongly agree</td></tr>
</table>

Quality	1. The product is first class 2. The product is well made 3. The product meets even the highest requirements and expectations	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Stimulation	1. That the product is not too dull or routine 2. The product is unique or gives unique experiences 3. Produktet skal være unikt (eller give mange unikke momenter) 4. The product should be interesting	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Comfort	1. The product should be Comfortable 2. The product or service should not be too complicated or strenuous 3. It should be a enjoyable experience	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Ethics	1. The product should not violate my principles 2. The product should be consistent with my personal and moral obligations 3. The product should be consistent with my ideals and opinions	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Social Acceptance	1. The product should be popular among my friends 2. The product should make a good impression on people who are important to me 3. People who are important to me should like the product	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Sustainability		
Please consider following statements:		
Ascription of Responsibility	1. It is my responsibility to minimize my impacts on the environment as a consumer of clothes 2. I feel jointly responsible for the fashion industry's impact on the environment	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree

	3. Minimizing my impacts on the environment is in part my responsibility	
Personal Norms	1. As a consumer, I feel morally obligated to do whatever I can to minimize my environmental impact 2. I am obligated to do my part to reduce my impact on the environment as a consumer of clothes 3. People like me should do what they can to minimize their impact on the environment when shopping clothes	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Willingness to Sacrifice	1. I am willing to pay more for clothes, if it helps the environment 2. I am willing to purchase environmentally friendly brands even if they may be more expensive 3. I am willing to pay more for environmentally friendly brands	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
GANNI - Clothing Rental	Have you ever used GANNI Repeat?	1. Yes 2. No
GANNI Repeat Introduction		
"We will now introduce you to GANNI's new concept, GANNI Repeat. With GANNI Repeat you can rent GANNI products (handbags, dresses, jackets etc.) at a reduced price depending on the length of the rental period (1-3 weeks) and the products original sales price. The price is reduced to 15-18% of the original price for a week's rental. The price includes quality assurance, insurance, dry-cleaning, and delivery".		

See following example from GANNI Repeat:

Consumer Perceived Value
How do you believe GANNI Repeat will perform? The concept GANNI Repeat...

Price	1. has a reasonable price 2. offers “value for money” 3. is a good service for the price	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Quality	1. is well made 2. has an acceptable standard of Quality 3. would perform consistently	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Emotion	1. would make me want to use fashion rental 2. would make me feel good 3. would give me pleasure	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Social	1. would improve the way I am perceived 2. would make a good impression other people 3. would give me a social approval	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Brand Authenticity		
GANNI says: “ We seek to fill a gap in the advanced contemporary market for effortless, **easy**-to-wear pieces that women instinctively reach for, day in, day out” Taken GANNI’s recent activities into consideration, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?		
Brand Authenticity	1. GANNI stays true to itself 2. GANNI clearly stands out from other brands 3. GANNI delivers what it promises	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Willingness-to-Rent		

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?		
WtR	1. I would consider renting clothes from GANNI 2. I will rent clothes from GANNI 3. There is a strong likelihood that I will rent clothes from GANNI	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Brand Image		
To what extent do you agree with the following statements?		
Prestige	1. Ganni is respected 2. Ganni is admirable 3. Ganni is prestigious	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Uniqueness	1. Ganni is different from other brands 2. Ganni ‘stands out’ from other brands 3. Ganni is unique compared to other brands	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree
Willingness-to-Buy		
To what extent do you agree with the following statements?		
WtB	1. I would consider buying clothes from GANNI 2. I will purchase clothes from GANNI 3. There is a strong likelihood that I will buy clothes from GANNI	1. Strongly disagree 2. Partly disagree 3. Neither nor 4. Partly agree 5. Strongly agree

