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### Innovation in the sharing economy: A framework and future research agenda

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## **Innovation in the Sharing Economy: A Framework and Future Research Agenda**

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# Innovation in the Sharing Economy: A Framework and Future Research Agenda

## Highlights

- We highlight service innovation in the sharing economy (SE) as a strategic priority
- Our *Sharing Economy Innovation Framework* synthesises current research
- We emphasise other salient types of innovation in the SE beyond business models
- 12 papers in this Special Issue deepen knowledge on innovations in the SE
- We outline a comprehensive research agenda for service innovation research in SE

**Abstract:** The sharing economy (SE) has been variously described as a disruptive, discontinuous and social innovation. Now, more than a decade since the emergence of seminal platforms such as Airbnb, and amid heightened competition and macroenvironmental pressures, service innovation has become a strategic priority. Our editorial essay is guided by three objectives. First, as a prelude to this Special Issue, we examine the current state of SE service innovation literature. Despite some important contributions, especially in relation to business model innovation, other salient types of service innovation remain underexplored. Second, we position the contributions of the 12 papers in this Special Issue on our novel *Sharing Economy Innovation Framework*, which stipulates both the type of service innovation examined, and the focal dyadic relationships involved. Third, based on remaining gaps in the framework, we outline an agenda for future research on SE innovations.

**Keywords:** Sharing economy, collaborative consumption, service, service management, innovation, service innovation

## 1. Introduction

It has been 15 years since Airbnb and Uber disrupted accommodation and transportation markets, respectively. Today, the sharing economy (SE) pervades various other consumer and industrial markets, including fashion (e.g., Rent-the-Runway), banking (e.g., Monzo), and medical equipment (e.g., Cohealo). Incumbent firms are increasingly implementing SE principles into their business models. For example, in 2019 Urban Outfitters launched Nuuly, a subscription-based platform that gives members temporary access to the latest fashion items. Consequently, the SE is a major (and increasing) contributor to economic development across the globe, for instance representing 10% of annual GDP in China ([Kozlenkova et al., 2021](#)).

Central to the growth of the SE has been innovation, which almost always relates to service innovations. SE platforms operate in fundamentally different environments than firms in the traditional economy. Therefore, while service innovation in traditional services has received a lot of attention in literature (for syntheses see [Snyder et al., 2016](#) and [Witell et al., 2016](#)), “based on its unique characteristics and nature, the SE will make it necessary for marketing scholars to rethink innovation” ([Eckhardt et al., 2019](#), p. 12).

To date, literature on service innovation in the SE, for ease referred to hereafter as innovation research, has mainly covered four themes: types of innovation, innovation diffusion & barriers, incumbent response, and innovation consequences. First, in terms of types of innovation, the SE’s label as a disruptive innovation targeting “often sleepy, sloppy and expensive” incumbents ([Wirtz et al., 2019](#), p. 453) largely rests on business model innovation (e.g., [Gao & Li, 2020](#); [Geissinger et al., 2021](#); [Wiprächtiger et al., 2019](#)). A second stream of research focuses on factors that enable or impede innovation diffusion in the SE. While this work has mainly been at the consumer-level (e.g., [Guttentag & Smith, 2020](#); [Hazée et al., 2019](#); [Paik et al., 2019](#)), recent contributions have generated firm-level (e.g., [Geissinger et al., 2021](#)) and network-level (e.g., [Laczko et al., 2019](#)) insights. Third, researchers have investigated the

impact on and the responses of incumbent firms. Some incumbents have consciously refrained from adapting their strategy (Weber et al., 2019), despite some findings of positive effects (Klein et al. 2022; Lehr et al., 2020), whereas many others have embraced elements of SE business models (Zach et al., 2020). The fourth stream of research examines the positive and negative consequences of the SE innovations for economies (e.g., Köbis et al., 2021), society (e.g., Zheng et al., 2021), and the environment (e.g., Martin, 2016).

Despite the above, relevant research gaps remain. Little is known about the nature of product/service innovation in the SE (Eckhardt et al., 2019). The locus of innovation research in the SE on business model innovation has left a gap in investigating other types of innovations, for example Schiavone et al.'s (2020) study of service experience innovation like what Den Hertog et al. (2010) denoted as new customer interaction or new delivery system. We will showcase the contributions that relate to new interaction models in this Special Issue, such as Hou et al. (2022) on deviant customer behaviour or provider self-disclosure (Tran et al. 2022). We will also show that there are further gaps in investigating issues that go beyond the core triangle of actors, i.e. platform, provider and customer, such as Klein et al. (2022) in providing valuable results on how manufacturers could benefit from the SE and Mai and Ketron (2022) on investigating whether retailers should built up and own the platform or collaborate with a platform.

This editorial essay has three purposes. First, we sought to synthesise current SE (service) innovation. Drawing upon the SE Pentagon (Benoit, 2022) and der Hertog et al.'s (2010) model of service innovation, we propose the *Sharing Economy Innovation Framework*, which helped identify important contributions and research gaps. Second, using the framework, we demonstrate how the 12 articles that constitute the Special Issue fill some of these gaps. Third, we provide a comprehensive research agenda for future research on SE innovation.

This article first describes the particularities of the SE, and then reviews the existing SE innovation research. Based on this foundation, this paper 1) positions current SE innovation research, 2) introduces the articles of this Special Issue, and 3) identifies avenues for future research.

