

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI

**PERCEPTIONS OF THE GENERAL PUBLIC ON SECOND-HAND
CLOTHING: A CASE OF USERS AND SELLERS IN THE GREATER ACCRA**



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CLOTHING. A CASE OF USERS AND SELLERS IN THE GREATER ACCRA
METROPOLIS**



**A Thesis submitted to Department of FASHION DESIGN AND TEXTILES
EDUCATION, Faculty of VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, School of Graduate
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Kumasi, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of
Philosophy (FASHION DESIGN AND TEXTILES EDUCATION) degree**

MAY, 2021

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, DORCAS AKUDUGU, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and dully acknowledged is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted either in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....



SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba, College of Technology Education, Kumasi.

NAME: DR. WILLIAM KWESI SENAYAH

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my dear husband Mr. Daniel Awintima Akomis, my children Prince, Richmond, Lovelace Melody and Beatrice for their support during the course of study.



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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to assess the perceptions of the general public on second-hand clothing with specific reference to users and sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis. This study used a case study design. Quantitative research approach was used. The total population was 630 second-hand clothes sellers and fashion users in the Greater Accra Metropolis. Random sampling method was used to select 242 respondents for the study. The instrument used in primary data collection was questionnaire. Quantitative data was organized and analyzed statistically using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Software. The study results revealed that less than half of the respondents said that because second-hand clothing are relatively cheaper than the made- in- Ghana garments, more people patronize it at the expense of the latter. Moreover, majority of the respondents indicated that because of the low demand for made in Ghana products, Ghanaian clothes cannot compete well with imported second-hand clothes. In addition, more than half of the respondents affirmed that laying-off of workers in the Garment Industry can affect the industry. The study findings show that the majority of the respondents agreed that in Ghana, many people prefer using second hand clothes, as it is the only way they can afford to wear decent clothing, due to the high cost of new clothes, even the locally- made ones. Finally, average number of the respondents agreed that many people prefer second-hand clothes, since they are cheaper and more durable as compared to the ones sold in boutiques. The study recommends enforcement of the ban on the importation of second-hand clothing such as under pants, brassier, to forestall the spread of any contagious disease and there is the need to continue to promote the Friday wear to enhance sales of local clothing.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The amount of second-hand clothing imported into the Ghanaian fashion market has reached an all-time high. According to Agra et al. (2015), about 90% of the clothes worn in Ghana are second-hand. This trend has always had a negative impact on Ghana's garment and textile industries, to the point that some of them are increasingly closing down due to low demand for their goods. According to Dutton (2014), Ghana imports 30,000 tons of used clothing every year, with the majority of it arriving in Accra. We have not only by choice turned our homes into dumping grounds but killed our own textile industry. In their research paper "Globalization of the Fashion Industry and its Effects on Ghanaian Independent Fashion Designers," Sarpong (2011) claims that Ghanaian fashion producers face numerous challenges, the most significant of which is the importation of used clothing from Europe and America, as well as cheap clothing and textiles from Asian countries.

According to Dutton (2014), second-hand clothing was a common mode of clothing acquisition until the mid-nineteenth century. The general population was only able to buy new clothing rather than second-hand clothing as a result of industrialization, mass manufacturing, and rising wages. The greatest economic debate surrounding the international used-clothing trade has centered on the potential impact of used-clothing imports on local and new clothing industries. The importation of used clothing poses a threat to African textile industries because used clothing can be sold at lower prices than locally produced clothing.

Apart from the social and cultural implications, used clothing imports have economic consequences, according to Robertson (2014), which force a reliance on

the west and, in many ways, prevent Africa from developing. Furthermore, after colonialism ended, the idea was for Africans to manufacture their own food and other essential goods in order to assist in the industrialization and development of economies, as China and South Korea did. Clothing factories, on the other hand, decreased in the 1980s and 1990s, while imports of used clothing increased.

According to Dutton (2014), the proliferation of low-cost clothing has put additional strain on an industry that is already struggling to adapt to evolving fashions while dealing with a patchy infrastructure. During his presidency in Ghana, John Kufuor established a national "Friday Wear Day" to enable people to dress in traditional African clothing made of jewel-colored wax fabrics. Second-hand apparel, according to Bradley (2013), is harmful to Africa's economy. He goes on to say that the difference is that in many parts of Africa, second-hand clothing is the primary means of purchasing clothing, suffocating the development of local African economies inadvertently.

Charities, he claims, are contributing to Africa's economic decline. However, some experts believe that a large influx of low-cost hand-me-downs from the West will have a far more negative impact. When countries like Malawi and Mozambique import second-hand clothing, the long-term effect is that they can't really establish or protect their own clothing industries. People complain that wax prints are too expensive to buy and sew, so they prefer second-hand that has already been sewn (Bradley, 2013).

It was also revealed that the frequent importation of second-hand clothing had a detrimental impact on the country's textile industry, which, if not addressed, would eventually collapse. Many women used to take pride in selling textiles because it was

such a lucrative market. However, today's case is different, as purchasing a second-hand dress is much less expensive than purchasing fabric and having it sewn into a dress by a seamstress (Bradley, 2013).

According to Mangier (2016), in the last decade, the massive importation of second-hand textiles, especially from Asia, combined with a high cost of production locally, resulted in the closure of 65 local textile mills and the layoff of 150,000 textile workers. According to him, the closures have displaced more than one million people whose jobs are connected to the textile industry, such as traders and cotton farmers. The Ghanaian textile industry, which used to be the largest employer of labor, now employs just around 50000 people.

The Greater Accra Metropolis' Kantamanto Market is a premier destination for second-hand trade, with over 30,000 vendors selling mostly second-hand clothes. This market, which is mostly made up of unlicensed traders, is extremely important economically for the traders who depend on it for a living as well as the reverberating incomes it generates (Mangier, 2016). Therefore, this study would assess the perceptions of the general public on second-hand clothing. A case study of users and sellers in Accra Metropolis, Ghana.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Ghana imports 30,000 tons of second-hand clothing each year, according to Dutton (2014), with the majority of it arriving in Accra. Not only have we turned our homes into landfills by choice, but we have also killed our own textile industry. The second-hand clothing trade has both positive and negative consequences in Ghana. When trade controls were relaxed, according to the International Textile Garment and Leather Workers Federation (ITGLWF) (2002:9), large amounts of cheap,

second-hand clothing entered the country duty-free. They claim that these garments were imported without paying production costs, labor costs, or the tariffs that once protected local manufacturers from foreign competition.

According to Chronicle (7/8/2008), many people in Ghana tend to wear second-hand clothing because it is the only way they can afford to dress decently due to the high cost of new clothing, including locally made clothing. The majority of consumers prefer second-hand clothing over boutique clothing because it is less expensive and more durable. Ghanaians believe that second-hand clothing is more fashionable than newly sewn clothing. Second-hand clothing, according to Ghanaians, is fashionable for activities such as going to the beach, clubbing, parties, visiting, and any other activity or occasion that necessitates the wearing of pleasant casual clothing.

Second-hand clothing (SHC) imports into West African countries, according to Baden and Barber (2005), are a major contributor to the decline in output of local textile industries in these countries. SHC has been taken over by textiles and clothing imports from Asian countries have added an additional aspect of competition to the Ghanaian textile sector. If SHC is completely prohibited in these countries, there is no guarantee that the local textiles industry will begin to increase production capacity.

While trade in SHC has been a major source of employment for many people, Baden and Barber (2005) concluded that it provides a consumer benefit not only to the poor but to people of all socioeconomic levels. Although SHC contributes to the local textile industry's decline, its economic benefits should not be overlooked. The government reversed the tax on second-hand clothing, resulting in an explosion of second-hand clothing (Kearney, 2012). Since Ghana's textile industry is reportedly

struggling, the reversal of duties posed additional challenges for the industry, the country's economy, and its citizens. It is argued that the government's move would kill local garment industries (Baden and Barber, 2005). According to Kearney (2012) indeed there have been job losses in Ghana due to the government reversing duties.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The study also seeks to provide profound insights on the perception of second-hand clothing by both sellers and users on how lucrative the business is and its impact on the local economy.

1.3 Specific Objectives of the Study

1. To assess the perceptions of the general public on second-hand clothing in Greater Accra Metropolis.
2. To examine from the users and sellers point of view, what they perceive to be the impact of second-hand clothing on locally made garment.
3. To determine the effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis.
4. To develop sustainable strategies to regulate the import of second-hand clothes in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the perceptions of the general public on second-hand clothing in Greater Accra Metropolis?
2. What is the impact of second-hand clothing on locally made garment?
3. What are the effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis?

4. What are the sustainable strategies that can be adopted to regulate the import of second hand clothes in the Greater Accra Metropolis?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The results of the study highlighted problems with textile production in general, as well as the risks of bringing second-hand clothing into the Greater Accra Metropolis. It will also assist stakeholders in the garment industry in identifying issues with the importation and exportation processes, as well as general issues faced by Ghana's garment-producing industries. As a result of the respondents' plans for enhancing the activities of the garment factories, the government and other organisations will be able to find solutions to their issues, enabling Ghana to make the most of its apparel and textiles industries.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study was delimited to sellers and users of second-hand clothing at the Kantamanto market in the Accra Metropolis. This was to maintain the focus.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

The researcher encountered challenges during the distribution of the questionnaires. For example; the participants felt reluctant to give certain vital information concerning the status quo of their operations. Secondly, the researcher found it difficult retrieving the questionnaires from the respondents due to their busy schedules. Thirdly, time constraints also affected the distribution of the questionnaires.

1.8 List of Abbreviations

AMA- Accra Metropolitan Authority

AGOA - African Growth and Opportunity Act

C2C- Consumer to Consumer context

DAPP - Development Aid from People to People in Denmark

GRCC - Greater Accra Regional Co-ordinating Council

HIV - Human Immunodeficiency Virus

SHC - Second- Hand Clothing

ITGLWF - International Textile Garment and Leather Workers Federation

1.9 Organization of the Study

The research was divided into Six parts. The history of the analysis, problem statement, goals of the study, research problems, importance of the study, as well as the nature and shortcomings of the study were all discussed in the first chapter, which was the introduction. The following chapter, Chapter Two, summarized a large amount of relevant theoretical and scientific literature on the topic. The research approach, which includes the research architecture, research population, sample, and sampling procedure, was discussed in Chapter Three. It also found data points and collection tools, as well as data processing and interpretation processes. The fourth chapter was devoted to analysis of results. Finally, Chapter Five included discussions of findings and chapter Six dealt with summary of findings, conclusions taken from the results, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviewed related literature to cover an overview of second-hand clothing in Ghana, Second-Hand Clothing (SHC) in Africa, reasons why people prefer Second-Hand Clothing, globalization and the impact of the second-hand clothing trade on new clothing industries, Second-Hand Clothes trade in South Africa, african clothing industry and second-hand clothes trade, consumers preference of locally manufactured textile to imported ones in Ghana, preference for imported second hand clothes, ban on imported second-hand clothes, comparing quality and conclusions and research gap.

2.1 History of Clothing

The history of Ghanaian fashion is traced back to the pre-colonial era when indigenous Ghanaians used barks of trees and hides of animals to clothe themselves. (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014). The development of fashion in Ghana is believed to have started during the colonial period with the introduction of wax prints and dresses by colonial masters (Turnings, 2012).

According to Adu-Akwaboa, (2014), until the mid 19th century, second-hand clothing was an important way of acquiring clothing. Only through industrialization, mass production and increasing income was the general public able to purchase new clothes rather than second hand clothing.

“What may be a little more insightful to some of us will be the fact that the clothes we no longer want and give away to charity shops often end up being sold to wholesalers who export to Ghana to form a multimillion pound industry known as

the “obroni wawu” trade. (Literal translation: Dead white man’s clothes) (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

Shell (2007) states that a range of paths developed for second-hand clothing by the nineteenth century. According to her, a “shoddy” industry developed in England and North America alongside the textiles mills of the old and New England. By the early 20th century, second-hand clothing was resold in shops and through itinerant merchants. Most of the junk and rag dealers operating in America, Canada and Western Europe were very enterprising.

An extract from the E-Berg Fashion Library intimates that, second-hand clothing constitutes a global market of commerce and consumption that has a long but changing history with complex links to garment production, tailoring and couture. In Europe and North America, second-hand clothing was an important source of clothing preference in the nineteenth century, until mass production and growing prosperity enabled more and more people to purchase brand-new rather than previously worn garments. During Europe’s imperial expansion, the trade in second-hand clothing reached the colonies when mass-produced garments became readily available at affordable prices (Shell, 2007).

The second-hand clothing trade became export-oriented, while charity shops responded to the clothing needs of the local poor. In the Post-World War II period in the West, second-hand clothing trade expanded and grew in scope globally with patronage from all segments of society, even in countries that ban these imports. Because most country boundaries are porous and customs regulations are difficult to enforce, there is extensive illegal importation of this commodity (Shell, 2007).

Dwelling on pre-worn clothes, Fitzwater (2010) reveals that the re-appropriation of pre-worn clothes and accessories, historically reviewed, includes a range of practices from straight forward methods of *unhemming* garments and re-using the raw material perhaps turning it to the less worn side, as would have been practised in medieval times, to the complex scaffold of trades in the 19th century. These industries re-cycled all manner of clothing, with machine-like economy through specialist and discreet skills. Perhaps the most technologically advanced method was the production of “shoddy” cloth in the North of England from rags of wool, cotton and indeed all fibres (except silk) which became the staple fabric for the ready-to-wear garment products in 1834.

An exploration of the formal and informal ways by which second-hand clothes reached the resale market should highlight that some apparently informal ways may indeed be considered formal, especially in the case of servant receiving their masters “gifts” of clothing, which were actually considered as a part of their remuneration. In fact the second hand clothing trade could be said to have actually diminished in complexity over the last two centuries (Fitzwater, 2010).

2.2 An Overview of Second- Hand Clothing in Ghana

In a Feature Article in the Chronicle, a simple picture of second-hand clothes in Ghana was drawn. The "economic poor" are being forced to take the easy path to accessing such material comforts due to the country's soaring commodity prices. According to this source, the ongoing global economic downturn has made obtaining three square meals a day, let alone proper clothes, extremely difficult for underdeveloped nations.

Second-hand apparel is in vogue among the poor due to economic deprivation, according to the article, in order to blend in with the right-thinking members of society. It is difficult to find people in Ghana who are dressed in new clothing, even among the well-to-do. Second-hand clothing is one of the most common and cost-effective clothing options available. In Accra, the Kantamanto Market is the most popular place to buy and sell used clothing (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

Caps, dresses, suits, T-shirts, jeans, shorts, blankets, male and female panties, and all other types of clothing are among the items that sellers said they buy and sell (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014). Normally, the garments are spread out on the floor for prospective buyers to choose from. It's been nicknamed "Bend down Boutique" due to the way the garments are sold, which requires you to bend down to purchase, as opposed to real boutiques where the clothes are hung up.

2.3 Definition of Second-Hand Products

Various authors have tried to formulate a concrete definition of second-hand goods in general or for specific product groups (Fuhrmann 2017, p. 6). Most of these attempts argue that second-hand goods can be defined with regard to the attribution of being 'used' or 'previously owned'. However, these simple definitions contribute little to clarifying the term as a whole, capturing its different facets and differentiating it from related product types. Due to the broadness of the concept of second-hand, it is necessary to distinguish second-hand goods from other and related types of products such as brand new (Guiot and Roux 2010), fit for the scrap heap, antiquarian (Ohlwein 2010, p. 25), collectible (Guiot and Roux 2010) and recycled goods (Stroecker 2015, p. 7).

One relatively new concept that is often linked to second-hand is vintage. It has been argued that the labels second-hand and vintage are close to become synonymous in consumers' minds (Cervellon, Carey, and Harms 2012) whereas this study argues upon the very distinction between second-hand and vintage. The term vintage is primarily used in the fashion world, where it is defined as an authentic and rare piece that stands for the style of a particular era (Gerval 2018, p. 22) dating back to the period between the 1920's and the 1980's (Cervellon, Carey, and Harms 2012).

As the original checklist by Ohlwein (2010, p. 32) only contains three product types other than second-hand, we have also included vintage and recycled products as well as collector's items. It should be emphasized that the distinction between these seven types of products always bases on consumers' subjective interpretations.

A defining characteristic of a second-hand good is the physical deterioration of the product, meaning that with every usage the product's quality is reduced (Ohlwein 2010, p. 29). By comparison, vintage goods are not necessarily deteriorated or used (Cervellon, Carey, and Harms 2012). Moreover, a second-hand product is still usable for its original purpose, which distinguishes it from a product that is fit for the scrap heap. Lastly, the third defining characteristic that distinguishes a second-hand good from, for example, an antiquarian or a vintage one is that it does not necessarily generate significant benefits from age-related shortages.

Accordingly, prices for vintage items can exceed those of luxury modern new pieces (Cervellon, Carey, and Harms 2012). This also applies to antiques and collectors' items due to their rarity properties and the fact that these products are usually not available on the new goods market anymore. When referring to these products, Scitovsky (2014, p. 40) talks about "second-hand markets for the rich".

However, in this thesis we assume the *co-existence* of the branded second-hand product and the new product equivalent, which eliminates possible rarity properties of the second-hand good.

In summary, there is a need for a narrow definition to reduce the complexity associated with the term second-hand in order to gain an unambiguous understanding of its product characteristics. The working definition for the current thesis comprises the following negative definition adapted from Ohlwein (2010, p. 25): *A second-hand product is present as long as the product in question is not brand new, fit for the scrap heap, antiquarian, recycled, vintage or a collectible.*

Throughout this thesis, we employ a broad product definition according to which a product is also regarded as a brand (Hogg, Cox, and Keeling 2010). Thus, when we use the term second-hand product, a branded product is assumed.

2.4 Second- Hand Clothing (SHC) in Africa

Baden and Barber conducted a study on the impact of SHC on developed countries (2005). Despite accounting for just 0.5 percent of global trade, they discovered that SHC is a significant component of garment and apparel imports into most Sub-Saharan African countries. The SHC trade, which involves transportation, cleaning, repairing, restyling, and selling, would employ many people from these countries. Jobs produced by SHC trading is said to be greater than that generated by the formal textile industry in these African countries.

According to Baden and Barber (2005), selling and purchasing SHC benefits both traders and consumers. The annual income from the export of SHC is expected to be in the billions of dollars. SHC is purchased by consumers, primarily low-income earners or the poorest demographic, since the clothes are cheap. According

to Baden and Barber (2005), SHC appeals to people from all walks of life, and although it is known for being comparatively affordable and available, the majority of people purchase it due to the prevalence of western clothing styles.

