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Meet Collaborative Consumption: Paving the way to  
consumer decision-making in Shared Mobility

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~Master Thesis~

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26 May 2015



## **Acknowledgements**

We would like to thank our supervisor Jon Bertilsson, who supported us during the whole research process and shared necessary advices for the improvement of our thesis. Warm thanks to Stein Kleppestø for directing us in the choice of the topic and further consulting regarding the research details.

We would also like to thank the interviewees, Ben, Dani, Daniel, Ira, Jule, Julian, Klaas, Linette, Lykke, Philipp, Santiago and Yannick, who showed great willingness to assist us and provided key empirical data for the study. We also warmly thank Anna Lena and Ljupco for their valuable comments and thoughts at the moments of confusion and uncertainty.

Finally, we would like to thank our families for the patience they showed while listening about our work and the inspiration they were giving us. We also thank all our group mates and future masters in International Marketing and Brand Management for the long discussions we all had about our progress, positive motivations and incredible moral support.

## **ABSTRACT**

**Title:** Meet Collaborative Consumption: Paving the way to consumer decision-making in Shared Mobility

**Date of the Seminar:** June 1st, 2015

**Course:** BUSN39: Master Thesis in International Marketing and Brand Management

**Authors:** Iana Starostovich and Alejandro Sánchez Contreras

**Supervisor:** Jon Bertilsson

**Language:** English

**Keywords:** Collaborative Consumption, Shared Mobility, Car-sharing, Ridesharing, Decision Making, Consumer Motives

**Thesis purpose:** The current thesis aims to deepen the knowledge in the field of Collaborative Consumption with particular emphasis on the Shared Mobility segment. The main focus lays on the consumer decision-making and factors motivating them to take part in ride- and car-sharing. Moreover, the authors concentrate on the differences between motives of the user as supplier: (1) driver in ridesharing and the user as pure consumer (2) passenger in ridesharing and (3) driver in car-sharing.

**Methodology:** The qualitative research design based on the semi-structured interviews aids the research intention to reveal the underlying reasons of the consumer decision-making. The snowball sampling technique facilitates the selection of the interviewees participating in Shared Mobility first randomly and further through the use of referrals. The empirical data is iteratively analysed with the use of grounded theory combined with hermeneutics approach.

**Theoretical perspective:** In accordance to the research purpose, the examined theoretical dimensions touch upon consumer behaviour and include: Consumer Attitude to Possession, Materialism, Individualism and Collectivism and Trust.

**Empirical data:** 12 semi-structured interviews with consumers of Shared Mobility from Germany, Ukraine, Spain, the Netherlands and the USA.

**Conclusion:** The results of the research confirm the dominance of self-centred motives such as cost-efficiency and convenience in comparison to more ethical ones including altruism, community belonging and environmental concerns in the consumer decision-making. Furthermore, the experimental values of SM were identified as trend appeal and experience as well as global nomadism was considered to form a new attitude to possession reasoning a higher

leaning towards SM. The authors also show the contradictory role of socialisation in Shared Mobility and the importance of storytelling and ICT capabilities for the development of trust in order to take the risks associated with SM. Finally, this research concludes that the differences in motives of the decision-making for different types of consumers are not crucial and mainly relate to the distinction within the general motives.

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**Abbreviations:**

CC: Collaborative Consumption

SM: Shared Mobility

B-2-C: Business to Consumer

B-2-B: Business to Business

P-2-P: Peer to Peer

ICT: Information and Communications Technology

PSS: Product Service System

RM: Redistribution Markets

CL: Collaborative Lifestyles



# 1. Introduction

*“Why not share rather than own?”*

*(Belk, 2007)*

## 1.1 Problem definition

The worldwide expansion of the services involving collaboration and sharing between consumers strikes the imagination of scholars, practitioners and mainly owners of traditional businesses, which face with the biggest shift on the market along with the emergence of new competitors (Silver, 2013). For instance, hotel industry has to face the apartment-sharing company Airbnb, or taxi services have to deal with the ridesharing company Uber. The scope of services that can be covered is broad and diverse: accommodation, transport, food provision, small daily tasks, etc. (Times, 2015). Thus, nowadays consumers have an opportunity to build their lifestyle based on the collaborative services and apply a new way of consumption behaviour.

The pioneers in theorising the area of sharing Rachel Botsman and Roo Rogers (2011) pay attention to the absence of a generally accepted term unifying together all the types of collaborative services. Nevertheless, they incorporate the term “Collaborative Consumption (CC)” as an umbrella concept, whilst the often used “Sharing Economy” and “Peer Economy” are seen only as components of CC (Botsman, 2013). CC is defined as “an economic model based on sharing, swapping, trading, or renting products and services, enabling access over ownership” and more importantly CC “is reinventing not just what we consume but how we consume” (Botsman, 2013). Therefore, in the current research the authors will refer to the term Collaborative Consumption as it focuses not only on sharing services themselves but also on the changes in consumer behaviour.

The main dimensions of CC encompass sharing of accommodation and vehicles (Times, 2015). The apartment-sharing is mainly represented by one large company working worldwide - Airbnb. In contrast, sharing of vehicles comprises dozens of organisations, which offer a variety of services reposing on different concepts and ways of working. These services fall under the definition of Shared Mobility (SM), introduced by Cohen & Kietzmann (2014), who define SM as a scope of companies that address needs in transportation and infrastructural issues by enabling sharing between consumers.

Interestingly, there are different reasons that motivate consumers to take part in SM and help them to trust new services where the participants need to rely on unfamiliar people (Botsman,

2012). However, these reasons are still on debate. Various scholars argue that consumers either simply seek self-benefits such as cost saving (e.g. Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Möhlmann, 2015), or they are driven by more ethical concerns such as willingness to help (e.g. Ozanne & Ballantine, 2010; Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher, 2014). In addition, there is a diversity of users who play different roles in SM such as suppliers (car owners) or pure consumers (passengers), thus their decision-making may be dissimilar (Collaborative Consumption, 2014).

To summarise, the described issues are particularly interesting within the SM segment, where consumers offer, share or use each other's vehicles that are valuable for them emotionally and financially. In fact, the SM services are recognised as the ones relating to a high-risk consumption where the monetary losses and psychological damage in relation to the automobile being misused are very significant (O'Sullivan, 2015).

## **1.2 Background of Shared Mobility**

The classification of SM services differs from author to author. In the current thesis the division is based on the position of Cohen & Kietzmann (2014) who claim that SM involves (1) car-sharing - the companies owning a fleet of cars and providing them for rental to registered drivers, (2) ridesharing - the platforms matching drivers of privately-owned vehicles and people in need for a lift, therefrom both driver and passenger travel to a common destination in the same car, and (3) bike-sharing - the firms implementing stations with bikes available for public rental.

However, bike-sharing is characterised by several features that distinguish this service from the others within SM. First, unlike ride- and car-sharing, bike-sharing is often controlled and supported by city administrations as transport means for tourists (Cohen & Kietzmann, 2014). Second, the monetary value of a bike significantly differs from the value of an automobile, thus it is less risky to share. Finally, biking is a single-handed process, which does not include sharing of mutual space and direct contact with another person. Hence, further in the thesis, SM is used as the generalising concept with the emphasis on car-sharing and ridesharing whereas bike-sharing is excluded from the current area of the academic investigation.

Historically, the first SM communities emerged more than 20 years ago in Germany and Switzerland (Katzev, 2003). Generally, the European region entered a SM market notably earlier than other countries. Today, according to the study conducted by the University of Berkley, singly car-sharing generates over 1.2 million members driving 17 thousand vehicles all over the world (TSRC, 2014). Moreover, Navigant Research (2013) estimates the generated revenue of SM services as 1 \$US billion in 2013 and forecasts the double growth of this figure in 2020. Currently, the USA and Germany are the biggest SM markets with almost two million members in total (Plimmer, 2014).

In addition, Navigant Research (2013) predicts the reduction of the traditional vehicle ownership, which is explained by the change in the market demand. Consumers start leaning towards

flexibility and convenience of SM in comparison to the financial and physical burden of private car ownership. Specifically, young generations are considering owning a personal vehicle as a cost rather than a benefit and replace it by “short-term rental” and “shared ownership” (Belk, 2013). However, young people who do not purchase cars and give the preference to SM today may do it in the future once they form a family (ibid).

Furthermore, the fast growth of SM reinforces traditional companies to react to the emergence of new competitors. In this manner, Mercedes and BMW started their own car-sharing services – Car2Go and DriveNow – aiming to meet the growing demand (Steinberg & Vlasic, 2013). In more details, Car2Go offers customers a rental of two-seats Smart cars for approximately US\$ 41 cents per minute with the opportunity to park free of charge at all legal parking spaces within the city of rental. The cars can also be used one way and be left at any point (Car2Go, 2015). The service is highly popular, especially in big cities such as Washington, London and Berlin, where consumers usually spend a significant amount of time in the search of a parking space and pay high parking fees (Plimmer, 2014).

### **1.3 The Principles and Main Trends Leading to the Rise of CC and SM**

It is worth to notice the four principles described by Botsman & Rogers (2011) as being essential for the functioning of CC. First, the principle of “critical mass” stands for the point of time when the system stores a certain number of users, deals and companies. At this moment, the system starts to operate without additional support from outside. In SM critical mass implies the participation of active drivers and passengers, who are willing both to offer and to consume.

The second principle “idling capacity” means that the CC system should accumulate an adequate amount of goods and services that can be distributed among consumers. For example, Atcheson & Green (2012) notice that the sum of vehicles that stay unused for 92% of the time is close to 250 million units in the USA. Hence, large number of cars generates the mentioned idling capacity of goods, which utility is highly underused (The Economist, 2013).

The third principle is “belief in the commons” (Botsman & Rogers, 2011). During the last years the Internet has been educating consumers to believe that certain things can belong to everybody. Online sharing of files, articles, images, feedbacks and experiences developed the basis for appreciating advantages of networking and community-building (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). In a similar way, the technological evolution and Internet expansion fostered a fast growth of SM worldwide (Cohen & Kietzmann, 2014).

Finally, the fourth principle “trust between strangers” is one of the most surprising features of CC (Botsman & Rogers, 2011). In practice, trust is mainly built upon ranking systems which enable the creation of trust between consumers (Botsman, 2012). For example, in ridesharing drivers and passengers can evaluate each other, leave comments, feedbacks and likes. This

contributes to a virtual reputation of the participant, which serves as a measure of how trustworthy the user is (ibid).

The scrutiny of the four main principles of CC arises the question – what trends led the society and business to reach the critical mass of users, accumulate the idling capacity of goods, believe in commons and trust strangers? The impact of trends on the change in consumption patterns and eventual success of CC and SM is highly relevant as it assists the understanding of the reasons for consumer engagement. In relation to this project, four main trends were identified.

### **1.3.1 Urbanisation**

Many scholars argue that urbanisation is a significant driver for the emergence and success of CC (e.g. Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Cohen & Kietzmann, 2014). Urbanisation implies the movement of the population from rural areas to cities. Nowadays 54% of the world population lives in urban territories and this number is currently increasing (WHO, 2014). Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) notice that CC gained the highest popularity in growing cities, which can be explained by several factors.

To begin with, space limitations motivate consumers to change their attitude to ownership. Urban citizens do not have opportunity to store unused goods, therefore they are highly interested in a higher utility of things (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). An example of urban sharing is garden communities. A number of firms working in the UK and the USA matches consumers, owning a plot of land, and citizens, lacking of backyard or back garden but willing to grow plants and work on land (Botsman & Rogers, 2011).

Furthermore, too large population of cities generates traffic congestion and parking demand issues (Katzev, 2003). Car-sharing services due to their flexibility and convenience help cities to overcome these problems (ibid). Moreover, ridesharing is one of the most effective ways of dealing with traffic, since it maximises the usage of automobiles that otherwise would be driven with some of their seats unoccupied (Germann, 2009).

Considering the illustrated advantages of CC, public administrations of big cities promote the idea of sharing and encourage the population to become a part of CC (Johnson, 2013). A new concept of shareable cities attracts thousands of followers in urban agglomerations such as Berlin, San Francisco, Seoul and Amsterdam (Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego, 2013).

### **1.3.2 Environmental Consciousness**

The impact of urbanisation on CC is closely related to another global trend – increasing environmental consciousness (Cohen & Kietzmann, 2014). The decades of hyper-consumption resulted in number of sustainable problems on a global scale as a consequence of the so-called throwaway lifestyle characterised by consumerism and production of disposable and shortly used products (Botsman & Rogers, 2011). In the response, environmental consciousness and

sustainability are trends that have the potential to change the market and business towards cleaner production, concern for resources, focus on longevity and higher demand for organic and natural products (Lorek & Fuchs, 2011). Sharing business models are widely considered to be environmentally friendly and hence attractive for many customers interested in these issues (Leismann et al., 2013).

In particular, the automobile industry is a source of noise generation, air pollution, carbon monoxide and hydrocarbon emission (Katzev, 2003). In this context, the United States is one of the largest polluters in the world. The image of big American car promoted by car manufacturers contributes to the fact that on average American residents consume 19 million barrels of fuel per day (EIA, 2015; Renshaw, 2014). These problems also explain why the American society became the largest market for SM services as it helps to reduce the number of new cars and maximise the utility of existing ones. For example, the examination of the market showed that one shared car replaces 15 privately-owned ones (The Economist, 2012).

### **1.3.3 Changes in World Economy**

The years of financial crisis had a negative impact on thousands of consumers all around the world. People went to unemployment and faced difficulties to pay regular bills (Botsman & Rogers, 2011). At this tough period of time, sharing services became a saving solution for many consumers trapped into recession. Botsman & Rogers (2011) describe several life stories of Airbnb hosts who obtained a chance to solve their financial issues by renting out a free space in their apartments and houses. Besides, American online platform TaskRabbits that connects its members for the accomplishment of small tasks contributes to the unemployment reduction (Botsman, 2012). Consumers facing a difficult financial situation can make a grocery shopping, assemble furniture or make a laundry for members of TaskRabbits network. By doing so, the most successful “rabbits” can earn up to 5000 US\$. With regards to SM, the owner of a Toyota Camry in the USA has the opportunity to earn around 6250 US\$ per year by participating in car-sharing. CC consumers can not only earn additional money but also save their costs as collaborative services charge lower fees in comparison to traditional companies (ibid).

### **1.3.4 Information and Communications Technology (ICT)**

The development of technologies and the Internet is one of the major driving forces that triggered the emergence of CC (Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2015). This is explained by the main characteristics of contemporary Internet environment Web 2.0, such as interoperability, usability and user-generated content. They enable the creation of online platforms where consumers can easily interact, share and collaborate. The absolute majority of collaborative services involve advanced web-platforms, mobile applications and other technical tools emphasising the fact that technology is a core of CC (ibid).

Flexibility, quickness and accessibility of current ICT provide the main advantages of CC, making it highly attractive for consumers. For example, technologies make it possible to find a car, bike or a place to stay within a few minutes (The Economist, 2013). Moreover, Cohen & Kietzmann (2014) notice that ICT decreases transaction costs, makes sharing of assets easier and therefrom available on a global scale.

Further, Belk (2007) says that sharing on the Web gave grounding for further sharing tangible objects in real life conditions. Sharing opinions and thoughts on the Web were the first steps on the way towards sharing cars and homes (Botsman & Rogers, 2011). Similarly, being the members of online communities transformed into real collaboration as, for instance, members of Taskrabbit do while helping neighbours with their daily tasks (Botsman, 2012). Lastly, social networking, online openness and blurring of national boundaries online enhance worldwide mass collaboration.

## **1.4 Structuring Collaborative Consumption**

All types of collaborative services have two characteristics in common: non-ownership of the products and services, and dependency on the Internet (Belk, 2013). There is a high variety of products and services under the umbrella of CC, thus in order to classify them Botsman & Rogers (2011) outline Redistribution Markets (RM), Collaborative Lifestyles (CL) and Product Service System (PSS). First, RM are based on giving goods free of charge, e.g. “Freecycle.com”, swapping goods for others, e.g. “Swap.com” or selling used goods, e.g. “eBay.com” (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). Accordingly, used goods such as books, clothes, make-up, toys, etc. instead of being thrown away are redistributed to consumers, who can use them again.

Second, CL posit upon social interaction and sharing of intangible goods. This type of CC services commits to a higher community spirit and builds up the network of users. An interesting example is SharedEarth, a non-profit organisation that “connects people who have land with people who wish to garden or farm”, therefore enabling them to grow their own natural food in other people’s lands or gardens (SharedEarth, 2015). Further, in Wikipedia consumers share their knowledge about different topics in an open and free online encyclopaedia, with the goal of making knowledge available for everyone (Wikipedia, 2015).

