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FROM DISPOSSESSION TO OBJECTS' REUSE: TRAJECTORIES AND PRACTICES IN THE CONTEXT OF CLOTHING

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Introduction

Sustainability is a key societal challenge, and many institutions point the damages done by overconsumption and the need to reduce and better manage waste. In France, ADEME (the public agency for environment) calls for new ways of consuming and has defined the concept of “second life of objects” (SVO in French). This term refers to the practices that allow an object to be used again by keeping or not its shape and use: objects, once produced, can be successively used and possessed by many consumers in their lives. SVO includes practices of *reuse* (the shape and the use do not change), *repair* and *redistribution* –consumers transform the use of the object– but it differs from *recycling* –the object is destroyed and only its raw materials are used. If giving an object a second life can be done in every step of consumption – acquisition, use and disposal– this research focuses on the third step, when consumers dispossess an object, by selling it, giving it or bartering it. This research aims at understanding consumers’ representations of dispossession and their associated practices in the context of objects’ reuse.

The dynamics of dispossession in the context of objects’ reuse

If practices of gift-giving, sales or barter are not new –flea markets have existed since the 16th century– several phenomena have influenced their redevelopment: an ecological awareness of hyper consumption’s negative effects, various economic crises, which have impacted consumers’ purchasing power, trades opening allowed by Internet and the progressive detachment concerning possession (Botsman & Roger, 2011). The renewed interest for this set of practices calls for a deeper understanding of this phenomenon, in line with research on second hand markets (e.g. Belk, Sherry & Wallendorf, 1988; Denegri-Knott & Molesworth, 2009), practices of bartering (Dalli & Fortezza, 2016) or gift-giving (Bergadaà, 2006).

Research shows that giving an object a second life is explained by ecological, economic, social and hedonic elements: consumers reuse their objects to preserve the environment or to meet financial needs (Ertz, Durif & Arcand, 2017). By doing this, consumers search for practicality, self-expression or socialization and their practices are influenced by objects’ value (a more valuable object is less reused) or by sociodemographic characteristics such as age or financial resources (Van de Walle, Hébel & Siounandan, 2012).

If reuse behaviors have been predicted (Guiot & Roux, 2010) and symbolic meanings of these practices emphasized (Belk et al., 1988), research mainly focuses on specific practices and on consumers who retrieve and appropriate previous owned goods –showing how these objects raise paradoxical feelings (e.g. Roux, 2010). The counterpart of appropriation –the ways

consumers dispossess objects to allow them to be reused– has been overlooked, which is problematic given the importance of this issue from an ecological, social, or market perspective. This research is intended to fill this gap, by exploring the dynamics of dispossession and go beyond the role of possession in the self-construction (e.g. Belk, 1988; Wallendorf & Arnould, 1988).

When consumers choose to dispose an object, they can commit themselves to disinvestment rituals to help them breaking away from their objects and purifying them. This is related to dispossession that is defined as a psychological and emotional process in which a consumer gives up his material and symbolic links with an object (Roster, 2001; Young & Wallendorf, 1989). These rituals are essential to allow the object to pass from a domestic and personal space to another and depends on the object's, individual and communal characteristics (Albinsson & Perera, 2009). Prior works on dispossession in the context of transmission (Price et al., 2000) or sales (Lastovicka & Fernandez, 2005) show that dispossession is a means to defining oneself and constructing one's identity, which can help “*rejecting a past-self (what is not anymore or has never been “me”), claiming a present self (a “me” I think to be or I want to be) and constructing a future self (a “me” I want to become)*” (Lemaitre & De Barnier, 2015, p. 14).