Appendix 12: Complete Data set

See attached file: “Complete Dataset”. Excel Sheet

Appendix 13: Cronbach Alpha. Reducing the questionnaire

	Dimensions	Items scales	Cronbach's α	N of items
Antecedents	Value for Money		.690	3
	Quality		.791	3
	Stimulation		.890	3
	Comfort		.757	3
	Ethics		.909	3
	Social Acceptance		.825	3
Moderator	Sustainability			
		Ascription of responsibility	.581	3
		Personal Norms	.801	3
		Willingness to sacrifice	.948	3
			.818	9
Main variable	Consumer Perceived Value			
		Quality	.848	3
		Emotional	.911	3
		Value for Money	.893	3
		Social	.931	3
	Consumer Perceived Value		.932	12
Outcome variables	Brand Authenticity		-	3
	Willingness to Rent		-	3
	Brand Image			
		Brand prestige	.776	3
		Brand uniqueness	.895	3
	Brand Image		.755	6
	Willingness to Buy		-	3

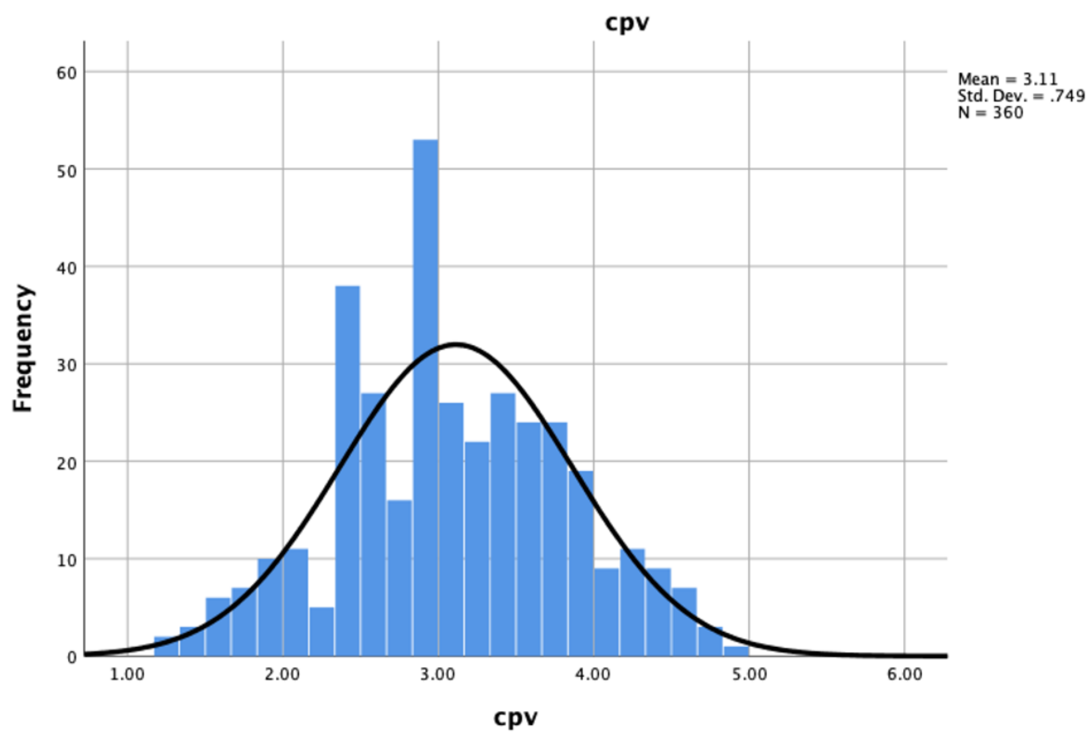
The constructs: *Brand Authenticity*, *Willingness-to-Rent* and *Willingness-to-Buy* were not tested in this Cronbach Alpha test, as all three constructs consist of three items.

