

Sharing Economy: conceptualization; motivators and barriers; and avenues for research in Bangladesh

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Abstract:

With the advancement of information and communication technologies, century-old “sharing activities” between friends, family, and neighbors have extended to strangers based on various commercial models, often aided by mobile-app-based technologies. Globally, prominent sharing-based services include Uber, Lyft, and Airbnb, which have become behemoths in terms of their valuation, revenue, and number of users. Uber is reported to have over 100 million users globally. Bangladesh has also witnessed a rise in sharing-based services of both global and local origins, which include ride-sharing businesses such as Uber, Pathao, and Shohoz; home sharing such as Airbnb; and parking space sharing such as ParkingKoi. Pathao and Shohoz have already raised equity funds of \$10 million and \$15 million, respectively. A PwC forecast suggests that sharing-based services will account for total revenues of \$335 billion by 2025. Sharing services have severely disrupted traditional business models and the economy they collectively encompass is referred to as the “Sharing Economy.” Based on a systematic literature review of top management journals and other scholarly works, we present the most overarching conceptualization of sharing-based services. Taking this knowledge forward, this paper not only conceptualizes and compares sharing-based services in Bangladesh but also identifies “collaborative consumption” as the most dominant type of sharing-based services among them. This paper also presents scholarly works on the customers’ motivators and barriers, which creates grounds for future research efforts in Bangladesh concerning collaborative consumption services.

Introduction

The advancement in information technologies has transformed the primitive nature of sharing activities restricted to friends, family, and neighbors into the software-aided exchanges among strangers. Technology-enabled sharing activities can be traced back to 1999 when Napster facilitated the sharing of digital music among peers as a form of peer-to-peer (P2P) file sharing (Belk, 2014). Over the years, start-up companies, with the help of their web-based platforms accessible from mobile applications, have created a bridge between the owners and interested people to ensure the shared consumption of limited resources. From pet-sitting (e.g. DogVacay) to parking-space sharing (e.g. JustPark), there are hundreds of web-based platforms (i.e. services) powering the so-called “sharing economy” by connecting people both locally and globally. Although there are definitional disputes among the scholars, one definition of sharing economy could be consumers granting each other temporary access to under-utilized physical assets (“idle capacity”), possibly for money (Frenken & Schor, 2017).

These services have disrupted several industries and the growth potential of the sharing economy is astonishing. According to the forecast made by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC), five sectors of sharing economy will increase global revenues from \$15 billion in 2015 to \$335 billion in 2025 (PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP, 2015). Each night, on an average 2 million people are sleeping in the beds of strangers through Airbnb- a peer-to-peer accommodation renting platform (Airbnb, Inc.,

2019). However, there are also failure instances of these services across the globe. For example, two of the most valued Unicorn Companies (valued at \$1 billion or more) in the US have lost significant share values recently and are not expected to be profitable in near future (Monica, 2019). Due to its inability to attract users, Stayzilla (an Indian peer-to-peer accommodation sharing platform) closed its operation in 2017 (Täuscher & Kietzmann, 2017).

Academic scholars from diverging academic disciplines have attempted to unravel various aspects of this novel phenomenon (Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018). The earlier cohorts of academic works focused mostly on the conceptualizations of sharing economy, the conceptualizations of the associated business models, and the motivators and barriers to users' participation in these models. In these efforts, academic works have produced fragmented results. The dizzying level of terms (e.g. sharing economy platform economy, two-sided markets, collaborative consumption, access-based consumption, etc.) produced by the scholars bears the evidence of such fragmented results (Benoit, et al., 2017; Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018). Furthermore, most of the conceptual and empirical research does not distinguish among various sharing-based services (Davidson, et al., 2017). Although there are already hundreds of works existing in the academic sphere, there is a dearth of works that have proposed an overarching conceptualization of this novel phenomenon.