Using Practice Theory to study the process of dispossession

Prior research on dispossession and reuse have mainly focused on discursive analysis. As dispossession in the context of reuse is an observable and ordinary performance of consumption and spatiotemporal contexts, using a practice-based approach seem relevant (Schatzki, 1996). Practice Theory, initially defined by Reckwitz (2002) and Schatzki (1996) is inspired by Bourdieu (1979) and Giddens (1986) but differs from their approach: Bourdieu (1979) introduces practices in his social action theory and *habitus* concept with the objective of understanding how practices evolve, are reproduced and contribute to social order. For Giddens (1986), practices are continually recreated by social actors and are stabilized in social structures.

In consumer studies, Practice Theory gets out from consumption behavior's analysis that sees in consumption a means to symbolically communicate with society (Warde, 2005). Practices are seen as a space of social representations and an organized manifestation of human actions (Schatzki, 2002). A practice is made of doings and sayings, routinized behavior resulting from individual performances and made of corporal and mental activities, rules, knowledge, things, technologies, temporal and social structures (Reckwitz, 2002). Practices are “*forms of social realizations linked to material arrangements*” (Roques & Roux, 2018, p.39).

From an empirical point of view, Practice Theory considers the different dimensions that characterizes practice, beyond the purely individual aspect and the discourses. These dimensions (cf. Table 1) have raised debates. Schatzki (2002) identifies practical understandings (know-how, routines), rules (prescriptions, instructions on ways of doings) and teleo-affective structures (goals, emotions, meanings, which can also be considered as engagement for Warde, 2005) but does not consider the material culture –even though, objects and technologies are essential to understand practices (Reckwitz, 2002; Warde, 2005). For analytic purposes, different frames have been used to examine consumption's practices. Magaudda (2011), Shove and Pantzar (2005) or Arsel and Bean (2013) opt for an *object-doings-meanings* approach respectively in the contexts of recorded music listening, Nordic walking or home design. Woermann and Rokka (2015) use a concurrent frame to examine the concept of timeflow in the context of freeskiing and paintball –material set-up, bodily routines and skills, teleoaffective structures, rules and cultural understandings.

In these works, temporality and space are central: practices are spatially and temporally situated. For example, Evans (2012), in his study of household’s food waste practices, identifies that professional and personal schedule constraints influence waste production. Gregson, Metcalfe and Crewe (2007), by exploring conduits of ordinary objects’ divestment, suggest that divestment is a spatialized practice and that objects have trajectories: how or where placing objects constitute narratives of consumers and their social relationships.

Table 1. Dimensions of practice theory

Schatzki, 2002	Reckwitz, 2002	Warde, 2005	Shove and Pantzar, 2005 ; Magaudda, 2011 ; Arsel and Bean, 2013	Woermann & Rokka, 2015
Practical understanding	Body	Understandings	Doings	Bodily routines and skills
	Mind			
	Agent			
	Process			
Rules	Knowledge	Procedures		Rules
Teleoaffective structures	Discourse/ Language	Engagement	Meanings	Teleoaffective structures
				Cultural understandings
	Things	Items of consumption	Objects	Material set-up

Suggested field and methodology

We think that working on clothes as a fieldwork would be appropriate, as clothes are everyday life mundane objects that are likely (1) to have different status for the consumer and (2) to cover different practices of dispossession. In addition, depending on the context, the object is likely to have different trajectories within the owner’s home. It can be associated to different knowledge and expertise (for example, how to sell it, how to manage the relationship within the family/couple following the decision to dispossess from it etc.), goals (making money, generously helping someone etc.), emotions (relief, anxiety etc.), rules (for example, rituals of divestment) or meanings etc.

In terms of methodology, given the dynamic aspect of the research, a longitudinal multi-sited ethnography of consumers’ ways to get separated from objects to be reused seems relevant as it would enable to cover a wide range of contexts. Data collection could therefore combine introspection, logbooks filled by consumers, interviews, observations and photos/videos to grasp the complexity of this practice.

In sum, this paper opens a new landscape of research on the ways people dispossess their objects to give them a second life. It also allows us to discuss people/objects’ relationships in the context of durability and to introduce practice theory in the understanding of objects’ reuse.

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