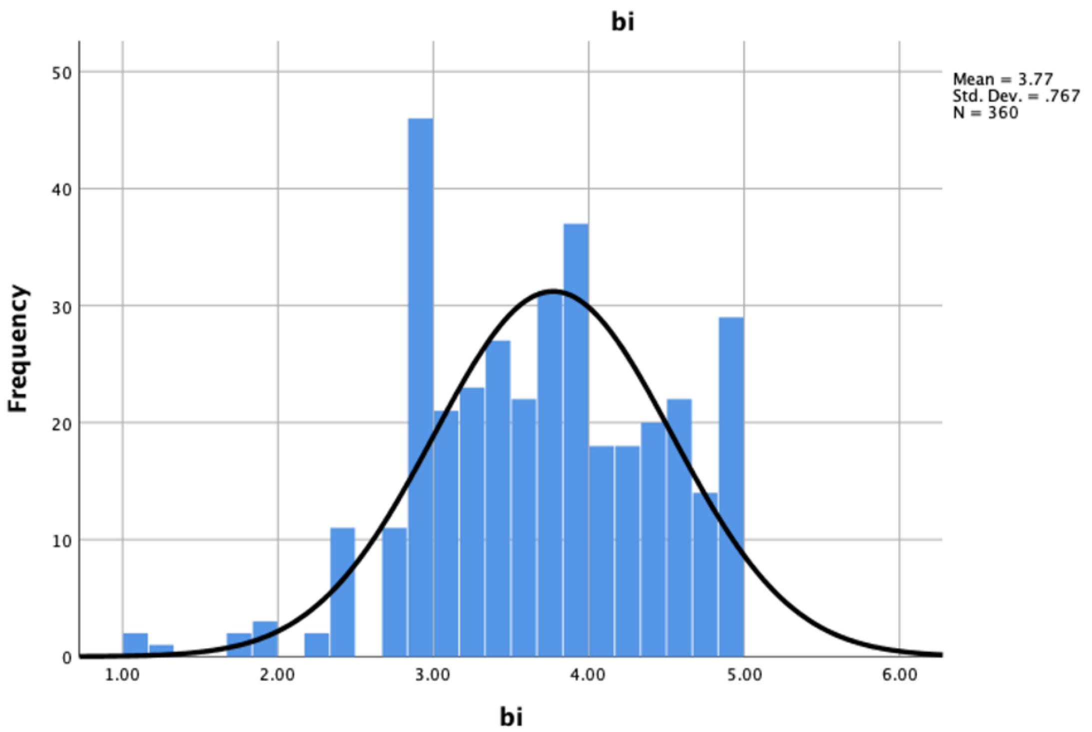
Appendix 14: Skewness and Kurtosis

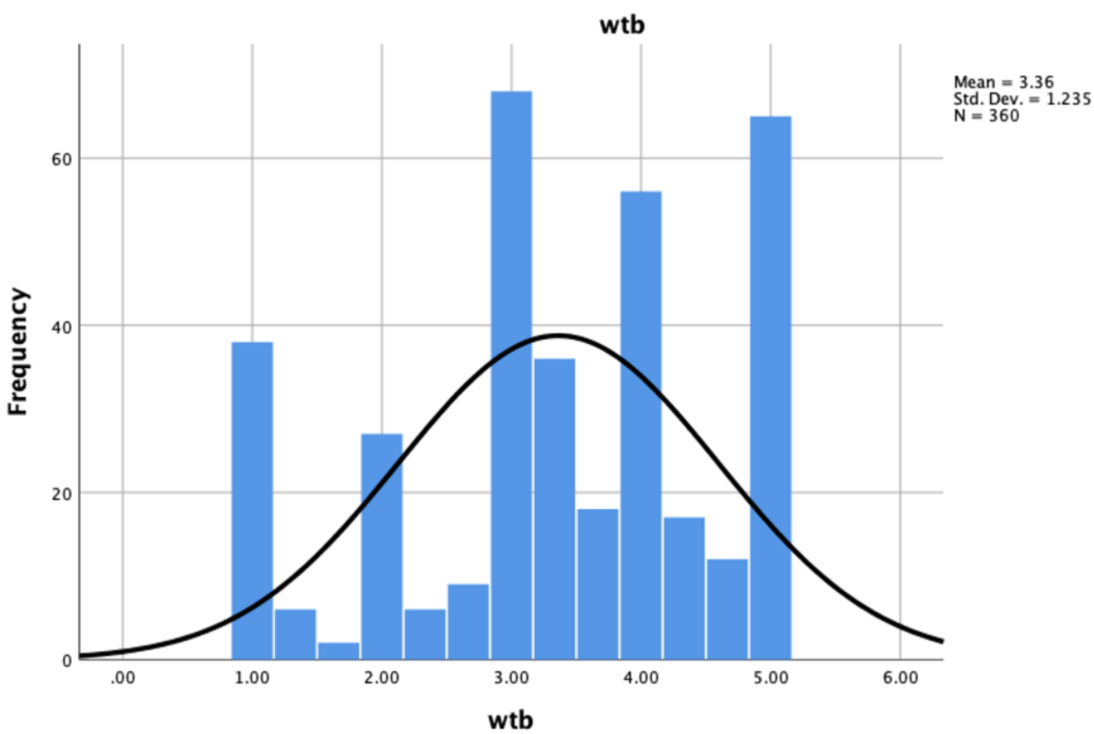
The Skewness and Kurtosis test was conducted in SPSS, 25th. edition