We observe that there is a striking contrast between the number of academic works focusing on the western sharing economies and the Bangladeshi one, although Bangladesh, too, has seen the rise of sharing-based services over the past years. In Bangladesh, the ride-sharing has become a \$260 million (22 billion taka) industry (Rahman, 2019) with 6 million rides each month (Kader, 2018) in less than 5 years. However, like other western markets, sharing-based services in Bangladesh are facing tough times with respect to achieving sustainable revenue growth and user acquisition. For example, one ride-sharing start-up valued at \$100 million recently had to downsize nearly 300 mid to top-level employees due to slow revenue growth (Islam, 2019). This incident has shaken the country's entire start-up community and is feared to have long-term consequences. Although few scholarly works have addressed the limited aspects of sharing economy in Bangladesh, the need for academic works that attempt to conceptualize sharing-based services in an overarching manner and unravel the users' motivators and barriers is deeply felt.

Built upon a broader research study, this paper aims to close the above research gaps. More specifically, using Systematic Literature Review method, we have attempted to contribute in the following ways.

First, we present and compare the existing seminal conceptualizations of the sharing-based services to find the most overarching conceptualization that well-explains the boundaries among the services. We take this conceptualization forward to differentiate among the sharing-based services operating in Bangladesh. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper that has attempted to conceptualize the sharing-based services in Bangladesh.

Second, we present the customers' motivators for and barriers to participation in the sharing-based services based on the existing academic works. With the aim to assist the practitioners (i.e. managers) of sharing-based services in Bangladesh, we present the motivators and barriers for the most dominant type of services identified in the conceptualization phase.

Third, we propose future avenues for research that not only would help to close research gaps but also would help the practitioners in moving the sharing-based services forward.

The structure of this paper is as follows. The next section describes the methodology used to search, identify, and scan the academic works. The 3rd section discusses overall findings from the search and identification activities. The 4th section presents the seminal conceptualizations and finds the most overarching conceptualization. Furthermore, this section analyzes Bangladesh's sharing-based services and differentiates among them, based on the conceptualization identified. In the same section, we present the existing scholarly works on the customers' motivators and barriers. The 5th section provides the conclusion in which we discuss this paper's contribution. In the last section, we identify the limitations of this paper and suggest future research avenues.

Methodology

While there are already at least two high-quality works (Cheng, 2016; Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018) that have used Systematic Literature Review as the method to review extensive agenda of sharing economy literature, we have used similar method to pursue more specific agenda- 1) conceptualization of sharing-based services, and 2) customers' motivators and barriers.

To tackle the searching and identifying the relevant academic works, we followed a multi-step process which we briefly describe below.

First, in order to search for the academic works on the sharing-based services, we have utilized the search terms discovered by Sutherland & Jarrahi (2018). These terms were "sharing economy", "shareconomy", "collaborative consumption", "collaborative economy", "gig economy", "access-based consumption", "platform economy", "peer-to-peer economy", and "on-demand economy".

In the second step, we attempted to identify high-quality journals that could potentially deal with topics related to sharing-based services. The rationale behind focusing primarily on high-quality journals is that major contributions in the field are like to come from these journals (Webster & Watson, 2002). In order to find out the high-quality journals, we consulted with the Erasmus Research Institute of Management (ERIM) Journals List, as suggested by Block, et al., (2016). Using this list, we could identify the best management journals (expressed as STAR) and the second-best management journals (expressed as P).

In the third step, we used the Advanced Search option of Google Scholar to run searches using the search terms identified in the first step. We indicated the time frame between 2010-2019 since research suggests that majority of the works were published after 2013 (Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018). To limit the irrelevant results, we used the "exact phrase" field to input the search terms. We also indicated the specific journal names in the "return articles published in" field.

Running searches using the terms as phrases one by one, indicating one specific journal, and setting the time frame resulted in articles that covered a wide range of agenda related to sharing-based services. We scanned and skimmed through the articles to sort out only those that have either proposed any conceptualization or presented the motivators/barriers of sharing-based services. After this process, we finally had the first set of academic works from high-quality journals that served our research aims.