## **2. Conceptual Foundations**

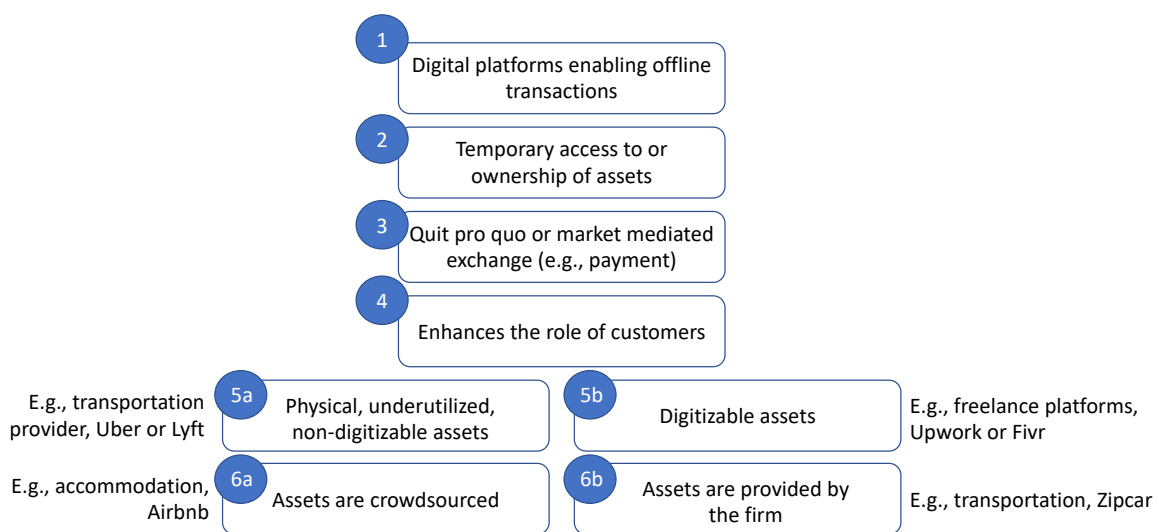
### **2.1. The Sharing Economy**

#### *2.1.1. Conceptualization and Nomenclature*

Literature has identified the following characteristics of SE organizations: (1) they are digital platforms enabling offline transactions between users (e.g. [Belk, 2014](#); [Eckhardt et al. 2019](#); [Gerwe & Silva, 2020](#)); (2) they enable transactions that involve temporary, rather than permanent access to or ownership of assets ([Benoit et al., 2017](#); [Eckhardt et al., 2019](#); [Gerwe & Silva, 2020](#)); this access is (3) either on a quid pro quo exchange or the exchange is mediated through market mechanisms (e.g. payment) (e.g. [Benoit et al., 2017](#); [Eckhardt et al., 2019](#)); and with this, (4) the platform enhances the role of customers ([Eckhardt et al., 2019](#)).

Beyond these four characteristics there is division in the literature with regards to further characteristics and for this [Eckhardt et al. \(2019\)](#) have introduced the idea of a SE Continuum. The fifth criterion characterizing SE organisations specifies the (5) type of product of service that is accessed through them. We would like to expand on this idea and differentiate that while some SE firms (5a, Figure 1) focus on underutilized physical, non-digitizable assets, such as cars or accommodation ([Benoit et al., 2017](#); [Wirtz et al., 2019](#)), other SE firms (5b, Figure 1) focus on digitizable resources, such as work (e.g. task rabbit) or money (e.g. Monzo or Wise; [Eckhardt et al., 2019](#)). The two companies most often referred to as the prototype of a SE company (Airbnb and Uber) both focus on non-digitizable assets, whereas for instance freelance platforms (e.g. Upwork or Fivr) often associated the term “gig economy” ([Gleim et al. 2019](#)) focus on digitizable resources (online work). The sixth criterion relates to (6) who

owns the assets that are accessed. There are two different archetypes of organisations within the SE, (6a, Figure 1). Some platforms (e.g. Uber, Airbnb) do not own the assets and facilitate triadic, peer-to-peer transactions enabled by the platform, whereby the service providers are often private individuals or amateur providers (Belk 2021; Benoit et al., 2017), hence, the supply is crowdsourced (Eckhardt et al. 2019). Other organisations (6b, Figure 1) own the assets and enable sequential sharing amongst consumers (e.g. Zipcar) often also called access based services (Benoit et al., 2017; Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Schaefers et al. 2016).