According to Baden and Barber (2005), SHC imports into West African countries are a significant contributor to the decrease in production of local textile factories in these countries. Textiles have taken over SHC, and garment imports from Asian countries have brought a new level of rivalry to Ghana's textile industry. There is no assurance that the local textiles industry can continue to expand production capacity if SHC is absolutely banned in these countries.

While SHC trade has been a major source of jobs for many people and provides a market advantage to people of all socioeconomic backgrounds, Baden and Barber (2005) concluded that although it has been a major source of employment, it has also been a major source of income for many people. SHC's economic gains can not be underestimated, despite the fact that it leads to the local textile industry's decline. According to Baden and Barber (2005), a portion of the proceeds from SHC trade should go to countries with low purchasing power and declining textile markets in order to help them maintain their textile industries. Another recommendation was to boost customs enforcement in order to reduce SHC-related fraud.

2.5 Second-Hand Clothes Trade in South Africa

The second-hand clothing trade has a long but unexplored history in Africa. Recent literature on this issue (Hansen, 2009; Deconsult, 2013) highlights how there has been a rapid expansion in exports of second-hand clothing from the wealthy countries of the North to the markets of poor countries in the South where it is

consumed again. Hansen (2009:193) states that worldwide second-hand clothing exports increased six fold between 1980 and 1995.

Hansen partly ascribes this to the liberalisation of economies with previously tightly regulated import regimes. She notes (2009: 191) that sub-Saharan African countries are among the world's largest importers, with consumption of second hand clothing exceeding that of all other regions. Hansen (2009:193) notes that in 1995 the world's largest exporter of second hand clothes was the United States, followed by Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium-Luxembourg, and the United Kingdom.

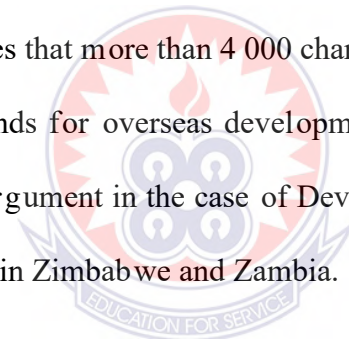
Trade in second-hand clothes is a well established activity with internet website advertisements where members of the public are requested to donate \ their used clothes. There appears to be consensus that private charity organisations in the USA, Canada and Europe are the main suppliers of second-hand clothes. Authors (Deconsult, 2013, Hansen, 2009) point out that charities like the Salvation Army, Goodwill, St. Vincent de Paul, and Armvets in the United States and Oxfam, Humania, Abbe Pierre, Development Aid from People to People in Europe receive far more donated clothing than they can sell in their thrift stores. The surplus is sold to commercial dealers.

Hansen (2009:191) states that in the United States 40 to 60 per cent of clothes donations made are bought by commercial rag dealers or textile recyclers. Rag graders sort the second-hand clothes according to type and quality, and press them into bales to be shipped. Deconsult (2013:6) notes that generally the poorest quality second hand clothes are exported to Africa. Kearney (2010) claims that the lion's share of second-hand clothes donations are sold to dealers and exported to developing

countries and sold at market prices. The used clothing shipped to sub-Saharan Africa by the United States accounts for nearly \$60 million in sales annually (Kearney, 2010).

Hansen (2009:191) argues that the international second-hand clothing trade provides another example of inequitable North-South relations where poor Africans deal with the West's 'unwanted or cast-off' clothes. It is thus clear that second-hand clothing donations are controversial. Western consumers give clothes to charity convinced that their donations will go directly to the poor. Although a small portion of donations go to the poor, a larger portion is sold to the poor at market related prices. Authors do point out the added complication that the profits made from the sale of clothes by charity shops in the North are often used for development assistance.

Tvindal (2012:1) states that more than 4 000 charity shops selling second hand clothes in England raise funds for overseas development and aid work. Deconsult (2013:76) makes a similar argument in the case of Development Aid from People to People in Denmark (DAPP) in Zimbabwe and Zambia.



2.6 The Second-hand Apparel Market in the International Perspectives

The second-hand market in Sweden increased with 16 percent between 2011 and 2014 (Naturvårdsverket, 2016). In 2014, 70 000 tons of textile ended up as household waste, half of which were considered useful by non-profit second-hand (ISH, 2017). Today, reuse of clothes is made possible both by non-profit second-hand and by commercial secondhand/ vintage stores, as well as private buy-and-sell market places (physical or digital).

In 2014, non-profit second-hand collected 22 000 tons of textile in Sweden. On average, around 50 percent of it is resold in Sweden (ISH, 2017). ISH's main focus is to create a surplus from their charity shops in order to fulfil the social work they do

(ISH, 2014). Commercial second-hand stores, such as Beyond Retro, often purchase clothes container wise. Some stores process 10 000 kg of clothes a week (Pop Boutique, 2017). For established companies, clothes and fabrics are often repurposed or upcycled.

Others sell customers' clothes, giving 40 percent of the sales price to the person who submitted the item (Judits, 2017). Several of these actors also offer online shopping and shipping (Beyond Retro, 2017). Buy and sell between private individuals have become increasingly popular. Earlier clothes were mainly sold at physical market places. Today, there is a growing number of digital alternatives for private individuals who want to sell used clothes. Blocket and Tradera are well-established online market places for private individuals in Sweden, going back to the days before mobile applications were in use (Blocket, 2017).

Blocket and Tradera have secured their businesses by keeping up with the mobile development. However, several other buy- and sell apps have popped up in Sweden during the last couple of years such as NyBytt, Schpock, Plick and LetGo (NyBytt, 2017). Sellpy is another novel service that offers an easy way for people to sell their used goods - you simply request a Sellpy-bag, pack it with your used clothes, Sellpy picks it up and takes care of the resale. Items that cannot be sold are donated to charity. 56 percent of the item's worth is paid back to the submitter (Sellpy, 2017).

Research on different types of consumption in relation to sustainability takes different approaches; some look at "sustainable consumers", "eco-conscious consumers" or "anticonsumers" (Black and Cherrier, 2010), others look at motivations for avoiding fast fashion or engaging in second-hand consumption

(Guiot and Roux, 2010). Consumer perceptions on sustainable clothing have also been under study (Fisher et al., 2008).

In the UK, Fisher et al. (2008) studied the public's perception of sustainable clothing and found that although the knowledge on the subject is low, feelings of guilt are connected to consumption and waste. Therefore, to recycle and reuse can be means to take away these feelings. Motives for second-hand consumption have also been under study. Motivational factors for second-hand shopping have been found to relate to critical reflections (ethical and ecological dimensions), economic and recreational factors (such as stimulation or treasure hunting), and these different motives seem to correlate with each other (Guiot and Roux, 2010).

Fast fashion avoidance has been related to environmental concern (Kim et al., 2012). Several studies focus on people who live a sustainable lifestyle or aspire to consume more sustainable (Black and Cherrier, 2010). Bly et al. (2015) found that "sustainable fashion consumption pioneers" are motivated by an experienced tension between sustainability and fashion, and the structural barriers for sustainable consumption "have become part of the sustainability definition, so that their acts of sustainability embody a form of *resistance* to seemingly unsurpassable systemic barriers" (p. 132).

This opposition was also found by Cherrier (2009) in a study of consumer resistance, where the opposition is a creative act that "enables consumers to repositioning themselves in society" (p. 189). Cherrier et al. (2010) found that intentional non-consumption can be understood as a resistance towards other consumers. Anti-consumption seems to be prioritised by "sustainable consumers". Black and Cherrier (2010) found that for sustainable consumers, anti-consumption -

i.e. rejecting, reducing and reusing - is prioritised over so-called "green consumption", where you purchase new products perceived to be environmentally friendly.

According to Bly et al. (2015) sustainability efforts from companies are seen as self-interest moves rather than authentic efforts to change, and sustainable fashion consumption pioneers hence disregard these companies (p. 133). Contrasting, Connell (2011) found that eco-conscious consumers do choose eco-conscious companies as well. However, it is important to note that both of the above-mentioned studies were small as well as conducted in different cultural settings, and therefore it is hard to contrast these two - even if the different findings are interesting.

A practiced approach to consumer studies has been emphasized as a way to understand consumption (Warde, 2005). Briefly explained, practice theory focuses on practices (e.g. playing football, cooking, playing music) instead of the structures or the individual actors. However, while Warde (2005) claim consumption could be understood as something entailed in practices, rather than the practice itself - it is arguable that second-hand shopping (i.e. reuse) could be both entailed in other practices as well as a practice itself.

Following Shove et al.'s (2012) take on how practices relate to each other in "bundles and complexes", and how new practices can "take hold at the expense of others which are no longer performed, or not performed as frequently as before" (p. 81) second-hand shopping itself could be viewed as something that could be altering other practices who entail consumption. This way of thinking about second-hand shopping can further be supported by Røpke's (2009) claim that shopping as a practice "has implications for the consumption related to other practices" (p. 2495).

Drawing on these definitions, the practice of secondhand shopping of clothes can be seen as a culturally understandable practice that connects to other practices. Following the thoughts of Hargreaves (2011), a practice approach illuminates more aspects of social life, instead of focusing on individual behaviour, and this is needed in order to achieve sustainable consumption and more sustainable practices (p.96). Shove (2010) points out: "while social norms are often cited as driving factors, there is no scope at all for wondering about how needs and aspirations come to be as they are" (p.1277). To take a practice based approach to a sustainable consumption practice, and to understand how that practice is constituted and reproduced, maybe could support the creation of more sustainable practices.

However, Røpke (2009) illuminates a contradiction in applying practice theory on sustainable consumption; when practice theory is combined with lifestyle concepts, the "individual focus on self-identity and lifestyle becomes the background for the combination of practices in everyday life" (p. 2493). A practice-based approach toward alternative consumption has been employed by for example Perera et al. (2016), who drew on the notions of Warde (2005), Shove (2004) and Røpke (2009) to find symbolic meanings associated with green consumption practices.

The study examined green consumption practices among young environmentalists and found that "green consumption consists of learning, acquiring and interacting practices that are largely based on socially constructed meanings" (p. 14). The study showed that the symbolic meanings of green consumption varied from e.g. happiness and empowerment.

The transnational second-hand clothing system of provision begins with the conspicuous consumption of garments in the global North and extends to the sale of

worn used clothing on African market stalls. Certain charities, firms and individuals have become profitably entrenched in the (re)production, export and import of used-clothing commodities, including well-established charities (e.g. Oxfam and the Salvation Army), commercial operators (e.g. Choice Textiles and Canam) and Indian merchants in southern Africa (e.g. UMUT in Mozambique and Khalid in Zambia (Durham, 2014). Such economic actors became embedded as the used-clothing trade developed and now control crucial assets.

They were able to take advantage of social and economic changes, including the global expansion of clothing production in the twentieth century and the liberalisation of African economies (Coughlin, 2014; Rivoli, 2009). Through this thesis, the social and economic conditions which have contributed to this system developing, such as the structural adjustment of African economies, have been discussed in-depth. Specific socio-political discourse relating to Mozambique and Maputo especially has been examined so that the conditions in which the second-hand clothing trade operates in an African city can be understood (Hanlon and Smart, 2008; Pitcher, 2012).

Gregson and Crewe, (2013), explored how it is labour-power that is required to reproduce exchange-value in used clothing commodities, rather than a reified notion of cultural change, as proposed in Thompson's rubbish theory, which has been previously applied to the second-hand clothing sector. Commodity studies are rooted in structuralist development economics, where the activities of capitalists in the global North are believed to limit the opportunities for economic activity in the global South (Bernstein and Campling, 2016). Follow the thing research neglects political economy and is preoccupied with post-modern narration of the self (Cook *et al.*, 2014).

Starosta (2010) has made a convincing argument that global value chains and related approaches fail to explain the very nature of the object of their enquiry beyond describing the immediate outer manifestations of trade systems. These limitations can be traced back to their branching out from world systems theory (Bair, 2015), which, like the opposing neo-classical framework, does not explain contemporary conditions of poverty in African markets. Neither the work of Wallerstein (2009), which assume that the role of labour is functionally determined by the actions of dominant classes in a global system of uneven exchange, nor *neo-classical theory*, which positions market traders as rational socially decontextualised individuals, provides an adequate form of political economy analysis (Roitman, 2010).

It is not sufficient to say that market forces, such as the availability of donated clothing in the global North which is in demand in Africa, make a trade pattern. Instead, it is intended that by applying a SOP analysis, this thesis speaks to the need for a discussion of „social formations (which are constantly redefined by capital, the state and producers themselves) to understand the role of Africans in the used-clothing trade (Roitman, 2010: 676).

These social formations „determine which choices and alternatives within the productive process are themselves legitimate“ (2010: 676). The choices of market traders in Maputo who work in the used-clothing system are defined by social formations including the (re)production of used-clothing commodities as mixed bales, state import policies and transport geographies. Used-clothing traders are not socially decontextualised, rational decision-makers who have entrepreneurial opportunities, especially as their knowledge of the values of the contents of clothing bales is limited to the category of clothing they are purchasing.

Used-clothing values are established both within and between cultures (Hansen, 2010). Market workers in Africa have little knowledge of the origin of used clothing (Field, 2010). The unknown quality and local exchange-value of the clothing purchased within bales by used-clothing market traders contrasts to the new-clothing retail in the global North where firms dictate product information and order clothing designs which respond to the latest socially manipulated fashion trends (Bair and Gereffi, 2011). The traders who work in Xipamanine market in Maputo negotiate prices primarily depending on the material quality of the second-hand clothes, but they are also socially aware of local stimulated desires and trends and attempt to increase the exchange-value of items which have a high symbolic value.

Market traders do not fully understand the initial cycle of production and consumption of new clothing, the donation and discarding of unwanted clothing, or the labour activities and systems through which used-clothing commodities are (re)produced and traded to Mozambique. Used clothes are mute as to how and by whom they were (re)produced as commodities, which is normal in capitalist market exchange (Hartwick, 2008). Understanding the various social and economic processes that occur at different places in the used-clothing trade is difficult and mapping these activities is required before they can be explained in the manner Roitman (2010) or Starosta (2010) demand.

Previous cultural investigations, such as Field (2010) and Hansen (2010), of African used-clothing traders' livelihoods have not taken a political economy approach that considers critically the marginalised roles of these people within a broader trade network. Examining the power relations and governance of different exchange relationships in the used-clothing trade through a systems of provision approach, which embraces cultural analysis, has allowed greater insights to be gained.

This study has not offered a perfect cross-section of the trade; there is not a clear line that can be traced between all the stages in the United Kingdom and Mozambique that have been discussed here as there is in Cook *et al.*, (2014) or Kleine (2008). There are practical difficulties for a researcher in being able to command knowledge of the exact social and economic processes that occur at every node between production and consumption (Coe *et al.*, 2008). In the second-hand clothing trade this is compounded by the concealed commerciality, which is hidden from clothing donors, and the prevalence of illegitimate and illegal practices (Lomotey and Fisher, 2016). The non-integrated used clothing supply chains are especially difficult to trace as information about the origin of clothing goods is not shared between the parties involved in exchange relationships (Lincoln, 2019).

Although this study may not have traced a complete chain of activities, it has offered a more extensive analysis than commodity studies research, as this systems of provision approach considers processes beyond the directly linked activities of production and consumption. This includes analysing how charity images are used and manipulated and the historical conditions which normalised the charitable giving of used-clothes (Strasser, 2009) as well as the liberalisation of African economies. In contrast commodity studies approaches do not investigate directly the material cultures which surround conditions of production, distribution, marketing and consumption (Crewe, 2010; Fine, 2012).

Another important avenue to explore would be to test Schor's (2015) findings from the United States which indicate that there is a correlation between new-clothing purchases and used-clothing exports and to investigate if this trend can also be observed in the UK and to explain the relationship.

2.7 Characteristics of Second-Hand Products

As soon as a new product's technical, economic, and social lifetime is subjectively perceived as ending, the owner can discard it and sell it second-hand (Stroecker 2015, p. 17). The economic lifetime expires when technically improved models are available. The end of a social or psychological lifetime implies that a "consumer wants to have the newest of the newest (lifestyle)" (Stroecker 2015, p. 17). A group of people willing to purchase these disposed products create a second-hand market (Stroecker 2015, p. 13).

Another important condition for a good to be qualified as second-hand is the product characteristic of *(semi-)durability* (Purohit 2012). Semi-durables have a technical life of between six months and three years, pure durables three years or more (Stroecker 2015, p. 19). Thus, almost every (semi-)durable can be offered second-hand (Müller 2009). According to the cue utilization theory (Richardson, Dick, and Jain 1994), consumers rely on product cues when evaluating products. Those product cues can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic ones (Olson and Jacoby 2012).

The latter are product-related characteristics such as brand name, price, packaging and warranties that are not elements of the physical product (Richardson, Dick, and Jain 2014). Intrinsic cues comprise product-related attributes such as the design, performance, size and quality of ingredients (Bellizzi et al. 2011) that cannot be manipulated without changing the physical product features. There are several product cues operating in new-product markets that are altered in second-hand markets. Second-hand products are usually not packaged and the original *packaging* and/or the product tag does not exist anymore. Furthermore, *warranties* are largely missing

for second-hand products (Guiot and Roux 2010) implying a higher risk when acquiring these goods (Stroecker 2015, p. 25).

Moreover, the expected performance of a used product is lower in comparison with a new product (Stroecker 2015, p. 25). According to Srinivasan, Jain, and Sikand (2014), the product's *quality* represents an intrinsic cue. Due to the natural usage-based quality deterioration of the second-hand product, the objective quality of a second-hand product is lower compared to a new product (Stroecker 2015, p. 25). However, the physical deterioration varies from product to product as a result of the disparity in previous usage conditions (Ghose 2019).

Thus, the second-hand product's quality depends on product age as well as on the intensity and degree of use (Stroecker 2015, p. 25) and can be identified as a product-specific dimension. Thus, due to this quality heterogeneity (Breneman, Geuens, and Fasseur 2012), customers often remain in doubt regarding the quality of second-hand products. The most striking and obvious difference between a second-hand and a new product is the extrinsic cue of *price* (Stroecker 2015, p. 31). A used good is usually lower priced compared to a new product (Stroecker 2015, p. 22).