We still needed to address two more concerns. Examining the prior review efforts, we observe that sharing economy has attracted many academic disciplines (e.g. transportation, science & technology, etc.) beyond the management discipline (Cheng, 2016; Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018). Therefore, it is necessary that we take into consideration academic works beyond the management disciplines to see if these works have conceptualized the sharing-based services or explored the customers' motivators/barriers. To do that, we have followed somewhat similar to a snowball method through which we examined the citations produced by the first set of the academic works (Webster & Watson, 2002). In this way, we were able to include academic works that came from outside the management discipline and which have either proposed any conceptualization or presented the motivators/barriers of sharing-based services. Employing this method also facilitated the inclusion of other works (e.g. books, conference proceeding) beyond journal articles.

Findings

At the end of the above process, we were able to identify academic works from a wide range of journals. These journals were, but not limited to, Journal of Consumer Behaviour, Journal of Consumer Research, Journal of Business Research, Journal of Marketing, International Journal of Hospitality Management, Managing Service, International Journal of Information Management, etc. This paper builds on 16 scholarly works (journal articles, book, and conference proceedings) on sharing economy.

Discussion

We observe that the conceptualizations we have identified are few in numbers but distinct in nature. Although often criticized by scholars (Webster & Watson, 2002), we have followed an author-centric approach for the conceptualizations so that we can review them (by author) individually to fully capture their propositions.

In our review, we have avoided reporting all the available works in the sharing economy literature. Instead, we have taken into consideration and elaborately described only the academic works that purposefully serve to the overall aims of this paper. This review approach is also in line with the suggestions put forwarded by the scholars (Fisch & Block, 2018; Short, 2009).

As cited before, scholars differ in their use of the terms (sharing economy, collaborative consumption, access-based consumption, etc.) in order to explain the same or similar sharing-based services. Additionally, we observe that scholars have cited various examples of sharing-based services to complement their conceptualizations. Before we start presenting the works, we provide brief descriptions of these services covered in the conceptualizations.

Couchsurfing is an online platform that connects people with spare spaces in their homes to people who need a place to stay for a short duration (peer-to-peer). Neither the hosts nor Couchsurfing charges the guests any kind of fee in return.

Airbnb is a peer-to-peer online platform that connects people who want to rent out the unused space on a short-term basis (e.g. one night, one week, etc.) to the people who are looking for such accommodation. Airbnb takes a commission for matching the hosts with guests and the guests need to pay the rent for the accommodation.

Uber is a peer-to-peer online platform that connects drivers with passengers for short-distance trips. Like in Airbnb, Uber takes a commission for matching the drivers with the passengers and the passengers need to pay the fare for the trips.

Zipcar is a platform in which the users of the platform get temporary access to the cars owned by the platform based on membership fees. One of the key differences between Uber and Zipcar is that while Uber is a peer-to-peer platform, Zipcar is not.

We believe the above descriptions of the sharing-based services would be helpful for the readership of this paper. Now, we move on to present the conceptualizations.

Conceptualization of sharing-based services

According to Belk (2014), sharing is derived from both functional reasons and altruistic acts. According to his conceptualization, collaborative consumption is "people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation". Since Airbnb and Zipcar promote such coordination of acquisition and distribution of resources, Belk (2014) cites Airbnb and Zipcar as examples of collaborative consumption and labels them as "pseudo sharing" due to the presence of transaction. However, since Couchsurfing runs on altruism without any compensation involved, it is a true sharing service. We observe that Airbnb and Zipcar do not have the same business model. While Airbnb is a peer-to-peer platform where peers own the resources (i.e. space), Zipcar itself owns the resources (i.e. cars) to facilitate the sharing among users based on fees. Hence further distinction between their business models is needed which Belk (2014) did not offer.