**Figure 1** Characteristics of Sharing Economy Firm

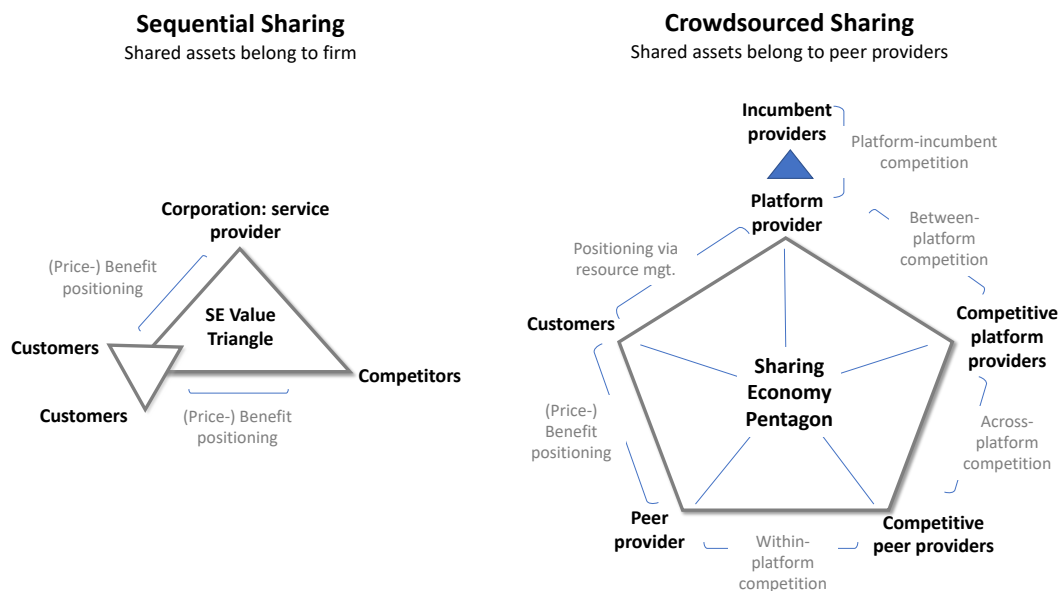
These common characteristics (1-4) of SE firms and the diverging ones (5 and 6) help to resolve inconsistency in nomenclature. Scholars have often treated “sharing economy” synonymously with various labels, including two-sided markets (e.g., Rochet & Tirole, 2006), peer-to-peer economy (Ma et al., 2020), both falling into the category of relying on peer to peer transaction with crowdsourced supply (6a). Other terms such as collaborative consumption (e.g., Botsman & Rogers, 2010; Hamari et al., 2015), and access-based services (e.g., Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Schaefers et al. 2016), rental/access paradigm (Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004), non-ownership services (e.g., Habibi et al. 2016; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004;



Wittkowski et al. 2013) emphasise the sharing aspect, so might fall into either the peer to peer, crowdsources supply or provider supplied assets (6a or 6b). The Sharing Economy Continuum (Eckhardt et al., 2019) reveals some subtle differences between these labels. Given the above the SE is defined as “a socioeconomic system that allows peers [or providers] to grant temporary access to their underutilized physical and human assets through online platforms” (Gerwe & Silva, 2020, p. 71).

### 2.1.2. Actors and Value Propositions: Sequential versus Crowdsourced Sharing

For those SE firms that own the assets that enable *sequential sharing* the transaction can be best described by the strategic (Ohmae, 1982) or value triangle (Brodie et al., 2006). For those firms that rely on assets belonging to peers that enable crowdsourced sharing the transaction can be best described by the SE pentagon (Benoit, 2022) integrating the value triangle with SE triangle (Benoit et al., 2017). It captures the triadic nature of crowdsourced sharing, but additionally sets it into the competitive landscape which is important when investigating innovation (see Figure 2, Benoit (2022)).



**Figure 2** Sequential versus Crowdsourced Sharing

For those SE platforms (Eckhardt et al., 2019) that rely on crowdsourced sharing, the service experience is very dependent on these non- or semi-professional peer providers (Benoit et al., 2017) or, as Belk (2021) calls them, “amateur providers”, whereas it is well known today that many of these providers are professionals (Abrate et al. 2022). Crowdsourced sharing relies on providers impacting the customer experience, whereas in sequential sharing where the firm supplies the asset are provided under a more controlled environment.

The SE pentagon differentiates three types of value propositions. In short, the platform providers value proposition is often 1) a positioning via resource management (e.g., Uber positioning itself by managing demand and supply). The peer providers value proposition can either be a 1) benefit positioning (e.g., the Uber driver only competes via the benefits, the price is chosen by the platform provider) or a 3) price-benefit positioning (e.g., an Airbnb host evaluating the benefits of the rental property and choosing a price him/herself). Additionally, four types of competition in for crowdsourced sharing are differentiated, i.e., platform-incumbent competition (e.g. Uber and taxi companies or Airbnb and hotels), between-platform competition (e.g. Uber and Lyft or Airbnb with flipkey), across platform competition (e.g. Uber/Airbnb trying to poach drivers/hosts from Lyft/flipkey), and within platform competition (e.g. one Uber driver/Airbnb host competing with the other Uber drivers/Airbnb hosts).

## **2.2. Service Innovation Research**

Offerings in the SE are essentially services, that are sold as a performance promise by the platform, whereas during delivery they require customer integration (Breibach & Brodie, 2017; Moeller, 2010; Täuscher & Kietzmann, 2017). Hence, we focus on literature on service innovation defined as “a new process or offering that is put into practice and is adopted by and creates value for one or more stakeholders” (Gustafsson et al., 2020, p. 4). Service innovations are deemed to be very relevant to remain competitive and as an “engine of economic growth” (Snyder et al., 2016, p. 2401). Den Hertog et al. (2010, p. 492) define service innovation as a

“new service experience or service solution”, while [Snyder et al. \(2016\)](#) add that it is something new to both the developer and the set of actors. Other definitions clearly emphasize that newness is not sufficient for an idea to be considered as innovation and that instead some positive change needs to occur; innovations incorporate “a value-added novelty in economic and social spheres” ([Crossan & Apaydin, 2010, p. 1155](#)), meaning there is some positive transformation enhancing welfare ([Ranchordas, 2015](#)).