Statistics				
		CPV	BI	WtB
N	Valid	360	360	360
	Missing	0	0	0
Skewness		.047	-.354	-.442
Std. Error of Skewness		.129	.129	.129
Kurtosis		-.385	.142	-.675
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.256	.256	.256

Histogram of CPV, BI & WtB




bi
Mean = 3.77
Std. Dev. = .767
N = 360
Frequency
50
40
30
20
10
0
1.00
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
6.00
bi


wtb
Mean = 3.36
Std. Dev. = 1.235
N = 360
Frequency
60
40
20
0
.00
1.00
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
6.00
wtb

Appendix 15: Multicollinearity

The Multicollinearity tests were conducted in SPSS, 25th. edition.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.630	.291		5.606	.000		
	Quality	.113	.050	.125	2.286	.023	.786	1.273
	Stimulation	-.004	.043	-.005	-.103	.918	.833	1.201
	Comfort	.298	.056	.286	5.298	.000	.803	1.245
	Ethics	.023	.052	.027	.449	.654	.632	1.581
	social.acc	.087	.037	.120	2.366	.019	.906	1.104
	Sustainability	.104	.054	.112	1.919	.056	.687	1.455

a. Dependent Variable: VfM

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.223	.317		3.856	.000		
	Stimulation	.248	.044	.277	5.628	.000	.908	1.102
	Comfort	.241	.061	.210	3.958	.000	.777	1.287
	Ethics	.037	.055	.040	.676	.499	.633	1.580
	social.acc	-.111	.039	-.139	-2.832	.005	.912	1.097
	Sust.	.090	.058	.088	1.560	.120	.685	1.461
	VfM	.129	.056	.117	2.286	.023	.841	1.189

a. Dependent Variable: Quality

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.850	.372		2.281	.023		
	Comfort	-.021	.072	-.016	-.288	.774	.744	1.344
	Ethics	.121	.064	.116	1.902	.058	.638	1.566
	social.acc	.199	.044	.224	4.471	.000	.942	1.061
	Sust.	.047	.067	.041	.695	.488	.681	1.469
	VfM	-.007	.066	-.005	-.103	.918	.829	1.206
	Quality	.333	.059	.298	5.628	.000	.844	1.185

a. Dependent Variable: Stimulation

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.001	.256		7.829	.000		
	Ethics	.206	.046	.252	4.493	.000	.668	1.497
	social.acc	-.080	.033	-.115	-2.390	.017	.906	1.104
	Sust.	.005	.049	.006	.102	.919	.680	1.471
	VfM	.248	.047	.257	5.298	.000	.895	1.118
	Quality	.176	.045	.202	3.958	.000	.808	1.237
	Stimulation	-.011	.039	-.014	-.288	.774	.833	1.201

a. Dependent Variable: Comfort

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.043	.313		.138	.891		
	social.acc	.099	.038	.117	2.630	.009	.909	1.100
	Sust.	.506	.049	.465	10.346	.000	.886	1.128
	VfM	.025	.055	.021	.449	.654	.829	1.206
	Quality	.035	.051	.032	.676	.499	.775	1.290
	Stimulation	.084	.044	.088	1.902	.058	.841	1.189
	Comfort	.263	.058	.214	4.493	.000	.786	1.271