Lamberton & Rose (2012) extend the classification of shared goods by illustrating Typology of Sharing Systems based on two considerations- rivalry and exclusivity. They try to sort out different sharing contexts by assigning them to 4 distinct quadrants. Quadrant 1 (public goods sharing) holds for lower exclusivity and lower rivalry with the examples of public parks, roads, and schools. Quadrant 2 (access/club goods sharing) accounts for lower rivalry and higher exclusivity with the examples of private clubs or investment clubs. Quadrant 3 (open commercial good sharing) explains lower exclusivity and higher rivalry with the examples of car sharing, bike sharing, etc. Quadrant 4 (closed commercial goods sharing) accounts for higher exclusivity and higher rivalry with the

examples of cell phone sharing, health co-operatives. We observe that this typology, too, does not provide enough distinction between various types of sharing-based services.

Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) coins the term “access-based consumption” in their work with the definition “transactions that may be market mediated in which no transfer of ownership takes place”. Access-based consumption is different from Belk (2014)’s sharing based on the rationale that, while sharing is motivated by altruistic or prosocial acts, access is derived from economic exchanges and reciprocal benefits (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). This conceptualization has been a seminal work due to its conceptualization of Zipcar-alike services where the platform itself owns the resources and the access is market mediated. However, this conceptualization, too, does not provide any distinct means to differentiate among sharing-based services.

Hamari, et al., (2015) define collaborative consumption as “the peer-to-peer-based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services, coordinated through community based online services”. They consider sharing economy as an umbrella concept that encompasses other phenomena including collaborative consumption. To understand the scopes of collaborative consumption, Hamari, et al., (2015) mapped 254 collaborative consumption websites. They have divided these 254 websites into two categories according to the mode of exchange: access over ownership and transfer of ownership. Access over ownership accounts for renting and lending; while transfer of ownership accounts for swapping, donating, and purchasing of used goods. We find this mapping contradictory to the works of other scholars. First, transfer of ownership (169 of 254 websites mapped) is not considered as a characteristic of either sharing or access-based consumption. Hence, this mapping directly contradicts the works of Belk (2014) and Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012). Second, Hamari, et al., (2015) cite Zipcar and Airbnb as the examples of collaborative consumption. However, we already know that Airbnb and Zipcar differ significantly with respect to their business models.

According to Botsman & Rogers (2010), social lending, swap trading, car sharing, bartering, co-working, peer-to-peer rental, tool exchange- all of them are examples of collaborative consumption. Botsman & Rogers (2010) classify them into three systems- product service systems, redistributed markets, and collaborative lifestyles. Product Service Systems (PSS) encompasses the services “that enable multiple products owned by a company to be shared, or products that are privately owned to be shared or rented peer-to-peer”. PSS thus resembles access-based consumption conceptualized by Bardhi and Eckhardt (2012). On the other hand, collaborative lifestyles encompass sharing of less-tangible assets (e.g. space, skills). We support (Belk, 2014)’s criticism about Botsman & Rogers (2010)’s conceptualization of collaborative consumption as “too broad” since this conceptualization does not make any distinction among marketplace exchange, gift giving, and sharing. Also, this conceptualization considers both Zipcar and Airbnb as examples of collaborative consumption, although they differ significantly with respect to their business models.

Habibi, et al., (2016) offer a Sharing-Exchange Continuum that has two extreme points- exchange and sharing. While sharing contains characteristics such as nonreciprocal, money irrelevant, etc., the exchange contains reciprocal, balanced exchange, monetary, calculation, etc. as characteristics. According to this continuum, Couchsurfing is positioned more to the sharing side since it has dominant sharing characteristics. On the other hand, Zipcar is positioned more to the exchange side since there are balanced exchanges and high calculation involved. Echoing to Belk (2014), Habibi, et al., (2016) state that collaborative consumption occupies the middle ground between true sharing and true exchange. We observe that this conceptualization distinguishes sharing-based services only based on the notion of sharing and exchange. We think that making further distinction among the services taking into consideration the ownership of resources (i.e. platform owned or peer-owned) would make this conceptualization better.