Finally, PSS unite consumers who are more interested in the utilities and benefits of the product than in its possession. The Shared Mobility services including both car-sharing and ridesharing belong to PSS, thereby the authors particularly illustrate the classification of the services within this system.

### 1.4.1 Structuring Shared Mobility

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Cohen & Kietzmann (2014) first introduced SM as the unifying concept, thus further the variety of SM services will be categorised on the basis of their research. They specifically identify three different segments within SM, namely (1) car-sharing, (2) ridesharing, and (3) bike-sharing. In spite of having common characteristics, business models of car-, ride- and bike- sharing are dissimilar with different marketing strategies and value propositions.

First, in car-sharing customers pay for time and/or distance whilst costs such as fuel, parking and insurance are included. The B-2-C model of car-sharing consists of companies that own a fleet of cars and rent them in different locations of a city. In most cases, the users have to become members and pay a yearly fee. During the period of membership they get access to various cars throughout the city using the electronic card. In addition, within B-2-C car-sharing, there are two different types of organisations depending on the drop-off point: round-trip models are those where the car needs to be returned to the starting point (e.g. Zipcar), in contrast to point-to-point models where the car can be left in any place (e.g. Car2Go). On the contrary to B-2-C, in P-2-P instead of the company private individuals rent out their private vehicles. P-2-P companies, e.g. RelayRides, act as intermediary between the owners and the drivers bringing them together through an app or an online platform. Lastly, there is the non-profit car-sharing, in which the members of the organisation control it themselves and do not expect any financial benefits, e.g. Modo.

Second, ridesharing is the next group of SM business. This type of SM encompasses owners of vehicles getting in touch with passengers willing to get a ride from one location to a common destination on exchange of an agreed price. Examples of these are Carpooling.com and Liftshare. Additionally, there is a flexible ridesharing, in which no prearrangement of the ride is necessary. Instead, there are meeting points where drivers and passengers get together and arrange the rides. There are also non-profit ridesharing organisations, which services are not driven by financial benefits.

Finally, bike-sharing implies services providing a fleet of bikes in different locations of a city on exchange of a membership fee and a variable price for the usage. Another interesting model is publicly owned bike-sharing, in which the local city takes care of the funding and manages the service, in some cases in cooperation with a private company.

To summarise, the authors structure the scope of CC service in Figure 1 in accordance to the three systems presented above:

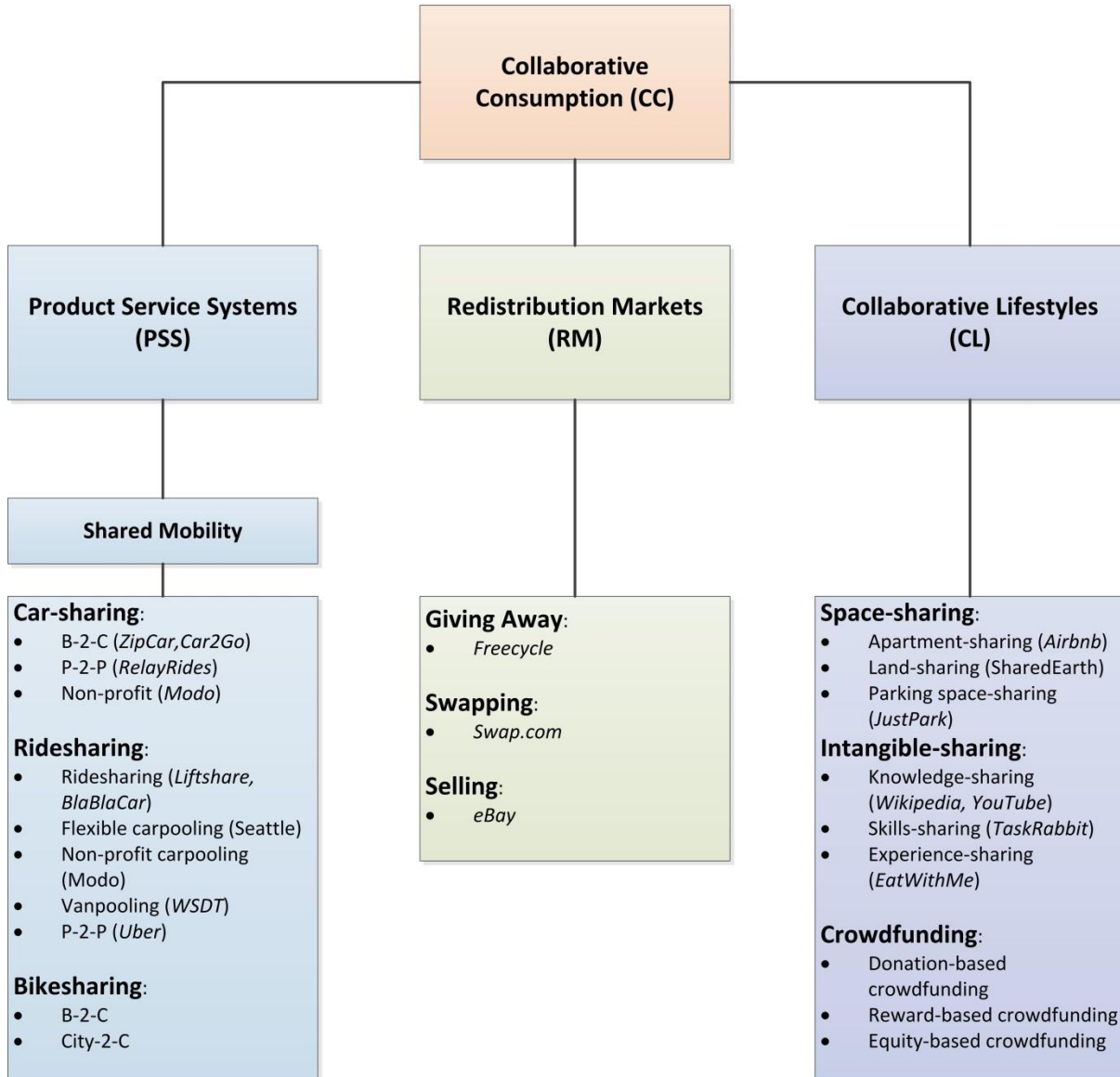


Figure 1. The classification of CC Services (Botsman & Rogers, 2010; Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Cohen & Kietzmann, 2014)



## 1.5 The Pitfalls of Collaborative Consumption

Although CC involves many advantages, there are few issues that require the particular attention of the current research. As depicted by Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012), sharing services, specifically Shared Mobility, are strongly affected by negative reciprocity. It means that while one member of a community shares, another one consumes without necessary level of responsibility for another person's belongings (ibid). Malhotra & Van Alstyne (2014) also notice that many consumers carelessly treat things that are not their personal possessions. Moreover, the companies operating in the collaborative sector are often lacking tools to handle the situation when one member of the sharing network does not fulfil his/her obligations (ibid). For example, the apartment-sharing service Airbnb was involved in a big conflict when one consumer found her house in San Francisco shattered and robbed. She sued on Airbnb and the court satisfied her issue imposing an obligation for Airbnb to pay the compensation (Pawlowski, 2011). Only after this act of vandalism Airbnb implemented 50,000 US\$ guarantee for its hosts in case their houses will be damaged (Chesky, n.d.).

Another issue confronting CC relates to social and psychological obstacles including lack of trust and materialism, which inhibit the decision to become a part of CC, especially on the initial stages (Botsman, 2012). Perceived risks are high despite the companies incorporate various online tools to overcome this problem. For instance, the ranking systems allow evaluating the provider of the service; therefore the virtual reputation of the network member contributes to actual collaboration (ibid). Online ridesharing platforms such as Blablacar encourage members to publish their picture along with the description of their route (Johnson, 2013a). In addition, the web-site shows the membership duration and feedback from consumers who previously shared the ride with this person (ibid). Regarding materialism, Belk (2007) mentions it as being among the main obstacles to share. Materialists view possession as a foundation for their happiness, thus they are reluctant to share with others.

Finally, big players on the market put many efforts on lobby in order to create obstacles for a proper work of sharing services. This way Uber, taxi service based on ridesharing, was banned in Germany as tax evader (Malhotra & Van Alstyne, 2014). In this context, Glotz-Richter (2012) explains that consumers in other countries can consider unethical to use the services similar to Uber due to a damaged reputation concerning their competition with regular taxi services. Similarly, the hotel industry approaches governments due to the threat of bankruptcy linked to the growth of Airbnb (Malhotra & Van Alstyne, 2014).

## **2. Literature Review**

As it was described above, Collaborative Consumption is a unique phenomenon in the current business environment. In particular, Shared Mobility changes the way consumers perceive the opportunities for transport. In this Chapter, the authors outline the prior research in relation to the consumer decision-making in Collaborative Consumption with a special emphasis on the field of Shared Mobility. The prior research is grouped according to the four perspectives. First, the authors discuss the number of studies focused on the social side of CC comprising the role of socialisation, peer interaction and altruistic values. Second, the research examines the scholars who shed the light on self-centred motivations driving consumer decision to take part in CC. They include various financial concerns, seek for utility and convenience. Third, prior literature that concentrates on ICT is reviewed and criticised. Lastly, the authors investigate the scope of papers oriented to environmental issues and benefits consumers find in CC in this regard.

### **2.1 Socially-Oriented Perspective**

The prior research devoted to consumer behaviour with respect to sharing and collaboration encompasses the studies on community belonging, social interaction and altruism forming the group of socially-oriented perspective. Generally, the potential of CC to become a basis for a strong consolidated consumer community is among its main characteristics as pointed out by Botsman & Rogers (2011). One of the earliest studies linked to the topic of the current research was conducted by psychologist Lita Furby (1976). Despite her paper does neither refer to CC nor to SM, it examines the attitude of young students and adults to their possessions and sharing of them. As sharing underlies the concept of Collaborative Consumption (Botsman & Rogers, 2011) this study is relevant for the current research. Furby (1976) indicates peer interaction as being essential while people decide to share or not. Furthermore, peer interaction develops a positive attitude to sharing as well as the only fact of one's sharing might cause more sharing by others (Furby, 1978; Ozanne & Ballantine, 2010). Belk (2007) also highlights that sharing creates particular bonds between people who further might continue doing favours to each other. It is explained by the concept of positive reciprocity, meaning that sharing is reasoned by the expectation that others will also further share in response (Furby, 1978).

In addition, Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) along with Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher (2014) also scrutinise CC from a social point of view. They notice that CC contributes to meeting new people, trusting them and eventually building stronger and more connected communities. For instance, the consumers of Ecomondo – the British online platform for lending and borrowing goods, space and skills – define the chance “to connect with local community/ lending circle” as one of the main motivations for being a part of the service (Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher, 2014, p. 6). In contrast, the assumption of Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) that the networking is important for members of car-sharing service Zipcar was not confirmed in their study.

One can argue that various ethical reasons such as the belief that sharing is good, fair and kind motivate people to collaborate (e.g. Furby, 1978, Ozanne & Ballantine, 2010). For instance, the study of consumers of a sharing toy library in a local neighbourhood showed that its members are driven by the desire to care about others and the good feelings obtained after sharing with a local group (Ozanne & Ballantine, 2010). This is related to the concern for the other's welfare, meaning that people wish to be generous when sharing and make other people happy. However, Ozanne & Ballantine (2010) analyse the relationship between neighbours whereas the collaborative services in focus of this thesis perform sharing between complete strangers.

Concentrating on daily situations and sharing with close friends and family, Belk (2007) adopts altruism as a strong motive for sharing and collaboration. Altruism implies "disinterested and selfless concern for the well-being of others" (Oxford Dictionary, n.d.). In his later work Belk (2013) again mentions altruism as well as the fact that sharing became part of the modern consumer culture among the main reasons for collaboration.

## **2.2 Self-Centred Perspective**

CC services may act as symbols of societal changes towards more sharing and more caring. Nevertheless, most people are still seeking for self-centred benefits while using CC. In proof of this assertion, the qualitative research by Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) represents the members of the car-sharing company Zipcar who "access cars because it increases their own personal utility, rather than because it contributes to a collective utility" (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012, p. 889). Beyond this, they explain that consumers find self-beneficial to have access to products that otherwise they would not be able to own or they would not be willing to own.

In a similar vein, in the study conducted by Möhlmann (2015), self-benefits are proven to play a major role for consumers in CC. In her research, the consumers of two services, namely the car-sharing company Car2Go and the apartment-sharing platform Airbnb demonstrate the significance of financial benefits and utility as the reasons for their decision to join CC. Nevertheless, Möhlmann (2015) does not distinguish between the motivations of guests and hosts in Airbnb. The authors of this thesis deem that this distinction is important as the hosts of houses provide access to their valuable belongings and expose themselves to a higher risk. Therefore, motivations of consumer decision-making in CC outlined by Möhlmann (2015) might be based on false assumptions.

More interestingly, people find important to have fun and satisfy their hedonic desires while sharing. In more details, Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) reveal the experimental value of SM as one of central importance. Car-sharing users have the opportunity to drive different models and forms of vehicles, which address their desire to experiment. Besides, Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen (2015) determine "Enjoyment" as a major driver for participation in CC.

Furthermore, Belk (2007) discloses egoistic motives of sharing, for example, on the contrary to altruism discussed in the previous section, he distinguishes “cheap altruism”. This term implies the way of collaboration when person is keeping access to a thing while sharing it with others. It mainly relates to intangible goods, for instance, digital files, personal information, or academic material. Another identified motive is the principle of “unlimited good”. The knowledge about the unlimited access to goods motivates to share with ease caused by the feeling of fixed supply of the good; thereby the person is not concerned about its loss (ibid). Moreover, sharing with the person in a higher need might be referred to the feeling of power and control (Belk, 2007; Furby, 1978). Consequently, sharing of goods (both intangible and tangible) brings the feeling of power based on group possession of unique resources.

## **2.3 Information and Communication Technologies Perspective**

Many scholars argue that social media and Web 2.0 acted as catalysts for the emergency of contemporary CC services (e.g. Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Grzunov & Zekanovic-Korona, 2014). However, it is interesting whether the opportunities provided by the rise of ICT are important insofar that they can facilitate consumer decision to take part in CC. The supportive position to this assumption is shown in the very recent researches conducted by Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen (2015) and Möhlmann (2015). The former investigates CC from the online perspective focusing on file- and information-sharing platforms such as Wikipedia, Pirate Bay and Sharetribe, rather than collaborative services involving the exchange of real objects. The quantitative study directly concentrates on why people participate in CC, nevertheless it is lacking certain areas. For instance, the survey takes into account not only active users of CC but also people who are registered on the web-site but did not take part in any sharing service. With regards to decision-making, this type of respondents seems irrelevant as far as they did not use the services.

Following the common judgment about the importance of ICT for consumers in CC, Möhlmann (2015) tests the variables - Internet capability and Smartphone capability - in her quantitative research on aspects influencing consumers of Car2Go and Airbnb. The assumption however was not supported by the results of the survey. The respondents did not lay emphasis on the capability to connect via the Internet or mobile application while assessing neither the degree of their satisfaction with the service nor the likelihood of using the service again.

Echoing Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen (2015), Belk (2013) says that the rise of the Internet is the main driver for consumers in CC. The author also gives the examples of online music- and film-sharing and points out the fact that most times people are ready to share on the Internet without any compensation. For instance, it is common to share videos, pictures, comments, ratings, knowledge, etc. on websites such as YouTube, Flickr or Wikipedia. Furthermore, the study performed by Yannopoulou, Moufahim & Bian (2013) highlights that apartment- and couch-

sharing services such as Airbnb and CouchSurfing contribute to online openness by redefining a stranger to a friend and incorporating friendship rankings where the users have the opportunity to mark another member as a good or close friend. Besides, consumers' profiles on social media facilitate trust and safety feeling, which motivate their decision to continue using the service.

## **2.4 Environmental Perspective**

As noticed before, scholars also scrutinise CC from the angle of environmentally friendly moods in society. Indeed, Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher (2014) identify sustainable motives as the most significant in their quantitative study of the users of the sharing platform Ecomondo. The fact that Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher (2014) investigate CC purely from the environmental perspective is clearly seen in their definition of CC. They determine CC as a way “to avoid, or at least delay, waste by bartering, swapping, gifting, renting, trading, lending and borrowing multiple, underused or unwanted goods between groups of individuals” (Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher, 2014, p. 1). The results of the survey showed “the desire to be green” as the primary among other reasons for joining Ecomondo. However, the fact that Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher (2014) study a platform with an environmentally friendly mission is a possible reason for the green attitudes of its users.