a. Dependent Variable: Ethics

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.544	.415		6.128	.000		
	Sust.	-.164	.078	-.128	-2.121	.035	.689	1.452
	VfM	.180	.076	.130	2.366	.019	.842	1.188
	Quality	-.201	.071	-.160	-2.832	.005	.792	1.263
	Stimulation	.269	.060	.240	4.471	.000	.880	1.136
	Comfort	-.199	.083	-.138	-2.390	.017	.756	1.323
	Ethics	.194	.074	.165	2.630	.009	.644	1.552

a. Dependent Variable: social.acc

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.519	.287		5.301	.000		
	VfM	.100	.052	.092	1.919	.056	.837	1.194
	Quality	.076	.049	.078	1.560	.120	.779	1.283
	Stimulation	.029	.042	.033	.695	.488	.834	1.199
	Comfort	.006	.057	.005	.102	.919	.744	1.344
	Ethics	.459	.044	.500	10.346	.000	.824	1.214
	social.acc	-.077	.036	-.098	-2.121	.035	.903	1.107

a. Dependent Variable: Sust.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.981	.156		6.305	.000		
	BA	.717	.045	.654	15.927	.000	.854	1.172
	WtR	.061	.025	.099	2.420	.016	.854	1.172

a. Dependent Variable: BI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.267	.131		9.652	.000		
	WtR	.090	.022	.161	4.026	.000	.878	1.139
	BI	.579	.036	.636	15.927	.000	.878	1.139

a. Dependent Variable: BA

Coefficients[a]								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-.272	.341		-.799	.425		
	BI	.264	.109	.163	2.420	.016	.522	1.917
	BA	.482	.120	.270	4.026	.000	.522	1.917

a. Dependent Variable: WtR

Appendix 16: Linear regression

The singular linear regressions were conducted in SPSS 25th. edition

Regression: CPV -> WtR

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.743[a]	.551	.550	.83598

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-1.354	.189		-7.173	.000
	CPV	1.237	.059	.743	20.979	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtR

Regression: CPV;Quality -> WtR

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.433[a]	.187	.185	1.12531

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.qual

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.156	.298		-.524	.601
	CPV.qual	.690	.076	.433	9.081	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtR

Regression: CPV;Social -> WtR

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.508[a]	.258	.256	1.07550

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.social

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.955	.149		6.387	.000
	CPV.social	.597	.054	.508	11.145	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtR

Regression: CPV;Emotion -> WtR

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.794[a]	.630	.629	.75896

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.emo

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.336	.121		-2.765	.006
	CPV.emo	.934	.038	.794	24.705	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtR

Regression: CPV;Price - > WtR

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.497[a]	.247	.245	1.08280

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.price

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.671	.178		3.778	.000
	CPV.price	.610	.056	.497	10.850	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtR

Regression: CPV -> BI

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.519[a]	.269	.267	.65645

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.116	.148		14.277	.000
	CPV	.531	.046	.519	11.481	.000

a. Dependent Variable: bi

Regression: CPV;Quality -> BI

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.494[a]	.245	.242	.66740

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.qual

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.906	.177		10.782	.000
	CPV.qual	.485	.045	.494	10.765	.000

a. Dependent Variable: bi

Regression: CPV;Social -> BI

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.399[a]	.159	.157	.70414

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.social

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.025	.098		30.912	.000
	CPV.social	.288	.035	.399	8.229	.000

a. Dependent Variable: bi

Regression: CPV;Emotion -> BI

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.439[a]	.193	.191	.68980

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.emo

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.806	.110		25.432	.000
	CPV.emo	.318	.034	.439	9.252	.000

a. Dependent Variable: bi

Regression: CPV;Price -> BI

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.274[a]	.075	.072	.73852

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.price

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.153	.121		26.022	.000
	CPV.price	.206	.038	.274	5.385	.000

a. Dependent Variable: bi

Regression: CPV -> BA

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.540[a]	.292	.290	.58897

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.106	.133		15.842	.000
	CPV	.504	.042	.540	12.139	.000