However, due to the heterogeneous quality or physical condition of the goods, the same products can attract different prices (Stroecker 2015, p. 24) and bargaining is possible (Stroecker 2015, p. 25). Although differences exist, second-hand products are sometimes viewed as (imperfect) substitutes for new products (Stroecker 2015, p. 18). The *brand name* of a second-hand product is the same as for the original new product. Still, as Gabbott (2011) states, due to the uncertainty about the second-hand product's quality and an associated higher functional risk, a brand name is a less reliable cue in the secondary than in the primary market. This is in keeping with the

fact that a second-hand product cannot maintain a first-owner status in the buyer's life (Roux and Guiot 2018).

2.8 Consumer behavior

Consumer behavior can be defined as the activities people are involved in when obtaining, consuming and disposing products and services. Consumer behavior consists of certain actions, thoughts, experiences and decisions that will satisfy the consumer's needs and wants. It is based on people's ideas or expectations of satisfying their needs and wants (Cohen, Prayag, & Moital, 2014). Wu and Chan (2011) explain that consumer behavior is consumers seeking, purchasing, using and evaluating products or services and ideas matching their expectations.

Consumer behavior explains why individuals act in the way they do and therefore provides what internal and external factors that make customers act in the way they do (Patch, 2006). Ethical consumerism has existed for centuries, but it is during the last three decades that it has received much attention both among consumers and in the academia (Yeow, Dean, & Tucker, 2013). Ethical choices are increasing in the minds of consumers, and the understanding of this has become an important research area (Szmigin *et al.*, 2009).

One reason for it is because consumption is a large part of our lives and by understanding our consumer behavior we can tell a lot about ourselves as human beings (Papaoikonomou *et al.*, 2011). Consumers' attitudes and beliefs of ethical consumerism has become significant for businesses and organizations (Yeow, Dean, & Tucker, 2013). Consumers will not only buy and use environmentally friendly products, but also engage in recycling and pro-environmental political actions (Papaoikonomou *et al.*, 2011).

One way to describe ethical consumerism is the way consumers can express their ethical concerns towards products and organizations by carefully choosing which product to buy. Ethical consumerism can be achieved by excluding a product that does not meet the consumer's ethical standards (Cho & Krasser, 2011). Consumers' consumption behavior can be influenced by ethics (Hamelin, Harcar, & Benhari, 2013), in the sense that each purchase will have ethical, resource, waste and community impacts (Young, Hwang, McDonald, & Oates, 2010).

2.9 Ethical consumer behavior

Ethical consumer behavior can be explained as consumers basing their shopping decisions on social and environmental considerations as animal, social and environmental welfare (Low & Davenport, 2007). Consumers adopt ethical practices over time to decrease their consumption levels. They decrease impulse and libertine purchases, choose second-hand products, and prefer greener transport (Szmigin, Carrigan, & McEachern, 2009; Papaoikonomou, Ryan, & Valverde, 2011). Papaoikonomou *et al.* (2011) summarizes previous studies which aimed to identify the drivers of ethical consumer behavior.

A common finding was that ethical consumers do not always strive for social change but sometimes try to be authentic and real with their ethical self. Regarding the identity structure, findings show that ethical consumer practices serve as a way to construct an ethical self and to distinguish them from other consumers. One way for ethical consumers to do so is to carry visible objects like green bags (Papaoikonomou *et al.*, 2011). Another way for consumers to due to moral or ethical reasons, to avoid the mainstream market, is by buying second-hand products, involve in recycling or fighting against waste (Ferraro *et al.*, 2016).

Therefore, by choosing second-hand shopping, consumers can express sustainable consumption practices which will distinguish them from other consumers (Carrigan, Moraes, & McEachern, 2013). Cherrier (2007) argues that ethical consumers run a social movement to consolidate different persons in a society through similar norms, personal meanings, values and interests. Caruana & Crane (2008) discuss consumer responsibility of the social, ethical and environmental impacts of consumption decisions.

They state that studies of consumers' responsibility have shown that consumers may take their responsibility by choosing socially beneficial products. Consumers may use their 'purchase votes' to show preference for positive social outcomes. Luchs *et al.* (2015) made a study to help situate consumer responsibility. Their results suggest that if consumers have a broad attitude towards sustainability and feel responsibility for sustainable consumption, then this attitude will have a positive interactive effect on their behavior.

In other words, when a consumer has this attitude and feeling then sustainable consumption behavior is most likely to occur. Roux and Korchia (2006) also mentions that a way for consumers to develop and express a socially conscious self is to involve in second-hand shopping in order to fight against a society that promotes waste. Yan, Bae and Wu (2015) state that second-hand markets will reduce a consumer's demand for new goods if there is a supply of used products that are still valuable. Therefore, second-hand markets will have meaningful environmental implications.

Indeed, a study from Farrant, Olsen and Wangel (2010) with data from 200 consumers in Scandinavia showed that the reuse of clothes will contribute to the

reduction of clothing's impact on the environment. It was assumed that out of one hundred collected products, sixty would be reused, thirty would be recycled in another way and ten would be disposed of. Therefore, consumers' purchase choices can be influenced by their attitude towards the environment (Farrant *et al.*, 2010).

Szmigin *et al.* (2009) discuss how there is a strong correlation between the self-concept and ethical consumption, as ethical consumption involves various choice decisions. For the customer, these choice decisions mean that they must decide what to prioritize. When shopping, it may be to trade off quality and price with social or environmental concerns as how far the product travelled or under what condition it was produced. This process will most likely create dissonance. Dissonance occurs when an individual experiences a situation which creates inconsistency between the self-concept and behavior. For the customer to deal with dissonance, flexibility in rationalization and self-justification is important.

2.10 Voluntary simplicity and Lifestyle

Jensen (2009) explains that a lifestyle is our everyday activities and routines. To proceed with a lifestyle an individual needs beliefs, desires and intentions. A belief is what an individual knows about things based on their perception, a desire is what an individual wish or want, and an intention is what an individual mean to do based on their goal. Therefore, the way an individual perceives the world will determine his or her beliefs about the nature, which in turn will determine how he or she acts within it. A psychographic approach can be used when studying lifestyles.

The approach is concerned with people's values and approaches to life, with the purpose of relating those lifestyles to the consumers' purchase behavior (Fraj & Martinez, 2006). Crane & Matten (2010) state that personal values are influential in

the type of decisions we make. It is especially true of ethical decisions since values are key repositories of what we believe is good/bad and right/wrong. The psychographic approach is also concerned with attitudes and lifestyles.

For example, a person with a 'green' set of values will likely have a matching lifestyle, which means that the person would rather choose transportation in form of a bike rather than a car. Therefore, in decision-making, a powerful source could be ethical values (Fraj & Martinez, 2006). Further, Fraj and Martinez (2006) explain that consumers who behave in favor of the environment, emphasize ecological products or recycling and help the environment through various activities, are characterized with a self-fulfillment feeling.

They strive for improving themselves and to live an ecological lifestyle. This ecological lifestyle implies taking care of the environment, selecting products that are environmentally friendly and recycling products. Cherrier (2007) brings up the phenomenon voluntary simplicity, which is a life choice where people chose to live a simple life. People usually work less, want less, spend and consume less and, in the process, become happier. Cherrier (2007) continues by explaining that this choice of living implies a change in the consumption lifestyle towards a more harmonious life with more purpose.

Therefore, voluntary simplicity means that people will reduce their consumption and their working hours, and as a result live a simpler life (Cherrier, 2007). Papaoikonomou *et al.* (2011) also discuss that a voluntary simplifier can reduce his/her consumption by cutting down on impulse purchases, prefer second-hand products and avoid using private transportation. Voluntary simplicity, frugal consumer behavior and sustainable consumption are thought of as proactive lifestyle

choices. Individuals make these choices to achieve a longer-term goal by avoiding possessing or acquiring goods (Pepper, Jackson & Uzzell, 2009).

2.11 Theories on Scarcity Effects

In the following, three popular theories regarding the effect of scarcity will be elucidated. These are commodity theory (Brock 2018), reactance theory (Brehm 2016) and scarcity as a heuristic cue (Lynn 2019). Commodity theory is presented because it has been widely employed to study the effects of scarcity (Verhallen and Robben 2015). Likewise, reactance is a theory that has been extensively studied in social psychology and in the context of scarcity (Clee and Wicklund 2010). Moreover, Verhallen and Robben (2015) present the scarcity heuristic in their review on scarcity theories and several journal articles on scarcity effects use the scarcity heuristic as a starting point (Ditto and Jemmott 2019).

Commodity theory (2018) states that consumers judge commodities according to their degree of availability. More precisely, scarce commodities have a higher perceived value than abundantly available ones (Worchel, Lee, and Adewole 2015). Brock (2018, p. 246) defines a commodity as anything that can be moved from an individual to individual and which is beneficial to its owner. The term 'value' is defined as the utility or the attractiveness and desirability of a commodity (Brannon and Brock 2012). Hence, the evaluation of a commodity does not solely depend on the commodity's functional and intrinsic properties; it is also affected by its supply- and demand-related characteristics (Brock 2018, p. 246). Several studies reveal (Lynn 2012) that scarcity which is provoked through market circumstances has a greater effect on the desirability of commodities than scarcity based on accidental or non-market induced reasons (Verhallen and Robben 2015).

Reactance theory (Brehm 2016) starts from the premise that consumers usually feel they are free to choose between the goods on offer (Hammock and Brehm 2016, p. 546). The perception by a consumer that his/her freedom to possess a good is threatened by product scarcity evokes a psychological state - reactance - that motivates him to endeavor to retain his threatened freedom of choice (Brehm 2016, p. 15-16). Consequently, this perceived threat of losing the freedom of choice increases the desirability of scarce objects (Brehm 2016, p. 15).

Another approach is the more recent *scarcity heuristic* (Cialdini 2013), which argues that consumers judge a scarce product on the basis of the 'scarce = attractive' heuristic (Esch and Winter 2010, p. 24; Gierl and Huettl 2010). Product scarcity serves as a heuristic cue from which consumers directly infer higher *product value* (attractiveness and desirability) (Cialdini 2011, p. 219). According to Cialdini (2011, p. 228) consumers cannot cognitively refuse to apply the scarcity heuristic even if they are aware of its effect since it has a strong physical aspect that hinders consumer's ability to think (Cialdini 2011, p. 228) and leads to automatic responses (Cialdini 2011, p. 8).

Cialdini (2011, p. 219) claims that individuals have learnt through their socialization as consumers that scarce products are better than abundant ones. Another cue-based approach is the 'scarce = expensive'-heuristic (Lynn 2019). It states that consumers infer a higher price from scarce products. Lynn (2012) argues that individuals have internalized this relationship from naïve economic theories. Moreover, Lynn (2012) states that consumers want expensive products more than cheap ones. Through the higher price estimate (mediator) both the perceived quality and the perceived status of the product increase (Lynn 2019).

On the one hand, this can be explained through the price-quality relationship (for example Rao and Monroe 2019) according to which a consumer links higher prices to higher quality (Lynn 2012). On the other hand, the product's costliness might signal a higher social status of the person who possesses the scarce product.

2.12 Empirical Review

Researchers who deal with the topic of second-hand products and second-hand shopping repeatedly highlight the fact that it is a retailing phenomenon which has received little attention in the literature despite its long tradition (Guiot and Roux 2010; Roux and Korchia 2016). In order to verify these statements, to create an overview of the current state of research and to identify findings relevant to our underlying research aim, we have included a literature review on empirical studies related to the second-hand context.

The preceding chapter on second-hand product characteristics is mainly based on insights drawn from micro- and macro- economic literature. It is particularly second-hand *markets* that are discussed in this literature and findings are derived from mathematical and stochastic models. However, in this thesis we focus on empirical studies carried out in marketing, psychology, and consumer research, since our research focus is on *understanding consumers* and their brand perceptions, an issue obviously more closely related to these research fields (Roux and Korchia, 2016).

We consider articles published in leading academic journals from the marketing, consumer and psychology fields that cover the time span from 1990 till 2013. This literature restriction has been applied because the articles that were published before 1990 mainly focus on the economic advantages of second-hand shopping (Roux and

Guiot 2018) and ignore the recreational benefits stressed from the 1990's onwards. Additionally, we judge the findings before 1990 to be outdated for our research purpose.

This is due to societal and technological trends of the present time such as underlying changes to the image of second-hand products in combination with vintage commodities and the rise of the internet, which has become particularly important for second-hand shopping. It becomes obvious that most of the studies deal exclusively with offline settings such as car boot sales and flea markets while ignoring the online second-hand market. It also lacks studies of how consumers perceive second-hand products, especially in the branding context (Roux and Korchia 2016).

The majority of studies focus instead on exploring motivations of second-hand shopping and channel specific characteristics. Apart from Roux and Korchia's study (2016), the elicitation of attitudinal and perceptual aspects of second-hand products is sparse. The exploratory study by Roux and Korchia (2016) investigates the psychological aspects and the symbolic meanings associated with second-hand products. However, their considered product category is second-hand *clothing* and therefore contains limited information.

Roux and Korchia (2016) reveal that consumers have specific attitudes of refusal or acceptance towards second-hand clothes. Some people "perceive used clothing essentially as rubbish" (Roux and Korchia 2016, p. 33) and hold the view that clothes can only be worn by a single owner. In such cases, second-hand products are thus seen as highly contaminating due to the fact that a possible negative physical

(concerns in hygiene) or symbolic transfer from the (unknown) previous user can occur (Argo, Dahl, and Morales 2016).

These findings highlight the fact that contamination is a major factor influencing the rejection of second-hand clothing, especially for those who have a high degree of attachment to their clothing products (see here and in the following, Roux and Korchia 2016). Thus, rejection and acceptance behaviors towards second-hand products depend on whether an individual considers a product as an element of someone else's extended or their own self rather than as mere objects. When used goods are not viewed as an intimate part of the self or their extended self, they are appreciated for their intrinsic properties.

2.13 Consumer Brand Perceptions

Since brand perceptions are the affected construct in our research aim, selected brand perceptions will be explained in the following, namely brand image, perceived quality and perceived prestige. Brand perceptions themselves are employed as a blanket term referring to the three selected constructs for measuring how consumers perceive brands. Our three brand perception constructs have been chosen because they are all cited as being perceptual components of brands in prior marketing literature and are all found to have different and reliable measures.

The selected brand perceptions are not understood as independent entities. We rather suggest that to a certain extent they are correlated and overlap in the psyche of consumers. However, the selected constructs do not encompass all aspects of brand perceptions due to the highly complex nature of consumer perceptions and can thus not be understood as an aggregated measure (Low and Lamb 2010). For this reason

the following sections give an understanding and definition of the selected components of brand perceptions.

2.13.1 Brand Image

It is important to have a common understanding of the concept of brand image since researchers do not agree on a consistent definition and operationalization (Low and Lamb 2010). However, since Keller's (2013) brand image conceptualization is well-established in branding literature, this study adopts his definition. Brand image is thus defined as "perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory" (Keller 2013, p. 3). Specifically, brand image is regarded as the combined effect of brand associations and is a multi-dimensional and/or summary construct which comprises much brand information (Jacoby, Olsen, and Haddock 2011).

Brand associations comprise the meaning of the brand for consumers (Keller 2013). Their underlying dimensions are favorability, strength and uniqueness. Brand associations can be categorized into three types, namely attributes, benefits and attitudes. Attributes are the descriptive properties that typify a product and constitute the most objective level of associations. The personal values that consumers attach to the product are known as benefits or utilities. These can be further distinguished into functional, experiential and symbolic benefits.

Lastly, brand attitude is linked to beliefs about functional and experiential benefits as well as to product-related attributes. Brand image is said to change continually and reflects the latest brand perceptions (de Chernatony 2019). Thus, brand image cannot

be described as static (Martinez and de Chernatony 2014) and is influenceable by many factors (Ueltschy 2018).

2.13.2 Perceived Quality

Perceived quality is one of the most commonly quoted consumer brand perceptions in the marketing literature (Yoo, Donthu, and Lee 2010). It is often defined as the consumer's judgments about the product's superiority (Zeithaml, 2018) relative to alternative brands (Netemeyer et al. 2014). In this thesis, we narrowly define perceived quality as the product's superiority with regard to the product's durability, reliability and performance dimensions. Durability comprises the length of time the product lasts as well as the length of time the product works (Brucks, Zeithaml, and Naylor 2010).

Performance which also includes reliability relates to how well the product does what it is required to do (Brucks, Zeithaml, and Naylor 2010). The supplement 'perceived' of perceived quality makes clear that it is a rather high-level abstraction and subjective component (Zeithaml 2018). Conversely, objective quality describes the actual (technical) excellence or superiority of the product (Hjorth-Anderson 2014) which is verifiable or measurable according to certain established standards (Zeithaml 2018).

2.13.3 Perceived Prestige

There are several dimensions of a brand's perceptual value that have been identified in the literature (Sweeney and Soutar 2011). Our study concentrates on more social and hedonic aspects of the perceived brand value (Vazquez, Del Rio, and Iglesias 2012), namely the perceived brand prestige (Baek, Kim, and Yu 2010). The

latter concept can be defined “as the relatively high status associated with a brand” (Baek, Kim, and Yu 2010, p. 663). The symbolic meaning which may be embedded in brands therefore represents the prestigious value of a brand (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2013).

Higher prices (Lichtenstein, Ridgway, and Netemeyer 2013) as well as the impact on reference groups (Bearden and Etzel 2012) often indicate the prestige of a brand. Brand prestige, however, does not impact every consumer to the same extent. Publicly ‘insecure’ consumers in particular are concerned about how others perceive them and are rather prestige sensitive. Consequently, if a brand is prestigious and owned by a consumer it can enhance the consumer’s self-expression and social standing (O’Cass and Frost 2012).

While brand image and perceived quality are commonly used as consumer perceptions in the literature (Low and Lamb 2010), perceived brand prestige is a more ‘special’ brand perception. However, previous research emphasizes that it is an important virtue of a brand to possess a high (symbolic) perceived value (for example Sweeney and Soutar 2011), which also included the value of perceived prestige (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2013).

2.13.4 Product Availability

The availability of a product can be defined as how much of a product exists relative to a zero state (Worchel, Lee, and Adewole 2015). By adopting this definition, our thesis follows prominent researchers in the field of product availability such as Brock (2018) and Brehm (2016), who commonly employ the zero state as the baseline when discussing product availability (Worchel, Lee, and Adewole 2015).