Innovations more generally and services innovation in particular have been categorized with regards to their degree of (this positive) change, i.e., radical and incremental innovations ([Snyder et al., 2016](#)) or whether this change, i.e. the innovation relates to a process or an outcome, i.e. service or product (e.g. [Crossan & Apaydin, 2010](#); [Gustafsson et al., 2020](#)). For the purposes of integrating innovation research with research on the SE into a framework, it is more relevant to focus on what the target entity (“what”) the innovation relates to, rather than the process or the extent (“how” or “how much”). Various existing frameworks capture the target object of an innovation (e.g., [Crossan & Apaydin, 2010](#); [Gustafsson et al., 2020](#); [den Hertog et al., 2010](#)).

The framework by [den Hertog et al. \(2010\)](#), which we find most suitable for our context differentiates six different target objects for service innovations. First, a *new service concept or offering*, is “often “a new idea of how to organize a solution to a problem or a need of a customer” (p. 494). Second, a *new customer interaction* relates to the “role customers play in the creation of value” (p. 494). Nowadays new modes of interaction are often introduced when new self-service offers are implanted. Third, *new value systems or set of business partners* acknowledges that new services are increasingly offered by a network of providers and services in the SE are an excellent example such new value system, when it was first introduced that peer providers would take care of the main service provision. Fourth, *new revenue models* acknowledge the fact that innovations need to be profitable in the long run to sustain. Many

servitization initiatives, e.g., offering software-as-a-service rather than selling the software require new revenue models. Fifth, innovations can also be related to *new delivery systems: personnel, organization, culture*. This more internal, soft dimension of service innovation incorporates for instance new ways of training or empowering employees or structuring teams. The last and sixth dimension of service innovation relates to the *technological delivery system* meaning that not only interactions with customers might be affected (dimension two), but the entire way of operating, monitoring, or sharing information with other stakeholders. The route tracking of the Uber vehicles can be considered as an innovation with regards to the delivery system.

### **3. Towards a Framework for Innovation Research in the Sharing Economy**

Transferring the six-dimensional model of service innovation from [den Hertog et al. \(2010\)](#) to both the SE value triangle capturing sequential sharing and the SE pentagon capturing crowdsourced sharing ([Benoit, 2022](#)) results into the following framework. For sequential sharing operated by firms not relying on crowdsourced assets rows A, E, and G are most relevant. For crowdsourced sharing operated by platforms likely all eight main relationships within the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework will be impacted by the dimensions of innovation (see Figure 3). In the following to enhance the flow of the text we will utilize the term platform not only to refer to platforms operating crowdsourced sharing (e.g. Uber), but also for firms operating sequential sharing (e.g. Zipcar).

	1. New service concept	2. New customer interaction	3. New partners, value system	4. New revenue model	5. New delivery system through personnel, culture or organization	6. New delivery system through technology
A. Platform/firm – customer	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6
B. Platform/firm – Provider	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
C. Provider – Customer	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6
D. Provider – Provider	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6
E. Platform/firm- Incumbent	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6
F. Provider – Incumbent	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
G. Platform A/firm A – Platform B/firm B	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6
H. Platform B/firm B – providers from A	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6

**Figure 3** Sharing Economy Innovation Framework

Even for crowdsourced sharing not all 56 fields in this framework are equally relevant. For instance, a *new service concept* (1) will mainly impact the relationship between the platform, its customers (A1), its providers (B1), and the incumbent competitors (F1) as well as the other platforms (G1). A new service concept usually impacts other relationships less it is the same for all providers and customers (C1 and D1, intra-platform competition). This is unless the new service concept increases the competition amongst providers (e.g., Airbnb changing the criteria for super hosts making entering the market for new hosts harder). Similarly, even though a *new delivery system* through a new organisation or culture might (the 5<sup>th</sup> dimension) impact all relationships, the predominantly impacted relationships is the one between the platform and the providers (B5) and the providers amongst each other (D5). At the same time a *new delivery system through technology* (the 6<sup>th</sup> dimension), e.g., a new app might impact all relationships, with the provider-provider relationships (D6) being impacted least, since again the new delivery system will be the same for all providers.

In the following this framework will be used for three purposes: 1) to locate the current innovation research in the SE, 2) to locate the papers in this Special Issue and 3) identify gaps and fruitful areas for future research.

### **3.1. Service Innovation Research in the Sharing Economy**

Our review of SE of literature revealed four related macro themes: 1) types of innovation; 2) service innovation diffusion and rejection; 3) incumbent responses; and, 4) outcomes. We discuss contributions in each of these four themes, and where appropriate, map them onto the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework as shown in Figure 3.