Regression: CPV;Social -> BA

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.367[a]	.134	.132	.65105

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.social

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.052	.090		33.725	.000
	CPV.social	.242	.032	.367	7.455	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ba

Regression: CPV;Quality -> BA

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.516[a]	.267	.265	.59925

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.qual

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.901	.159		11.981	.000
	CPV.qual	.461	.040	.516	11.409	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ba

Regression: CPV;Emotion -> BA

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.444[a]	.197	.195	.62703

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.emo

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.788	.100		27.796	.000
	CPV.emo	.293	.031	.444	9.374	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ba

Regression: CPV;Price -> BA

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.348[a]	.121	.119	.65598

a. Predictors: (Constant), CPV.price

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.960	.108		27.505	.000
	CPV.price	.239	.034	.348	7.027	.000

a. Dependent Variable: BA

Regression: WtR -> WtB

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.511[a]	.261	.259	1.06332

a. Predictors: (Constant), WtR

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.098	.126		16.708	.000
	WtR	.506	.045	.511	11.235	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtB

Regression: BI -> WtB

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.517[a]	.268	.266	1.05822

a. Predictors: (Constant), bi

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.219	.280		.781	.435
	bi	.833	.073	.517	11.442	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtB

Regression: BA -> WtB

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.414[a]	.171	.169	1.12594

a. Predictors: (Constant), ba

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.674	.318		2.119	.035
	ba	.731	.085	.414	8.595	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WtB

Regression: VfM -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.062[a]	.004	.001	.74812

a. Predictors: (Constant), VfM

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.856	.222		12.868	.000
	VfM	.064	.054	.062	1.180	.239

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: VfM -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.162[a]	.026	.024	.77262

a. Predictors: (Constant), VfM

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.143	.229		13.711	.000
	VfM	.175	.056	.162	3.116	.002

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.qual

Regression: VfM -> CPV;emotion

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.083[a]	.007	.004	1.05745

a. Predictors: (Constant), VfM

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.549	.314		8.124	.000
	VfM	.120	.077	.083	1.567	.118

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.emo

Regression: VfM -> CPV;Social

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.045[a]	.002	-.001	1.06059

a. Predictors: (Constant), VfM

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.321	.315		7.379	.000
	VfM	.065	.077	.045	.846	.398

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.social

Regression: VfM -> CPV;Price

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.074[a]	.006	.003	1.01531

a. Predictors: (Constant), VfM

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.410	.301		11.322	.000
	VfM	-.104	.074	-.074	-1.409	.160

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.price

Regression: Quality -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.019[a]	.000	-.002	.74943

a. Predictors: (Constant), Quality

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.046	.189		16.129	.000
	Quality	.018	.049	.019	.366	.715

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: Quality -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.018[a]	.000	-.002	.78291

a. Predictors: (Constant), Quality

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.781	.197		19.166	.000
	Quality	.017	.051	.018	.334	.738

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.qual

Regression: Quality -> CPV;Emotion

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.043[a]	.002	-.001	1.06007

a. Predictors: (Constant), Quality

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.817	.267		10.548	.000
	Quality	.057	.070	.043	.823	.411

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.emo

Regression: Quality -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.027[a]	.001	-.002	1.06125

a. Predictors: (Constant), Quality

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.718	.267		10.165	.000
	Quality	-.036	.070	-.027	-.516	.606

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.social

Regression: Quality ->CPV;Price

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.027[a]	.001	-.002	1.01776

a. Predictors: (Constant), Quality

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.867	.256		11.178	.000
	Quality	.034	.067	.027	.502	.616

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.price

Regression: CPV -> Stimulation

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.238[a]	.057	.054	.72804

a. Predictors: (Constant), Stimulation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.487	.141		17.692	.000
	Stimulation	.199	.043	.238	4.636	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: Stimulation -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.133[a]	.018	.015	.77612

a. Predictors: (Constant), Stimulation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.481	.150		23.230	.000
	Stimulation	.116	.046	.133	2.530	.012