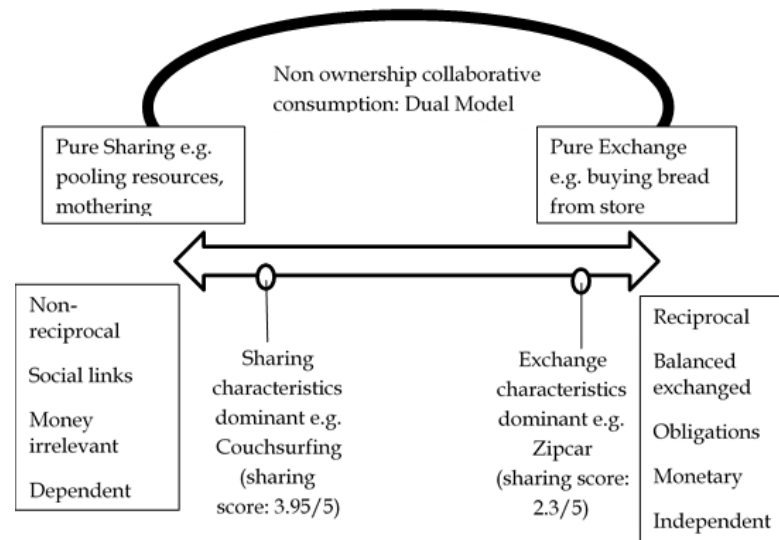


Figure 1: Sharing-exchange continuum, adapted from Habibi, et al., (2016)

Benoit, et al., (2017) provide a framework that helps to conceptualize sharing-based services based on 3 considerations. These are the number and type of actors (dyadic or triadic), the nature of the exchange (i.e. transfer of ownership), and the directness of exchange (i.e. market mediation). We observe that using these considerations, different sharing-based services can be distinguished clearly among themselves.

	Non ownership/access-based services	Collaborative Consumption	Sharing/co-owning
Number and type of actors	Dyadic, between provider and customer	Triadic, between a platform provider, a peer service provider and a customer	Two or more individuals, e.g. within families or friends
Nature of exchange	No ownership transfer, shorter periods of agreed consumption time, sequential use	No ownership transfer, shorter periods of agreed consumption time of underutilized assets from the peer service provider, sequential use	No ownership transfer, Often shared ownerships, therefore simultaneous or sequential use
Directness of exchange	Mediated through market mechanisms	Mediated through market mechanisms	Not mediated through market, but social mechanisms

Table 1: Collaborative consumption and related phenomenon, slightly adapted from Benoit, et al., (2017)

For example, Zipcar corresponds to access-based services since it satisfies all the conditions of the same. On Zipcar, the cars are owned by the platform and shared by customers. Here, the relationship between the actors is dyadic. Zipcar does not involve ownership transfer, rather merely facilitates access to the cars. Additionally, the exchange is market mediated since the customers pay fees to the platform. On the other hand, Airbnb corresponds to collaborative consumption. There are three types of actor on Airbnb. The customer rent the accommodation, the peer service provider rents out his/her space to the customer, and the platform facilitates this renting. Here, the relationship is triadic. Additionally, there is no ownership transfer involved on Airbnb. Lastly, the exchange is market mediated since the platform takes a commission and the peer service provider receives the rent from the customer. Uber, too, corresponds to collaborative consumption based on the above considerations. According to this framework, we may identify Couchsurfing as sharing since Couchsurfing runs on altruism and thus lacks any kind of market mediation.

In the below, Table 2 summarizes all the conceptualizations, related definitions, examples, and their weaknesses and contradictions.