Controversially, although Zipcar, analysed in the research by Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012), promotes environmental benefits of CC among their main values similarly to Ecomondo, its users denied the prevailing meaning of environmental concerns. Car-sharing members underlined that monetary concerns are more important than ethical ones. For instance, Zipcar charges a lower fee for more sustainable hybrid models of vehicles, however most of the customers admitted that their decision to choose these models was driven only by the desire to save money.

Then, the questionnaire spread among the users registered on Sharetribe.com shows interesting results. Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen (2015) test “Sustainability” as a motive to participate in CC. This aspect is studied from both attitudinal and behavioural points of view by reason of a possible discrepancy between desire and action. As the result, many users showed a positive attitude to CC due to its environmental benefits, nonetheless this motive did not influence their actual decision to become a part of sharing service.

In further support of the environmental perspective, CC is considered to be a form of anti-consumption in the study of Ozanne & Ballantine (2010). In more details, anti-consumption implies consumer behaviours such as a higher attention to ethical and environmental considerations of producers as well as purchasing fewer commodities in general (ibid). The research shows that consumers share mainly for the reasons not directly but partly related to anti-consumption. For example, the type of consumers named “Socialities” have a feeling of

community when sharing and seem to have anti-consumption attitudes, however the opportunities for social interaction are more significant for them than their commitment to anti-consumption.

Additionally, the study of Liesmann et al. (2013) examines three cases of CC, namely tool hire, chemical leasing and textile swapping as illustrations of the movement to a resource-saving consumption culture. Despite the research does not directly focus on decision-making, Liesmann et al. (2013) believe that promotion of sustainable advantages of CC will attract a significant amount of consumers.

## **2.5 Research Gap**

According to Botsman & Rogers (2011), the business world is entering the era of “Co-“. More and more articles are devoted to “Co-working”, “Co-renting”, “Communities”, “Co-operations”, etc. Consumers all around the world are engaged in the new sharing trend of CC, and the principle of “What’s mine is yours” establishes a new consumption culture. Nonetheless, the novelty of the CC field is the reason for the absence of commonly accepted definitions, characteristics and clear differentiations between services and actors within them (Botsman, 2013). Besides, there is still a lack of general theorising in this area of knowledge along with a scarce research on the reasons explaining why consumers engage in CC, or the obstacles preventing them from the participation in collaborative services (Collaborative Consumption, 2014).

Although a number of papers scrutinises the factors influencing the decision to share, they focus on sharing within a close social circle including family, friends or neighbours (Belk, 2007; Furby, 1976; Furby, 1978; Ozanne & Ballantine, 2010) rather than sharing between consumers that are not familiar with each other. Moreover, the existing studies do not take into account the difference between people that demand the services as pure consumers and people that supply the products of sharing. For instance, Möhlmann (2015) studies consumer behavior of all users of the apartment-sharing platform Airbnb without the division between guests and hosts in shared houses. Similarly, the prior research focuses exclusively on the car-sharing dimension of Shared Mobility (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Yannopoulou, Moufahim & Bian, 2013) whereas the investigation of ridesharing remains scarce.

Another shortcoming in the contemporary literature on CC is the predetermined focus of the research, whether be it strong accent on the technologies and Internet (Belk, 2013; Grzunov & Zekanovic-Korona, 2014; Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2015; Yannopoulou, Moufahim & Bian, 2013), sociology (Belk, 2007) or environment (Liesmann et al., 2013; Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher, 2014). Hence, most authors view this phenomenon from the particular angle and the research scope is limited.

In the current thesis, the authors intend to deepen the knowledge in relation to consumer behaviour solely in Shared Mobility including both ride- and car-sharing and the motives leading them to take part in these innovative services. In addition, the organisation of the research process and data collection is formulated without the emphasis on any particular issue such as environment, social aspects or technologies. Moreover, the purpose of the study is to consider the positions of the different types of users and identify a possible difference between the factors driving their decision-making.

## **2.6 Aim of Study**

Considering the above, the aim of the research is to determine what factors motivate consumers to collaborate in the Shared Mobility services from the perspectives of the user as a supplier: (1) driver in ridesharing, and the user as a consumer: (2) passenger in ridesharing and (3) driver in car-sharing.

### **2.6.1 Research Questions**

Taking into account the aims of the study, the following research questions are formulated for further investigation:

1. *What are the motives of the consumer decision-making in Collaborative Consumption within the Shared Mobility segment?*
2. *How do the motives of the decision-making differ in relation to the different types of the users in Shared Mobility?*

### **3. Theoretical Foundations**

In this chapter the authors introduce the theoretical core of the research on Collaborative Consumption and decision-making in Shared Mobility. Four interconnected theoretical dimensions provide the basis for a deep examination of contemporary consumer culture and consumer behaviour in CC as well as help answering the stated research questions. First of all, as CC involves different degrees of ownership transfer, it is important to penetrate the consumer attitude to possessions and the role they play in consumers' lives. Second, materialism as a state of mind when possessions define the levels of satisfaction and happiness is scrutinised. The prosperity of materialistic values restrains consumers from sharing and triggers the widespread admiration for possessions and the boost in conspicuous consumption. These characteristics arise another theme touching upon consumer culture - individualism. Nevertheless, CC is considered to be the activity that requires teamwork and collaboration, hence the leveraging collectivistic values as the ones opposing individualism provoke a particular interest for this research. Furthermore, the demonstration of collectivism within CC is seen in the establishment of the relations between consumers not familiar with each other and the acceptance of potential risks. Therefore, the examination of trust issues is highly relevant. The authors advocate that the analysis of the four mentioned theoretical dimensions will further aid the interpretation of empirical material and facilitate the analysis and discussion.

#### **3.1 Consumers and Their Possessions**

It is highly important to understand how meaningful possessions are for consumers and what motivates them to share their own belongings with others. To a large extent possessions are identified with consumers' personalities due to a high attachment people tend to give to particular things. In the early study Belk (1988) provides various evidences proving the significance of possessions in the sense of self and self-perception. He argues that possessions support consumers' selves as the belongings they have are the reflection of their personalities. For instance, Belk (1988) points out the negative feelings the person has about self when the possessions are damaged, lost or stolen. However, possessions influencing the extended self include not only objects in their traditional meaning but also surrounding people, locations, mutual belongings and physical body. In this context, the study shows the assessment consumers gave to the various objects – both tangible and intangible – in relation to their selves. As a result, possessions were placed higher than other people including family and abstract ideas such as morality or law. Besides, Belk (1988) emphasises the fact that consumers impose their identities on possessions and vice versa.

Moreover, possessions provide consumers with the sense of stability and link them with the material world. Thus, for example, the associations with the past that possessions absorb motivate people to bring them to new places of living. The attachment to belongings builds the confidence and preserves the people's selves from change (Belk, 1988). For example, the car is



perceived as a significant part of the extended self for the majority of young men in the USA as an ideal self-concept. Taken into account the importance given to automobile, many efforts put on its maintenance are unsurprising. One can compare the damage occurred with the car to the injuring owners' own bodies. Consequently, the impossibility to recover the car to its previous condition can lead to its replacement by another one as the reflection of the own self recovery (ibid). This treatment to the car shows that part of the identity along with the amount of feelings imposed upon a material good can be exceptional.

More deeply, the feeling that consumers have towards the objects of ownership might take the form of the attachment named "material possession love" (Lastovicka & Sirianni, 2011, p. 323). This term is defined as an extent to which a consumer feels "positive emotional attachment to an object" (Lastovicka & Sirianni, 2011, p. 324). The mentioned emotions result in the heightened care about the possession and purchase of additional accessories that can improve the object of material possession love. In extreme cases feelings towards possessions can replace the feelings towards another person. The high degree of loneliness in the modern society and consequent fear to be disappointed in interpersonal relationship contribute to possible substitution of human being by goods (Lastovicka & Sirianni, 2011). As an example, automobile owners often devote much time, spend more money than they can afford, improve the knowledge about details and process of work, etc. Therefrom, it is hard for consumers to dispose the objects representing a high emotional value for them to strangers (Lastovicka & Fernandez, 2005). However, Furby (1978) notes that the control over the use of an object is a factor enhancing the easiness to make the decision to share.

Usually consumers store outdated objects projecting a future physical detachment with them and only when specific period of time passes they are ready to sell or give them away (Lastovicka & Fernandez, 2005). Furthermore, while selling the valuable object the owner feels a higher satisfaction by giving it to a likeable person, who is more likely to treat it in a nice way in the future. It is also explained by the self-extension the owner of the object experiences when transferring the possession to another person. In fact, it is possible to create a shared self even with a complete stranger on the assumption of having a similar identity (ibid).

In contrast, Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould (2012) argue that contemporary attitudes to possessions and their impact on self differ from the one discussed during the last 25 years. The scholars pay attention to the rise of global nomadism and new views the participants of this movement have regarding the ownership. Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould (2012, p. 511) determine global nomadism as "serial relocations, frequent short-term international travel, and deterritorialisation". Whereas traditionally people identify themselves with the places where their belongings are located and consequently possessions serve as anchors for them, global nomads perceive possessions as a burdening aspect that inhibits their mobility. This attitude to ownership is named "liquid" by Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould (2012) that infers detachment and flexibility in relation to the

possessed objects. Moreover, the utility of owned things is described as a main feature that is of interest for frequently-moving consumers.

Considering the fact that ride- and car-sharing are services often used by frequent travellers (Deng, 2014), global nomadism as growing phenomenon might have an impact on their perception of possessions and therefore attitude to CC. Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould (2012) underline that attachment to belongings becomes increasingly questionable in the contemporary globalised world due to the frequent changes in consumers' identities. Consumer culture evolves towards the dematerialisation of the goods, thus Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould (2012) argue that solid and anchoring features of possessions decline in their importance. Nevertheless, the meaning of possessions in consumer life still stays on one of the prevailing positions. This can be explained by the dominance of materialism in consumer culture that will be discussed in more depth in the next section.

### **3.2 Materialism**

Belk (1985) determines materialism as the extent to which personal happiness is identified with the possessions consumer has. High degree of materialism requires frequent purchases and attention to the material value of the objects. However, often materialists do not find happiness through buying things since the satisfaction after the purchase quickly vanishes (Simms & Potts, 2012). As the result, consumers tend to buy again but find themselves in a dissatisfaction circle. In most cases materialism is perceived as a negative feature of modern consumerism, which involves lacking of generosity, prioritising of ownership along with being jealous and greedy. Nonetheless, the negativity of materialistic traits is arguable (Belk, 1985).

More importantly, possessiveness as a desire to own or control possessions is one of the main characteristics of materialism (Belk, 1985). In more depth, possessiveness comprises a need for a higher control over belongings and hence reluctance to sharing, renting or borrowing possessions (Belk, 2007). Similarly, non-generosity outlined by Belk (1985) as another characteristic of materialism, constraints the willingness to share belongings with other people.

Furthermore, materialism implies the rise of egoistic feelings in consumer minds whereas altruism falls into insignificance. However, in his review Belk (1985) notices that egoism is not a flip coin but a reason for altruism. This way reciprocity, mentioned in Chapter 2, is an illustration how consumers committing to prosperity of others expect the future responsive actions beneficial for them.

Additionally, materialism is positively related to values such as power, achievement and work but negatively related to benevolence and family (Pieters, 2013). This results in a higher competitiveness, willingness to spend less time on social activities and decrease of trust to others. Thus, it is observable that the nature of materialism is the opposite of the characteristics

of Collaborative Consumption, which include social interaction, openness and belief in the commons (Botsman & Rogers, 2011).

More detailed understanding of other reasons that give a rise to materialistic features in consumer behaviour is represented in Pieters' (2013) division of materialism in three subtypes. The first subtype, "acquisition centrality", involves the search for pleasure when spending money, buying and possessing objects. "Possession-defined success" is the second subtype, which relates to the objects consumers possess as a way to be admired by others. Finally, "acquisition as the pursuit of happiness" means that consumers seek happiness by purchasing things instead of relationships or experiences.

A new approach suggested by Simms & Potts (2012) is named "new materialism" meaning a new way how consumers relate to the materialistic world and new attitudes towards ownership, sharing and caring for things. Although consumers continue to give a high meaning to possessing, they also value social relationships and care for the environment. In terms of social benefits, new materialism involves the transfer of skills and knowledge from the expert to the apprentice, which results in a more solidary and satisfied lifestyle. With regards to environmental consciousness, the practical skills common among older generations, for example, mending clothes, commit to goods re-usage and waste reduction.

### **3.3 From Individualism to Collectivism**

The rise of CC leads to the emergence of a new measure of value that posits on transparency, common prosperity, collaboration, help and respect that can be determined as a potential change to more collectivistic behaviours (Quilligan, 2009). According to Hofstede (1984), collectivism as an opposing term to individualism means a high integration of individuals into groups. Moreover, in individualistic societies self-image is identified as "I" whereas in collectivistic ones as "We". Thereby, individualists tend to give attention and take care only about themselves and closest relatives without considering interests of a wider group (ibid). Generally, individualistic cultures cherish privacy and focus on personal interests (Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego, 2013). In contrast, cultures with a higher level of collectivism are leaning towards more sharing (ibid).

Although nowadays individualism plays a significant role in consumer culture, CC models shape a new segment of business that is less profit-oriented and more inclined to communal consumption and co-production. According to Quilligan (2009, p. 38), co-production implies "the collaboration of resource users and resource producers and providers through open social networks". Thus, consumers all over the world find inspiration in developing new values within communities, looking for solutions of mutual problems in cooperative manner and spreading the idea of beneficial usage of common resources (ibid). Likewise, Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego (2013) affirm that the meaning of CC for society is underestimated and perceived too

narrowly. They believe that CC is greater than the simple usage of several popular services and has a capacity to develop a collective mind-set and boost sharing values among consumers.

Parsons (2014) also notices that most of the existing definitions related to CC often elide that it is “the communal, collective production that characterises the collective commons”. The advocates of a greater social meaning of CC clearly portray its regard to collectivism. Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego (2013) stress that CC is a new way of thinking where prosperity is not associated with ownership of commodities, and where over-consumption and material-intensity are exchanged with collaboration and sharing. Hence, optimistic views on CC consider the phenomenon as a ground basis for change in North American and Western European wealthy societies.

Nevertheless, the commercial motives of many collaborative services saw the seeds of doubt among critics who argue that CC is far from changing the society towards more collectivistic values (Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego, 2013). Belk (2007) also questions whether a modern society is heading towards even more individualistic values and less sharing or in opposite consumer behaviour changes in favour of collectivism.

The interesting point is that humans are cooperative by nature, which is confirmed by Furby (1976). Her research of the communal spirit among children shows their instinctive willingness to share and cooperate. Only with aging, social frames educate a child how to be more individualistic and, consequently, shape different attitudes to ownership. Currently, the shift to more sharing and less owning is the principle that accompanies the societal change in attitudes to consumption, especially among young generations (Parsons, 2014). Moreover, big cities, e.g. Seoul in South Korea and Copenhagen in Denmark are involved in the project called “Shareable City”, which aims to integrate CC in the everyday lives of citizens (Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego, 2013). In addition, consciousness of mutual threat brings people together and reinforces the collaboration. In this manner, CC companies often promote sustainable advantages of sharing and its contribution to efficient usage of the resources that in turn encourage consumers to co-operate in order to solve mutual problem (ibid).

In conclusion, the paradoxical side of the CC phenomenon is its popularity in the countries with a high level of individualism. For instance, the United States simultaneously is the biggest car-sharing market (Plimmer, 2014) and the country with the level of individualism measured at 91 out 100 (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego (2013) highlight that even in highly individualistic cultures consumers are engaged in CC, e.g. car-sharing due to its convenience. Nevertheless, being initially motivated by utilitarian reasons, consumers become more open to other types of collaboration. Consequently, the self-beneficial motives can be transformed into more collectivistic ones with the growth of CC adoption.

### **3.4 Trust**

Botsman (2012) highlights that collectivistic values promoted as a part of CC help building up trust in contemporary consumer culture. Therefore, the issue regarding trust is highly relevant in relation to the today's business environment including the industry of CC. In SM, where the drivers share their cars with strangers, the element of trust is particularly interesting (Botsman, 2012). The case of SM simultaneously grasps the online and the offline world, because the first interaction takes place via the web-site or phone, but the service is performed in person. In this section the authors depict the concept of trust and online trust as well as consequences and antecedents of trust.