#### ***3.1.1. Types of Service Innovation in the Sharing Economy***

[Eckhardt et al. \(2019\)](#) observed that the SE has hitherto tended to rely on business model innovation, i.e., “various ways in which platforms extract value by enabling transactions between providers and users” (p. 12). Here, the locus of innovation corresponds to A1, A3 & A4 as well as B1, B3 and B4 (Figure 3). For instance, [Gao and Li’s \(2020\)](#) case study of Chinese bike-sharing platform Mobike enabling sequential sharing reveals the need for business model innovation when entering foreign markets; it “innovated its business model in both China and the UK, but it did so through different innovation paths” (p. 9). For example, due to higher labour and operation costs compared to China, Mobike UK could not afford to have its own operation and maintenance team, and thus hired third-party firms to manage its operations ([Gao & Li, 2020](#)). [Wiprächtiger et al. \(2019\)](#) derive a framework for access-based business model innovation in Frontier Markets, demonstrating how access-based business model innovations can minimize idiosyncratic contextual issues (e.g., institutional environment, industry dynamics, and infrastructural development), and spur economic growth by giving importance to the factors of contextual intelligence. In a comparison of different innovation orientations in the SE, [Wirtz et al. \(2019\)](#) show that pipeline businesses tend to

adopt internalized systems of innovation, whereby innovation emerges from within the firm, whereas platform businesses also have an external innovation focus.

The literature also sheds some light on innovations in the SE around new customer interactions (the 2<sup>nd</sup> dimension), particularly between customers and peer providers (C2). For instance, relative to the standardised hotel rooms and customer service offered by hotel chains, peer providers offer more idiosyncratic, personalised and authentic services that enhance customer satisfaction; “in particular when the hosts strive to make the guests feel at home” (Köbis et al., 2021, p. 325). Schiavone et al. (2020) examine service experience innovation via a case study of Saluber, a sharing platform that offers logistics services for non-emergency medical transportation in Italy. The authors identify how the SE principles can enhance customer satisfaction at the macro-level (via social service experience, A6), the micro-level (via customer experience mechanism C6), and the meso-level (via optimising networking effects among other healthcare organisations).

However, despite Eckhardt et al.’s (2019) call for more innovation research beyond business model innovation, gaps remain. Drawing on our Sharing Economy Innovation Framework (Figure 3), we know little about new service concepts (the 1<sup>st</sup> dimension), new partner and value systems (the 2<sup>nd</sup> dimension), new delivery systems through personnel (the 5<sup>th</sup> dimension), organization and culture, and new delivery systems through technology (the 6<sup>th</sup> dimension) and how they impact the various relationships in sequential and crowdsourced sharing.

### ***3.1.2. Diffusion and Rejection of Sharing Economy Innovation***

Attention has also been paid to the various drivers (e.g., Moehlmann, 2015; Moeller & Wittkowski, 2010) and barriers to SE business model acceptance among consumers (e.g. Hazée et al. 2020), mainly impacting the relationship between the platform and the customer (A). At the consumer-level, Guttentag and Smith (2020) segment SE consumers based on their

attitudes towards this innovation. For instance, early adopters are less attracted to Airbnb's hotel-like features than they are to non-hotel forms of travel lodging, whereas non-adopters exhibit lower novelty-seeking tendencies and innovativeness towards information technology. [Cheah et al. \(2020\)](#) identify antecedents of consumer attitudes towards service innovation in the relation to Uber X, concluding that perceived usefulness of the innovation and positive word-of-mouth significantly influence consumers' attitude towards the ridesharing platform. [Huang et al. \(2020\)](#) attributes to a "pro-innovation bias" the preponderance of literature that points to positive consumer responses to the SE.

A substantial body of research has now emerged examining consumers' rejection of SE innovation. For example, drawing on data from online reviews of Airbnb properties, [Huang et al. \(2020\)](#) provide a comprehensive list of online and offline service issues that explain continued consumer innovation resistance. Meanwhile, [Hazée et al. \(2020\)](#) identified a broad range of factors that lead to SE innovation rejection, including functional barriers (e.g., complexity, value, and risk) and psychological barriers (e.g., compatibility, image, and responsibility). More specifically, [Hazée et al.'s \(2019\)](#) research on innovation adoption identifies contamination concerns about as a key reason why some consumer reject SE services, concluding that marketing communications should avoid imagery of other peers making physical contact with shared products.

### ***3.1.3. Incumbent Response***

Research demonstrates mixed responses of incumbents to SE innovations mainly relating to the relationship between platforms and incumbents (row E in the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework). Some incumbent managers have not made substantial changes. [Weber et al. \(2019\)](#) note how some incumbents perceive embracing elements of the SE would violate the institutions that were the basis for their previous success. Moreover, some incumbents



cognitively marginalize SE competitors as illegitimate and sub-standard niche (Weber et al., 2019).

However, most incumbent firms have taken at least some measures to respond to the competitive threat of SE platforms. Some incumbents have simply responded with price decreases, as has often been the case among taxi services in response to the rise of ridesharing platforms (Hossain, 2020). Other firms have more fundamentally innovated their business models to compete. Illustratively, in the accommodation sector, major players such as Accor, Hyatt, Marriott and Wyndham have incorporated some SE principles into their business models; “Hilton today is the only large US lodging firm that has not entered the peer-to-peer-like lodging market” (Zach et al., 2020, p. 7). It has been pointed out, however, that incumbent response depends on their brand positioning. For example, in the temporary accommodation sector, low quality hotels respond to Airbnb by reducing prices; higher quality hotels increase prices and investment in service quality (Chang & Sokol, 2020).