Evoking the thesis' underlying research aim, we will examine the effects of the *degree* of second-hand product availability (stimuli) on consumer perceptions. We explicitly focus on the degree because the individual's perceptual process is highly susceptible to slightly varying stimuli strengths (Trommsdorff 2018, p. 238) which may result in different perceptual outcomes.

Research on product availability investigates the effects of a *low degree* of product availability in particular and calls this occurrence *scarcity* (Verhallen 2012). This is a fundamental concept in traditional micro-economic theory (Lynn 2012). Approximately 48 years ago, the impact of scarcity on consumer behavior and perception was investigated from a *psychological* perspective (for example Brehm 2016). This effect manifests itself in the so-called scarcity effect.

Verhallen and Robben (2015) identify different conditions under which people perceive products as scarce. These circumstances can be described as types of decreased availability. Verhallen and Robben (2015) further distinguish between unavailability, restricted availability (a product is available only for certain people), conditional availability (a product is available only if certain criteria are met) and limited availability due to market or non-market circumstances. When talking about limited availability, the product is freely accessible but demand or supply-related circumstances lead to the fact that the product is perceived as scarce (Verhallen and Robben 2015).

This thesis will focus on the supply-induced limited availability due to market circumstance because it is most suitable to the second-hand consumer to consumer (C2C) context. The supply-related limited availability can be further distinguished into quantity-related, time-related, and place-related or randomly generated limited

availability. In summary, in our study limited availability is defined by the available quantity (supplied) of a branded product in the second-hand market. Besides, the C2C-environment implies that the availability of products depends on the amount of second-hand products offered by private consumers.

2.14 Reasons why people prefer Second- Hand Clothing

Many citizens in Ghana wear second-hand clothing because it is the only way they can afford to dress decently due to the high cost of new garments, including locally made clothing, according to Chronicle (7/6/2008). According to Evelyn Ackah, a hairdresser, second-hand clothing is less costly and more sturdy than boutique clothing. She's long been a lover of second-hand clothes, also known as "folks," which she says is pronounced "folks." Despite the fact that she is a seamstress, Nana Ama Boadu insists that second-hand apparel is more chic than freshly sewn clothing.

Second-hand apparel was trendy for activities such as going to the beach, nightclub, weddings, touring, and any other task or circumstance that required the wearing of comfortable casual clothing, according to her Chronicle (7/6/2008), 2008). Given that Niger has been nicknamed the "worst place on earth" by the United Nations, it is unsurprising that the citizens of the world depend entirely on second-hand clothes, according to Chronicle (7/6/2008). Consider a world where the average life expectancy is 44.6 years, 71% of adults are illiterate, and 79% of children are not enrolled in education. How will such a large population be fed, let alone clothed?

2.15 Globalization and the impact of the second-hand clothing trade on new clothing industries

In the global value chains analysis by Gibbon and Ponte (2015) and Kaplinsky and Morris (2012), globalization and the marginalization of African economic development are related. Anti-globalization criticism must be reined in in scholarly discourse. Many regions in Africa are seeing the exploitative progress of commercial enterprise (Carmody & Hampwaye, 2010; International Labour Organization, 2015; Morris & Barnes, 2009), but their distribution is uneven (Hart, 2012; Sidaway, 2012). Poverty is not consistently the result of direct participation in international trade, as Ferguson argues:

The inconvenient fact is that Africa's hardships have very little to do with being overrun with Western factories and consumer goods. It is hard to find evidence of the depredations of runaway capitalist expansion in countries that are begging in vain for foreign investment of any kind and unable to provide a significant market for the consumer goods stereotypically associated with globalization (2007: 26).

Ferguson's argument, in the context of this study, necessitates a more in-depth examination. Second-hand clothing is an example of a consumer good with significant demand in Africa. Although it is not something that immediately comes to mind when one thinks about globalization, I have attempted to demonstrate in this analysis that the international circuits of new and used clothing track the gradients of difference between different areas of the global economy. Future research into the working lives and consumption choices of Africans in the global economy is needed, especially for those who are not directly employed by transnational companies or who do not engage in foreign NGOs' programmed work. The African new-clothing

industry faces various obstacles as a result of "globalization" (Morris & Barnes, 2009).

The reasons detailed in Morris and Barnes' research are signs of economic liberalization and institutional reform policies that have been implemented across Africa (Andre & Beckman, 2008). The used-clothing trade has been slammed by authors who argue that an industrial-led modernization program might help Africa develop (Jester, 2012; Koyi, 2016). In import substitution industrialization, (ISI) clothing production is seen as one of the first stages toward the growth of industrial communities (ISI). To allow ISI, African clothing industries must be protected from domestic competition from low-cost used-clothing imports.

The used-clothing exchange, on the other hand, is seen as an optimistic free-market "modernizing" tool by proponents of globalization, because it provides low-cost manufactured goods and decreases the impact of inflation (Baden & Barber, 2015). Rivoli (2009), a proponent of the used-clothing trade, detailed how garments manufactured in Tanzania for retail in the United States are now being sold as used clothing in Dar-es-Salaam. Rivoli sees this as a positive indicator of development enabled by the liberalization of African economies.

Both the liberal free-market analysis and the import substitution development policies synonymous with privatization have lost legitimacy as African national economies have slipped farther behind the First World in the free-market economy during the postcolonial period (Ferguson, 2017). Rivoli claims that free-market interconnections between the US and Tanzania, as expressed in the circulation of a T-shirt, are assisting in the emancipation of people from suffering. She is oblivious to the inequity of this system.

The chain of trading relationships that begins with the manufacture of T-shirts in Tanzania and ends with the same item being returned as a devalued asset is unlikely to result in long-term economic development capable of lifting people out of poverty. Tanzanian garment workers would be able to avoid hardship if they were paying living wages that allowed them to buy new T-shirts instead of recycled clothes from the global North. However, in African economies that have liberalized, the pressure to reduce labour prices has reduced those prospects (Brooks, 2010).

2.15 Second-Hand Clothes Trade in South Africa

The second-hand textile trade in Africa has a long and little-known tradition. According to recent studies (Hansen, 2019; Deconsult, 2013), the sale of used clothing from rich countries in the north to poor countries in the south, where it is re-consumed, has increased dramatically. Between 1980 and 1995, global second-hand apparel shipments grew sixfold, according to Hansen (2009:193).

Any of this, according to Hansen, is due to the liberalization of markets that formerly had tight import restrictions. She states (2009: 191) that Sub-Saharan African countries are among the world's largest importers, with demand for second-hand garments outstripping that of all other regions. According to Hansen, the United States was the top exporter of used clothes in 1995, followed by Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium-Luxembourg, and the United Kingdom (2009:193).

The second-hand clothing trade is well-established, with advertisements on the internet asking people to donate their used garments. In the United States, Canada, and Europe, private charitable organisations are the major producers of second-hand clothes. According to the publishers, the Salvation Army, Goodwill, St. Vincent de Paul, and Armvets in the United States, and Oxfam, Humania, Abbe Pierre,

Development Aid from People to People in Europe, raise far more recycled clothes than their thrift shops would sell (Deconsult, 2013, Hansen, 2009). The surplus is sold to commercial vendors.

According to Hansen (2009:191), factory rag vendors or fabric recyclers buy 40 to 60 percent of textile donations in the United States. Before pressing second-hand clothes onto shipping bales, rag graders arrange them by type and condition. According to Deconsult (2013:6), the worst quality used clothing is widely shipped to Africa. According to Kearney (2010), the bulk of second-hand clothes donations are sold to sellers before being sent to developed countries and sold at wholesale prices. The annual export of used clothing from the United States to Sub-Saharan Africa is estimated to be worth \$60 million (Kearney, 2010).

The foreign second-hand textile exchange, according to Hansen (2009:191), is another example of unfair North-South relations, in which impoverished Africans are forced to deal with the West's "unwanted or cast-off" clothing. As a result, second-hand clothes donations are clearly controversial. Consumers in the West donate clothes to charities and they believe their donations will directly help the needy. Although only a limited percentage of gifts are donated to those in need, the rest are offered to them at market prices. The authors do point out that the proceeds from the sale of clothing by charity shops in the North are often used for development aid, which contributes to the complication.

About 4000 charity shops in England sell second-hand clothes to raise money for humanitarian development and relief, according to Tvindal (2012:1). Deconsult (2013:76) makes a related argument in Zimbabwe and Zambia about Development Aid from People to People in Denmark (DAPP).

2.16 African Clothing Industry and Second- Hand Clothes Trade

According to economic theory, the garment and textile industries helped in the industrialization of developing countries. This is thanks to the industry's unusual labor-intensive characteristics and links to other economic sectors like agriculture (Kinyanjui, et al. 2012). According to Kearney (2010), the textile industry in many African countries employs approximately 27 000 workers in Zambia, 35 000 in Kenya, 47 000 in Ethiopia, 48 000 in Zimbabwe, and 85000 in Mauritius.

The effect of the second-hand textile trade on developing countries' economies tends to be similarly complex. On the one hand, as Wegulo (2012:3) points out, the second-hand textile sector is becoming a more important part of the informal economy, providing employment and revenue to a significant portion of the population and assisting people in avoiding poverty. This is partly reflected in the terminology used to describe these goods. Second-hand clothing is known as *mupendzanhamo* in Zimbabwe, which means "where all problems end," and tends to provide consumers with fairly priced clothing.

In the other hand, several others (Kearney 2012) have suggested that this trade has harmed local growth. Consumers tend to purchase imported second-hand clothing because it seems to be a greater value for money and quality. Consumers tend to buy imported second-hand clothes because they appear to be a much better choice in terms of price and quality. There has been a fall in domestic demand for garment manufacturing, with consumers opting to buy imported second-hand clothes because they appear to be a much better option in terms of price and quality. As a result, output production decreased and the number of company closures increased.

According to Kearney (2012:2), the textile and garment industry is a major source of employment in many developed countries, but tens of thousands of workers have lost their jobs in recent years, mainly due to the trade in used garments. He goes on to say that countries like Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Togo, Ivory Coast, and Ghana, among others, are experiencing major work losses in the textile industry. Below are few case studies from Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Kenya.

In Zambia, the used clothes trade has both positive and negative implications. According to the International Textile Garment and Leather Workers Federation (ITGLWF) (2002:9), when trade sanctions were eased, large quantities of inexpensive, second-hand garments entered the country duty-free. These garments were manufactured "without paying for production, labour costs, or tariffs that once protected local manufacturers from international competition," they write (2012:9). According to the ITGLWF, 325 000 workers have been lost in Zambian garment and textile factories since 1990. They say this is due to the failure of Zambian textile manufacturers to cope with the influx of western clothes.

However, the ITGLWF acknowledges that Zambians will purchase bales of second-hand clothes for a reasonable price and market them for a living. Zimbabwe has lost jobs as a result of lower product production and exports. It is estimated that 15 000 employees in the garment and textile industry have lost their jobs in the last seven years (Kuveya, 2012 www.itglwf.org). The Zimbabwean Textile Workers Union said that Danish development assistance in the form of DAPP's second-hand clothing purchases had resulted in job losses (Deconsult, 2013:1).

Second-hand apparel is now a bigger part of Kenya's informal economy, according to Wegulo (2012:3). The government abolished the second-hand clothes

levy, resulting in a surge in second-hand clothing sales (Your World of Financial Services, 2012: 1). The reversal of duties caused more problems for the industry, the country's economy, and the people, particularly because Kenya's textile industry is reportedly struggling. It is proposed that the government's move would destroy the local textile and garment industries (YWFS, 2012:1). The government's reversal of duties, according to Kearney (2012:1), has resulted in work reductions in Kenya.

According to Hansen (2009), several countries' textile and clothing manufacturers have called for a ban on the manufacture and trade of secondhand fabrics as a way to address the concerns described above. This is attributed to the fact that rising imports are putting domestic demand at risk. To reduce volume and defend the domestic textile industry, Mali, for example, imposes high import tariffs on secondhand garments. Other countries, such as Cote d'Ivoire, Kenya, and Nigeria, have made it illegal to import used clothes for commercial purposes. Such regulations, in fact, are powerless to stop the flow of this common commodity through Africa's famously porous borders (Hansen, 2009:193).

This activity has raised questions among manufacturers about the industry's long-term sustainability. They demand that the sale of these garments from the countries that supply them be controlled, taxed, or prohibited. Trade unions such as SACTWU and ITGLWF have campaigned against the importation of second-hand garments due to the detrimental consequences of the trade. At the ITGLWF's eighth Congress in Sweden, they passed a resolution supporting the battle against the second-hand textile trade in Africa until it is fully eradicated. SACWTU collaborated with the South African garment and textile industry to campaign against the manufacture and trade in secondhand clothing and textiles.

2.17 Consumers Preference of Locally Manufactured Textile to Imported Ones in Ghana

The study conducted by Adu-Akwaboa, (2014), used secondary and primary data on textile manufacturing, imports, and consumption in Ghana. In 2007, 40 textile manufacturers, 40 textile clients, and 40 textile traders in Accra's business district were interviewed using a structured questionnaire. To select respondents from the markets, face-to-face interviews were conducted using a snowball sampling technique. While we don't know the exact number of textile traders in Ghana, we believe their viewpoints are consistent across the country. A total of 40 traders were selected due to the apparent homogeneity of most textile traders.

Among the manufacturers selected were the four main textile merchants, as well as other small-scale operators. Women above the age of 51 made up the rest of the traders (respondents). This confirms the stereotype that textile trade is predominantly done by women in traditional market centers like Accra's Makola Market. The majority of the traders (roughly a quarter) have little or no formal schooling, as anticipated. This is a representation of Ghana's unorganized private sector (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

Just 3% of the 40 textile customers surveyed were under the age of 20, with 60% being between the ages of 20 and 50 and 2.5 percent being older than 51. The majority of respondents (55 percent) said they buy textile goods regularly, while about a fifth (22.5 percent) said they buy them daily. Just 10% of them purchase textiles on a biweekly basis. This means that textile traders have a high degree of stock turnover, and all else being fair, traders can reap significant margins (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

2.18 Preference for Imported Second Hand Clothes

In terms of taste and preference, interviews with fabric traders revealed a strong preference for locally made textiles. More than half of the respondents (53%) said they prefer domestic textiles to imported textiles, while 40% said they prefer imported textiles. The remaining 7% of the population was unconcerned. The thesis investigates traders' clothing habits. This result seems to contradict previous African and other developing-country research as well as the country-of-origin impact (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

About 26% of those who enjoy purchasing and selling imported second-hand clothing products think imported textiles are very cheap, 21% believe they are more profitable, and 11% believe they are appealing. Just 5% of respondents said imported second-hand clothing is of high quality, while the remainder (37%) couldn't explain their deep preference for imported textiles. 42 percent of respondents cited high prices for local textiles, while 22 percent cited poor demand for local textiles. According to around 15% of respondents, local textile products have a low turnover rate (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

Around 55% of customers said they purchase textiles on a sporadic basis, while 24% said they buy them once a year. Around 10% of people purchase textiles on a monthly basis, while 2% do so on a weekly basis. The rest of the world purchases them per quarter or bi-annually. This suggests that textiles are mostly used in Ghana for special events including naming ceremonies, funerals, weddings, and festivals. More than half of those who favor locally made textile products (53 percent) feel they are of high quality, according to the findings (this represents 40 percent of total sample). Others said they were economical (17%) and sexy (20%), whilst the remaining (7%) said they were none (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

2.19 Ban on Imported Second-Hand Clothes

Few respondents (35%) said yes when asked if imported textiles should be banned. Around 65 percent of them were against a ban. About 43% of those who believe imported textiles should be banned believe the ban would help the local textile industry thrive, and 31% believe the ban would help the local textile industry generate more jobs. The remaining 23% believed the ban would save the textile industry in the region. Approximately 46% of those opposed to the ban on imported textiles said that they were affordable and readily available (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

About 18% of respondents said they are profitable, and 11% said they are of superior quality. Almost 70% of respondents predicted a decrease in the price of local textile products, while 22% predicted a rise in the cost and attractiveness of local textile products. The remaining members demanded lower taxation and less favoritism from the government (Quartey, 2016).

2.19.1 Comparing Quality

When comparing the quality of imported and domestic textile products, customers think imported textiles are superior (48%) whereas domestic textiles are preferred by just 27%. Just 5% thought they were equal in efficiency, while 20% were unsure. The majority of the traders stressed the necessity of reducing or removing import taxes on raw materials. Giving credit to vendors, raising import textile tariffs, banning imported textiles, making local textile products more affordable, and urging people to wear local textiles are some of the other policy recommendations (Quartey, 2016).

For example, 37% proposed lowering taxes on imported raw materials, while another 27% advocated for local textile marketing and promotion. Subsidies for the

local textile industry should be granted to around 13% of respondents. Just 13%, on the other hand, advocated for a complete ban on imported textiles (Quartey, 2016).

2.20 Conclusions and Research gap

The aim of Adu-Akwaboa, (2014), analysis was to determine whether consumers prefer locally manufactured textiles to imported textiles, and if so, why. The method made use of both micro and macro data. Data from the Ministry of Trade and other similar sources was used to compile the macro data. The microdata was collected from a survey of 40 Accra-based textile and apparel producers, as well as 40 sellers and an equal number of traders in the city's business districts. The study's results were highly helpful. Contrary to the country-of-origin effect, the study's key findings indicate that most consumers prefer locally manufactured textiles to imported textiles.



Figure 2.1. Expected policy changes (traders).

Source: Survey data, Source: (Hansen, 2009)

Nearly two decades after independence, the textile sub-sector was a major player in Ghana's manufacturing sector, contributing significantly to job creation and economic growth. However, in recent years, Ghana's once-dominant sub-sector in the industrial sector has seen a considerable decline, owing in large part to

liberalization programs that made it nearly impossible for Ghana's textile products to compete with low-cost imports, especially from Asia (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

However, since 1995, it is estimated that the few companies that have survived have only been operating at around 5% of their installed capacity. A variety of reasons have been blamed for the downturn. Low demand for local textile goods and an abundance of secondhand clothing; lack of competitiveness of local textiles against imported textiles due to high production costs; and smuggling are only a few of the major issues listed.

Given the current state of the market, its prospects are bleak, necessitating bold policies that will result in both local and global transformation. Locally, concrete steps must be taken to address the problems of low-cost imports, under-declared imports, wrongly labeled garment imports, and copied products, markings, tickets, and labels, prompting the government's recent proposal to create an Economic Intelligence Unit, which would include the Ghana Standards Board, to apprehend and prosecute those who engage in trade malpractices. This Economic Intelligence Unit must act quickly to arrest and punish those who engage in trade fraud (Adu-Akwaboa, 2014).