#### **3.4.1 Consequences of Trust**

As explained by Mansour, Kooli & Utama (2014), consumer trust is a significant issue for the companies operating online. Despite the expansion of the Internet, consumers are still reluctant to shop online due to the perceived risks referring to the reliability of e-transaction and information presented by the producer (*ibid*). Therefore, the collaborative services that are based on the online platforms cope with the consequences of trust outlined by Gefen (2000). First, lack of trust can negatively influence consumer purchase intention and prevent them from taking risks associated with the online services. The level of the perceived risk closely relates to trust and consequently also affects the purchase intention. This means that the high perceived risks restrain the willingness to buy the product or use the service presented on the Internet, in contrast, a high level of trust reduces the uncertainty and scepticism and motivates the decision to buy. As the result, consumers might get involved in the activities even though the risk is present to some extent (*ibid*).

According to Gefen (2000), the mechanism of trust is based on the expectations of both sides of interaction (e.g. the driver and the passenger in ridesharing), which are shaped by their previous experiences. With regards to ridesharing, the driver expects to get paid by the passenger at the end of the journey and the passenger expects the driver to arrive to the meeting point at the agreed time.

#### **3.4.2 Antecedents of Trust**

According to Gefen (2000), online trust is difficult to build up since interaction between consumer and the company do not happen in the real world but in the virtual one. In order to overcome this issue he points out that familiarity is an antecedent of trust that directly affects purchase intention. The difference between familiarity and trust involves that the former is related to the "understanding of the current actions of other people or of objects", while trust involves the "beliefs about the future actions of other people" (Gefen, 2000, p.727). In the context of SM, familiarity would imply that the passenger knows how to search for a ride on the website and contact the driver; whereas trust would mean that the passenger pays through the

website sharing his bank account information and expects that the ride will take place as arranged. Further, as Gefen (2000) explains familiarity can be enhanced by the previous experience of the users with the service, while trust is harder to establish as it deals with the uncertainty and complexity of other people's actions.

In addition, Mansour, Kooli & Utama (2014, p.28) offer a conceptual model widely used to classify the antecedents of online trust, it involves personality-based trust, cognition-based trust, and institutional-based trust. First, personality-based trust can be illustrated with an example of ridesharing. Thus, it refers to (1) whether the driver seems capable of driving the car in a reliable way, (2) whether the driver seeks a common benefit with the passenger apart from his/ her own gain and (3) whether the driver intends to comply with price and route agreed with the passenger.

Second, cognitive-based trust is another trigger of online trust that is created from consumers' knowledge and the information about buying online that they receive from friends or relatives. This latter source of knowledge is especially relevant when the consumer does not have own experience. Another factor that influences positively cognitive-based trust is the reputation of the seller (Mansour, Kooli & Utama, 2014). Moreover, the scholars explain that cognitive-based trust is also affected by people's calculations of the possible costs and benefits of a transaction. This means that people try to grasp beforehand what the economic consequences of being scammed are. As it is pointed out, if the trustee has no intention of making a profit then the other party will probably trust more.

Lastly, institutional-based trust is facilitated by the institutions that provide norms, procedures and certifications. For instance, the availability of the certificate contributes to consumer feelings of safety and security. Trust is also influenced by the quality of an online company, which depends on the accuracy of the information about the company and its products or services provided on the website.

## **4. Methodology**

### **4.1 Pre-study**

According to Malhotra (2010), the pilot survey is one of the techniques of exploratory research, which assists in gaining insights into the phenomenon under the academic investigation. The authors needed in the first place to identify the most relevant segments within Collaborative Consumption given the high diversity of the involved services. For this purpose, a short pre-study in the form of survey (Appendix I) was launched on social media platforms. The survey consisted of three questions inquiring about the respondents' experience within CC services. Eventually, the answers from 74 respondents helped to define the focus of the study as Shared Mobility due to a high amount (64%) of the respondents participated in this type of services. Therefore, this high number of Shared Mobility users suggested that it was easier to access participants for the data collection. Moreover, the results also helped to clarify which role (supplier or consumer) the respondents were more often playing in SM (56% - consumer, 6% - supplier and 19% - both). The variety of accessible types of consumers confirmed the opportunity to examine the differences in their motivations.

Summarising, the pre-study was necessary in order to narrow down the research scope from the generality of CC services to a particular and relevant SM segment named Shared Mobility. The pre-study was insignificantly time-consuming and was performed before designing the research plan.

### **4.2 Analysis of Research Questions**

Furthermore, it was necessary to analyse the research questions in order to obtain a deeper understanding of how to organise the research process in accordance to them (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The first question intends to uncover the motives that lead consumers to engage in SM services, therefore the examination of their decision-making is required. This process was complex to analyse as it was closely connected to the individual's inner world and influenced by multiple factors such as psychological, societal, economic, environmental and ethical concerns. Besides, consumers could be unconscious about their own reasons, hence it had to be taken into account in the research design due to the risk that the informants were reluctant to share their real motives with the interviewers.

The second research question was less challenging counting that it aimed to compare the decision-making motives that were unveiled by the interviewees. Nevertheless, it was important to consider that the interviewees representing different types of users of Shared Mobility services could perhaps respond and behave in different ways in the process of interviewing.

### **4.3 Philosophical Standpoints**

The analysis of epistemological and ontological positions was essential for the further formulation of the research strategy and design. Moreover, the scrutiny of the philosophical traditions helped to expand horizons of the authors' knowledge and improve the quality and originality of the research (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). The epistemology and ontology represent two opposing philosophical perspectives, which are nonetheless connected to each other (ibid).

Regarding ontology, the research questions were viewed from the constructionist viewpoint as it is illustrated by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson (2012). Constructionists emphasise the significance of structuring and making sense of the data, especially language data, and accepts many truths for the same object of study. This was an adequate approach in relation to the aim of this study since each consumer makes decisions following own motivations, thoughts and feelings. It is also essential that the researchers collect different stories from the users and interpret them as the world might have different meanings and views depending on each person. For instance, some consumers might decide to share a car because they want to save money, therefore attaching more importance to financial concerns, whereas others could base their decision on environmental concerns.

Further, the optimal epistemological position for the current research was closer to the interpretivists since it is considered to be more suitable for conducting qualitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Interpretivists view the reality as something subjective that is constructed and given a meaning by people (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). Thus, the emphasis was placed on the thoughts, feelings and communication of individuals (ibid). This helped the authors to interpret the different decision-making processes of the interviewees, eventually making sense out of it and understanding their attitudes, motives and behaviours when taking part in Shared Mobility.

### **4.4 Research Strategy and Design**

As discussed in the previous section, constructionism was the most appropriate view to develop the strategy of the current research. Constructionism supports the idea that social actors are co-producers of phenomena rather than just bystanders and therefore it highlights the role of individuals in building up the social reality (Bryman & Bell, 2007). This viewpoint is connected to qualitative approach. Moreover, a qualitative research strategy often implies an interactive relationship between theory building and data collection that leads to the creation of theory emerged from the empirical data (ibid). This, in turn, means the adaptation of an inductive approach that offers more flexibility than a deductive one and thus was more convenient for this research (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).



Furthermore, Bryman & Bell (2007) underline the use of qualitative research when the problem is not formulated precisely and the initial exploration of the subject is scarce, which was the case of the current topic linked to the decision-making in Shared Mobility. The use of qualitative research was also supported by the fact that people are often unable to provide subconscious information when filling in an unaided and strictly-structured questionnaire such as those used for quantitative studies (Malhotra, 2010). Therefore, the qualitative approach is argued to be more useful when the researcher wishes to tap the subconscious of the interviewees, which was the aim of this research. The main disadvantage of qualitative research design is the inability to generalise the results, however, it can be used for generating ideas and hypotheses (Malhotra, 2010).

## **4.5 Methods of Data Collection**

The main necessity of every research is the collection of relevant empirical data. In order to understand what influences consumer decision-making process, the chosen method had to address diverse and contradictory views of the individuals. The qualitative strategy of the current research was mainly concentrating on the interviews as the way of primary data collection. In addition, the structured literature review aided the authors in defining the research gap and preparing the interview questions.

### **4.5.1 Literature Review**

The examination of the published material helps to determine the subject of interest, points of criticism and existence of similar studies. A clear focus was of vital importance while reviewing the literature (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). It was also critical to remember that reviewing the literature is an ongoing process throughout the research (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). The authors followed the strategy suggested by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson (2012) who divide the literature review into four stages: (1) initial overview of the material in relation to the research question, (2) critical judgment of the selected literature and identification of weaknesses in previous studies, (3) supportive search of the literature, (4) systematisation of the review, which reduces the subjectivity of the judgment. Considering the fact that two persons conducted the current study, the fourth step was essential as a guarantee that both of the researchers chose enough relevant and creative material. Moreover, as suggested by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson (2012), prior to the literature review several criteria, such as presence of peer-review, well-defined connection to the aim of this study and usage of primary data, were elaborated for assessing the relevance of the found material.

As mentioned before, the authors intended to confirm the quality of the literature by selecting peer-reviewed material. Nonetheless, due to the recency of the chosen topic, practitioners' as well as academic publications were observed. As contemporary literature is mainly available online, it consists of particular keywords (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). Thereby, determining the relevant keywords, such as car-sharing, sharing economy and collaborative

consumption made the search more convenient. The found material was stored in an Excel table with explanatory comments for further facilitation of teamwork.

Additionally, research communities provided the authors with a valuable knowledge including discussions and debates within CC. In the current research the authors had an eye on two online communities, namely the web-platform “Collaborative Consumption” and the LinkedIn Group “Collaborative Consumption Europe and Sharing Economy” in order to gain a deeper knowledge of these areas of knowledge. The official web-sites and corporate literature of the SM companies (e.g. RelayRides, Zipcar, Blablacar) also proved to be a useful tool for investigating the dynamics of the industry and consumer preferences (Malhotra, 2010). Thus, theoretical acknowledgement served as a basis for the next stage – semi-structured interviews.

#### **4.5.2 Interviews**

Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, (2009) argue that the use of qualitative interviews is convenient for understanding factors regarding decisions, attitudes and meanings. As noticed by Bryman & Bell (2007) unstructured and semi-structured interviews are two major types suitable for revealing the interviewees’ beliefs. These characteristics addressed the purpose of the thesis to understand what influences the respondents’ motivations to take part in Shared Mobility. In comparison to the unstructured type, semi-structured interviews were less risky as they involved a rough guidelines of the interview-process (Appendices II, III) with focus on the theme and purpose of the research at the same time remaining flexible (Bryman & Bell, 2007). As the result, the researchers were prepared and did not completely depend on improvisation. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews provided the opportunity to study both rational and irrational reasons of consumer behaviour and understand the detailed judgment of the respondent on the investigated problem (ibid).

The authors conducted nine interviews in person and three via Skype with consumers of ride- and car-sharing services who are all students and used SM mainly in Germany, but also in the Netherlands, the USA, Spain, Ukraine and Denmark (Appendix IV). The interviews lasted on average 25 minutes and were fully recorded on audio as suggested by Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2009) with previous consent, and later transcribed on a computer. Besides, it was admitted that the interviewee may request to stop audiotaping with following opportunity to refuse participation. In addition, nine out of twelve interviews were conducted in pair. In case one of the researchers felt confused, the other one helped to keep the interview going in the right direction. To avoid complication of the interview process, previously the sequence of events and the interviewers’ roles were arranged (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Besides, a romantic position was adopted by the authors due to its relevance for the revealing of behavioural motives (Alvesson, 2003). In particular, romanticism implies building up trust, establishing closeness to the informants and interviewing in a more personal and active way. Thus, adopting this approach enabled the authors to dig into the interviewees’ inner world and

understand their ideas, feelings, intentions and attitudes. According to Alvesson (2003), in order to overcome language and social biases, it is essential to reach a high theoretical understanding and to adopt a reflexive approach. This provided two advantages for the current thesis. First, the authors tried to avoid the research naivety and did not assume that the empirical material implicitly showed the reality. Second, the reflexive approach helped the researchers to be aware of the complexity and richness of the gathered material, which contributed to challenging and verifying the researchers' own interpretations.

Lastly, some interviewees were less willing to disclose their thoughts but using the right techniques facilitated the work. A solution to tackle this was the technique of laddering, which showed to be highly useful for uncovering individual attitudes and motives of the interviewees and receiving answers to "why" type of questions (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012).

#### **4.5.3 Sampling**

Bryman & Bell (2007) highlight the difficulties to achieve transparency in selecting the respondents for qualitative interviews, nevertheless there are several sampling techniques commonly used in qualitative studies. As SM is not widely used by the population, Malhotra (2010) suggests to use the snowball technique in order to select the interviewees with rare characteristics. By using the mentioned technique four candidates for the interviews were chosen at random by the only criterion of being a consumer of SM services. Further, in order to reach the necessary amount of intended 12 interviews enough for studying homogeneous groups (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009), the authors applied referrals. In other words, the interviewees were asked to share the contacts of person(s) who also participated in SM if they knew any. As the result, the selected interviewees were female and male, between 23 and 28 years old and they used various types of Shared Mobility services in different countries.

#### **4.6 Analysis of Empirical Data**

As pointed out by Bryman & Bell (2007), the grounded theory is the most prominent way of the qualitative data analysis. The grounded theory analysis comprises the development of concepts and categories, which then scrutinised and combined, contribute to the emerging of a new independent theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Several aspects can explain the relevance of the grounded theory as the point of the departure in the analysis of empirical data. First, it emerged in sociology and therefore most explicitly reflects on the principles of sociology in comparison to other methods, which is valuable for qualitative research (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012). Second, the grounded theory contributes to the credibility and trustworthiness of the results (ibid). More importantly, the grounded theory analysis serves as a foundation for a new theory that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The theory within the grounded analysis is created, developed and verified in different conditions through the systematic collection and analysis of data related to the studied field (ibid).

In case of the current research the grounded theory analysis mostly served as an inspiration for the bottom-up approach applied by the authors since the original approach to grounded theory analysis, suggested by Glaser & Strauss in 1967, is theory hostile (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2009). The method is highly data-oriented and may inhibit the development of non-trivial knowledge. The grounded analysis is claimed to be elevated from the categories lying on the ground to more abstract concepts based on the gathered empirical material, however Glaser & Strauss (1967) as cited by Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2009) disregard a possible inspiration the researcher can obtain from the theory. Consequently, the grounded analysis in the current thesis is combined with the hermeneutics approach, which concentrates on interpretation and outlines that every research is a process of interpretation (Alvesson and Sköldbberg, 2009).

The mixture of two methods is argued to be a common feature of contemporary qualitative research strategies (Gummesson, 2005). It assisted the authors in the application of a more iterative process of analysis, in other words going back and forth between empirical and theoretical material. The combination of grounded and hermeneutic methods facilitated the discovering of a new understanding of the decision-making motives within SM segment with simultaneous incorporation of the existing studies. Moreover, the chosen iterative approach contributed to the improvement of reflexivity and reduction of the academic naivety described by Alvesson (2003) while more conceptual categories were elaborated. Based on the mixture of methods, the categories were arisen on the basis of the collected empirical data and supported by the prior studies on decision-making in CC and SM.

In addition, new technical tools were used. The program InqScribe was employed in order to facilitate the transcription of the recorded material. The further coding of the qualitative data was performed with the use of the online tool Dedoose.com. The ability to elaborate categories and subcategories contributed to more precise coding and structuring of the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

## **4.7 Reliability**

The authors put emphasis on the reliability of the study throughout the whole research process. One of the main issues is connected to the risk of receiving inadequate answers from the interviewees and therefore withdrawing wrong conclusions. In order to avoid violation of the research results several precautions were taken as suggested by Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2009). To begin with, the authors intended to reduce the participant error, when the interviewee answers wrong unconsciously due to the conditions, place or time of the interview. Hence, the researchers tried to minimise this risk by adapting to the preferences of the interviewees and being flexible to their schedules and locations. This factor could increase their comfort and enhance the collaboration.

There was also the risk of participant bias, meaning that the informant avoids being honest for his/her own benefit or due to an external influence (ibid). Thereby, the researchers were friendly and supportive in order to create a proper atmosphere where they could openly express themselves in an honest way. Moreover, the informants were assured that their answers would not be used in an inappropriate way that jeopardises them. Lastly, the interviews were not particularly long (approximately 25 minutes), which was important for the informants since it minimised their feeling of “time-wasting”. Subsequently, the risk of losing quality and depth in their answers was reduced.

Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2009) also explain reliability issues touching upon the researchers. For instance, to overcome the so-called observer error both researchers were present during the whole interviewing process, and they agreed beforehand on the questions that each of them would ask as well as the way the questions should be asked. The researchers also conducted a pilot interview with a volunteer in order to test the logic of the questions’ order, the duration of the interview and the general effectiveness of the questions. As well as most interviews, the analysis of the empirical material was performed in pair, thus both of the researchers discussed and agreed on each aspect. In addition, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson (2012) highlight that working in teams can be very effective when there is a synergy of backgrounds and skills. As this thesis was performed by peer students within the same master studies, both had aligned goals and expectations, which eventually decreased conflicts of interest and enhanced commitment. Moreover, although the research team encompasses a male and a female person of different nationalities, the research dynamic was not inhibited by any ethnical and cultural issues.