Yet there remain unanswered questions about how incumbents approach innovation in response to the SE competition (platform-incumbent competition). For example, Eckhardt et al. (2019) raise questions about whether or not the relative importance of key product attributes (e.g., status vs. durability) differ between products that a consumer buys for personal consumption versus a product that he or she plans to (also) share with others. Further, and in relation to new partners, value system innovation (the 3<sup>rd</sup> dimension in Figure 3), little is known about relationships between incumbents and SE platforms (i.e., row E of Figure 3). For instance, Lehr et al. (2020) suggest that SE encounters might be conceptualised as unintended trials that have positive spill-over effects for product manufacturers. For example, ridesharing with a certain car has positive effects on consumers attitude, purchase intention, and word-of-mouth in relation to this brand.

#### ***3.1.4. Consequences of Sharing Economy Innovation***

Consequences of SE innovations can relate to each field in the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework (Figure 3), whereas extant literature mostly looks at consequences for consumers (row A and C in our framework) and peer providers (row B), for incumbents (row E) as well as the economy and society reaching beyond our framework. The latter stream in particular given the many negative consequences led to various research on regulating the SE.

The SE has been labelled a “social innovation” (Zheng et al., 2021), reflecting its various positive social and psychological outcomes for customers and peer providers, including personal growth and a sense of community (Köbis et al., 2021). However, research also investigate the negative impact of the SE. For crowdsourced sharing, the platform is dependent on the provider (e.g. Airbnb hosts) to provide a good experience, whereas in sequential sharing the firm usually has more control of the customer experience due to owning the assets and managing contact points. Particularly for crowdsourced sharing, the customer experience is more difficult to manage (Eckhardt et al., 2019) and numerous examples show that experiences are not always positive (e.g., Chen & Tussyadiah, 2021). Illustratively, research has focussed on the dark side of the SE innovations, including a higher incidence of consumer misbehaviour due to the increased difficulty of monitoring and managing consumers, relative to traditional services (Chen & Tussyadiah, 2021; Ma et al., 2020; Schaefers et al. 2016).

Although much attention has been paid to just a few sectors, notably accommodation and transport, empirical work shows that the economic impacts of the SE on incumbents are wide-ranging; in Sweden, the SE has had substantial effects on 17 sectors and 47 subsectors, in which a total of 165 unique SE actors now operate (Geissinger et al., 2020). Illustrating firm-level consequences for incumbents, Dogru et al. (2019) quantify the effects of Airbnb supply across several hotel KPIs. In the context ten major U.S. hotel markets (2008 to 2017), the researchers observe statistically and economically significant negative effects of increasing Airbnb supply on three hotel KPIs: performance metrics within the hotel industry: room

revenues, average daily rates and occupancy rates. Collectively, these adverse effects signal a high level of consistency with the tenets of the theory of disruptive innovation (Dogru et al., 2019).

On a more general level, Hossain (2020) identifies three broad areas of SE outcomes: *economic, societal, and environmental impact*. At the macroeconomic level, the SE has made positive contributions to GDP growth (Dabbous & Tarhini, 2021) and “promoted entrepreneurship, job creation, and economic growth the conventional labor market” (Hossain, 2020, p. 7). Further, sharing platforms enhance market outcomes by increasing competition among providers and market efficiency (Köbis et al., 2021). Illustratively, the SE as a social innovation “promotes a more efficient use of resources, social bonding, equal access to goods and services, new and flexible employment, non-monetized interactions and the power of ‘peers’ and of communities” (Ciulli & Kolk, 2019, p. 995).

Likewise, scholars have demonstrated both positive and negative effects of the SE on the environment. Encouragingly, empirical work demonstrates that the SE can make positive contributions to each of the United Nation’s 17 Sustainable Development Goals, which include climate action, conservation of oceans and seas, and protection of terrestrial ecosystems (Boar et al., 2020). However, not sustainable by default (Curtis & Mont, 2020), the SE might “ironically reinforces unsustainable economic activities”, the lower prices and access (rather than ownership) stimulating overuse of goods and services (Hossain, 2020, p. 8). Ciulli and Kolk (2019) warn of the SE’s mission drift from the attainment of sustainable goals toward profit, while Martin (2016) concludes that the trends in the sharing “reinforce the current unsustainable economic paradigm” (p. 159).

Given these sometimes negative economic, social and environmental impacts, governments have increasingly sought to regulate the SE. A recent study into the potential for SE platforms to contribute to sustainability at the business ecosystem level warns that “various

stakeholders may influence the co-creation activities, and societal conditions (i.e., institutional regulations, government policies) may restrict product or service innovations” (Rong et al., 2021, p. 3). Lee et al. (2022) note salient institutional-level antecedents of technology innovation in South Korea’s shared mobility market, notably government intervention, regulatory rate, and taxation. Against the backdrop of several major U.S. cities banning rideshare platforms (2011-2015), Paik et al. (2019) identify key determinants of regulatory barriers to SE innovation, including (but not limited to) aspects of political competition, size of city, and the unemployment rate.

### 3.2. Service Innovation in the Sharing Economy: the Papers of this Special Issue

Based on the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework (Fig. 3), we locate the papers in this Special Issue, see Figure 4 for details. Below, we provide a summary of the 12 papers included in this Special Issue, which we organise by each paper’s focal dyadic relationship.