To act as a warning to potential offenders, those who commit these offences should face harsh penalties. Second, the unit must be managed in a constructive and efficient manner; otherwise, apprehending the offenders would be challenging. On a global scale, trade deals and fair-trade policies, especially in the textile and garments sub-sector, should be made explicit and pursued. Copies of other countries' brands and packaging markings should be stopped at all times. Fair trade policies and exclusive entry to developed-country markets could accompany this.

They didn't note the specific challenges that the clothing and apparel sectors are likely to face if the crisis isn't resolved quickly. None of them could talk about the possible effects of second-hand clothing in the Greater Accra Metropolis. To fill the gap, this report will examine the effect of second-hand garment importation on the micro and small-scale local textile industry, using Greater Accra Metropolis as a case study.

2.21 Kantamanto Market Context

Most of the populace in the city of Accra is migratory from the rural areas of Ghana and is part of the 69.7% informal sector involved in street hawking and peddling (Ghana Statistical Services, 2008). During the early 1980s, second-hand clothing peddlers predominantly occupied the streets around the Okashie area in Accra. Although the trade around the Okashie area was highly popular and profitable, it was to the detriment of the city's orderliness and modernisation.

Characteristically, the second-hand clothing peddlers were seen holding their merchandise in their hands, or carried over their shoulders or on their heads selling to pedestrians on the pavements and streets of the central business district. These scenes and operations of the peddlers were undeniably hindering city regulation and the development of the central business district of Accra (GSS, 2008).

The used clothes sellers organised and emerged as the National Union of Used Clothes Sellers. They developed into a pressure group to resist the persistent attempts by city officials to drive them from the streets into neighbouring markets within the city. The Union then demanded an alternative trading space solely for them to carry out their business, and, by 1988, the Union's efforts earned them a temporary space on the Ghana Railways Company Limited (GRCL) land popularly known as the

Kantamanto Market. The Kantamanto market space was originally leased to the Gold Coast Government by the Accra Gbese Stool (Gbese Mantse Nii Ayi Bonte II) in 1909, for the Accra Railway Harbour Project and not for market purposes (African Urbanism, 2013; Peace FM News, 2013).

The Ghana Railways Company Limited (GRCL) marked the Kantamanto Market site for the development of an ultra-modern rail station (MacDougall, 2011). However, this plan is suspended as the Ghana Railway Company Limited (GRCL) awaits \$3 billion in finance for its plans for an ultra-modern railway transportation network (Asiedu, 2013).

In December 2008, the Ghana Railway Company Limited (GRCL) signed a GH¢150,000 lease agreement with the Kantamanto Rail Line Joint Traders Association which has metamorphosed into the Kantamanto Used Clothes Sellers Association, allowing them to occupy the space for a period of 50 years (MacDougall, 2011).

The lease agreement restricts the traders from developing permanent structures and the agreement can be terminated by either party giving a six months' notice period (MacDougall, 2011; Ghana News Agency, 2013a; Oteng- Ababio *et al.*, 2015). The ownership and management of the Kantamanto market location has become a political tussle between the Ghana Railway Company Limited (GRCL) (rail sector in charge of developing the rail station), the Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA) (managers of the capital city and building or modernising local markets), and the executives of the Kantamanto Used Clothes Sellers Association (occupants of the Kantamanto market) (Peace FM News, 2013).

The Kantamanto market is a microcosm of the types of local markets situated in the Accra Metropolis within the Central Business District and sits in the Ashiedu Keteke Sub Metropolitan area (see figure 2.1). The Kantamanto market is annexed to Makola Market, marked out to the south by the popular White Chapel (UTC) building and to the north by a train line which connects Dzorwulu to Tema. The market space covers an area of about 6.5 acres stretching to the pedestrian walkways outside the fenced market area, with trading activities also carried out along the railway lines (The Herald, 2013).

Presently, the Kantamanto market presents an unsystematic, unconventional on-going process of informalisation confirming a nonexistence of formal commercial zoning and unplanned social amenities and infrastructure (Castells and Portes, 2019). The second-hand clothing (SHC) trade in the Kantamanto market serves as a temporary economic relief to over 40,000 traders, out of which 40% are women (Oteng-Ababio *et al.*, 2015). The market houses over 3,000 SHC retailers, who trade individually in different clothing categories including men's and women's jeans, ladies' dresses, ladies' shoes, t-shirts, winter jackets and accessories, under wear and many others (African Urbanism, 2013).

The ships carrying 70-foot containers full of SHC bales normally take up to 14 days from the U.K., 35 days from China and 45 days on sea from other countries to arrive at the Tema Harbour and to importers and wholesalers in the Kantamanto market on Mondays and Thursdays, weekly. The Kantamanto market currently generates between US\$5million and US\$10million in daily sales (Oteng-Ababio *et al.*, 2015) through importers, exporters, wholesalers and retailers who are engaged in the buying and selling of imported SHC.

This economic network is further extended by seamstresses and tailors who are engaged in mending the often unwearable SHC for retailers, boutique operators and consumers (African Urbanism, 2013). The Kantamanto market is a typically bursting, frenzied panorama with congested aisles characterising the market space, making it hard for consumers and traders to cope with the constant jostling of busy head porters and truck pushers cutting bales from warehouses into the market.

Individual retailer spaces and sheds in the Kantamanto market are simply demarcated, with wooden planks, fabric, aluminium or rubber forming the roofing. The trading activities in the Kantamanto market are mostly carried out in poor sheds temporarily made of wood in the harsh hot weather conditions with merchandise typically hanging or piled on the bare floor. The market space has lacked infrastructure and basic amenities to sustain its growing population for over three decades and portrays an improper commercial organisation hazardous to the sizeable numbers of people who trade in its unpleasant and unhygienic environment.

Over 90% of Ghanaians patronise second-hand clothing (Baden and Barber, 2005; Oteng-Ababio *et al.*, 2015), and most of the consumers in the Kantamanto market rummage through piles of second-hand clothes to discover the wearable clothes from the non-wearable, a task usually carried out on the floor. This practice has led to the trade being branded condescendingly as a “*bend down boutique*” in some circles. The imported second-hand clothes are also understood to be clothes of “*dead white people*” popularly referred to in Twi as “*Obroni wewu*”, similarly demeaning to the sections of the population who, due to economic circumstances are forced to rely on the purchase of such items.

According to Amanor (2010), in 1994, the Ghana Standards Authority (GSA) banned the sale of used bras, pants, boxer shorts, bikinis and other second-hand goods, which were perceived to be transmitting venereal diseases; sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and skin diseases. In 2010, further directives from the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MOTI) and the Ghana Standards Authority (GSA) for a ban on imported second-hand under wear proved futile as the ban was met with fierce resistance from traders who challenged the suggestion that imported under wear posed a health hazard and bemoaned the impact of the ban on their businesses and livelihoods (Amanor, 2010).

The Kantamanto market has also suffered a series of intermittent yet disastrous fires with the latest occurring on 5 May 2013 (African Urbanism, 2013). The efforts of the Ghana National Fire Service (GNFS) to bring the situation under control proved abortive due to the lack of proper access to the market (Arku, 2013). The fire razed about 2,000-metre square of the market to the ground and destroyed goods and properties worth tens of millions Cedis, leaving many retailers devastated and displaced (Oteng-Ababio *et al.*, 2015).

The market's lack of proper fire safety standards is characterised by illegal electrical connections (loosely hanging bare wiring), the indiscriminate use of explosive and non-explosive materials, and burning of unwanted (unsellable) merchandise and refuse. The market also reveals an economic condition that demonstrates a passive attitude towards the role of environmental systems (completely degraded and polluted) and subsequent social consequences, which generate critical sustainable development concerns.

The Kantamanto market highlights a maze of muddled regulation and reconstruction, ownership and responsibility for the Kantamanto land (Addo-Tetteh, 2013), a situation which has necessitated consistent threats of ejection of the SHC traders by the Accra Metropolitan Authority (AMA) and the Greater Accra Regional Co-ordinating Council (GRCC) (Daily Graphic, 2013; Peace FM News, 2013).



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter delves into the methodologies that were used to carry out the research. Data collection methodology, target population and sample and sampling techniques, data collection procedure, and data presentation techniques are all covered in this chapter.

3.1 Research Approach/Paradigm

Deductive (quantitative), inductive (qualitative), and mixed approaches are the three types of analysis methods. The importance of conclusions to the study is the main distinction between all three approaches. Inductive methods contribute to novel theories and generalizations (Dudovskiy, 2016), while mixed approaches help understand contradictions between quantitative and qualitative results.

Quantitative reasoning is often correlated with positivist philosophy. It involves collecting and translating data into graphical form such that mathematical computations and conclusions can be drawn (Alzheimer Europe, 2009). In this research, a quantitative analysis method was used. Quantitative research emphasizes deductive logic, which shifts from the universal to the specific. A top-down policy is a term used to describe this approach. It is shown that the validity of conclusions is dependent on the validity of one or more other premises. As a consequence of the analysis, the researcher was able to determine how independent variables influence dependent variables. The study used quantitative research approach.

3.2 Research Design

According to Bless and Higgs-Smith (2004), study design is a set of procedures that direct a researcher through the process of confirming a given theory while ruling out any other possibilities. A quantitative descriptive research design was used to perform the study. This is a form of research that concentrates on the nature of a phenomenon. It makes decisions and comments about how things are done (Kerlinger, 2006). Descriptive analysis involves collecting data to answer research questions about the current state of a study's topic (Kerlinger, 2006). In this model, the descriptive study design was used. Descriptive analysis aims to shed light on current concerns or problems through a data collection process that allows them to explain the situation more fully than they could without using this tool. In essence, descriptive analysis is used to describe various facets of a phenomenon. In the most basic form, descriptive analysis is used to describe the properties and/or behaviour of a sample group.

The descriptive research design was chosen by the researcher because it helped her to explore non-quantifiable topics and quantitative data collection approach. Quantitative research gathers data in a metric context that can be classified, graded, or measured in measurement units. Raw data graphs and tables can be made from this kind of data. Quantitative scholars study actions and phenomena in a number of situations and environments in order to establish basic laws. Since they are concerned with calculating things, experiments usually provide quantitative results. Other analysis approaches, such as supervised observations and questionnaires, will, however, generate quantitative data. The thesis employed a quantitative research approach.

3.3 Profile of Study Location

The Kantamanto Market is a market in Ghana's central business district, Accra. Kwahu and Ashanti peoples, all traditional Akan tribes, rule the industry. It is a well-known Accra market where you can find any kind of used cloth you need. In the city, there are over 30000 vendors selling everything from used clothing to food to car parts. According to the 2010 census, the district had 1,665,086 inhabitants. Migrants (born elsewhere in the Greater Accra Region, Ghana, or elsewhere in the world) account for about 47 percent of the total population, with people born in the Eastern Region but living in the district accounted for 27.8% of the migrant population.

There were 501,903 households in the district, with 450,794 households residing in the 149,789 homes. The district's average household size is 3.7 individuals, with an average population per house of 11.1, indicating that compound houses are the most common form of dwelling (67.7 percent). (American Medical Association, 2019). 38.4% of the population was under the age of 19, 12.4% was between the ages of 20 and 24, 11.5 percent was between the ages of 25 and 29, 21.5 percent was between the ages of 30 and 44, 12.2% was between the ages of 45 and 64, and 4% was over 65. For every 100 females, there were roughly 93 males.

3.4 Population for the Study

The number of all entities or items with unique characteristics that the researcher is interested in is referred to as a population (Creswell, 2005). The population is the group of individuals from which the researcher wants to extrapolate the results of the study; it includes everyone who shares certain characteristics. In the city, there are over 30000 vendors selling everything from used clothing to food to car parts. There were 630 second-hand clothing vendors in the Kantamanto market. The

researcher used 330 users and 300 sellers to constitute the population for the research work.

3.5 Sample Size

A survey is a part of a statistical group whose characteristics are studied in order to learn more about the whole population. When it comes to individuals, it's described as a subset of a greater community of people selected for the purpose of a survey (Mugo, 2012). In order to obtain information that is representative of the entire population under study, researchers often gather statistics from a smaller sample or subset of the total population. In research, it is preferable to use as big a sample as possible to draw general conclusions (Creswell, 2003). The larger the sample, the more representative of the population it becomes and so the more reliable and valid the results (Nwana, 1982). According to the Krejcie and Morgan (1970), table for determining sample size, a population of 630 requires a sample size of 242 (refer Appendix B). Therefore, a random sampling technique was used to select 242 participants for the study.

3.6 Sampling Techniques

The random sampling method was used to randomly pick the required number of respondents from the population list for the survey, meaning that each population respondent has a fair chance of being included in the poll. This sampling method was used to select the study's 242 participants. The sampling protocol ensured that any member of the population had a fair chance of being chosen as a sample member. This technique was selected to ensure that the hiring process was free of bias. The findings of the technique's application can be generalized due to its representativeness.

3.7 Data Collection Methods

The researcher collected data from both primary and secondary sources. Various techniques were used to ensure that precise and credible data was obtained. Based on the form of analysis, which was a descriptive sample, questionnaires were used to gather primary data.

i. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument that consists of a set of questions and other stimuli that are used to gather information from respondents. There are two kinds of questions in general: closed-ended and open-ended questions. Closed-ended questions ask respondents to choose a possible range of responses from a list of choices that represent their point of view. These questions contain simple options such as "Yes" or "No" for respondents to tick or circle the answer on a frequency scale, a meaningful scale, or an acceptance scale. The respondent is expected to provide his or her own answer by entering a number, a phrase, or a short statement in response to open-ended questions that do not have any options answers. The responses are reported in their entirety, either by the interviewer or, in the case of an individual survey, by the respondent himself (Siniscalco & Auriat, 2015).

For the purposes of this research, both closed and open questions were used in the questionnaires: closed questions restricted the respondent to a finite (and therefore more manageable) collection of responses, whereas open questions sought to fill the difference between the relatively little known knowledge regarding a subject and the study's pre-set clear goals (Appendix A). Both hardcopy and an electronic version of the survey were available. It was mailed or administered to 242 people in the sample size.

The survey was broken down into five parts, each of which was customized to the study questions. The first part of the survey focused on the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics, such as their age, ethnicity, job experience, and educational attainment. The aim of this was to provide background information on the respondents to the researcher. Section Two looked at the effect of second-hand textile importation on small-scale local garment factories in the Greater Accra Metropolis. In the third part, the economic impact of imported second-hand clothing versus locally made clothing in Ghana was examined.

Sections four and five calculated the economic prospects of second-hand clothing importation to vendors in the Greater Accra Metropolis, and sections six and seven established long-term policies to reduce second-hand clothing importation in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

3.8 Validity and Reliability Test

Cronbach's Alpha was used to evaluate the internal performance of the test instrument (Ndubisi, 2006). The reliability test's Cronbach Alpha was 0.881, indicating good reliability. The reliability and partial evidence of validity were recorded using Cronbach's alpha reliability findings. A Cronbach's alpha of more than 0.70 is required to signify internal consistency among objects within instrument constructs (Alam & Mohammed, 2010). The Cronbach alpha for this study was 0.88, meaning that the constructs were deemed reliable. The Cronbach' alpha for the understanding of second-hand clothing importation is 0.90, for the impact of manufactured second-hand clothing and locally produced garments on the Ghanaian economy is 0.85, for the economic prospects of second-hand clothing importation to sellers is 0.82, and for competitive measures to reduce second-hand clothing

importation is 0.83. As a result, all of the Cronbach alpha values were 0.83 or higher, indicating that the instrument is accurate for the different constructs.

3.9 Data Collection Procedures

According to Kothari (2015), data collection procedures are the measures and actions needed to perform research effectively, as well as the optimal sequence of these steps. The researcher started gathering data from the region after preparing a research request that was reviewed, corrections were made, and a research permit was received from the respondents. After securing the study permit, the researcher started collecting data. The researcher then appointed two well-trained and motivated research assistants to data collection while keeping a close watch on them. After securing the study permit, the researcher started collecting data. The researcher then appointed two well-trained and motivated research assistants to data collection while keeping a close watch on them.

To increase the return rate, the researcher followed Wiseman and McDonald's advice (2010). Cover letters were written and added to each questionnaire, outlining the importance of the sample and assuring respondents of the researcher's commitment to confidentiality. The data collection instruments were self-administered to the respondents in batches of ten copies each before the sample was exhausted.

Respondents were encouraged to complete the questionnaire in the presence of the research assistants to prevent any possible misunderstandings, given the researcher's attention to collecting the desired results. If respondents were unable to complete the questionnaire for whatever reason, study assistants would collect the questionnaire later to increase the questionnaire return rate.

3.10 Data Analysis and Presentation

Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to interpret the responses. Since it shows the general trend of the findings, the descriptive interpretation is critical. Data from primary and secondary sources are interpreted and analyzed in order to address the research questions and achieve the research goals. SPSS Software was used to arrange and present quantitative data statistically through simple tables, frequency and percentage analysis, and thus to clarify the statement of the topic, research goals, and research questions. The reliability of the data was investigated using Pearson correlation analysis.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

According to Resnik (2011), there are several reasons for the adhering to ethical norms in research. Norms promote the aims of research, such as knowledge, falsifying or misrepresenting research data, promote the truth and avoid error. Moreover, since research often involves a great deal of cooperation and coordination among many different people in different discipline and institutions, ethical standards promote the value that are essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect and fairness. For instance, many ethical norms in research, such as guidelines for relationships, copyright, and patency policies, data sharing policies and confidentiality and peer reviews are designed to protect intellectual property interest while encouraging collaborations. Many of the ethical norms help to ensure that researcher can be held accountable to the public.

William (2016) lists some of the ethical issues as informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity. Given the importance of ethical issues in several ways, the researcher would avoid taking any one's work and where someone's work was included, such were acknowledged. In the process of data collection, respondent's identities would be concealed and any information obtained would be handled with utmost confidence. No harm of any nature was meted out on any respondent, aspects of privacy was observed and any cruelty avoided.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS/FINDINGS

The researcher sent 242 questionnaires to the field to gather primary data. Out of the 242 questionnaires sent out for primary data, 226 questionnaires were retrieved while 16 questionnaires were not retrieved. Therefore, the analysis of the study was based on 93% response rate.