Belk (2014)	Collaborative consumption is people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation	Airbnb, Zipcar	Airbnb and Zipcar do not have the same business model
Lamberton & Rose (2012)	Commercial Sharing System is marketer-managed systems that provide customers with the opportunity to enjoy product benefits without ownership	Zipcar	A distinction among the services is lacking
Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012)	Access-based consumption	Zipcar, Airbnb	A distinction among the services is lacking
Hamari, et al., (2015)	Collaborative Consumption is the peer-to-peer-based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services, coordinated through community based online services	Zipcar, Airbnb	Contradicts with Belk (2014) and Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012)
Botsman & Rogers (2010)	Product Service Systems (PSS) Redistribution Markets Collaborative Lifestyles	Airbnb	Contradicts with Belk (2014), conceptualization is 'too broad'
Habibi, et al., (2016)	Sharing-Exchange Continuum	Airbnb- Collaborative Consumption 2. Couchsurfing-sharing dominant 3. Zipcar- exchange dominant	A distinction among the services is lacking
Benoit, et al., (2017)	Triadic Framework of Collaborative Consumption	Uber	No Lacking

Table 2: Summary of conceptualizations, definitions, examples, and weaknesses

After reviewing the seminal conceptualizations, we identify that the framework provided by Benoit, et al., (2017) explains sharing, collaborative consumption, and access-based services better than any other conceptualizations covered in this paper. Based on our review of the literature, this conceptualization provides the most overarching instrument to date to distinguish among the sharing-based services.

Conceptualizing sharing-based services in Bangladesh

In Bangladesh, ride-sharing dominates the sharing-based services in terms of adoption, growth, and fund raised. With only a few listings, Airbnb represents an insignificant presence in Bangladesh, if anything at all. Dhaka, among all other cities in the country, has been the breeding ground for the ride-sharing services. High traffic congestion and high internet penetration rate have made Dhaka a lucrative city to launch and grow these services (Kamal & Ahsan, 2018). In stark contrast to the western cities where car-based ride-sharing services initially thrive, Dhaka has seen the boom of motorbike-based ride-sharing services (Ahmed, 2018). This has been true for other Asian cities (e.g. Jakarta) as well with one thing in common among them, the unbearable traffic congestion. Bangladesh's ride-sharing market is currently dominated by four services- Uber, Pathao, Shohoz, and OBHAI. Most of them are active in motorbike-based and car-based ride-sharing services but they differ in their strengths, investment raised, and penetration in the market. Pathao and Shohoz have

raised \$10 million and \$15 million in funding in 2018 (Kader, 2019). Pathao's domination in motorbike-based ride-sharing service has been challenged by both Uber and Shohoz with the introduction of UberMOTO and Shohoz Ride. Uber has been an unbeaten champion in the car-based sharing services and according to unconfirmed data, Uber has around 70% market share in the same. OBHAI is still unchallenged in CNG auto-rickshaw space. Additionally, JoBike- a bicycle sharing service, which is the first of its kind in Bangladesh, has started its operation in Dhaka earlier this year.

Uber in Bangladesh, Shohoz, Pathao, and OBHAI connect the drivers with the passengers willing to take short trips based on the mutually agreed, pre-determined fares. Based on similar mobile applications, regardless of car or motorbike-based, these platforms have essentially replicated the business model of Uber ride-sharing services available in other countries.




On the other hand, Airbnb in Bangladesh follows its global business model. It connects the people who want to rent out their under-utilized spaces (i.e. hosts) with the people who are looking for a short-term accommodation (i.e. guests). Based on the pre-determined rent set by the hosts, the guests pay the rent. Airbnb charges a commission for facilitating the exchange.

JoBike facilitates renting a bicycle for a short period of time from the nearby docking station. Based on the mobile application, the users can top-up the credit, locate the nearby docking station and unlock the bicycle through a QR code scanning. Jobike bills the users based on a "pay per minute occupied" model.