Finally, regarding the questioning, the researchers tried to address as many open questions as possible in order to not bias the outcomes (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2012) and obtain more complete answers (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Likewise, complicated terms and long or sensitive questions were also avoided (ibid). The interviewers also helped out the informants to understand the questions and guide them when they showed lack of understanding.

## **4.8 Limitations**

The qualitative strategy of the research poses particular weaknesses with regards to its reliability. The study of the social setting such as consumer decision-making is difficult to replicate. Besides, the sample, in spite of being adequate to provide significant conclusions for the thesis, is not enough to generalise the results (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Moreover, the homogeneity of the interviewees could bias the results, since all of them are students in their twenties and seven out of twelve informants represent the German SM market. Furthermore, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson (2012) indicate an issue to obtain trust from a person one meets for the first time and get truthful and open responses. Lastly, the possible lack of interviewees’ openness might have an impact on the drawn conclusions.

With reference to the grounded theory analysis, the time needed for transcribing the data might have a negative impact on the process of interpretation due to a high time limit (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In addition, the little experience of the authors might impact the quality of the research process, particularly in relation to the scarce skills essential for conducting the interviews. This fact could create certain constraints for the flow of the interview and hence for revealing necessary information.

## **5. Empirical Findings**

In this chapter the authors report the empirical data collected as the result of 12 semi-structured interviews. In order to facilitate the chosen grounded theory analysis as one of the main methods of the data examination, 167 codes were derived based on the transcribed material as suggested by Corbin & Strauss (2008) (Appendix V). Each code in this research represents a short phrase capturing the essence of language data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Moreover, codes were assigned with the frequency it was mentioned by interviewees, nevertheless this factor did not have a significant impact on the development of the categories and the following analysis. Further, the codes were transformed into eight categories depicting a variety of motives having influence on the decision-making in SM. Most of the determined categories are mentioned in the prior studies on the decision-making in CC, however several unique motives were also indicated. The list of categories consists of:

1. “cost-efficiency” as the opportunity to cover costs and save money,
2. “convenience” as the chance to obtain flexibility, utility and comfort,
3. “communication” as the interaction between participants of the sharing service,
4. “trend appeal” as the attraction to the novelty and popularity of SM,
5. “experience” as the desire to experience the adventure and enjoy unpredictability of the service components,
6. “new attitude to possessions” as the change in the perception of ownership,
7. “ICT” as the capabilities of contemporary ICT,
8. “scarce ethical concerns” as the lack of altruistic, communal and environmental considerations.

Lastly, as the authors aim to make the distinction between motives of the different types of SM users, namely drivers in ridesharing, passengers in ridesharing and drivers in car-sharing, they structure the following categories accordingly in those where it is clearly observable.

## 5.1 Cost-Efficiency

The observation of the conducted interviews shows that the monetary benefits of SM services play a major role in the consumer decision-making. Various aspects in relation to the cost-efficiency influence the choice in favour of SM, for instance, the lower price rates than in public transportation, the chance to split or cover costs for fuel or the opportunity to get an extra income.

Also the authors noticed that the interviewees refer only to people of low income and young age (including them) while talking about the SM experience, whereas their parents or friends of an older age are not considered being interested in the services of this kind. It is explained by the reduced level of comfort acquired by the consumers engaged in SM in comparison to the traditional ways of mobility (i.e. cab or private car). Consequently, at the moment the person reaches the income level enabling him/her to afford an own car or take a cab SM services lose their attraction.

Besides, even though the main financial benefit of SM addresses saving of money, there is a number of differences depending on the role the consumers play in the service. Hence, the authors distinguish between financial motives of drivers in ridesharing, passengers in ridesharing and drivers in car-sharing.

### 5.1.1 Ridesharing – Drivers

Most of the interviewees who take part in ridesharing as the drivers are interested in splitting or covering the costs of the fuel. In addition, the drivers point out that the ride will happen regardless the fact if someone responds to the offer to share. However, the majority of the times the drivers in ridesharing manage to fill in the car. For instance, Julian, who regularly gives rides, comments:

*Julian:* “I did it (ridesharing) a few times and it was really good because I was saving money - petrol is really expensive in Germany. Eventually, I had to pay around ten euros myself for such a long distance. Otherwise I would pay something like 100 euros so I saved a lot of money”.

As it is clear from Julian’s response he did not gain additional money from his trips but had to pay himself a significantly smaller amount for fuel. Nevertheless, other informants specified the opportunity to earn money on sharing the ride, therefore getting an extra income.

More interestingly, the money-saving aspects outweigh possible risks that ridesharing may involve, e.g. suspicious passengers who may avoid paying or be engaged in illegal activities. It was indicated that scrupulousness in selecting the participants of the ride was closely dependent on the need to share costs. Thereby, at the moment the driver was lacking money, he did not give a high meaning to the characteristics of the persons joining the ride.

Similarly, the interviewees emphasised that planning the ride requires a number of organisational efforts such as choosing the meeting point familiar to all the passengers, contacting them, arranging the points of drop-off, etc. Despite the necessity of the mentioned efforts and the fact that the ride can take a longer time, the cost-efficiency is considered to be worth it. In this sense Dani from Spain clarifies:

*Dani:* "If I had an economic necessity I would share it (car) with people and earn some money, so I wouldn't mind then about my flexibility and I would adapt to people".

To conclude, each interviewee stresses the financial motives among the very first reasons for becoming a part of ridesharing in the role of the driver. In addition, many informants perceive non-monetary motives discussed further as additional to the financial benefits, thereby emphasising the prevailing meaning of cost-efficiency.

### **5.1.2 Ridesharing – Passengers**

Similar to the drivers, the consumers that acted as the passengers in ridesharing find cost-efficiency being a very important aspect. However, instead of covering their own expenses, the passengers' motives are focused on the comparison of ridesharing prices with the ones available on public transport. In general, ridesharing options are considered to be lower-priced than train or bus, following the same route, thus SM services provided the noticeable monetary benefits for its users.

Further, it is noteworthy that the informants emphasise that ridesharing is intended for people with low-income, mostly students. In proof of this assertion, all the interviewees used the ridesharing services at the moment of being university students. It is highlighted that when the interviewees are less price-sensitive they tend to choose the public transportation if such an option is available.

### **5.1.3 Car-sharing – Drivers**

Cost-efficiency is also a significant motive for the consumers of car-sharing services such as Zipcar, Car2Go and DriveNow. Nevertheless, the authors found it less prevailing than in ridesharing due to a high meaning of convenience factors that will be explained in the next section.

Although many interviewees own a private vehicle, they find beneficial to use car-sharing. In particular, obvious cost-efficiency of the service is experienced in big cities where parking fees are high. Furthermore, the car-sharing is viewed as an alternative to cab. Daniel, who uses Car2Go in Hamburg, represents this position:



*Daniel:* “I like the idea that it (car-sharing) is more cost-efficient than a cab. For example, if you want to go out at night and you want to go to a friend. If you take your car you have to leave it at your friends' place if you want to have a drink (...). What I often do is taking Car2go one-way and cab back home. It's cheaper”.

Rehearsing the comments of ridesharing participants, consumers of car-sharing underline the fact of having low income. Thus, they state that when there is no need to save money and the informants can afford a comfortable parking space, or a cab both ways, the car-sharing is not taken into account.

## **5.2 Convenience**

In order to facilitate the understanding of factors linked to the convenience they have been divided into those involving ridesharing or car-sharing. Ridesharing users stress its benefits over public transportation in terms of duration and frequency of the rides, whereas car-sharing users are mainly focused on parking benefits, availability of cars, flexibility and spontaneity.

### **5.2.1 Ridesharing**

The main benefit of ridesharing is its flexibility and availability in comparison to public transportation. For instance, the passengers in ridesharing find this service very useful when there is no train or bus available for their route or when there are scarce options suiting their schedule. Moreover, they admit that ridesharing is much faster than public transportation, even when the train or bus connections are adequate. Lastly, they explain that ridesharing is comfortable since they can sit, relax and sleep when they would like to. On the contrary, a few interviewees were in highly uncomfortable situations when the driver aims to use the service solely as a source of income. As an example, Philipp depicts his negative experience:

*Philipp:* “The one to Cologne was in the minivan, he did it for commercial reasons. He filled up the whole car and he drove like hell, 250 km/h in an old minivan. You're sitting and thinking: “Okay, I am going to survive”. It was really bad. He was also late, we waited him for an hour. He does it all the time”.

Other aspect mentioned by the interviewees as drivers of ridesharing is the chance to transfer a large number of things that is more convenient in terms of comfort compared to public transportation.

### **5.2.2 Car-sharing**

One of the most important factors in terms of convenience within car-sharing is parking. Car-sharing companies usually have agreements with the local governments to provide free parking or special conditions to the members of car-sharing community. In addition, some of these companies offer small Smart or Mini cars to rent, which are easy to park in the congested cities.

Hereby, some interviewees mention that they prefer to use car-sharing instead of their own car in order to have the chance to park in the city centre. Others instead argue that it is simply much easier to find a parking spot when using car-sharing.

Another aspect of convenience is flexibility. Daniel mentions that when using car-sharing one can park the rented car, have a drink and go back home by public transport or cab. The interviewees also bring up the fact that car-sharing gives freedom to choose an own destination instead of committing to an agreed route as in ridesharing. Moreover, car-sharing provides space to carry a big luggage and to take friends in the car if necessary.

Furthermore, another important reason for the interviewees to participate in car-sharing is its convenience in comparison to public transportation from different perspectives. For instance, Ben says that car-sharing is especially useful in countries like the United States, where the usage of public transportation is not as common as in Europe, e.g. in order to do grocery shopping the person has to drive far away since the supermarkets are mostly outside the city centre. Furthermore, Santiago and Daniel highlight that car-sharing is faster than public transport, hence they save time using it. Additionally, two interviewees remark that car-sharing can be used spontaneously and for short periods of time (i.e. on demand).

Regarding negative aspects in relation to convenience of car-sharing, the informants pay attention on the fact that every now and then they have to walk a long distance to reach the car, nevertheless it is rarely happening. Lastly, they also mention as a negative experience finding dirty the car they are going to drive.

## **5.3 Communication**

The group of motives within the “Communication” is linked solely to the ridesharing services since generally no peer interaction takes place in car-sharing. These factors have been classified in “Prior Communication” before the service takes place, “Communication at the time of ride” and “Post Communication” after the service occurred.

### **5.3.1 Prior Communication**

One of the factors that influences the decision-making is the ability to have prior communication with the other party before using the service. In opinion of the interviewees, it helps to decrease the perceived risk. For instance, Jule affirms that she usually contacts the driver in ridesharing in order to address him/her the questions about the ride details. Moreover, oral communication over the phone is specifically noticed as a relevant factor for different reasons. In this manner, Daniel comments on his experience as a driver in ridesharing:

*Daniel:* “I preferred talking because I had the experience that when you just text people they never show up”.

Julian, also driver in ridesharing, highlights the factor of verbal communication rather than simply texting:

*Julian:* “If you talk to the person it's more personal and you can see if he is a cool guy or not”.

Similarly, Klaas adds the factor of trust, stating that for him as a passenger talking over the phone with the driver was important in order to make the decision:

*Interviewer:* “Did you find the phone call helpful?”

*Klaas:* “(...) it was more just to get a feeling of who the person was, if he sounded trustworthy so I was okay with that and then just decided to meet up”.

### **5.3.2 Communication at the Time of Ride**

Communication at the moment of the ride is perceived from the different angles by the ridesharing users. Several informants affirm to have a positive attitude towards talking with people in the car and point out that having a good company when driving a long distance is also a reason to share the ride and get the opportunity to talk to the passengers.

On the contrary, a few interviewees show negative attitudes towards communication and declare they are not willing to have a conversation in the car. One of them, a driver, admits: “I want them to shut up or fall asleep. So it's not about any social issues for me”. Another one explains that: “There was from little to no conversation. I was talking with my cousin and the passengers maybe had their headphones on”. Besides, Yannick from Germany adds that the communication can have a significant impact on the comfort of the ride:

*Interviewer:* “Did you feel comfortable with the communication when you were driving yourself or when you were the passenger? Did it make a difference?”

*Yannick:* “When I was a passenger I tried to go to the back seats so I don't have to talk, because the person in the front has to talk to the driver. When I was the driver of course I talked to the person in the front seat”.

*Interviewer:* “Did you have concerns about ridesharing?”

*Yannick:* “Of course there can also be awkward situations when you seat in the front seat and none of you talk because he's awkward or I am awkward. Awkward for 3 hours. That's what I don't like about ridesharing, but sometimes you get a good conversation out of it”.

Generally, drivers often stress the inconvenience of having strangers in the car and describe it as strange, especially when driving a long distance. However, other interviewees point out the freedom to communicate or not during the ride. Thus, Julian explains:

*Interviewer:* “You said you met new people, how did it make you feel meeting strangers?”

*Julian:* “I am quite open person and I like to meet new people. I also start talking myself. Sometimes they don't like it I can see it and I just stop talking with them. Sometimes they are also really talkative and telling me stories and their experiences. It's really cool, I like it”.

### **5.3.3 Post Communication**

Most of the interviewees did not stay in contact with the people they met in ridesharing and they declare that staying connected after the ride does not influence their decision to use ridesharing in the future. However, they mention the stories from their social circle telling about people, who became friends after the sharing experience or simply made useful contacts. Besides, with respect to general sharing practices, making new contacts for the future motivates interviewees to share within CC services such as Airbnb or Couchsurfing.

## **5.4 Trend Appeal**

Most of the interviewees highlight that initially they heard about the SM services within the social circle they are part of. The stories generated by many people that used the service formed a rumour triggering the curiosity among consumers that have not taken part in the collaborative trend yet. Although rare bad experiences in SM were mentioned by their friends, the overall feedback was positive and therefore the informants decided to try car- or ride-sharing.

Moreover, the image of CC as a new trendy dimension of services also played a role in the consumer decision-making. The stories circulating in their social environment described various experiences in SM that motivated consumers to test the innovative services themselves. Likewise, Jule, Linette, Ben and Lykke describe the rumour about the collaborative services:

*Jule:* “When I was in Dusseldorf I had always heard about sharing from people and I tried it myself”.

*Linette:* “A lot of my friends talking about their funny stories. They also always recommend me to use it”.

*Ben:* “Good friend in the US uses Zipcar a lot, German friends use Car2Go. That's super cool. I also know people, who were renting apartments through Airbnb, that's also cool”.

*Lykke:* “Actually I had heard about it before from some of my friends using it. I’ve heard of people who had bad ones. Friends and other passengers in ridesharing. People who have done it for many years had some bad experiences, but it’s like one in a thousand”.

Besides, Linette pays attention to the fact that the attractiveness of the sharing trend as such motivates consumers to take part in SM services. As a user of car-sharing in Germany she cites that it is also exciting for consumers to become a part of the sharing trend and engage in this “new kind of things”.

## **5.5 Experience**

Echoing the previous group of motives, the participation in SM, particularly in ridesharing, is perceived as being exciting and sometimes intriguing. Therefore, the authors recognise the experiential values consumers acquire when being a part of ridesharing.

Several interviewees notice that social interaction while ridesharing was always changeable. It could vary from sometimes being a nice and calm experience to an extraordinary and strange one. The participation in ridesharing provides the informants with the feelings of taking part in adventure that is, although unpredictable and possibly unsafe, new and exciting. For instance, Klaas from the Netherlands depicts his impression of ridesharing as a passenger:

*Interviewer:* “Did the interaction motivate you to participate further?”

*Klaas:* “It's really an interesting aspect. I would definitely consider something like travelling around Europe this way because this is a really cool way to meet total strangers and decide to be involved in something totally new rather than safe as train or bus”.

Thus, the novelty of impressions due to new people that ridesharing users meet every time is also taken into consideration while making the decision to use the service. Besides, this feature distinguishes this way of transport from the traditional ones such as train or bus. Julian describes his experience of ridesharing in Germany when he was a passenger as an alternative to public transportation that always brings him something new:

*Interviewer:* “When you were a passenger, were you the same happy about the service?”

*Julian:* “As a passenger that was really funny, you get to know many different people, many crazy people. (...) Sometimes drivers were quite crazy and listen to a strange music or just had a van with 20 people and you didn't have any space. So it's really interesting. But it's still cheap and it's always something different in comparison to public transportation”.