4.1 Demographic information of respondents

Table 4.1 Demographic information of respondents

Demographic information of respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	81	35.8
Female	145	64.2
Total	226	100
Age category		
Under 20 years	5	2.2
21-30 years	42	18.6
31-40 years	56	24.8
41-50 years	64	28.3
51-60 years	49	21.7
Above 60 years	10	4.4
Total	226	100
Educational qualification		
BECE/MSLC	30	13.3
SSSCE/WASSCE	62	27.4
Diploma	97	42.9
Bachelor's degree	37	16.4
Total	226	100
The number of years you have been selling second-hand used clothings		
5 – 10 years	57	25.2
11– 15 years	76	33.6
16 – 20 years	48	21.2
21 - 30 years	22	9.7
Above 30 years	23	10.2
Total	226	100

N= 226

The study results show that 145 respondents representing 64.2% were females while 81 respondents representing 35.8% were males. In terms of gender, as mentioned above, the study indicated that there were very few male traders selling second-hand clothes in the metropolis. This implies that women disproportionately dominate the second-hand clothes trade (see Table 4.1).

Moreover, 56 respondents representing 24.8% were between the age category 31-40 years, 49 respondents representing 21.7% were between the age ranges 51-60 years, 64 respondents representing 28.3% were between the age ranges 41-50 years, 42 respondents representing 18.6% were between 21-30 years, 10 respondents representing 4.4% were above 60 years, while 5 respondents representing 2.2% were below 20 years. These people are of working age. This implies that they are in this business because they are unemployed or retrenched.

Moreover, 97 respondents representing 42.9% were holding Diplomas as their highest academic certificates, 62 respondents representing 27.4% were holding SSSCE/WASSCE, 37 respondents representing 16.4% were holding Bachelor's degrees, while 30 respondents representing 13.3% possessed BECE/MSLC. These results indicate that the respondents were educated. This shows that the level of education of second-hand clothes street traders is high.

To add more, 76 respondents representing 33.6% said that they have been selling second-hand used clothes for 11-15 years, 57 respondents representing 25.2% have 5-10 years' experience in the selling of second-hand used clothes, 48 respondents representing 21.2% have 16-20 years, 23 respondents representing 10.2% have more than 30 years, while 22 respondents representing 9.7% have 21-30 years' experience in the selling of second-hand used clothing. Second-hand clothing is an example of a

consumer good with significant demand in Africa. Although it is not something that immediately comes to mind when one thinks about globalization, I have attempted to demonstrate in this analysis that the international circuits of new and used clothing track the gradients of difference between different areas of the global economy. Future research into the working lives and consumption choices of Africans in the global economy is needed, especially for those who are not directly employed by transnational companies or who do not engage in foreign NGOs' programmed work. The African new-clothing industry faces various obstacles as a result of "globalization" (Morris & Barnes, 2009).

4.2 The Perceptions of the General Public on Second - Clothing in Accra.

The first objective of the study was to assess the perception of the general public on second-hand clothing in Accra. In many developing countries the textile and garment industry are a significant source of jobs, but in recent years tens of thousands of workers have lost their livelihood largely as a result of the trade in used clothing. Table 4.2 assessed the perception of the general public on second-hand clothing in Accra.

Table 4.2 The Perceptions of the General Public on importation of second-hand Clothing in Accra.

No.	ITEMS	SD N (%)	D N (%)	N N (%)	A N (%)	SA N (%)
1	Because second-hand clothing is relatively cheaper than the made- in- Ghana garments, more people patronize it at the expense of the latter.	22 (9.7)	57 (25.2)	48 (21.2)	76 (33.6)	23 (10.2)
2	Because of the low demand for made in Ghana products, Ghana textiles cannot compete well with imported second-hand clothes	22 (9.7)	23 (10.2)	29 (12.8)	126 (55.8)	26 (11.5)
3	The Garment Industry in Ghana suffers a shortfall in revenue due to low patronage.	12 (5.3)	23 (10.2)	12 (5.3)	174 (77)	5 (2.2)
4	Laying-off of workers in the Garment Industry can affect the industry.	14 (6.2)	32 (14.2)	5 (2.2)	125 (55.3)	50 (22.1)
5	Collapsing of Garment Industries is a challenge in the industry.	7 (3.1)	15 (6.6)	9 (4)	152 (67.3)	43 (19)
6	The perception that Ghana textiles are inferior to imported textiles can affect the industry	10 (4.4)	15 (6.6)	6 (2.7)	101 (44.7)	94 (41.6)
7	Disaffection for made-in Ghana garments is a challenge in the industry.	8 (3.5)	11 (4.9)	7 (3.1)	175 (77.4)	25 (11.1)
8	Made in Ghana textiles is expensive as compared to textiles from other countries.	10 (4.4)	10 (4.4)	7 (3.1)	124 (54.9)	75 (33.2)
9	Low public awareness of Ghana textiles is a challenge in the industry.	22 (9.7)	23 (10.2)	29 (12.8)	126 (55.8)	26 (11.5)
10	The consumption rate to manufacturing rate of textiles is low.	12 (5.3)	23 (10.2)	12 (5.3)	174 (77)	5 (2.2)
11	The limited incentive structure has led to unemployment, loss of government revenue and opportunity Act AGOA	14 (6.2)	32 (14.2)	5 (2.2)	125 (55.3)	50 (22.1)

Scale: 1-Strongly Agree; 2-Agree; 3-Neutral; 4-Disagree; 5-Strongly Disagree,

N= 226

Table 4.2 reveals that less than half of the respondents (33.6%) agreed that because second-hand clothing is relatively cheaper than the made- in- Ghana garments, more people patronize it at the expense of the latter. This is a clear picture that was painted about second-hand clothing in Ghana.

Moreover, most respondents (55.8%) agreed that because of the low demand for made in Ghana products, Ghana textiles cannot compete well with imported

second-hand clothes. With regards to the laying-off of workers affecting the Garment Industry, a little more than half of the respondents (55.3%) agreed. This implies that the collapse of the local garment industry led to redundant economy where most workers were laid off. These findings highlight the fact that contamination is a major factor influencing the rejection of second-hand clothing, especially for those who have a high degree of attachment to their clothing products. Thus, rejection and acceptance behaviors towards second-hand products depend on whether an individual considers a product as an element of someone else's extended or their own self rather than as mere objects. When used goods are not viewed as an intimate part of the self or their extended self, they are appreciated for their intrinsic properties.

Furthermore, most of the respondents (67.3%) agreed that collapsing of Garment industries is a challenge in the industry. Most Ghanaians resort to the patronage of "second-hand clothing" which they consider to be relatively cheaper. Roux and Korchia (2016) reveal that consumers have specific attitudes of refusal or acceptance towards second-hand clothes. Some people "perceive used clothing essentially as rubbish" (Roux and Korchia 2016, p. 33) and hold the view that clothes can only be worn by a single owner. In such cases, second-hand products are thus seen as highly contaminating due to the fact that a possible negative physical (concerns in hygiene) or symbolic transfer from the (unknown) previous user can occur (Argo, Dahl, and Morales 2016). Therefore, the use of second-hand clothes should be minimised in Ghana.

The study results indicate that (44.7%) the perception that Ghana textiles are inferior to imported textiles can affect the industry. Also, the productivity of these

companies would be affected negatively because there will not be enough workforce to produce large quantities of products. The majority of studies focus instead on exploring motivations of second-hand shopping and channel specific characteristics. Apart from Roux and Korchia's study (2016), the elicitation of attitudinal and perceptual aspects of second-hand products is sparse. The exploratory study by Roux and Korchia (2016) investigates the psychological aspects and the symbolic meanings associated with second-hand products. The local industry should manufacture quality clothes to meet international standards to improve patronage.

4.3 Examine from the users and seller's point of view on the impact of second-hand clothing on locally made garment.

The second objective was to examine from the users and seller's point of view, what they perceive to be the impact of second-hand clothing on locally-made garment. The used-clothing trade has been widely criticized by authors who believe that an industrial led modernization program could enable Africa to develop. Table 4.3 examined from the users and seller's point of view on the impact of second-hand clothing on and locally made garment.

Table 4.3 Examine from the users and seller's point of view on the impact of second-hand clothing on locally made garment.

No	ITEMS	SD N (%)	D N (%)	N N (%)	A N (%)	SA N (%)
1	In Ghana, many people prefer using second-hand clothes, as it is the only way they can afford to wear decent clothing, due to the high cost of new clothes, even the locally made ones.	7 (3.1)	12 (5.3)	5 (2.2)	143 (63.3)	59 (26.1)
2	Many people prefer second-hand clothes, since they are cheaper and more durable as compared to the ones sold in boutiques.	10 (4.4)	14 (6.2)	7 (3.1)	157 (69.5)	38 (16.8)
3	Customers see second hand clothing to be more stylish than the sewed ones which are new.	11 (4.9)	15 (6.6)	11 (4.9)	127 (56.2)	62 (27.4)
4	Some revenues generated by SHC trade be distributed to support the textiles industries in	7 (3.1)	10 (4.4)	9 (4)	108 (47.8)	92 (40.7)

	countries with low purchasing power and declining textile economies					
5	Consumers, especially low-income earners or the poorer population, purchase SHC because the clothes are very cheap and affordable.	21 (9.3)	13 (5.8)	9 (4)	154 (68.1)	29 (12.8)
6	Trade in SHC has been a major means of employment which supports the living conditions for many people and provides a consumer benefit not only to the poor but to all socioeconomic levels.	8 (3.5)	12 (5.3)	11 (4.9)	95 (42)	100 (44.2)
7	SHC appeals to all persons of the socioeconomic ladder and, while SHC is noted to be relatively cheap and affordable, most people are purchasing them because of the popularity of western clothing styles.	10 (4.4)	9 (4)	4 (1.8)	126 (55.8)	77 (34.1)

Scale: 1-Strongly Agree; 2-Agree; 3-Neutral; 4-Disagree; 5-Strongly Disagree
N= 226

Table 4.3 shows that majority 63.3% agreed that in Ghana, many people prefer using second-hand clothes, as it is the only way they afford to wear decent clothing, due to high cost of new clothes, even the locally made ones. To add more, majority of the respondents (69.5%) agreed that many people prefer second-hand clothes, since they are cheaper and more durable as compared to the ones sold in boutiques.

Also, more than half of the respondents (56.2%) agreed that customers see second-hand clothing to be more stylish than the sewed ones which are new. The study results held that less than half of the respondents (47.8%) agreed that some revenues generated by SHC trade be distributed to support the textiles industries in countries with low purchasing power and declining textile economies. This is due to societal and technological trends of the present time such as underlying changes to the image of second-hand products in combination with vintage commodities and the rise of the internet, which has become particularly important for second-hand shopping. It becomes obvious that most of the studies deal exclusively with offline settings such as car boot sales and flea markets while ignoring the online second-hand market. It also lacks studies of how consumers perceive second-hand products, especially in the

branding context. It was also revealed that the frequent importation of second-hand clothing had a detrimental impact on the country's textile industry, which, if not addressed, would eventually collapse. Many women used to take pride in selling textiles because it was such a lucrative market. However, today's case is different, as purchasing a second-hand dress is much less expensive than purchasing fabric and having it sewn into a dress by a seamstress (Bradley, 2013).

The study finding held that most of the respondents (68.1%) agreed that consumers, especially low-income earners or the poorer populace, purchase SHC because the clothes are very cheap and affordable. Furthermore, less than half of the respondents (44.2%) strongly agreed that trade in SHC has been a major means of employment which supports the living conditions for many people and providing a consumer benefit not only to the poor but to all socioeconomic levels. Researchers who deal with the topic of second-hand products and second-hand shopping repeatedly highlight the fact that it is a retailing phenomenon which has received little attention in the literature despite its long tradition (Guiot and Roux 2010; Roux and Korchia 2016). The Greater Accra Metropolis' Kantamanto Market is a premier destination for second-hand trade, with over 30,000 vendors selling mostly second-hand clothes. This market, which is mostly made up of unlicensed traders, is extremely important economically for the traders who depend on it for a living as well as the reverberating incomes it generates (Mangier, 2016).

4.4 The effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

The third objective was to determine the effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis. Table 4.4 determined the effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

Table 4.4: The effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

ITEMS	SD N (%)	D N (%)	N N (%)	A N (%)	SA N (%)S
1 The textiles industry is a key condition in promoting equitable and sustainable development.	0	0	9 (4)	167 (73.9)	50 (22.1)
2 Textile industries have the potential to promote growth in employment and contribute towards reducing poverty.	0	0	7 (3.1)	150 (66.4)	69 (30.5)
3 Unemployment is a major cause of massive migration.	12 (5.3)	11 (4.9)	11 (4.9)	129 (57.1)	63 (27.9)
4 Labour force should be taken in high esteem for the generation of employment opportunities and stimulating income growth.	16 (7.1)	30 (13.3)	15 (6.6)	110 (48.7)	55 (24.3)
5 Textiles imports are an important source of foreign exchange and revenue for the country.	19 (8.4)	12 (5.3)	15 (6.6)	117 (51.8)	63 (27.9)
7 Textiles industries create jobs for the people preventing migration which more of the people come home with deadly diseases like HIV Aids.	0	27 (11.9)	10 (4.4)	176 (77.9)	13 (5.8)
8 Promote both domestic and foreign investment as well as stimulate imports.	11 (4.9)	12 (5.3)	10 (4.4)	167 (73.9)	26 (11.5)
9 Increase employment opportunities for the growing expanding and diversifying the economy.	62 (27.4)	11 (4.9)	11 (4.9)	15 (6.6)	127 (56.2)
10 Textile industries contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic product GDP.	10 (4.4)	7 (3.1)	9 (4)	92 (40.7)	108 (47.8)
11 Textile industries are a means of earning foreign exchange for the country.	29 (12.8)	13 (5.8)	9 (4)	154 (68.1)	21 (9.3)

Scale: 1-Strongly Agree; 2-Agree; 3-Neutral; 4-Disagree; 5-Strongly Disagree

N= 226

Table 4.4 revealed that greater percentage of the respondents (73.9%) agreed that the textiles industry is a key condition in promoting equitable and sustainable development. To add more, a little more than half of the respondents (66.4%) agreed that textile industries have the potential to promote growth in employment and contribute towards reducing poverty. Also, a little more than half of the respondents (57.1%) agreed that unemployment is a major cause of massive migration.

The study results held that a little less than half of the respondents (48.7%) agreed that labor force should be taken in high esteem for the generation of employment

opportunities and stimulating income growth. Moreover, a little more than half of the respondents (51.8%) agreed that textiles imports are an important source of foreign exchange and revenue for the country.

To add more, majority of the respondents (77.9%) agreed that Textiles industries create jobs for the people preventing migration which more of the people come home with deadly diseases like HIV Aids. Moreover, most of the respondents (73.9%) agreed that the textile industries promote both domestic and foreign investment as well as stimulate imports.

Also, a little more than half of the respondents (56.2%) strongly agreed that second-hand used clothing imports increased employment opportunities for the growing expand and diverse economy.

The study results held that a little than half of the respondents (47.8%) strongly agreed that Textile industries contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic product GDP. Furthermore, more than half of the respondents (68.1%) agreed that textile industries are a means of earning foreign exchange for the country. According to recent studies (Hansen, 2009; Deconsult, 2013), the sale of used clothing from rich countries in the north to poor countries in the south, where it is re-consumed, has increased dramatically. Any of this, according to Hansen, is due to the liberalization of markets that formerly had tight import restrictions. She states (2009: 191) that Sub-Saharan African countries are among the world's largest importers, with demand for secondhand garments outstripping that of all other regions. According to Hansen, the United States was the top exporter of used clothes in 1995, followed by Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium-Luxembourg, and the United Kingdom (2009:193).

The second-hand clothing trade is well-established, with advertisements on the internet asking people to donate their used garments. In the United States, Canada,

and Europe, private charitable organisations are the major producers of secondhand clothes. Ghana imports 30,000 tons of second-hand clothing each year, according to Dutton (2014), with the majority of it arriving in Accra. Not only have we turned our homes into landfills by choice, but we have also killed our own textile industry. The second-hand clothing trade has both positive and negative consequences in Ghana. When trade controls were relaxed, according to the International Textile Garment and Leather Workers Federation (ITGLWF) (2002:9), large amounts of cheap, second-hand clothing entered the country duty-free. They claim that these garments were imported without paying production costs, labor costs, or the tariffs that once protected local manufacturers from foreign competition.

Table 4.5: Sustainable strategies to regulate the import of second-hand clothes in the Greater Accra Metropolis

Scale: 1-Strongly Agree; 2-Agree; 3-Neutral; 4-Disagree; 5-Strongly Disagree

ITEMS	SD N(%)	D N(%)	N N(%)	A N(%)	SA N(%)
1 The importation of second-hand clothing must be regulated by setting up effective legal and administrative frameworks for the prevention and reduction of imported textiles into the country.	14 (6.2)	32 (14.2)	5 (2.2)	125 (55.3)	50 (22.1)
2 There must be a ban on the importation of second-hand clothing such as under pants, brassier, supporters and towels to forestall the spread of any contagious disease.	8 (3.5)	11 (4.9)	7 (3.1)	175 (77.4)	25 (11.1)
3 Second-hand clothing must be tasked heavily to discourage its importation.	10 (4.4)	10 (4.4)	7 (3.1)	124 (54.9)	75 (33.2)
4 Made-in-Ghana clothing and Textiles must be re-branded and priced moderately.	22 (9.7)	57 (25.2)	48 (21.2)	76 (33.6)	23 (10.2)
5 Mechanisms for minimizing and controlling cost of materials for production.	22 (9.7)	23 (10.2)	29 (12.8)	126 (55.8)	26 (11.5)
6 Charging less on taxes	12 (5.3)	23 (10.2)	12 (5.3)	174 (77)	5 (2.2)

N= 226

7	Enforcing severe punishment for culprits of pirating	14 (6.2)	32 (14.2)	5 (2.2)	125 (55.3)	50 (22.1)
8	Providing information and training to workers can revitalise the industry	7 (3.1)	15 (6.6)	9 (4)	152 (67.3)	43 (19)
9	Using Ghana textiles for making uniforms can enhance sales of local clothes	10 (4.4)	15 (6.6)	6 (2.7)	101 (44.7)	94 (41.6)
10	Stringent measures in border regions can prevent smuggling of clothing into the country.	8 (3.5)	11 (4.9)	7 (3.1)	175 (77.4)	25 (11.1)
11	Promotion of the Friday wear can enhance sale of local clothing	10 (4.4)	10 (4.4)	7 (3.1)	124 (54.9)	75 (33.2)
12	Feeding the industries with expertise can improve innovation in the industry	22 (9.7)	23 (10.2)	29 (12.8)	126 (55.8)	26 (11.5)
13	Another recommendation was for improvement in the customs enforcement so that SHC-related frauds can be reduced.	12 (5.3)	23 (10.2)	12 (5.3)	174 (77)	5 (2.2)

The Sustainable strategies to regulate the import of second-hand clothes in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

Table 4.5 indicates that 125 respondents representing 55.3% agreed that the importation of second-hand clothing must be regulated by setting up effective legal and administrative frameworks for the prevention and reduction of imported textiles into the country. Moreover, 175 respondents representing 77.4% agreed that there must be a ban on the importation of second-hand clothing such as under pants, brassier, supporters and towels to forestall the spread of any contagious disease. Also, 124 respondents representing 54.9% agreed that second-hand clothing must be tasked heavily to discourage its importation. Roux and Korchia (2016) reveal that consumers have specific attitudes of refusal or acceptance towards second-hand clothes. Some people “perceive used clothing essentially as rubbish” (Roux and Korchia 2016, p. 33) and hold the view that clothes can only be worn by a single owner. In such cases, second-hand products are thus seen as highly contaminating due to the fact that a

possible negative physical (concerns in hygiene) or symbolic transfer from the (unknown) previous user can occur (Argo, Dahl, and Morales 2016).