Based on the conceptualization of sharing-based services suggested by (Benoit, et al., 2017), it is possible to distinguish among the services operating in Bangladesh. According to their framework, Uber in Bangladesh, Shohoz, Pathao, and OBHAI are examples of collaborative consumption. All these services have 3 actors (e.g. a Pathao driver, a passenger, and the platform Pathao itself) and hence the relationship among them is triadic. Also, there is no ownership transfer involved, the resource is owned by the peer service provider (e.g. bike is owned by Shohoz driver), and the consumption is short-term. Additionally, the exchange is market mediated in which the driver charges the customer and the platform charges the commission for facilitating the exchange. Airbnb in Bangladesh, too, satisfies the above criteria and hence is an example of collaborative consumption.

According to Benoit, et al., (2017)'s conceptualization, JoBike follows the business model of access-based consumption. JoBike has two actors (e.g. the customer and the platform itself) and hence the relationship is dyadic in nature. In contrast to the collaborative consumption, the resource (i.e. bicycle) is owned by the platform (i.e. JoBike) itself. Additionally, the consumption is short-term, and the exchange is mediated through market mediation since the customer pays to the platform on a "pay per minute occupied" basis.

In the below, Figure 2 reflects on the above discussion and presents the conceptualization of Bangladesh's sharing-based services. The figure suggests that no platform (i.e. service) in Bangladesh currently follows a "Sharing" business model. From this figure, it is evident that collaborative consumption is the most dominant type of sharing-based service in Bangladesh.

<p>Access-based consumption</p> 	<p>Collaborative consumption</p> 	<p>Sharing</p> 
<p>Jobike</p>	<p>pathao OBHAI UBER shohoz</p>	<p>No Service Existing</p>
<p>Dyadic, Market Mediated</p>	<p>Triadic, Market Mediated</p>	<p>Triadic, Social Mechanism</p>

Most Dominant Type

Figure 2: Conceptualization of Bangladesh’s sharing-based services

Motivators for and barriers to using sharing-based services

Scholars have been studying the reasons behind people’s acceptance and rejection of sharing-based services. Although our review effort has identified academic works investigating almost all forms of sharing-based services, we present here only the works that have investigated collaborative consumption services, since collaborative consumption is the most dominant type of sharing-based service in Bangladesh. In contrast to our review of conceptualization where we adopted an author-centric approach, we have followed a concept-centric approach for the motivators and barriers (Fisch & Block, 2018; Webster & Watson, 2002; Short, 2009) so that we can review them as constructs that have been explored by more than one author.

Customers’ motivators in collaborative consumption

Our review finds that perceived utility or cost savings play as strong motivators for the customers in using the collaborative consumption services (Hamari, et al., 2015; Habibi, et al., 2016; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018; Möhlmann, 2015). Furthermore, perceived utility or cost savings can have geographical and demographic implications too. For example, a study administered among Indian customers reveals the mediating effect of perceived utility in their adoption of collaborative consumption services (Hamari, et al., 2015). On the other hand, a study administered among American customers shows that cost savings play as a motivator for the young American travellers in their adoption of collaborative consumption services (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018).

Hedonic experience may act as motivators for the people as Habibi, et al., (2016) find that American customers are willing to adopt these services due to the hedonic experience (i.e. having more fun, enjoying life more, etc.) some of these services provide.

Our review finds that convenience and efficacy have positive effects on the customers’ adoption of collaborative consumption services. Customers may find ownership of resources as burdensome and prefer collaborative consumption services instead (Moeller & Wittkowski, 2010). On the other hand, customers’ perception that collaborative consumption services make them more effective in daily life (efficacy) may also motivate them in their adoption (Habibi, et al., 2016).

Social appeals have been found as a determinant of customers’ adoption of the collaborative consumption services. Habibi, et al., (2016)’s study finds that American customers put forward social appeal (e.g. better relationships with others) as a reason for their adoption of collaborative consumption services. Furthermore, Tussyadiah & Pesonen, (2018)’s study reveals that older Finnish customers put forward social appeal as a motivator for their adoption of collaborative consumption services, especially for the adoption of Airbnb-like short-term accommodation renting services.