	1. New service concept	2. New customer interaction	3. New partners, value system	4. New revenue model	5. New delivery system through personnel, culture or organization	6. New delivery system through technology
A. Platform/firm – customer	A1	A2 Customer deviant behavior	A3	A4 On-demand features	A5	A6 Co-creation on healthcare platforms
B. Platform/firm – Provider	B1	B2 Awe and territoriality in sharing	B3	B4	B5 Credibility in crowdsourcing campaigns	B6 Photo verification
C. Provider – Customer	C1	Provider self disclosure Prosumer customer exchange	C3 Social capital creation	C4 Pricing in content sharing	C5	C6
D. Provider – Provider	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6
E. Platform/firm- Incumbent	E1	E2	E3 Retail ownership vs collaboration	E4	E5	E6
F. Provider – Incumbent	F1	F2	F3	F4 Buying to Share	F5	F6
G. Platform A/firm A – Platform B/firm B	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6
H. Platform B/firm B – providers from A	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6

**Figure 4** Papers in the Special Issue in the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework

### ***3.2.1. The platform-customer dyad***

Three papers contribute to our understanding of innovations that enhance platform-customer relations. Hou et al. (2022, cell A2) employed a mixed-method research design to examine antecedents of deviant sharing avoidance behaviours (DSV), which includes consumers' refusal to share information about digital accounts with others. Consistent with Protection Motivation Theory, perceived threat and severity of data loss have positive effects on DSV. In line with Social Exchange Theory, economic benefit and altruism exert negative and positive effects, respectively. The results thus offer important clues as to innovative strategies that SE platforms can use to promote consumer DSV. Schaefers et al. (2022, cell A4) explain how on-demand features (ODFs), a service innovation allowing customers to temporarily access additional features of a product they already own, enhance providers' capacity to generate recurring revenues. Specifically, and in line with Fairness Theory, two experiments reveal that the positive effects of ODF tangibility and pricing structure on customers' purchase intention are mediated by fairness perceptions. Finally, Akter et al. (2022, cell A6) identify salient antecedents and consequences of perceived service innovation in the context of healthcare SE platforms. Results from survey research show that consumers' perceived value of co-creation activities positively influence perceptions of service innovation, which in turn enhance perceived value of the service, and perceptions of consumer welfare.

### ***3.2.2. The platform-provider dyad***

Three contributions to this Special Issue focus on the relationship between SE platforms and providers. Through five experiments, Wang et al. (2022, cell B2) demonstrate how feelings of awe exert a stronger influence on individual's intention to share resources than other positive emotions (e.g., happiness). Results further reveal that the effect of awe on sharing intention is reinforced in high (vs. low) perceived similarity context and when consumers exhibit promotion focus (vs. prevention focus). The authors conclude by outlining innovative ways

through which SE platforms might evoke this emotion. Xu et al. (2022, cell B5) discuss innovative ways through which crowdsourcing platforms can help their crowdsourcers to build trust, improve their crowdfunding performance. Based on data from a popular Chinese crowdsourcing platform “Xiao Yu’er”, results show that gamification-based trustworthiness (e.g., trust based on whether the crowdsourcer uses an avatar, the number of badges they have) positively effects crowdfunding performance. Finally, in the context of home-sharing, Ma et al. (2022, cell B6) empirically establish a positive relationship between a novel service innovation, *photo verification*, and providers’ sales performance. This positive relationship is more pronounced for properties without third party certification and for properties with relatively few customer reviews.

### **3.2.3. *The provider-customer dyad***

Four papers in this Special Issue give insight into enhancing provider-customer relations. Tran et al. (2022, cell C2) identify an innovative communication tactic that providers can use to increase sales. Specifically, providers’ self-disclosure (including both the breadth and depth of disclosure) enhances purchase intentions by a) increasing consumer trust in the provider, and b) reducing consumer perceived risk. Xiang et al. (2022, cell C2) observe differences in the antecedents of transactional consumer outcomes (i.e., bookings) and relational consumer outcomes (i.e., consumer civility). Economic factors (positive effect), service flexibility (negative effect), and service knowledge (positive effect) influence bookings. However, of those three variables, only service flexibility (positive effect) influences consumer civility, although these relationships critically depend on how many properties the host provides on SE platforms.

Taking a Social Capital Theory perspective, Toth et al. (2022, cell C3) shed light on barriers to innovation in the SE. Importantly, in-depth interviews reveal that developed social capital is relatively non-transferable to/across SE platforms and that reputation systems can

hinder innovation due to the dependency on ratings and reviews. The authors conclude by recommending that SE platforms reshape networks by disintermediating established businesses. Finally, Yang et al. (2022, cell C4) present evidence that the price of online content positively influences providers' sales but negatively influences customer satisfaction for certified sharers; the opposite is true for non-certified users. Based on the research findings, the authors discuss how providers' trade-off between sales performance and customer satisfaction when adjusting content price.

#### ***3.2.4. The platform-incumbent dyad***

In a contribution to knowledge on incumbents' response to the SE Mai and Ketron (2022, cell F3) ask how, and through what mechanisms, retailer involvement in the SE (i.e., ownership of vs. collaboration with SE apps) affects anticipated service quality and value co-creation. Results from two experimental studies demonstrate that full ownership (vs. collaboration with an independent app) leads customers to anticipate higher service quality and greater value co-creation due to higher perceived credibility.