In addition to Klaas and Julian, other informants underline the unpredictability of ridesharing. For some of them it was a disadvantage of the service due to the risk of being bothered or

frustrated, however the others perceive it positively and describe it as a fascinating part of their travelling life.

## **5.6 New Attitude to Possessions**

The decision to take part in SM is also influenced by the new attitude towards possessions outlined by the interviewees. On the one hand, they mention that possessions, in particular cars do not play the same role for their status-enhancement as it was common among older generations. In this context, Linette declares that CC and SM are successful due to the insignificance of the possessions in status-building of young generations:

*Interviewer:* “What does CC mean for you?”

*Linette:* “I think, it is a phenomenon of our generation that we don't really need this status of owning a car, we are fine with sharing it or renting an apartment to someone else”.

*Interviewer:* “What is your general attitude towards sharing, do you think SM will grow?”

*Linette:* “It is quite interesting because in my parents’ generation it was so important to get their first car and to own it and finance it, it was really like: “Ok, I've made it, I have my own car”. But now it's not important at all, for my friends, maybe only for some of them it is... I think it's more important for guys than for girls. Yeah, but I think it's interesting (...), more about the lifestyle change”.

On the other hand, there are interviewees who consider possessions as being a burden. Therefore, it is necessary to clarify that almost each informant interviewed for the current research mentions that at the moment of the decision-making he/she was studying or working abroad, and SM services were mainly used for visiting family, life-partner or friends. Beyond this, the interviews were undertaken in Sweden, where the informants study at the master’s level but SM services were used worldwide, for example, in Germany, Spain, the Netherlands, Ukraine, etc. This is to highlight that all the interviewees are frequent travellers with various international experiences of living abroad.

The definitions and meanings of CC given by different interviewees include the ideas about shifting to the age when people do not value possessions as before, in contrast they feel overloaded with responsibilities that come together with the ownership, i.e. taxes, insurance, maintenance efforts. These thoughts were clearly stated by the experienced traveller Yannick in his responses:

*Interviewer:* “What are the reasons in your opinion for people to get engaged in car- and ride-sharing?”

*Yannick:* “They don't want to have the burden of owning stuff, they are free, they can sublet some things, they can get a car in five minutes for example. To be free”.

*Interviewer:* “Do you perceive the ownership as a burden?”

*Yannick:* “Yes, because I learnt to be free so I don't want to have a car if I move to another country, I don't want to have to sell my car, flat, etc., pay insurance. I want to have as few stuff as possible, so I want to be free”.

In addition, the interviewees determine that their travelling experience has a positive impact on trusting unknown people, developing openness and feeling safe while relying on complete strangers as it is happening in SM.

## **5.7 Information and Communication Technologies**

Furthermore, the interviewees recognise the importance of ICT in Shared Mobility since most of these services are solely based online and work either through a website or through an app. Nonetheless, ICT is mainly seen as a facilitator of the service application and instrument of the risk reduction, rather than decision-making motive. The informants' opinion about the technological base of services is clearly observed in the response of Daniel who emphasises the important meaning of ICT in SM:

*Interviewer:* “What role do you think new technologies play in SM?”

*Daniel:* “I think, it is essential, without them we wouldn't be able to use them (SM services) on real time, and it would be much more difficult to match drivers with passengers”.

As an example of technological dependency, the ridesharing company Uber is mentioned since its service depends on the mobile app that defines the location of the closest available vehicle in the user's area. Moreover, other informants affirm that the mobile app generally simplifies the use of the SM services. Thus, Linette describes the process of using the mobile app of the car-sharing service Car2Go:

*Linette:* “It was very easy, even my mother knew how to use it, which is a good sign. It needs to be easy because in Hamburg we have a lot of different people using it, for example I also use bike-sharing, you can book a bike and sometimes the app doesn't work well and you have problems with typing the numbers. That is also for me a reason to take the train instead. So it's really important that it's easy to use, easy to contact someone if you have problems”.

In addition, the interviewees also assert that whereas the ridesharing services are mostly used via the web-site, the mobile app is highly important in car-sharing. Santiago stresses the use of the mobile app in terms of defining the distance to the available car:

*Interviewer:* “What was the role of the technologies?”

*Santiago:* “It's huge. Sometimes the car can be in 200 metres or in one kilometre. I used an app for finding a car”.

Jule also admits that the fact that the service is arranged through an official website increases her trust, adding that “You have a place to complain if something goes wrong, so you get a feeling of security”. Moreover, most interviewees attach a high importance to having an access to the driver's online profile such as the one on Facebook. In addition, some put special emphasis on seeing a picture of the driver and on the way the text of the profile is written. In support of this statement, Jule explains how online access to driver's profile facilitated her decision-making in ridesharing as a passenger:

*Interviewer:* “You are a Facebook user. Do you think social media made it easier for you to contact with the strangers, get to know them through the technologies?”

*Jule:* “Totally, because on those web-sites you choose language, age, interests, women as a driver, non-smoking, no pets, etc. These features help to make the drive comfortable and nice. I drove with people of my age”.

Additionally to the preferences mentioned by Jule, the interviewees notice the ability to choose on the ridesharing web-site a car that belongs to a driver's club, which offers assistance in case of accident or technical problems.

Contrary to the positive aspects mentioned above, the interviewees that act as drivers specify the difficulties of the communication with the passengers interested in getting a lift. Today due to the security reasons the communication with the offeror should be established through the portal instead of an open access to the personal contact information as it used to be. Therefore, the process of contacting requires more efforts and time.

## **5.8 Scarce Ethical Concerns**

The authors indicated the group of ethical concerns which are associated with “moral principles that govern a person's behaviour or the conducting of an activity” (Oxford Dictionary, n.d. a). The informants do not recognise Shared Mobility being linked to any altruistic, communal and environmental issues, which are gathered under the umbrella of ethical considerations. The interviewees view SM services only as a way to obtain self-benefits, whether it is access to low prices or convenience. In particular cases, they are not even willing to share themselves but only make use of other consumers' possessions.



As an example, most of the interviewees in ridesharing do not identify themselves as being a part of any community while using the collaborative services, thereby they are not driven by the desire to help or assist other people. The majority of the ridesharing participants as well as car-sharing ones do not perceive the services as networks. Moreover, car-sharing is considered to be more individualistic as it involves the relationship only between the consumer and the company owning the fleet of cars. Thus, Daniel admits:

*Interviewer:* “What do you think about communal spirit, did you feel being a part of network when you participate in something like Car2Go?”

*Daniel:* “It's just me and the company. More individualistic. I don't feel belonging to any group”.

Again proving the scarcity of ethical considerations, the interviewees state that they do not view themselves being able to share their own car without the control over its use. A general unwillingness to share to this extent, a high emotional attachment to the car and distrust to potential users were noticed as factors preventing the informants from renting out their private vehicles. In this manner, Ben answers whether he would rent out his car through the collaborative service:

*Ben:* “No, I don't trust people and I won't give them my car. It's just MY car and I don't want to share it with anybody. It's not about damage but just unknown people driving your car”.

With regards to environmental considerations, despite most of the interviewees have a basic knowledge about the sustainable benefits of SM, all of them stress that the desire to be green has no influence on their decision-making. In fact, several interviewees say that SM might in opposite have a negative impact on the environment in comparison to public transportation. For example, Linette explains her position:

*Interviewer:* “Have you heard of environmental advantages of car-sharing?”

*Linette:* “I don't really feel sustainable using car-sharing because it'd be more sustainable to take the train, so for me it's not the decision to be sustainable”.

Regarding ridesharing, Julian also comments that:

*Julian:* “If many people choose car over train it's also not good”.

However, other interviewees recognise that ridesharing is more environmentally friendly than car-sharing, since in car-sharing most times there is only one person using a car, while the intention of ridesharing is to share the vehicle with more people.

One of the most cited environmental benefits motivating consumers to participate in CC is to save resources and to diminish air pollution, followed by the maximisation of goods' usage. For example, Julian, despite not having experience in car-sharing refers to the advantage of eliminating the underuse of cars. He says that paying just for the time one is using a car and then parking it is very convenient. Nonetheless, these issues instead of being personal motives for the interviewees to participate in CC are mentioned as their perception of why they suppose others participate in CC.

## **6. Analysis and Discussion**

In this chapter the authors interpret the empirical findings, compare them with the prior research and provide the theoretical support to the constructed outcomes. In more details, the previously illustrated categories, namely (1) cost-efficiency, (2) convenience, (3) communication, (4) trend appeal, (5) experience, (6) new attitude to possessions, (7) ICT and (8) scarce ethical concerns were revised and deeper examined. As the result, by analysing the connections between the eight groups, the authors arrived at the five main outcomes.

The first outcome relates to the revealed “Dominance of Self-Centred Motives” including cost-efficiency and convenience over ethical concerns such as altruism, community belonging and environmental concerns. Self-centred motives are understood as “self-serving and utilitarian motivation” (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012, p. 895) including mainly “convenience and savings” (p. 889). Thus, motives such as saving money and comfort of the car provide the consumer with individual self-centred benefits. In contrast, ethical concerns are not relevant for consumers.

The second outcome “Socialisation” reflects on the group of motives addressing social engagement in SM. This echoes Ozanne & Ballantine (2010) who identify the type of consumers involved in the sharing services called “Socialites”. They enjoy communication and meeting new people as an inherent part of CC.

Third, the unique group of motives “Experimental Values”, which was not revealed in the prior literature, involves trend appeal and experience discussed in Chapter 5. In more details, these values represent consumers' trend affinity (Möhlmann, 2015) as well as the desire to take part in adventure and satisfy their hedonic wants that play an essential role in the experience of SM (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012).

Further, “Global Nomadism” encompasses changes in consumers' attitude to ownership (Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould, 2012). The authors view this phenomenon producing particular motives for participating in SM as the services provide the freedom from ownership and flexibility, which are highly appreciated by nomads (ibid).

Then, Outcome No. 5 incorporates trust issues along with instruments of uncertainty and risk reduction due to their crucial role in the decision-making in SM (Botsman, 2012). Trust in SM is based on two underlying components: (1) storytelling as a forming element of cognitive-based trust (Mansour, Kooli & Utama, 2014) and ICT capabilities as online features enhancing the familiarity that in turn fosters trust (Botsman, 2012; Gefen, 2000).

Additionally to the five main outcomes, the study clarifies the existing differences between the different types of consumers within SM. The main outlined distinctions are regarding cost-efficiency, convenience, trust, communication and global nomadism.

## **6.1 Outcome No. 1. Dominance of Self-Centred Motives**

The first outcome of the current research confirms that self-centred benefits are prevailing in comparison to ethical concerns in the consumer decision-making in SM. To begin with, cost-efficiency is a vital motive for the consumers of SM services. Likewise, a number of prior researchers scrutinises consumer attitude to the cost saving aspects of car-sharing and conclude that they serve as a strong motivation for becoming a part of CC and particularly SM (e.g. Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2015; Möhlmann, 2015). Moreover, the consumers also motivate their decision to become a part of SM by the reasons that contribute to their convenience, such as quicker transportation by car and higher frequency of the rides in comparison to other means. Similarly, Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) highlight the utilitarian relationships users of car-sharing have with the service. They consider self-interest and functionality being among the main concerns.

From the perspective of individualism this kind of values distribution is the result of the widespread focus on self in society, which results in consumers attaching more importance to their own interests (Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego, 2013) and less relevance to benefits for the community (Quilligan, 2009). In addition, the presence of materialism among consumers including negative traits such as egocentrism, selfishness and lack of generosity (Belk, 1985) also explains the lack of ethical concerns when using SM. For example, materialism is related to individualism in the sense that it constraints social relationships and trust on other consumers (ibid).

On the contrary, more ethical motives involving altruism, community belonging and environmental considerations were not determined as having an impact on consumer decision-making. One can argue that altruism, as a selfless desire to help and support others, is an incentive to join CC services (e.g. Belk, 2007, Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2015), however the findings of the current research indicate that altruism is not present among the motives of the decision-making in SM. Despite Belk (2007) recognises altruism as a motivation to collaborate, it mainly relates to the so-called cheap altruism mentioned previously as the process when consumers keep the access to the object of sharing while giving it. The authors argue that

ridesharing can be taken into account as a way to employ cheap altruism due to the sharing of intangible objects such as car space or ride.

In addition, in opposite to Belk (2007), who notices that the participation in sharing contributes to the replacement of egoistic values by altruistic ones, the research by Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) confirms the insignificance of caring and love in CC. Furthermore, in the study of the CC online platform Ecomondo, Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher (2014) analyse the determinant “to give a charity” showing that none of the respondents refers to this motive when they decide to join the collaborative service.

Additionally, it is clear from the results that consumer decision-making is not impacted by the environmental benefits of SM even though they are aware of them. In line with this Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) conclude that the users of the car-sharing are not driven by any environmental concerns. Besides, the results also support the study of Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen (2015) since consumers have a positive attitude towards the environment but this is not an actual motivation to use Shared Mobility.

To summarise the first outcome, similar to Möhlmann (2015) the authors deem that SM consumers are mainly driven by self-centred motives and the utility that the service provides rather than other more ethical concerns. This argument is supported by prior research of SM, for instance, Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) claim that economic benefits outbalance ethical concerns, specifically in car-sharing. The results also show that most consumers have no anti-consumption behaviour described by Ozanne & Ballantine (2010). In fact, they own a private vehicle or intend to purchase a car in the future.

## **6.2 Outcome No. 2. Socialisation**

The second outcome drawn by the authors refers to the contradictory role of communication in consumer decision-making in SM. On the one hand, for instance, ridesharing addresses consumer needs of meeting new people and being socially engaged. As mentioned before, this echoes the group of users named “Socialites” in the study of Ozanne & Ballantine (2010). They are characterised by highly positive attitude towards social benefits of sharing such as keeping in touch with other participants outside the service. The opportunity to make friends encourages them to get involved in the collaborative activities. On the other hand, although Parsons (2014) argues that CC contributes to creating social bonds and connectedness, only rarely SM consumers take social factors into consideration in their decision-making. Thus, the results also oppose Botsman’s (2012) statement regarding a higher willingness to meet new people and a shift towards more collectivistic behaviours. Instead, individualism and competitiveness (Chelstowski, 2012) seem to explain the lack of desire to socialise among consumers. In addition, Hofstede’s (1984) concept of individualism might explain these results since most interviewees are part of European or North American regions with high levels of individualism.

The authors conclude that this aspect is viewed as an inherent part of SM that can be both positively-influencing, e.g. helping to reduce feeling of social isolation when driving long distances alone, and negatively-influencing, e.g. requiring to socialise with strangers when one is not willing to communicate. The latter is similar to “Passive Members” participating in the sharing activities of the toy-library, depicted by Ozanne & Ballantine (2010) as their behaviour demonstrates low social involvement and friendship. Besides, only seldom SM consumers stay in touch with other users after the rides. In general, the authors consider communication to be an influential factor, however it can be equally positive or negative for SM consumers.

### **6.3 Outcome No. 3. Experimental Values**

The third outcome relates to the decision-making aspects that refer to the experimental values consumers obtain by becoming a part of SM. As emphasised by Cohen & Kietzmann (2014), SM is a growing trend that impacts consumers, especially of a young age, and brings a new understanding of mobility. The findings show that consumers recognise SM as a trendy dimension, making trend appeal another important motive to participate in SM. Generally, young generations are more interested in applying innovative services and products that are considered to be fashionable among their social circle (Parsons, 2014), thereby they are more leaning towards the usage of SM. The participation in SM as in the trendy dimension of services positively influences consumers’ selves, providing them with feelings of happiness and satisfaction (Simms & Potts, 2012). From a different angle, the desire to be trendy and fashionable can refer to the competitiveness that is argued to be a solid feature of modern individualism (Chelstowski, 2012). In order to distinguish themselves among others, consumers are more motivated to be engaged in a new trend.

Furthermore, young consumers tend to be involved into more risky and unpredictable activities to facilitate their desire in provocation and challenge (Sharland, 2006). Consequently, a unique motivation was defined as experience, which is determined by the authors as craving for adventures and entertainment. Even though the experiential values were not mentioned in the previous literature among the motives of SM consumers, in the discussion on access-based consumption Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) mention excitement and imagination as hedonic values serving as decision-making drivers for consumers interested in shared experience of observing or using the art objects.