Furthermore, 76 respondents representing 33.6% agreed that made-in-Ghana clothing and Textiles must be re-branded and priced moderately. The study results held that 126 respondents representing 55.8% agreed that mechanisms for minimizing and controlling cost of materials for production.

To add more, 125 respondents representing 55.3% agreed that enforcing severe punishment for culprits of pirating can improve the local textile industry. Moreover, 152 respondents representing 67.3% agreed that providing information and training to workers can revitalise the industry. The study results held that 101 respondents representing 44.7% agreed that using Ghana textiles for making uniforms can enhance sales of local clothes. These findings highlight the fact that contamination is a major factor influencing the rejection of second-hand clothing, especially for those who have a high degree of attachment to their clothing products (Roux & Korchia 2016). Thus, rejection and acceptance behaviors towards second-hand products depend on whether an individual considers a product as an element of someone else's extended or their own self rather than as mere objects. When used goods are not viewed as an intimate part of the self or their extended self, they are appreciated for their intrinsic properties.

Also, 175 respondents representing 77.4% agreed that stringent measures in border regions can prevent smuggling of clothing into the country. Furthermore, 124 respondents representing 54.9% agreed that promotion of the Friday wear can enhance sale of local clothing. The study results indicate that 126 respondents representing 55.8% agreed that feeding the industries with expertise can improve innovation in the

industry. Researchers who deal with the topic of second-hand products and second-hand shopping repeatedly highlight the fact that it is a retailing phenomenon which has received little attention in the literature despite its long tradition (Guiot and Roux 2010; Roux and Korchia 2016). According to Dutton (2014), the proliferation of low-cost clothing has put additional strain on an industry that is already struggling to adapt to evolving fashions while dealing with a patchy infrastructure. During his presidency in Ghana, John Kufuor established a national "Friday Wear Day" to enable people to dress in traditional African clothing made of jewel-colored wax fabrics. Second-hand apparel, according to Bradley (2013), is harmful to Africa's economy. He goes on to say that the difference is that in many parts of Africa, second-hand clothing is the primary means of purchasing clothing, suffocating the development of local African economies inadvertently.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS

Research Objective 1: The Perceptions of the General Public on Second - Clothing in Accra.

The study reveals that less than half of the respondents agreed that because second-hand clothing is relatively cheaper than the made- in- Ghana garments, more people patronize it at the expense of the latter. This is a clear picture that was painted about second-hand clothing in Ghana. The rate at which prices of commodities are galloping in the country is compelling the “economic poor” to choose the easier path towards acquiring certain material comforts in life.

Moreover, most respondents agreed that because of the low demand for made in Ghana products, Ghana textiles cannot compete well with imported second-hand clothes. In view of the current crisis faced by the industry, its outlook remains bleak and therefore calls for pragmatic policies that will lead to both local and global restructuring of the industry. Also, majority 77% agreed that the Garment Industry in Ghana suffers a shortfall in revenue due to low patronage. The sub-sector which was once the leader in Ghana’s industrial sector has undergone a considerable decline over the years, largely due to the liberalization programs which made it almost impossible for Ghana’s textile products to compete with the cheap imports, particularly from Asia (Roux and Korchia 2016).

With regards to the laying-off of workers affecting the Garment Industry, a little more than half of the respondents agreed. This implies that the collapse of the local garment industry led to redundant economy where most workers were laid off. Furthermore, most of the respondents (67.3%) agreed that collapsing of garment

industries is a challenge in the industry. Most Ghanaians resort to the patronage of “second-hand clothing” which they consider to be relatively cheaper.

The “second-hand” apparel, on the other hand, comes with a slew of issues, the majority of which are health-related. Some underwear, braziers, and socks, for example, are not meant to be worn by more than one person. This is due to the fact that they are used on very vulnerable areas of the human body that can easily be harmed due to their orientation. For example, if the first wearer is likely to have candidiasis, the second wearer is very likely to contract the same infection. Another example is the highly infectious Ebola disease, which can easily be transmitted from one wearer of “second-hand” clothing to the next, as well as the recent coronavirus pandemic. Apart from the health risks associated with the high consumption of "second apparel," Ghana's economy has been hit hard in the sense that demand for locally produced garments and textiles will continue to decline if nothing is done to improve the situation. Additionally, more garment and Textile producing companies will continue to “collapse” and this will result in massive unemployment rates as these companies add a substantive number of employees to the Ghanaian workforce.

The study results indicate that agreed that the perception that Ghana textiles are inferior to imported textiles can affect the industry. Also, the productivity of these companies would be affected negatively because there will not be enough workforce to produce large quantities of products. These and many more have informed the researchers to conduct an investigation into the topic so as to come out with solutions to the teething problems facing the Garment and Textiles Industries as a result of the mass importation of “second-hand” clothing into the country. It is however true that the problems facing the Garment and Textiles Industries in Ghana

are enormous and cannot be limited to the importation of “second-hand” clothing only.

As a result, it is now very common to move such "worn" clothing from one part of the world to another. For example, there has been a large influx of “second-hand” clothing into Ghana, and there is a ready demand for these garments because they are less expensive, easier to wear, durable, and trendy than those made from Ghanaian textile fabrics. According to Akudugu, (2019), the majority of Ghanaian textile companies charge exorbitant prices for their fabrics due to the high production costs. These high-priced fabrics are used to make dresses that are often high-priced, discouraging customers from purchasing them.

Research Objective 2: Examine from the users and seller’s point on the impact of second-hand clothing on locally made garment.

The study findings show that majority agreed that in Ghana, many people prefer using second-hand clothes, as it is the only way they afford to wear decent clothing, due to high cost of new clothes, even the locally made ones. To add more, majority of the respondents agreed that many people prefer second-hand clothes, since they are cheaper and more durable as compared to the ones sold in boutiques. The incidence of unlawful and illegal practices, which is secret from clothing donors, exacerbates this in the second-hand clothing trade (Lomotey & Fisher, 2016). Since information about the origin of clothing products is not exchanged among the parties involved in trade relationships (Lincoln, 2019), non-integrated used clothing supply chains are particularly difficult to track.

Also, more than half of the respondents agreed that customers see second-hand clothing to be more stylish than the sewed ones which are new. The study results held that less than half of the respondents agreed that some revenues generated by

SHC trade be distributed to support the textiles industries in countries with low purchasing power and declining textile economies. In Africa, the second-hand clothing trade has a long but little-known history. According to recent research (Hansen, 2009; Deconsult, 2013), there has been a rapid increase in the export of second-hand clothing from wealthy countries in the North to poor countries in the South, where it is re-consumed. According to Hansen (2009), global second-hand clothing exports increased sixfold between 1980 and 1995.

The study finding held that most of the respondents agreed that consumers, especially low-income earners or the poorer populace, purchase SHC because the clothes are very cheap and affordable. Furthermore, less than half of the respondents (44.2%) strongly agreed that trade in SHC has been a major means of employment which supports the living conditions for many people and providing a consumer benefit not only to the poor but to all socioeconomic levels. The study results show that SHC appeals to all persons of the socioeconomic ladder and, while SHC is noted to be relatively cheap and affordable, most people are purchasing them because of the popularity of western clothing styles.

Values for used clothing are developed both within and across cultures (Hansen, 2010). African market employees have no understanding about where used clothing comes from (Field, 2010). The clothing purchased in bales by used-clothing market traders is of uncertain quality and local exchange value, in comparison to new-clothing retail in the global North, where companies dictate product details and order clothing designs that respond to the current socially manipulated fashion trends (Bair & Gereffi, 2011).

Research Objective 3: The effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

The study results revealed that greater percentage of the respondents agreed that the textiles industry is a key condition in promoting equitable and sustainable development. The transnational second-hand clothing scheme of provision starts with the public consumption of garments in the global North and ends with the selling of worn-out clothing on African market stalls. Well-established charities (e.g., Oxfam and the Salvation Army), commercial operators (e.g., Choice Textiles and Canam), and Indian merchants in southern Africa (e.g. UMUT in Mozambique and Khalid in Zambia) have become profitably entrenched in the (re)production, sale, and import of used-clothing goods. As the used-clothing industry grew, such economic actors became entrenched and now control critical assets.

The clothing and textile industry played a significant role in the industrialisation of developing countries, according to economic history. This is due to the industry's peculiar characteristics of being labor-intensive and its connections to other industries such as agriculture (Kinyanjui, et al. 2012). According to Kearney (2010), the textile industry is a major employer in many African countries, employing approximately 27 000 people in Zambia, 35 000 in Kenya, 47 000 in Ethiopia, 48 000 in Zimbabwe, and 85000 in Mauritius.

Also, a little more than half of the respondents agreed that unemployment is a major cause of massive migration. Baden and Barber (2005) cited Hansen (2000) who noted that SHC imports into West African countries are a key contributing factor to the decline in production of local textiles industries in these countries. If SHC is totally banned from these countries, there is no sure way the local textiles industry would begin to increase production capacity because SHC has been taken over by

textiles and clothing imports from Asian countries have introduced an additional element of competition to the Ghanaian textile market.

The study results held that a little less than half of the respondents agreed that labor force should be taken in high esteem for the generation of employment opportunities and stimulating income growth. Moreover, a little more than half of the respondents (51.8%) agreed that textiles imports are an important source of foreign exchange and revenue for the country. The effect of the second-hand clothing trade on the economies of developed countries appears to be equally complex. On the one hand, as Wegulo (2012) points out, second-hand clothing trade is an increasing component of the informal economy that provides jobs and income to a large portion of the population, allowing people to escape poverty. The words used to characterize these products help to illustrate this.

To add more, majority of the respondents agreed that Textiles industries create jobs for the people preventing migration which more of the people come home with deadly diseases like HIV Aids. Moreover, most of the respondents agreed that the textile industries promote both domestic and foreign investment as well as stimulate imports. According to Chronicle (2008), many people in Ghana tend to wear second-hand clothing because it is the only way they can afford to dress decently due to the high cost of new clothes, including locally made ones. Evelyn Ackah, a hairdresser, likes second-hand clothes because they are less expensive and more durable than those sold in boutiques. She has always been a fan of second-hand clothing, also known as "folks," pronounced "folks," according to her. Nana Ama Boadu has a different reason; despite being a seamstress, she considers second-hand clothing to be more fashionable than newly sewed clothing. According to her, the second-hand

clothing were stylish for activities such as going to the beach, club, parties, touring and any other activity or occasions that demand the wearing of nice casual clothes.

Also, a little more than half of the respondents strongly agreed that second-hand used clothing imports increased employment opportunities for the growing expand and diverse economy. Though trade in SHC has been a major source of jobs for many people, Baden and Barber (2005) concluded that it offers a market advantage not only to the poor but to people of all socioeconomic levels. While SHC contributes to the local textile industry's decline, its economic benefits should not be overlooked. According to Baden and Barber (2005), a portion of the proceeds from SHC trade could be used to help textile industries in countries with low buying power and weakening textile economies. Another suggestion was that customs compliance be improved in order to eliminate SHC-related fraud.

The study results held that a little than half of the respondents strongly agreed that Textile industries contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic product GDP. Furthermore, more than half of the respondents (68.1%) agreed that textile industries are a means of earning foreign exchange for the country. Many residents of these countries will find work in the SHC trade, which includes transportation, washing, repairing, restyling, and trading. In these African countries, employment generated by SHC trading is said to be greater than employment generated by the formal textile industry. According to Baden and Barber (2005), both traders and customers profit from trading and buying SHC. The annual revenue generated from the sale of SHC is estimated to be about one billion dollars. Consumers, mostly low-income earners or the poorer population, buy SHC because the clothes are inexpensive. According to Baden and Barber (2005), SHC appeals to people from all walks of life, and

although it is noted for being relatively inexpensive and accessible, most people buy it because of the popularity of western clothing types.

Research Question 4: The Sustainable strategies to regulate the import of second-hand clothes in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

Table 4.5 indicates that more than half of the respondents agreed that the importation of second-hand clothing must be regulated by setting up effective legal and administrative frameworks for the prevention and reduction of imported textiles into the country. Moreover, most of the respondents agreed that there must be a ban on the importation of second-hand clothing such as under pants, brassier, supporters and towels to forestall the spread of any contagious disease. Most of the traders stressed the need for a reduction or removal of taxes on imported raw materials. Other policy recommendations include giving the products to traders on credit, imposing heavier taxes on imported textiles, placing a ban on imported textiles, making local textile products affordable, and promoting wearing of local textile products. For example, 37 percent suggested a reduction in taxes on imported raw materials, another 27 percent advocated for marketing and promotion of local textiles. About 13 percent thought subsidies should be given to the local textiles industry. Only 13 percent however, called for a total ban on imported textile products

Also, majority of the respondents agreed that second-hand clothing must be tasked heavily to discourage its importation. For the producers, this activity has created uncertainty about the future viability of the industry. They recommend that the government should control, charge higher duties or ban the trade flows of these clothes from the supplying countries. Due to this negative impact of trade in second-hand clothes, trade unions like SACTWU together with ITGLWF lobbied against the

importation of second-hand clothes. At the eighth Congress of ITGLWF held in Sweden they came up with a resolution supporting the continuation of the campaign against the second-hand clothing trade in the continent of Africa until it is completely stopped. SACWTU worked together with the clothing and textile industries in South Africa to lobby again

Furthermore, less than half agreed that made-in-Ghana clothing and Textiles must be re-branded and priced moderately. The study results held that more than half (55.8%) agreed that mechanisms for minimizing and controlling cost of materials for production. In Zambia the second-hand clothing trade has had both positive and negative effects. According to International Textile Garment and Leather Workers Federation (ITGLWF) (2002:9), when trade controls were relaxed large quantities of cheap, second-hand clothing came into the country duty free. The researchers point out that these clothes were imported 'without paying production, labour costs or the tariffs that once protected local manufacturers from foreign competition'. The ITGLWF points out that Zambian clothing and textile factories have shed roughly 325 000 jobs since 1990. They claim that this is because Zambia's textile producers simply could not compete with the influx of western clothes.

To add more, most of the respondents agreed that enforcing severe punishment for culprits of pirating can improve the local textile industry. Moreover, greater percent (67.3%) agreed that providing information and training to workers can revitalise the industry. The study results held that a little less than half agreed that using Ghana textiles for making uniforms can enhance sales of local clothes. On the other hand however many others (Kearney 2012) have argued that this trade has had detrimental effects on local production. There has been a decline in domestic demand for the textile output where consumers prefer to buy imported second-hand clothes as they seem to

be a far better option in terms of price and quality. This led to the decline in volume of production resulting to the increase in the number of firm closures. Kearney (2012:2) points out that in many developing countries the textile and garment industry is a significant source of jobs, but in recent years tens of thousand of workers have lost their livelihood largely as a result of the trade in used clothing.

Also, more than half agreed that stringent measures in border regions can prevent smuggling of clothing into the country. Furthermore, 54.9% agreed that promotion of the Friday wear can enhance sale of local clothing. The study results indicate that 55.8% agreed that feeding the industries with expertise can improve innovation in the industry. This is because this growing import poses a threat to domestic production. Countries like Mali charge high import tariffs on second hand clothing, seeking to reduce its volume, with the aim of protecting the domestic textile industry. Other countries - including Cote d' Ivoire, Kenya, and Nigeria, have banned the commercial import of second-hand clothes. In practice such rules are unable to restrict the flow of this popular commodity across Africa's notoriously permeable borders (Hansen, 2009:193). Apart from the social and cultural implications, used clothing imports have economic consequences, according to Robertson (2014), which force a reliance on the west and, in many ways, prevent Africa from developing. Furthermore, after colonialism ended, the idea was for Africans to manufacture their own food and other essential goods in order to assist in the industrialization and development of economies, as China and South Korea did. Clothing factories, on the other hand, decreased in the 1980s and 1990s, while imports of used clothing increased.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary of Findings

. The purpose of this study is to contribute to knowledge in the field of importation and usage of second-hand clothing in the Accra Metropolis. The research topic was to assess the perceptions of the general public on second-hand clothing. A case study of users and sellers in Accra, Ghana. This study used descriptive study design. Quantitative research approach was used. The total population was 630 second-hand clothes sellers and users in the Greater Accra Metropolis. Random sampling method was used to select 242 respondents for the study. The instruments used in primary data collection was questionnaire. Quantitative data was organized and analyzed statistically through simple tables, graph and percentage analysis by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Software.

6.1.1 The Perceptions of the General Public on Second-hand Clothing in Accra.

The study results reveal that, because second-hand clothing is relatively cheaper than the made- in- Ghana garments, more people patronize it at the expense of the latter. Moreover, because of the low demand for made in Ghana products, Ghana textiles cannot compete well with imported second-hand clothes. Also, the Garment Industry in Ghana suffers a shortfall in revenue due to low patronage.