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.qual

Regression: Stimulation -> CPV;Social

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.246[a]	.061	.058	1.02899

a. Predictors: (Constant), Stimulation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.665	.199		8.382	.000
	Stimulation	.291	.061	.246	4.805	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.social

Regression: Stimulation -> CPV;emotion

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.231[a]	.053	.051	1.03245

a. Predictors: (Constant), Stimulation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.172	.199		10.897	.000
	Stimulation	.273	.061	.231	4.487	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.emo

Regression: Stimulation -> CPV;Price

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.102[a]	.010	.008	1.01284

a. Predictors: (Constant), Stimulation

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.629	.196		13.443	.000
	Stimulation	.115	.060	.102	1.935	.054

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.price

Regression: Comfort -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.025[a]	.001	-.002	.74934

a. Predictors: (Constant), Comfort

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.000	.242		12.386	.000
	Comfort	.027	.056	.025	.474	.636

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: Comfort -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.105[a]	.011	.008	.77869

a. Predictors: (Constant), Comfort

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.349	.252		13.304	.000
	Comfort	.117	.059	.105	2.000	.046

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.qual

Regression: Comfort -> CPV;Emotion

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.017[a]	.000	-.002	1.06092

a. Predictors: (Constant), Comfort

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.921	.343		8.518	.000
	Comfort	.026	.080	.017	.329	.742

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.emo

Regression: Comfort -> CPV;Social

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.070[a]	.005	.002	1.05906

a. Predictors: (Constant), Comfort

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.031	.342		8.853	.000
	Comfort	-.106	.080	-.070	-1.324	.186

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.social

Regression: Comfort -> CPV;Price

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.048[a]	.002	-.001	1.01696

a. Predictors: (Constant), Comfort

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.700	.329		8.213	.000
	Comfort	.069	.077	.048	.902	.368

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.price

Regression: Ethics -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.171[a]	.029	.026	.73858

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethics

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.534	.181		14.008	.000
	Ethics	.149	.045	.171	3.277	.001

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: Ethics -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.164[a]	.027	.024	.77242

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethics

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.264	.189		17.250	.000
	Ethics	.150	.048	.164	3.148	.002

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.qual

Regression: Ethics -> CPV;Social

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.113[a]	.013	.010	1.05480

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethics

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.039	.258		7.890	.000
	Ethics	.140	.065	.113	2.159	.032

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.social

Regression: Ethics -> CPV;emotion

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.129[a]	.017	.014	1.05228

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethics

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.415	.258		9.370	.000
	Ethics	.159	.065	.129	2.452	.015

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.emo

Regression: Ethics -> CPV;Price

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.124[a]	.015	.013	1.01023

a. Predictors: (Constant), Ethics

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.420	.247		9.779	.000
	Ethics	.147	.062	.124	2.370	.018

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.price

Regression: Social Acceptance -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.237[a]	.056	.054	.72814

a. Predictors: (Constant), social.acc

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.650	.107		24.682	.000
	social.acc	.176	.038	.237	4.624	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: Social Acceptance -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.103[a]	.011	.008	.77889

a. Predictors: (Constant), social.acc

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.636	.115		31.660	.000
	social.acc	.080	.041	.103	1.954	.051

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.qual

Regression: Social Acceptance -> CPV;Social

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.384[a]	.148	.145	.98005

a. Predictors: (Constant), social.acc

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.520	.144		10.518	.000
	social.acc	.404	.051	.384	7.880	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.social

Regression: Social Acceptance -> CPV;Emotion

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.178[a]	.032	.029	1.04415

a. Predictors: (Constant), social.acc

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.541	.154		16.502	.000
	social.acc	.187	.055	.178	3.421	.001

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.emo

Regression: Social Acceptance -> CPV;Price

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.034[a]	.001	-.002	1.01754

a. Predictors: (Constant), social.acc

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.903	.150		19.349	.000
	social.acc	.034	.053	.034	.641	.522