### **6.4 Outcome No. 4. Global Nomadism**

As well as Shared Mobility, “Global Nomadism” is a phenomenon of a new age. The fourth outcome, derived from the findings, proposes the link between these phenomena and results in the identification of a unique motivation associated with a nomadic lifestyle. To a great extent consumers make a choice in favour of SM due to a specific need of being free of ownership. Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould (2012) elaborate on the attitude to possessions in their study of

global nomads and, based on it, the authors suggest that global nomads prefer SM in order to facilitate their need for a frequent movement and to reduce the ownership efforts such as maintenance and administrative routine. More interestingly, the anchoring function of possessions important for the majority of consumers does not represent an interest for global nomads (Bardhi, Eckhardt & Arnould, 2013), therefore they prefer using ride- or car-sharing instead of purchasing a private vehicle.

The authors believe that another motivation to participate in SM for global nomads involves the diminishing importance of possession-defined success identified by Pieters (2013). Particularly, private automobiles are considered to be less significant as instruments for the status enhancement. In this vein, Botsman & Rogers (2011) underline the different perception of young generations about ownership, meaning that consumers feel satisfied by sharing a car with others in a similar manner as by having a private one. This shift in the role of possessions for consumers of a new age rehearses the concept of new materialism (Simms & Potts, 2012). In more depth, currently consumption and buying are still identified with personal happiness, however these needs can be satisfied in a new way that does not necessarily include the purchase of new commodities but alternative means such as re-usage, reconstruction and exchange.

Nonetheless, despite the fact that the privately-owned vehicles of consumers demonstrating nomadic features often stay unused due to their travelling routines, the results show the reluctance to fully share an own automobile without being personally present in it. The car remains being highly valuable for the consumers of all kinds in both monetary and emotional terms, which is explained by a high significance that consumers attach to their possessions as they perceive them as parts of their selves (Belk, 1988). Hence, the transfer of a car to an unfamiliar person is considered to be a very tough decision due to a potential material possession love, described by Lastovicka & Sirianni (2011). The only possibility to rent out an own car, identified in the findings, relates to sharing with close relatives or friends as this way the self-identity of the owner is not significantly disturbed, and the level of trust is higher (Furby, 1978).

## **6.5 Outcome No. 5. Storytelling and ICT as the Basis of Trust**

The fifth outcome represents a particular relevance due to the importance consumers attach to trust and uncertainty in their decision-making in SM. The findings suggest that the pitfall of SM the consumers are concerned about is the potential sharing of a car with suspicious or strange people i.e., people who seem not reliable or dangerous. Thus, as highlighted by Mansour, Kooli & Utama (2014) lack of personality-based trust touching upon the possible inadequate behaviour of other people is a factor that can bias consumer intention to participate in SM. However, the authors indicate two factors assisting the reduction of uncertainty about SM, namely storytelling and ICT capabilities.

First, it was noticed that stories about taking part in SM inside the social environment have a great influence on consumer motivation. This behaviour echoes the importance of opinions,

circulating in the social circles for consumers as illustrated by Mansour, Kooli & Utama (2014). The scholars explain that friends and family are crucial sources of knowledge that increase the consumer trust and willingness to purchase a product or use a service. Besides, as stated by Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego (2013) a high interest of governments in the promotion of CC services and adoption of the “Shareable City” principle also have an impact on enhancing the rumour around SM. Thus, the rumour first generated with the aim to foster consumer interest in SM results in an increase of trust that motivates them to use these services in their personal lives and eventually share their experiences with friends and relatives. Furthermore, the users of SM with previous experience in these services are motivated to keep participating in the future. This is explained by the concept of familiarity (Gefen, 2000) that implies that past experiences help to understand how the SM service works and how the other users are supposed to behave in the car. Consequently, consumers develop trust and feel more open to a more frequent usage.

Second, the results also demonstrate how consumers overcome the difficulties of online trust and elaborate their own set of clues available on the web-site that ensure the reliability of a person. For instance, the users of ridesharing include the online profile with text, the personal picture and specifically the access to Facebook page among the factors influencing their trust. Likewise, Yannopoulou, Moufahim & Bian (2013) advocate that the access to social media profiles particularly help the Internet users to trust the others and to feel safe.

Moreover, the results of the current research confirm Botsman’s (2012) statement that ranking systems and comment fields enhance the users’ online reputation and therefrom contribute to building up trust. This behaviour can be explained by cognitive-based trust, which is generated through the other consumers’ comments, thus impacting users’ online image and acting as a source of knowledge for the inexperienced consumers (Mansour, Kooli & Utama, 2014). Nevertheless, the findings also demonstrate the desire to leave a comment or rate another user only in case of a bad experience. As the result, the eventual ranking system is likely to be non-objective.

Another Internet capability improving the consumer trust relates to the indication of a user belonging to a driver’s club. The club membership implies a good customer service and guarantees the assistance in case of accident or technical problems. This factor is related to the institutional-based trust (Mansour, Kooli & Utama, 2014) confirming how certain certifications help consumers of SM services to trust other users and the companies involved. Lastly, the prior communication including the verbal communication with the person the ride will be shared with aids overcoming lack of trust to the virtual relations explained by Gefen (2000) and makes SM consumers feeling more secure.

## **6.6 Outcome No. 6. Motivational Differences**

Additionally to the previously described five outcomes, based on the findings the authors notice particular differences between drivers in ridesharing, passengers in ridesharing and drivers in car-sharing. However, despite the differences between the users of SM were indicated, the results show more similarities than distinctions between motivational factors influencing the different types of consumers.

First of all, although cost-efficiency serves as one of the major motives for all the types of users, the approach to it is different. On the one hand, the drivers in ridesharing are eager to cover or split the costs of fuel for the ride that most likely will happen whether the car is filled in or not. Also drivers as service suppliers have an opportunity of gaining an extra income from the ride. On the other hand, the passengers in ridesharing and drivers in car-sharing approach cost-efficiency of SM by comparing the prices with those available on public transportation or cab.

Second, whereas the chance to save money was mentioned at the first place by ridesharing users, car-sharing consumers seem to be less oriented for monetary benefits of the service. It was found that every now and then car-sharing consumers prefer to spend more money on taking a car through the service due to its convenience even though cheaper alternatives are available. Hence, convenience might replace the cost-efficiency in its importance for the users of car-sharing.

Regarding differences in trust, the users of ridesharing have more concerns than the users of car-sharing since the former has to cope with the uncertainty of arranging the lifts and meeting strangers whereas the latter hires a service provided by a company. Thus, whilst passengers and drivers of ridesharing pay more attention to each other's trustworthiness, drivers of car-sharing attach more importance to the conditions of the service.

Further, only the drivers in ridesharing consider communication to be an important reason for using the service. The desire to avoid long-distance lonely driving motivates car owners to share the car. On the contrary, the passengers find this factor highly variable, therefore having simultaneously positive and negative effect on their decision.

Finally, the last difference applies to global nomadism involving new attitude to possessions as this factor only impacts passengers in ridesharing and drivers in car-sharing. By participating in SM they do not need to buy their own vehicle and therefore they reduce the responsibilities attached to car ownership in contrast to those who own a car and share it.

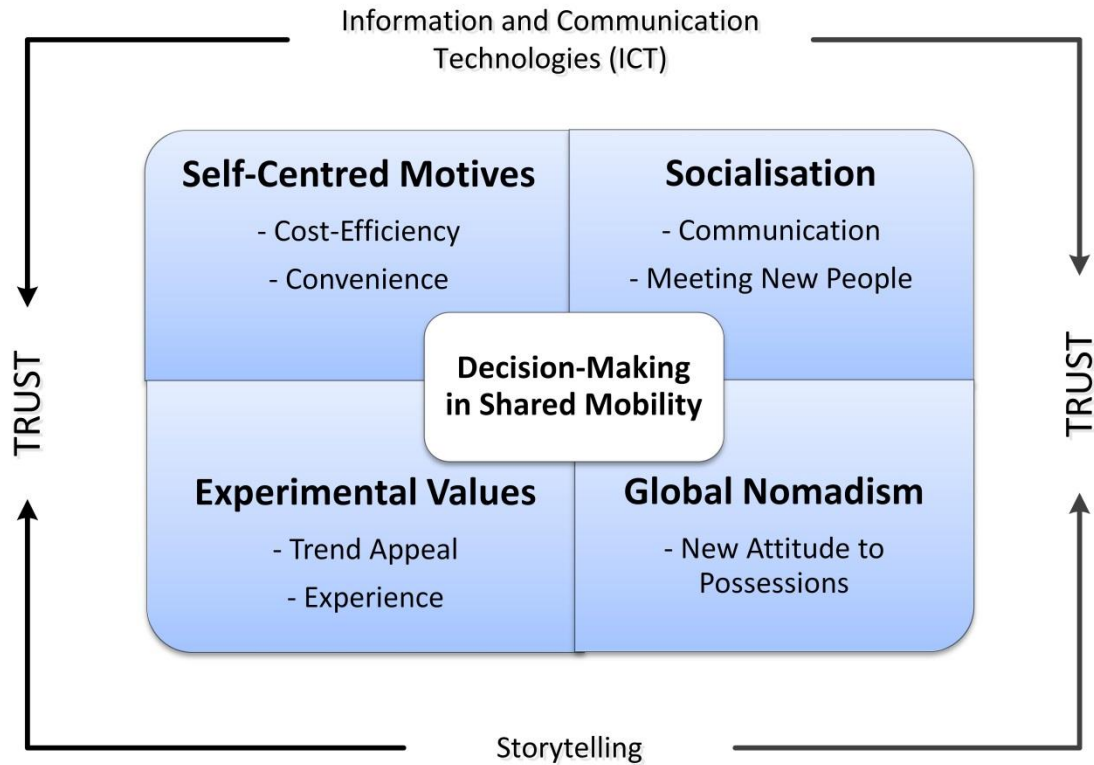


## 7. Conclusions

To summarise the outcomes of the research, the authors developed the model (Figure 2) that illustrates the motives influencing the decision-making in SM. However, as the Outcome No. 1 showed that ethical concerns do not impact consumers of SM, this group was excluded from the final model. As the result, the research arrived at the inclusion of four groups of motives as the ones driving consumer decision-making. First of all, “Self-Centred Motives” represent the individualistic benefits that consumers obtain by using SM including cost-efficiency and convenience. The second group “Experimental Values” involves the perceived chance to obtain a unique and exciting experience participating in SM as well as the opportunity to become a part of a new trendy movement. The third group of the major influencers refers to “Global Nomadism” and encompasses a new attitude to ownership and possessions emerging among young generations. In more details, possessions decrease in their importance for status creation and start to be identified with burden and responsibilities that constrain the freedom of travelling and movement. The fourth group named “Socialisation” that mainly relates to communication and meeting new people, proved to play an ambiguous role for SM participants. The social aspects of SM can recall both positive and negative reactions of consumers, nonetheless, their impact cannot be neglected.

In addition, consumer trust facilitates the whole process of decision-making. In more depth, “Storytelling” encompasses the opinions and impressions of social circles SM consumers are part of, and “ICT” capabilities consists of online features such as profile information, picture and social media page of the person with whom the sharing service will take place. Mainly, these two factors foster trust and reduce uncertainty and risks that, in turn, provide consumers with confidence in quality and safety of Shared Mobility.

Lastly, there are only a few differences in the motives of participation between drivers in ridesharing, passengers in ridesharing and drivers in car-sharing, while most of their motives are similar. The differences relate to their approach to cost-efficiency, convenience and communication as well as the impact of global nomadism. Nevertheless, the distinctions do not affect the general categorisation of the motives, therefore the initial intention of the authors to reflect on the differences in the finalising model was not supported.



*Figure 2. The Motives influencing the Decision-Making in Shared Mobility (own source)*

## 7.1 Theoretical Contributions

The novelty of Collaborative Consumption and SM services included in this field resulted in the emergence of the several research gaps addressed by the current research. First, the high variety of CC services explains the fact that the findings of the prior literature are often generalised and lacking specific emphasis on the certain area of CC field. In fact, particular studies consider all consumers of CC as one homogeneous group without distinguishing between the differences across the various services (e.g. Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2015). Thus, the specific focus of the current research on Shared Mobility helps to provide a more detailed understanding of consumer behaviour and the motivations to use concretely these services and avoid generalisation to all consumers in CC.

Second, although a number of prior studies focuses on areas of Shared Mobility (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Belk, 2007; Möhlmann, 2015), none of them examines the consumer behaviour in ridesharing as part of it. The scope of the prior research is limited to the cases of car-sharing, for example Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) scrutinise Zipcar or Möhlmann (2015) investigates Car2go. Consequently, the studies on car-sharing only encompass one type of users, while the current thesis also investigates the users of ridesharing. Thus, in this study the authors draw the line between drivers in ridesharing, passengers in ridesharing and drivers in car-sharing due to certain differences in their decision-making.

Third, while most of the previous studies that investigate decision-making have a particular emphasis on environment (Liesmann et al., 2013; Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher, 2014), ICT (Hamari, Sjöklint & Ukkonen, 2015; Yannopoulou, Moufahim & Bian, 2013) or social aspects (Belk, 2007), the current thesis adopts an open approach that assisted the authors in revealing new motives for consumers to participate in CC and specifically SM. For instance, experimental values and global nomadism are not identified in the former literature. Besides, in contrast to the studies emphasising that environmental concerns are triggering consumer decision-making in CC (Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher, 2014), the authors did not indicate these considerations as being the motivation for SM consumers. Similarly, the community belonging outlined by Ozanne & Ballantine (2010) and Piscicelli, Cooper & Fisher (2014) as the reason to participate in CC is not confirmed in the current research.

Moreover, the authors' contribution also involves the structuring of the various CC services based on the literature represented in Figure 1. The scheme might facilitate the future research and assist the researchers in the selection of the area of interest within CC. Finally, the literature review and theoretical foundations might serve as a starting point for the future studies and provide new directions for the academic analysis.

## **7.2 Managerial Implications**

The findings of this research provide valuable insights for managers of the companies currently operating in the field of CC, particularly ride- and car-sharing services. The deeper understanding of factors motivating consumers to participate in SM can aid the company's efforts towards obtaining new customers along with keeping the current ones. Taking into account the aspects of SM that consumers consider important might contribute to the development and realisation of more target-oriented advertising and marketing campaigns. For instance, managers should pay attention to the prevalence of self-centred motives in the consumer decision-making, therefore lay the organisational and marketing emphasis on cost-efficiency and convenience in contrast to popular among the SM companies environmental and ethical concerns.

In addition, it is essential to monitor and improve the online trust facilitators as they showed to be meaningful for SM consumers. In particular, the access to social media profiles of sharing platform members is the measure that might significantly increase trust. With regards to trust, SM consumers show a negative attitude to the restrictions in availability of the contact information that the companies have recently started to incorporate due to security reasons. Hence, the managers should re-examine this decision or provide other features recovering the damage to the simplicity of the contacting procedure. Likewise, the SM services are perceived as low-cost alternatives, thus newly introduced entrance fees mentioned by customers have a negative impact on their intention to further use the service.

In relation to the traditional non-collaborative services the results of this thesis might serve as a basis for indicating the disadvantages of CC and SM services and further turn them in favour of an own business model. Specifically, high risks that consumers link with SM might be used while establishing the competitive strategy. For example, driver's club membership and insurance certifications can be applied as advantages for traditional car rental firms, considering that the findings confirm a great role these aspects play for consumers. Another strategic move for traditional companies might involve the launch of the own collaborative service as it was successfully implemented by BMW and Mercedes. The points of comparison outlined in the results including availability and frequency of SM relative to public transportation and cab should be taken into account in the process of service development.

Additionally to commercial organisations, public and non-profit companies can obtain the knowledge of consumer attitude to sharing and collaboration. As highlighted by Agyeman, McLaren & Schaefer-Borrego (2013) managers of big cities are highly interested in the promotion of Collaborative Consumption and the proliferation of sharing values due to the positive impact the innovative trend has on society and environment. Hence, even though the ethical concerns were identified as minor for consumers of SM, the governmental management can find a way to handle this situation by the help of this research. For example, a certain number of consumers recognises SM as negatively influencing the environment, consequently the environmentally friendly motives in their decision are scarce. Nevertheless, car-sharing services mostly provide car models with a reduced pollution level (Bardhi & Eckhard, 2012) and these advantages can be brought to the light while encouraging citizens to join SM. Besides, the consumers frequently using SM services point out their convenience in the areas with poor public transportation system. This insight can be useful for the local administrations as they can promote ridesharing as an instrument to solve transportation problems.