Moreover, laying-off of workers in the Garment Industry can affect the industry. Furthermore, collapsing of Garment Industries is a challenge in the industry. The study results indicate that the perception that Ghana textiles are inferior to imported textiles can affect the industry. Also, disaffection for made-in Ghana garments is a challenge in the industry. To add moreo, made in Ghana textiles is expensive as compared to textiles from other countries. Moreover, low public awareness of

Ghana textiles is a challenge in the industry. Also, majority of the respondents agreed that the consumption rate to manufacturing rate of textiles is low. Furthermore, the limited incentive structure has led to unemployment, loss of government revenue and opportunity Act AGOA.

6.1.2 Examine from the users and seller's point of view, what they perceive to be the impact of second - hand clothing on locally made garment.

The study findings show that in Ghana, many people prefer using second-hand clothes, as it is the only way they can afford to wear decent clothing, due to high cost of new clothes, even the locally made ones. To add more, many people prefer second-hand clothes, since they are cheaper and more durable as compared to the ones made locally. Also, second-hand clothing is seen or perceived to be more stylish than those made locally. The study results held that, some revenues generated by SHC trade be distributed to support the textiles industries in countries with low purchasing power and declining textile economies.

The study found that, consumers, especially low-income earners or the poorer populate, purchase SHC because the clothes are very cheap and affordable. Furthermore, an average percent of the respondents strongly agreed that trade in SHC has been a major means of employment which supports the living conditions for many people and providing a consumer benefit not only to the poor but to all socioeconomic levels. The study results show that SHC appeals to all persons of the socioeconomic ladder and, while SHC is noted to be relatively cheap and affordable, most people are purchasing them because of the popularity of western clothing styles.

6.1.3 The effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

The study results revealed that the textiles industry is a key condition in promoting equitable and sustainable development. To add more, textile industries have the potential to promote growth in employment and contribute towards reducing poverty. Also, unemployment is a major cause of massive migration. The study results held that less than half agreed that the labor force should be taken in high esteem for the generation of employment opportunities and stimulating income growth.

Moreover, textiles imports are an important source of foreign exchange and revenue for the country. To add more, majority of the respondents agreed that Textiles industries create jobs for the people preventing migration which more of the people come home with deadly diseases like HIV Aids. Moreover, the textile industries promote both domestic and foreign investment as well as stimulate imports.

Also, second-hand used clothing imports increase employment opportunities for the growing, expanding and diversifying the economy. The study results held that 47.8% strongly agreed that Textile industries contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic product GDP. Furthermore, textile industries are a means of earning foreign exchange for the country.

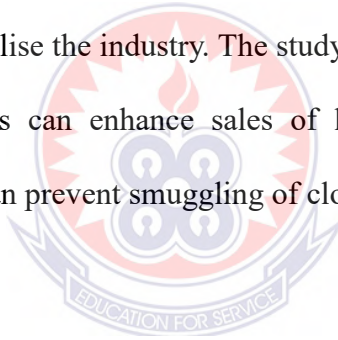
6.1.4 The Sustainable strategies to regulate the import of second-hand clothes in the Greater Accra Metropolis

The study results indicate that, the importation of second hand clothing must be regulated by setting up effective legal and administrative frameworks for the prevention and reduction of imported textiles into the country. Moreover, most of the

respondents agreed that there must be a ban on the importation of second hand clothing such as under pants, brassier, supporters and towels to forestall the spread of any contagious disease. Most of the traders stressed the need for a reduction or removal of taxes on imported raw materials.

Also, second hand clothing must be tasked heavily to discourage its importation. Furthermore, less than half agreed that made-in-Ghana clothing and Textiles must be re-branded and priced moderately. The study results held that mechanisms for minimizing and controlling cost of materials for production.

To add more, enforcing severe punishment for culprits of pirating can improve the local textile industry. Moreover, greater percent agreed that providing information and training to workers can revitalise the industry. The study results held that using Ghana textiles for making uniforms can enhance sales of local clothes. Also, stringent measures in border regions can prevent smuggling of clothing into the country.



6.2 Conclusions

The study concluded that, second-hand clothing is relatively cheaper than the made- in- Ghana garments, more people patronize it at the expense of the latter. Moreover, the low demand for made in Ghana products, Ghana textiles cannot compete well with imported second-hand clothes. Also, the Garment Industry in Ghana suffers a shortfall in revenue due to low patronage. In furtherance, the perception that Ghana textiles are inferior to imported textiles can affect the industry. Also, disaffection for made-in Ghana garments is a challenge in the industry.

In Ghana, many people prefer using second-hand clothes, as it is the only way they afford to wear decent clothing, due to the high cost of new clothes, even the locally made ones. To add more, many people prefer second-hand clothes, since they

are cheaper and more durable as compared to the ones sold in boutiques. Also, customers see second-hand clothing to be more stylish than the sewed ones which are new.

The study results concluded that the textiles industry is a key condition in promoting equitable and sustainable development. To add more, textile industries have the potential to promote growth in employment and contribute towards reducing poverty. Moreover, textiles imports are an important source of foreign exchange and revenue for the country. To add more, Textiles industries create jobs for the people preventing migration which more of the people come home with deadly diseases like HIV Aids.

6.3 Recommendations

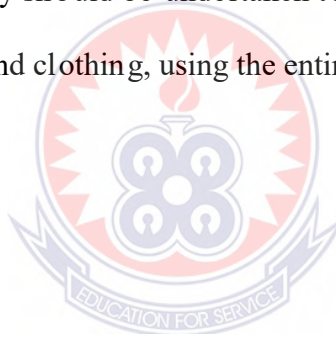
The following recommendations were highlighted for consideration:

1. The influx of second-hand clothing such as under pants, brassier, supporters and towels on to the market should be regulated to ensure that its usage will not spread any contagious disease by inspecting imported goods at the delivery ports.
2. Also, second-hand clothing must be tasked heavily to discourage its importation.
3. Furthermore, made-in-Ghana clothing and Textiles must be re-branded and priced moderately by fashion designers in order to create a quality and affordable clothes for clients.
4. Government should ensure that policies and programmes are drawn and implemented to make the second-hand business a viable one for the sellers by engaging small scale garment industries to remodel the second-hand clothes for charity.

5. Moreover, providing information and training to workers can revitalize the industry. Using Ghana textiles for making uniforms can enhance sales of local clothes.
6. Stringent measures in border regions can prevent smuggling of clothing into the country.
7. Furthermore, the promotion of the Friday wear can enhance sales of local clothing and revitalise the clothing and textiles industry in Ghana.

6.4 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the conclusions and recommendations made, the researcher suggested that a similar study should be undertaken to assess the perceptions of the general public on second-hand clothing, using the entire Ghana as case study.



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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRES FOR THE RESPONDENTS

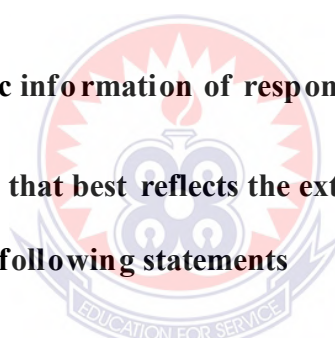
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMAASI

The researcher is a Postgraduate student of University of Education Winneba, Kumasi Campus conducting a piece of research on **PERCEPTIONS OF THE GENERAL PUBLIC ON SECOND-HAND CLOTHING. A CASE STUDY OF USERS AND SELLERS IN ACCRA, GHANA.** I respectfully request that you form part of this research by completing the attached questionnaire. It is my fervent hope that you participate in the study. May I thank you for your valuable cooperation.

SECTION A: Demographic information of respondents

Please tick [✓] the response that best reflects the extent to which you agreed or disagreed with each of the following statements



1. Please indicate your gender. Male [] Female []

2. What is the age category you belong?

Under 20 years []	21 – 30 years []
31 – 40 years []	41 – 50 years []
51 - 60 years []	Above 60 years []

3. What is your highest academic or professional qualification?

SSCE/WASSCE [] NVTI [] Diploma [] HND [] Bachelor’s Degree []

Master’s Degree [] PhD [] Others, please specify [-----]

4. What is the number of years you have been selling second-hand used clothing?

Under 5 years []	5 – 10 years []
11– 15 years []	16 – 20 years []
21 - 30 years []	Above 30 years []

Section B: The Perceptions of the General Public on Second-hand Clothing in Greater Accra Metropolis.

Please use the following Likert Scale to evaluate the perception of the general public on second-hand clothing in Accra. Please tick [√] in the box where appropriate.

Scale: 1-Strongly Agree; 2-Agree; 3-Neutral; 4-Disagree; 5-Strongly Disagree

No.	ITEMS	SA	A	N	D	SD
1	Because second-hand clothing is relatively cheaper than the made-in-Ghana garments, more people patronize it at the expense of the latter.					
2	Because of the low demand for made in Ghana products, Ghana textiles cannot compete well with imported second-hand clothes					
3	The Garment Industry in Ghana suffers a shortfall in revenue due to low patronage.					
4	Laying-off of workers in the Garment Industry can affect the industry.					

5	Collapsing of Garment Industries is a challenge in the industry.					
6	The perception that Ghana textiles are inferior to imported textiles can affect the industry					
7	Disaffection for made-in Ghana garments is a challenge in the industry.					
8	Made in Ghana textiles is expensive as compared to textiles from other countries.					
9	Low public awareness of Ghana textiles is a challenge in the industry. .					
10	The consumption rate to manufacturing rate of textiles is low.					
11	The limited incentive structure has led to unemployment, loss of government revenue and opportunity Act AGOA					
12	Age of second - hand clothes does not exceed 5 years when importing to Ghana					
13.	Second-hand clothing compromises the dignity of people					

Section C: Examine from the users and seller's point of view, what they perceive to be the impact of second-hand clothing on locally made garment.

Please use the following Likert Scale to examine from the users and seller's point of view, what they perceive to be the impact of second-hand clothing on locally made garment. Please tick [√] in the box where appropriate.

Scale: 1-Strongly Agree; 2-Agree; 3-Neutral; 4-Disagree; 5-Strongly Disagree

No.	ITEMS	SA	A	N	D	SD
1	In Ghana, many people prefer using second-hand clothes, as it is the only way they can afford to wear decent clothing, due to the high cost of new clothes, even the locally made ones.					
2	Many people prefer second-hand clothes, since they are cheaper and more durable as compared to the ones sold in boutiques.					
3	Customers see second-hand clothing to be more stylish than the sewed ones which are new.					
4	Some revenues generated by SHC trade be distributed to support the textiles industries in countries with low purchasing power and declining textile economies					
5	Consumers, especially low-income earners or the poorer populace, purchase SHC because the clothes are very cheap and affordable.					
6	Trade in SHC has been a major means of employment which supports the living conditions for many people and provides a consumer benefit not only to the poor but to all socioeconomic levels.					

7	SHC appeals to all persons of the socioeconomic ladder and, while SHC is noted to be relatively cheap and affordable, most people are purchasing them because of the popularity of western clothing styles.					
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Section D: The effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater

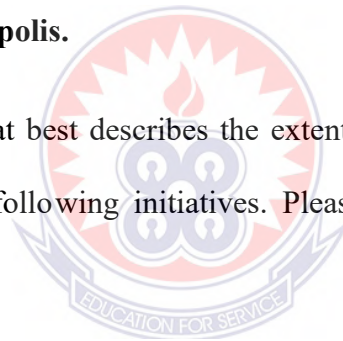
Please use the following Likert Scale to evaluate the effects of second-hand clothes importation to sellers in the Greater Accra Metropolis. Please tick [] in the box where appropriate.

	ITEMS	SA	A	N	D	SD
1	The textiles industry is a key condition in promoting equitable and sustainable development.					
2	Textile industries have the potential to promote growth in employment and contribute towards reducing poverty.					
3	Unemployment is a major cause of massive migration.					
4	Labour force should be taken in high esteem for the generation of employment opportunities and stimulating income growth.					
5	Textiles imports are an important source of foreign exchange and revenue for the country.					
7	Textiles industries create jobs for the people preventing migration which more of the people come home with deadly diseases like HIV Aids.					

8	Promote both domestic and foreign investment as well as stimulate imports.					
9	Increase employment opportunities for the growing, expanding and diversifying the economy.					
10	Textile industries contribute significantly to the Gross Domestic product GDP.					
11	Textile industries are a means of earning foreign exchange for the country.					

Section E: The sustainable strategies to regulate the import of second-hand clothes in the Greater Accra Metropolis.

Please indicate the rating that best describes the extent to which your views on the importance of each of the following initiatives. Please tick [√] in the box where appropriate.



	ITEMS	SA	A	N	D	SD
1	The importation of second-hand clothing must be regulated by setting up effective legal and administrative frameworks for the prevention and reduction of imported textiles into the country.					
2	There must be a ban on the importation of second-hand clothing such as under pants, brassier, supporters and towels to forestall the spread of any contagious disease.					

3	Second-hand clothing must be tasked heavily to discourage its importation.					
4	Made-in-Ghana clothing and Textiles must be re-branded and priced moderately.					
5	Mechanisms for minimizing and controlling cost of materials for production.					
6	Charging less on taxes					
7	Enforcing severe punishment for culprits of pirating					
8	Providing information and training to workers can revitalise the industry					
9	Using Ghana textiles for making uniforms can enhance sales of local clothes					
10	Stringent measures in border regions can prevent smuggling of clothing into the country.					
11	Promotion of the Friday wear can enhance sale of local clothing					
12	Feeding the industries with expertise can improve innovation in the industry					
13	Another recommendation was for improvement in the customs enforcement so that SHC-related frauds can be reduced.					
14	NGOs should engage the small scale garment industries for the production of clothes for charity donations					

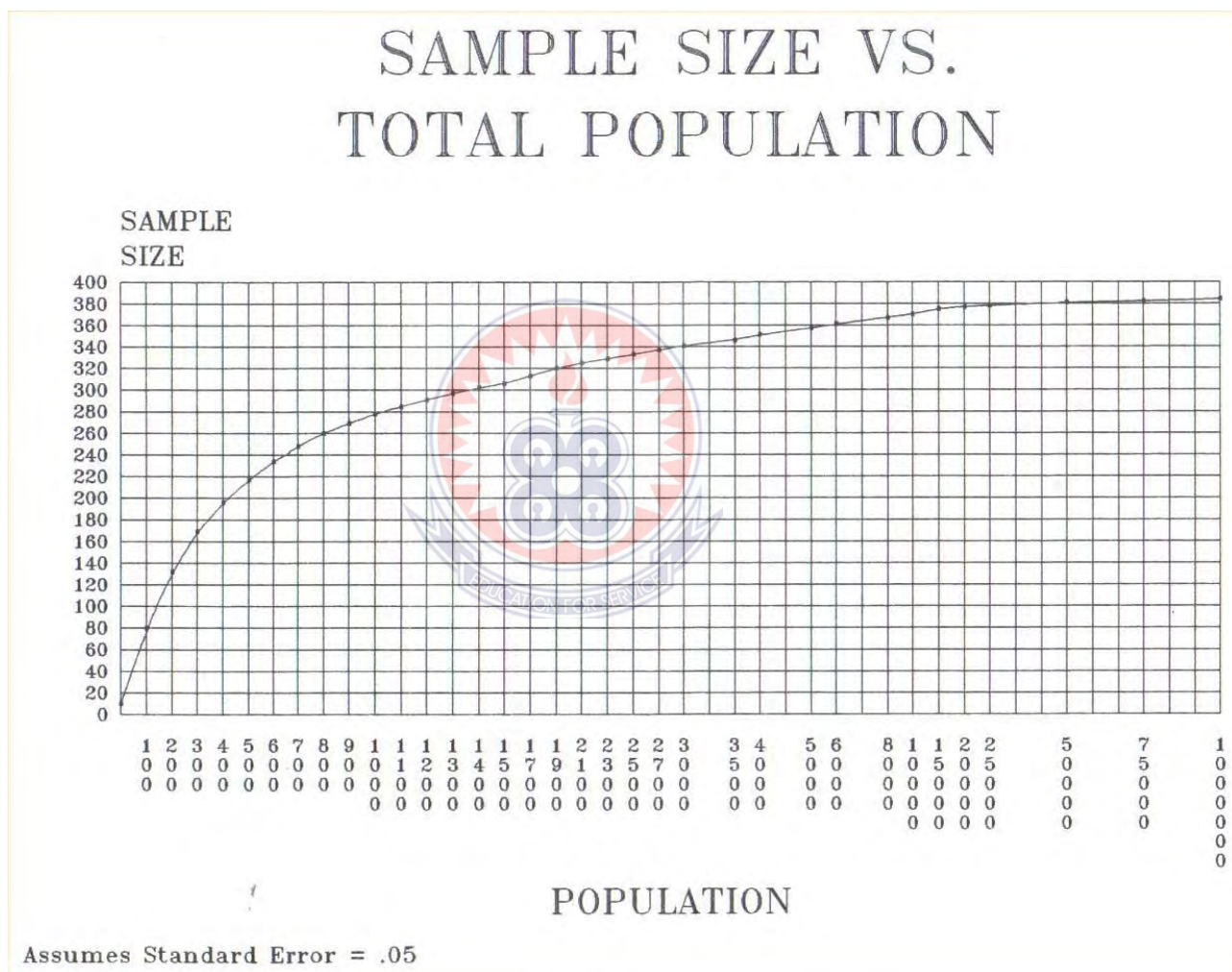
THANKS FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX B
Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380

190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
136	1100	285	1000000	384	

Note.— N is population size.
 S is sample size.



FORMULAE FOR DETERMINING NEEDED SAMPLE SIZES

POPULATION SIZE UNKNOWN:

$$\text{SAMPLE SIZE} = \frac{\left(\frac{\text{RANGE}}{2} \right)^2}{\left(\frac{\text{ACCURACY LEVEL}}{\text{CONFIDENCE LEVEL}} \right)^2}$$

Confidence Levels:

	α	$\alpha/2$
.10 level =	1.28	1.64
.05 level =	1.64	1.96
.01 level =	2.33	2.58
.001 level =	3.09	3.29

Accuracy Levels:

Range X Desired Level
of Accuracy
(expressed as a
proportion)

POPULATION SIZE KNOWN:

$$\text{SIZE} = \frac{X^2 NP (1-P)}{d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P (1-P)}$$

X^2 = table value of Chi-Square @ $d.f. = 1$ for desired confidence level

.10 = 2.71 .05 = 3.84 .01 = 6.64 .001 = 10.83

N = population size

P = population proportion (assumed to be .50)

d = degree of accuracy (expressed as a proportion)