#### ***3.2.5. The provider-incumbent dyad***

"Buying to share" by Klein et al. (2022, cell F4) makes an important contribution to the relatively underexplored SE provider-incumbent relationship. Their research shows that the providers (in the authors manuscript called prosumers) prospect of sharing the asset after the purchase increases consumers buying intention particularly for expensive assets. Hence, unlike prior research, which often sees peer-to-peer (P2P) asset sharing as an alternative to purchasing and as such as a threat to manufacturers, these authors investigate the SE as an alternative means for manufacturers to participate in the SE.

### **3.3. Service Innovation in the Sharing Economy: A Research Agenda**

In line with the focus of prior research 10 out of 12 manuscripts in this Special Issue focus on either one of the main relationships in the SE triangle: A. Platform-Customer, B. Platform-Provider, or C. Provider-Customer. It is important to better understand the impact of innovations to this core triangle of actors. This said, fifteen years after the emergence of the SE further research should go beyond this core triangle of actors and investigate how innovations impact other relationships in the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework.

For instance, from our literature review and as shown Figure 4, there is a gap of research focussing on how innovation impacts the provider-provider relationship. Further research could focus on this relationship and, for instance, investigate responses to one provider upgrading the service and differentiating through innovation, e.g. an Airbnb host having a key box (rather than personal handover of the keys), or providing amenities like shampoo. Will this merely lead to a segmentation of hosts on the platform, or will other hosts feel they need to catch up with this innovation to stay relevant? Related, how do providers make judgments on their prices, given that they can directly see the prices of their competing hosts and given that competitor prices are just one determinant of price setting (over and above to cost and customer willingness to pay)? For those platforms that let providers choose the price, service upgrading might lead to price differentiation, but what about upgrading through innovations for those services in which the platform chooses the price such as the case for Uber. What if one Uber driver starts offering water to their customers, leading to better reviews, leading to more business. Will others also upgrade their service level? And will those not doing this be driven out of the market?

Another fruitful and largely underexplored area is the relationship between the platform and incumbent firms (E). How do incumbents compete against SE platforms? A recent article stated that in California, where Uber started, the taxi sector is estimated to be down 75% since 2012 (Carpenter, 2020). Will incumbents trying to survive move into similar territory and offer



peer-peer-assets such as Marriott, the largest hotel company in the world having launched Homes & Villas by Marriot in 2019? Will incumbents try to capitalize from the platform to generate business, as increasingly hostels and B&Bs list their rooms on Airbnb for example? Or, will incumbents try to differentiate themselves and focus on the superiority of their professional assets and services such as the taxi companies emphasising approved drivers and no surge pricing? How will manufacturers producing the shared assets react, such as car manufacturers? In our literature review we mentioned [Lehr et al. \(2020\)](#) finding positive spill over effects for the brand from the unintended trial during SE transactions. [Klein et al. \(2022\)](#) find that the prospect of sharing leads to a higher purchase intention particularly for luxury goods. These are two contributions, but further research could investigate this relationship between platforms and incumbents either offering an equivalent service (such as hotels) or producing the asset for purchase (such as car manufacturers).

Currently, most SE markets are still in the growth phase, so there has not been much research on across platform competition (G) and how innovations impact this relationship. Questions worth investigating relate to the market entry of the platforms, under what circumstances do first mover advantages hold? How much does the second platform benefit from the first mover having broken down the potential consumer hesitation to consume via sharing? Similarly relevant, but unexplored is the relationship between platforms and providers from competing platforms (H), e.g. Lyft trying to attract Uber drivers. What do platforms do to build switching barriers for their providers? What do second movers into SE markets do to reduce barriers for providers from competing platforms, e.g. allow them to transfer their reputation from one platform to the other? What is the competitive reaction to one platforming trying to poach providers? All these question will become increasingly relevant once the players can mainly grow by taking each other's market share.

Looking at the columns in Figure 4 we can see that the only column which does not have a contribution from this Special Issue is the “new service concept”, defined as a new idea of solving a customer’s problem (den Hertog et al. 2010). Therefore, future research could investigate the disruption potential of peer-to-peer transactions as a new service concept in sectors other than transportation and accommodation. According to prior research, we need to expect many more sectors to be disrupted by the SE (Fehrer et al. 2018). Going beyond the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework interesting avenues for further research emerge in how government and third-party regulation can keep up with the constant stream of innovations in the SE. Further questions worth investigating are how are innovations, market entry and in particular competition between platforms and incumbents influenced by legal and political aspects (e.g., the UK deciding that Uber drivers have employee status). How does banning SE firms such as Germany deciding not ban Uber influence the market and incumbents?

#### **4. Conclusion**

This Special Issue aims to contribute to a field of research that has not received enough attention yet and that is the overlap of (service) innovation research and SE research. The 12 papers in this Special Issue described in section 3.2 make great contributions to move the field forward. They cover various novel areas and generate interesting findings. Beyond those contributions it is encouraged to explore further research on innovation in the SE. To do so we provide a structure for further research: the Sharing Economy Innovation Framework. By demonstrating the areas that have been covered by existing research as well as by the articles in this Special Issue we are able to identify areas that have not been covered by research yet. Based thereon the paper develops an agenda for further research outlined in section 3.3.

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