### **7.3 Limitations and Future Research**

This research focuses on Shared Mobility including ride- and car-sharing, however Cohen & Keitzmann (2014) also relate bike-sharing to this field. Bike-sharing is a way of transportation gaining popularity all over the world, thereby the future research should examine the motivations of consumers using bike-sharing as well as the other types of SM. Further, the current study does not investigate the consumers of the SM services involved in the full transfer of ownership such as RelayRides (Cohen & Keitzmann, 2014). Thus, it is highly interesting to analyse the decision-making of the users who are ready to lend a highly valuable possession such as car to complete strangers. Likewise, this thesis defines a number of the consumer decision-making motives, nonetheless more attention should be given to the interdependency of these motives and how they vary in relation to each other.

Moreover, the current research to a lesser degree reflects on trust issues and the attitudes of SM consumers to uncertainty and risks within the service. Although the authors investigate trust

facilitators, the future research should solely focus on these aspects due to their high significance in CC. A longitudinal study might assist the study on how the trust changes when consumers feel more involved in CC.

Further, this thesis introduces a model (Figure 2) that shows the factors influencing the decision-making in SM but the qualitative approach restrained the indication of the weakness or strength of the relationship between them. Thus, the future research might apply the quantitative approach to conclude the degree to which particular motives are relevant for consumers. Also, the authors conclude that most of the motives are common for the different actors of the SM, nonetheless the set of differences among the three groups of consumers might be further examined and more thoroughly analysed by the following studies.

In addition, this research does not examine the complexity of social interaction in the process of ridesharing. The process of socialising with strangers can be studied through the use of methodological techniques such as observation at the moment of a ride. Future research should grasp consumers' feelings and emotions at the moment when communication is established and further during and after the ride. Based on this, the classification of consumers might be elaborated, reflecting on their willingness to communicate and other characteristics they reveal in relation to the CC services. In conclusion, future investigation of CC should provide deeper understanding of this innovative dimension of business that disrupts the market on a global scale.

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## Appendix I. The Pilot Survey

### Collaborative Consumption

**1. Have you ever used any service from the so called "collaborative consumption" or "sharing economy"? (e.g. blablacar, Uber, Airbnb, Couchsurfing, RelayRides, Buzzcar, Getaround, Tamyca, Wheelz, WhipCar, SideCar, Boatbound, etc.)**

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Never heard

**2. If yes, which kind of services have you used?**

- ☐ Apartment rental (e.g. Airbnb)
- ☐ Apartment sharing (e.g. Couchsurfing)
- ☐ Car rental (e.g. RelayRides)
- ☐ Taxi or car sharing (e.g. Uber, blablacar)

Other (please specify)

**3. Did you use the service as:**

- ☐ Offeror of car, apartment etc.
- ☐ User of the car, apartment etc.
- ☐ Both user and offeror
- ☐ Not applicable

Done

## **Appendix II. The Interview Guide for the Customers of Ridesharing Services**

1. Have you heard about CC/Sharing Economy?
2. What do you think CC means?
3. What can you see as being the reasons for engaging/participating in collaborative CC?
4. What do you think ridesharing/car-sharing means?
5. Do you own a car?
6. Have you ever used ride-sharing services?
7. Which ridesharing platforms did you use?
8. How often did you use ridesharing service?
9. Were you satisfied with the ridesharing experience?
10. Why did you decide to use the service?
11. Why did you choose ridesharing over other means like bus, train, etc.?
12. What does it mean for you to participate in ridesharing?
13. What role financial factor plays for your decision and in which context?
14. Have you heard about environmental advantages of ridesharing?
15. When you have participated in ridesharing, what were your thoughts about the impact of ridesharing on the environment?
16. What did you feel when meeting new people while ridesharing?
17. Did this factor have an impact on your decision to use the service?
18. Did you share the impressions about your experience with your friends?
19. Would you offer a ride/ become a passenger in ridesharing yourself?
20. Did you have any concerns regarding trust before using the ridesharing service for the first time(s)?
21. What factors facilitated your trust to the driver/ passenger? (E.g. talking on the phone, seeing a picture, or seeing the actual journey on the map)
22. What do you think about ranking system?
23. After using the service, did your trust to ridesharing increase?
24. Did you use a computer, smartphone or tablet for the services?
25. What role in your opinion technologies (devices, the Internet) play in your decision to participate in car-sharing?
26. In which situations would you use ridesharing and in which situations not?
27. What do you feel about sharing your possessions, skills, house, etc.?
28. Would you rent out your own car through car-sharing services to the unknown person?
29. What motivate to do it/ prevent you from doing it?
30. What in your opinion would encourage others to participate in car-sharing?
31. Could you summarise your opinion about CC, its role in modern society and its potential to grow?

## **Appendix III. The Interview Guide for the Customers of car-sharing Services**

1. Have you heard about CC/Sharing Economy?
2. What do you think CC means?
3. What can you see as being the reasons for engaging/participating in collaborative CC?
4. What do you think car-sharing/ ridesharing means?
5. Do you own a car?
6. Have you ever used car-sharing services?
7. Which car-sharing services did you use?
8. How often did you use car-sharing service?
9. Were you satisfied with the car-sharing experience?
10. Why did you decide to use the service?
11. Why did you choose car-sharing over other means like cab, bus, train, etc.?
12. What does it mean for you to participate in car-sharing?
13. What role financial factor plays for your decision and in which context?
14. Have you heard about environmental advantages of car-sharing?
15. When you have participated in car-sharing, what were your thoughts about the impact of car-sharing on the environment?
16. Did you share the impressions about your experience with your friends?
17. Did you have any concerns regarding trust before using the car-sharing service for the first time(s)?
18. What factors facilitated your trust to the service? (e.g. insurance, customer service)
19. Did you use a computer, smartphone or tablet for the services?
20. What role in your opinion technologies (devices, the Internet) play in your decision to participate in car-sharing?
21. In which situations would you use car-sharing and in which situations not?
22. What do you feel about sharing your possessions, skills, house, etc.?
23. Would you rent out your own car through car-sharing services to the unknown person?
24. What motivate to do it/ prevent you from doing it?
25. What in your opinion would encourage others to participate in car-sharing?
26. Could you summarise your opinion about CC, its role in modern society and its potential to grow?

## Appendix IV. The List of Interviewees

No.	Date	Name	Interview	Type of consumption	SM Service	Country
1	30.03.2015	Jule	In person	Passenger/Driver	Mitfahrgelegenheit, Blablacar	The Netherlands, Germany
2	31.03.2015	Santiago	In person	Driver	Car2Go	The USA
3	01.04.2015	Ira	Skype	Passenger	Blablacar	Spain, Ukraine
4	03.04.2015	Julian	In person	Passenger/Driver	Mithfahrgelegenheit	Germany
5	06.04.2015	Daniel	Skype	Passenger/Driver	Mithfahrgelegenheit, Car2Go, DriveNow	Germany
6	08.04.2015	Ben	In person	Driver	Mitfahrgelegenheit	The Netherlands, Germany
7	10.04.2015	Yannick	In person	Passenger/Driver	Mitfahrgelegenheit	Germany
8	10.04.2015	Linette	In person	Driver	Car2Go	Germany
9	14.04.2015	Philipp	In person	Passenger/Driver	Mitfahrgelegenheit	Germany
10	14.04.2015	Klaas	In person	Passenger/Driver	Blablacar	The Netherlands
11	14.04.2015	Lykke	In person	Passenger	Gomore	Denmark
12	15.04.2015	Dani	Skype	Driver	Blablacar	Spain

## Appendix V. The Table of Codes

The following table contents 167 codes that were extracted from the 12 interviews and grouped into 9 categories. The 8 first categories are explained in the Chapter 5 ‘Empirical Findings’ while the last category named ‘other’ encompasses codes that cannot be classified into the main ones. The codes are sorted by frequency from the highest value to the lowest.

Some codes are specific of Collaborative Consumption services (CC), others of Shared Mobility (SM), ridesharing (RS) or car-sharing (CS). Moreover, there are codes in ridesharing that refer uniquely to drivers (RS/D) and others specifically to passengers (RS/P). Therefore, the list of abbreviations below facilitates their understanding.

CC: Collaborative Consumption

SM: Shared Mobility

RS: Ridesharing

RS/P: Passenger in Ridesharing

RS/D: Driver in Ridesharing

CS: Car-sharing

ICT: Information and Communication Technologies

No.	1. Cost-efficiency	Frequency
1	Reason to participate in CC: cost saving	5
2	Reason to participate in RS/P: cheaper than public transport	5
3	Reason to participate in RS: financial benefits	4
4	Reason to participate in RS/D: financial benefits	3
5	Financial benefits outweigh risks	2
6	Insurance does not decrease risk	2
7	Reason to participate in CC: earn on possessions	2
8	Reason to participate in CS: cheaper than a cab	2
9	Reason to participate in CS: having own car is unaffordable	2
10	Trustworthy driver outweighs price	2
11	Communication outweighs financial factor	1
12	Cost saving outweighs longer time spending	1
13	Disadvantage in RS: efforts in picking up passengers outweigh financial benefit	1
14	Disadvantages of CS: high prices	1
15	Financial benefits outweigh organizational efforts in RS	1
16	Newly introduced fee is a barrier to RS	1



17	Perception of others' motivations for CC: money	1
18	Price factor is not significant	1
19	Reason to not participate in CC: enough money	1
20	Reason to participate in CC: insurance	1
21	Reason to participate in CC: low income	1
22	Reason to participate in CS: cheaper than public transport	1
23	Reason to participate in RS/D: cheaper than public transport	1
24	Reason to rent out car: costs saving	1
25	Reasons to rent out car: insurance	1
26	RS is more cost-efficient than CS	1
	<b>2. Convenience</b>	
27	Reason to participate in CS: convenience-comfortable	5
28	Reason to participate in CS: parking advantages	4
29	Reason to participate in RS: faster than public transport	4
30	RS is not used for significant events e.g. going to the airport	4
31	Reason to participate in CS: faster than public transport	3
32	Reason to participate in RS/P: convenience	3
33	Storytelling RS: bad experiences happenig seldom	3
34	CS is not used for significant events: e.g. going to the airport	2
35	Disadvantage in RS: commercially-oriented drivers	2
36	Reason to participate in CS: availability at any time	2
37	Reason to participate in RS/P: comfort	2
38	Reason to participate in RS/P: flexibility in choosing the route	2
39	Reason to participate in RS/P: higher frequency of the rides	2
40	CS is more reliable than RS	1
41	Disadvantage of CS: dirty car	1
42	Disadvantage of CS: walking distance to the car is high	1
43	Reason to participate in CS: absence of own car	1
44	Reason to participate in CS: flexibility	1
45	Reason to participate in CS: freedom of moving	1
46	Reason to participate in CS: taking someone else in the car	1
47	Reason to participate in RS/D: big luggage	1
48	Reason to participate in RS/D: convenience	1
49	Reason to participate in RS/D: higher frequency	1
50	Reason to participate in RS: absence of public transport	1
51	Reason to participate in SM: alternative to public transportation	1
52	RS is not used fot short distances	1
53	RS/D requires organizational efforts	1
54	Trust facilitator: regularity of rides	1

	<b>3. Communication</b>	
55	Disadvantage of RS: suspicious people	5
56	Trust facilitator: previous communication on the phone	5
57	Freedom to communicate or not in the car in RS	4
58	Reason to participate in RS/P: meeting new people	4
59	Reason to participate in RS: meeting new people	4
60	Communication doesn't impact decision-making for further RS	3
61	Disadvantage in RS: presence of strangers	3
62	No further communication among users takes place after the ride in RS	3
63	Familiarity with a person motivates further sharing with her/him	2
64	Positive attitude to communication in RS	2
65	Reason to participate in RS/D: not driving alone long distance	2
66	Refusal of communication with strangers	2
67	Basic communication is needed to decrease perceived risk	1
68	Choice in favor of known people in RS	1
69	Disadvantage of RS: forced communication	1
70	Disadvantages of RS: feeling awkward	1
71	Further communication among users takes place after the RS	1
72	Meeting new people has little impact on decision-making	1
73	Novelty of RS motivates to communicate more	1
74	Oral communication creates bonds/responsibility	1
75	Positive attitude to people in RS	1
76	Reason to participate in CC: making contacts, friends	1
77	Reason to participate in RS/D: communication	1
78	Reason to participate in RS/D: meeting new people	1
79	Reason to participate in RS: making contacts, friends	1
80	Reason to share: making friends	1
81	Satisfaction in RS/P: nice communication	1
82	Storytelling RS: making new friends	1
83	Trust facilitator (general sharing): prior communication	1
84	Trust facilitator: presence of familiar person	1
85	Trust facilitator: presence of other passengers	1
	<b>4. Trend Appeal</b>	
86	Reason to participate in RS: positive feedback from friends	8
87	Sharing experiences in RS with social circle	6
88	Not sharing experiences in RS with social circle	1
89	Positive feedback from friends can motivate to rent out a car	1

90	Reason to participate in SM: following trend	1
	<b>5. Experience</b>	
91	Reason to participate in RS/P: unpredictability, adventure	2
92	Reason to participate in RS/D: entertainment	1
93	Reason to participate in RS/P: entertainment	1
	<b>6. New Attitude To Possessions</b>	
94	Reason to participate in RS: being far away home	5
95	No desire to rent out car due to its high value	3
96	Reason to participate in RS/P: need to visit partner	3
97	Reason to participate in CC: possessing as a burden	1
98	Reason to participate in CC: possessions do not impact status	1
99	Reason to participate in CC: travel	1
100	Reason to participate in SM: to be free	1
101	Reason to share: enhancing image	1
	<b>7. Information and Communication Technologies (ICT)</b>	
102	Crucial role of ICT	7
103	High importance of users' profile and text on website	6
104	Trust facilitator: access to Facebook profile	5
105	Commenting only for bad experience	4
106	Trust facilitator: belonging to driver's club	4
107	Trust facilitator: evaluation/rating	4
108	Trust facilitator: picture	4
109	Mobile app simplifies use of CS	3
110	Reason to participate in CS: good customer service	3
111	Satisfaction: preferences adjustment	2
112	Absence of any preferences in RS	1
113	Complicated process of contacting other users in RS	1
114	Evaluation system has no impact on decision-making	1
115	Facilitator of trust: no previous accidents of the driver	1
116	Mobile app simplifies procedure in RS	1
117	Reason to not participate in RS: women are more concerned about risks	1
118	Reason to participate in RS: simplicity of the website	1
119	RS requires checking people's profiles on the Internet	1
120	Trust facilitator (general sharing): official web-site	1
121	Trust facilitator: length of membership of the users in RS	1
122	Trust facilitator: writing/phrasing in the online profile of users	1

123	Use of app is more important for CS than RS	1
124	Web platform is very important in RS	1
125	Web platform provides security	1
	<b>8. Ethical Concerns</b>	
	<b>Environment</b>	
126	Environmental benefits have no impact on decision-making	10
127	Basic knowledge about environmental benefits of RS	8
128	Reason to participate in CC: saving resources	4
129	SM is worse for environment than public transport	3
130	RS is more environmentally friendly than CS	2
131	Contribution of CC: environment	1
132	Contribution of CC: reusing things	1
133	Perception of others' motivations for CC: environmental concern	1
134	Reason to participate in CC: maximization of goods' utility	1
135	Reason to rent out car: it is underused	1
	<b>Altruism</b>	
136	CC means helping/supporting each other	2
137	Contribution of CC: cultural changes	2
138	Intention to rent out own car (altruism)	1
139	Reason to participate in RS/D: help others	1
140	RS makes people more trustful	1
141	Satisfaction: helping, giving information	1
	<b>Community Belonging</b>	
142	RS makes people feel part of community	3
143	Contribution of CC: community building	1
144	CS doesn't make you feel part of community	1
145	Contribution of CC: makes people more open	1
146	RS makes people more open	1
	<b>9. Other</b>	
147	Lack of information and trust to rent out a car	8
148	Personal impressions: rare bad experiences	4
149	No concerns about trust	3
150	Contribution of CC: improving trust to strangers	2
151	Experience as passenger motivates to become a driver	2
152	Reason to participate in CC: obtaining help	2

153	Satisfaction: absence of bad experiences	2
154	Disadvantage in RS/P: last minute cancel	1
155	Disadvantage of CS: driving a damaged car	1
156	Disadvantages of CS: risk to damage the car	1
157	Disadvantages of RS/P: bad driving skills of driver	1
158	Easier to share less expensive things	1
159	Experience as driver motivates to become a passenger	1
160	Experience of RS with friends motivates to ride with strangers	1
161	Intention to rent out a low-valued car	1
162	Making sure the ride will happen	1
163	Need to get to place outweighs risks	1
164	Perceived risk in RS same as public transportation	1
165	Perceived risk: not being picked up	1
166	Reason to participate in CC: it makes life easier	1
167	Reason to participate in CC: lack of knowledge	1