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.price

Regression: Sustainability -> CPV

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.247[a]	.061	.058	.72631

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sustainability

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.196	.194		11.319	.000
	Sustainability	.235	.049	.247	4.827	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: Sustainability -> CPV;Quality

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.271[a]	.074	.071	.75368

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sustainability

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.793	.201		13.879	.000
	Sustainability	.269	.050	.271	5.331	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.qual

Regression: Sustainability-> CPV;Social

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.161[a]	.026	.023	1.04785

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sustainability

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.738	.280		6.212	.000
	Sustainability	.216	.070	.161	3.080	.002

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.social

Regression: Sustainability -> CPV;Emotion

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.223[a]	.050	.047	1.03430

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sustainability

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.859	.276		6.730	.000
	Sustainability	.300	.069	.223	4.334	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.emo

Regression: Sustainability -> CPV;price

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.119[a]	.014	.011	1.01086

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sustainability

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.392	.270		8.859	.000
	Sustainability	.154	.068	.119	2.271	.024

a. Dependent Variable: CPV.price

Regression: StimXage -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.266[a]	.071	.063	.72457

a. Predictors: (Constant), Hvad er din alder? - Alder, Stimulation, stimXage

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.858	.398		4.673	.000
	stimXage	-.007	.003	-.462	-2.064	.040
	Stimulation	.429	.119	.514	3.594	.000
	Hvad er din alder? - Alder	.019	.011	.299	1.668	.096

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: EthicsXage -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.179[a]	.032	.024	.73947

a. Predictors: (Constant), Hvad er din alder? - Alder, Ethics, EthicsXage

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.521	.506		4.983	.000
	EthicsXage	-.001	.004	-.072	-.263	.793
	Ethics	.180	.127	.206	1.416	.158
	Hvad er din alder? - Alder	.000	.015	.007	.031	.975

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: SocialXage -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.261[a]	.068	.060	.72569

a. Predictors: (Constant), Hvad er din alder? - Alder, social.acc, socialXage

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.149	.301		7.145	.000
	socialXage	-.006	.003	-.361	-2.090	.037
	social.acc	.382	.107	.515	3.586	.000
	Hvad er din alder? - Alder	.015	.008	.244	1.833	.068

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Regression: SustainabilityXage -> CPV

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.253[a]	.064	.056	.72730

a. Predictors: (Constant), Hvad er din alder? - Alder, Sustainability, SustainabilityXage

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.001	.553		3.616	.000
	SustainabilityXage	-.002	.004	-.157	-.569	.570
	Sustainability	.307	.139	.323	2.213	.028
	Hvad er din alder? - Alder	.006	.015	.093	.380	.704

a. Dependent Variable: CPV

Appendix 17: Mean Value & Standard deviation, Construct level

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
VfM	360	1.00	5.00	4.0231	.72734
Quality	360	1.00	5.00	3.7481	.80283
Stimulation	360	1.00	5.00	3.1565	.89700
Comfort	360	1.00	5.00	4.2315	.70026
Ethics	360	1.00	5.00	3.8898	.85820
social.acc	360	1.00	5.00	2.6324	1.00897
Sustainability	360	1.11	5.00	3.9086	.78796
ascr.resp	360	1.00	5.00	4.0463	.77389
pers.norms	360	1.00	5.00	3.9296	.88208
wil.sacr	360	1.00	5.00	3.7500	1.00809
cpv.qual	360	1.00	5.00	3.8454	.78194
cpv.emo	360	1.00	5.00	3.0324	1.05960
cpv.price	360	1.00	5.00	2.9926	1.01670
cpv.social	360	1.00	5.00	2.5833	1.06017

cpv	360	1.17	5.00	3.1134	.74853
wtr	360	1.00	5.00	2.4963	1.24647
bi	360	1.00	5.00	3.7704	.76678
bi.pres	360	1.00	5.00	3.8806	.82494
bi.uniq	360	1.00	5.00	3.6602	.89617
BA	360	1.00	5.00	3.6759	.69879
WtB	360	1.00	5.00	3.3611	1.23494
Valid N (listwise)	360				