Trust may act as a strong motivator for the customers in their adoption. Trust not only determines customers' satisfaction with a collaborative consumption service but also affects the likelihood of using that service again (Möhlmann, 2015).

Customers' barriers to collaborative consumption

Process risk/efficacy has been found as Customers' barriers in collaborative consumption. While process risk may refer to risks of sharing with others (Hawlitschek, et al., 2016), efficacy barrier refers to customers' inability to understand how the platform-based peer-to-peer sharing works (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018).

Our review finds that customers may reject to adopt collaborative consumption services due to the perceived importance they put on owning resources compared to not owning. Moeller & Wittkowski, (2010)'s work provides evidence that importance of possession has significant negative effects on customers' adoption. On the other hand, Hawlitschek, et al., (2016)'s work posits that customers are less like to adopt collaborative consumption services due to the independence they derive from owning resources (independence through ownership).

Distrust/Lack of Privacy has been heavily cited as a strong barrier for the customers in collaborative consumption. Distrust towards the platform and the peer service provider (e.g. Airbnb host) may hinder customers' participation in the exchange activities (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018; So, et al., 2018).

While the perceived cost savings have been found as the motivators for the customers in collaborative consumption, perceived cost savings can also hinder the adoption. Tussyadiah & Pesonen, (2018)'s work bears such evidence where American customers did not adopt collaborative consumption services due to their perception that the cost savings were not enough convincing.

Conclusion

The pervasive nature of sharing economy and its services has disrupted many established industries and business models over the last few years. Additionally, strong growth forecast and a fair share of skepticism about its sustainability have put the sharing-based services at the centre of debates among practitioners, scholars, general public, and policymakers. We observe that, while hundreds of scholarly works have emerged on this new phenomenon, there is a dearth of works that have proposed an overarching conceptualization of sharing-based services. Furthermore, in stark contrast to the level of attention given to the sharing-based services in the developed countries, services operating in Bangladesh have received insignificant scholarly attention.

This paper addresses the above research gaps keeping the sharing-based services in Bangladesh as the focal point. Through a systematic literature review, this paper presents the seminal conceptualizations on the sharing-based services and identifies the most overarching conceptualization. With the help of this conceptualization developed by Benoit, et al., (2017), this paper not only conceptualizes and differentiates the sharing-based services operating in Bangladesh but also identifies collaborative consumption as the most dominant type of sharing-based services among them.

Taking the above findings forward, this paper reviews existing scholarly works and presents customers' motivators for and barriers to participation in collaborative consumption services. This paper discusses cost savings, hedonic experience, convenience, efficacy, social appeals, and trust as the motivators; and process risks, importance of possession, distrust, and perceived cost savings as the barriers in customers' adoption. In this way, this paper creates grounds for future scholarly works, which in turn would be helpful for the managers of the collaborative consumption services operating in Bangladesh.

Limitations and avenues for future research

This paper is not without any limitations. While our review of literature has been limited to only a sub-set of top journals, we believe that future review works should include more scholarly

resources. The inclusion of more scholarly works regardless of the disciplines would shed more light on the customers' motivators for and barriers to participation in the sharing-based services. On the other hand, to limit the scope of this paper, we have not covered the peer service providers' (e.g. Uber driver) motivators and barriers. Collaborative consumption services are built on peers and thus both the customers and peer service providers bear equal significance. Future efforts could address this gap and present an extensive review of the peer service providers' motivators and barriers in collaborative consumption services.

Furthermore, future research efforts should include empirical studies focusing on both the customers' and peer service providers' motivators and barriers in Bangladesh. Most of the existing scholarly works on these issues are based on developed/other country's collaborative consumption services, which might not be relevant to Bangladesh's contexts. Unravelling customers' and peer service providers' motivators and barriers could significantly assist the practitioners in Bangladesh and may become instrumental for the sustainability of these services.

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