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The Motivation Factors of Non-Ownership Consumption

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Abstract

There has been a rising trend that consumers choose to engage in consumption based on renting, swapping, sharing, bartering and gifting with the use of new technology and product-service systems, in the USA. We wanted to explore whether the same factors motivating such consumption is true for Norwegian consumers, and whether there is a potential for such services in the Norwegian market. The purpose of this master thesis is to investigate which factors motivate non-ownership consumption. We have studied Norwegian consumers of car sharing, music streaming and rental service of various goods where the users make transactions with each other.

Our thesis is based on a literature study of previous research on non-ownership and product-service systems, and a qualitative study of Norwegian consumers. The qualitative study is a case study of users of three Norwegian product-service systems; Bildeleringen, Spotify and Sindro. The background for our model and research is mainly the articles and studies of Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), Durgee and O'Connor (1995) and Scholl (2008). We study seven motivation factors, put together by factors from the different theories mentioned above; simplicity orientation, perceived economic gain, variation and experience seeking, image orientation, environmentalism, trend orientation and exploration and trial. We also study impediments to non-ownership that might impair the motivation factors; the functional perspective (i.e. transaction costs, information economics, principal-agent issues and property rights) and the symbolic perspective (i.e. symbolic meaning of objects).

Our results show that the consumers from our study are not motivated to engage in non-ownership consumption by all the factors we started with. The revised model includes freedom from ownership, convenience orientation, perceived economic gain, environmentalism and testing. In addition, information economics (quality predictability) and transaction costs might serve as impediments to non-ownership consumption even though the motivation factors mentioned are present.

Preface

This thesis is part of the master's degree at Norwegian School of Economics, written within the main profile, Marketing and Brand Management.

We were introduced to the subject of non-ownership through the course Consumer Behaviour, and chose this as the topic for our thesis because of its newness and because it was relatively unexplored in Norway so far. We were intrigued by the idea of access rather than ownership, and were curious as to whether the Norwegian market might have the same potential for adapting to this type of consumption as the American market has.

Our study may hopefully provide the Norwegian product-service market with useful insight. As the sample we used for this study is relatively small and mainly consists of consumers especially interested in the topic, one should be careful when generalizing our results to the rest of the Norwegian consumers. In addition, we have not covered all the different services available, implying that other factors may apply to other services. Nevertheless, the data have been gathered through in-depth interviews, and our results seem to correlate well with previous international studies. We therefore believe that our contribution is of some importance and should be useful to existing and coming suppliers of product-service systems.

The thesis has been an interesting, exciting and educational process for us. The freedom to choose a subject that has intrigued and interested us in this manner has been both motivating and challenging.

We would like to thank our supervisor, Professor Sven Arne Haugland, for guiding us through the process, and for his support and excellent feedback throughout our work. We would also like to thank the respondents to our interviews for their time and for providing us with in-depth and enlightening answers. We would also like to thank Bildelingen and Sindro for providing us with these respondents and for their interest in our thesis. Lastly, we are grateful to our friends

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1. Introduction

Rachel Botsman and Roo Rogers (2010) argue in their book, “*What's mine is yours: The rise of collaborative consumption*”, that there is a new market trend arising; we are on our way out of a threatening consumer trance that they call hyper-consumerism, a trend that exploded in the mid-1950’s, now threatening the economy, society and environment. They argue that we are transforming out of the hyper-consumerism because of a value shift. The value shift is associated with some consumers becoming aware that the hyper-consumerism, based on infinite growth and infinite use of resources, is perhaps not a sustainable combination. At the same time, they argue that these consumers are recognizing that, while we are constantly seeking material things, it has weakened or damaged their relationship with friends, family, neighbours and the planet. This means that these consumers are more concerned with what they buy and what they can get out of the things they already have (Botsman and Rogers 2010).

Botsman and Rogers (2010) call this development *collaborative consumption*. The phenomenon characterizes these consumers’ lifestyles. It is based on traditional sharing, bartering, lending, trading, renting, gifting, and swapping, redefined through technology and peer communities. The most popular and largest examples of collaborative consumption are Internet based marketplaces like Ebay, social lending like Zopa, peer-to-peer travel sites like Airbnb and CouchSurfing, and car sharing like Zipcar among many others. These communities and networks are prevalent in the USA among other countries, but are not yet widespread in Norway. We want to study the phenomenon among Norwegian consumers, to see whether they have the same motivations for engaging in such consumption and services, as in other countries. We have limited our study to look at the part of collaborative consumption based on *lending and renting*, in other words not *owning* the product itself. Our research question is as follows:

“*What motivates non-ownership consumption? Why are some consumers renting instead of owning?*”

In other words, why have some consumers decided to rent as part of their lifestyle? By renting and non-ownership, we mean short-time, high-frequency renting; examples include renting cars

and bikes through sharing services, renting music and videos through streaming services and renting clothes, accessories and other fashion items through rental services. In other words, we concentrate on rental of any products that these consumers need in their daily life but has chosen to rent rather than own outright. We do not consider long-time, low frequency renting such as for apartments or holiday homes. We also exclude renting products for a one-time occasion, for example renting skiing equipment for a weekend. The keyword is lifestyle: these consumers have made a decision to rent rather than own on a daily basis, and we want, through this study, to know why they are doing this.

There seems to be several reasons for why consumers choose to rent rather than own. Botsman and Rogers (2010) argue that many consumers are anti-materialistic and environmentally conscious. So do Durgee and O'Connor (1995), claiming that these consumers are instrumentally materialistic, seeking access to the product's functions, rather than seeking the product itself. Lawson (2011) mentions, in addition to environmentalism, factors like freedom from the burdens of ownership, variety seeking and seeking a high value for a low price. Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), in line with Lawson (2011), mention price consciousness in addition to experience orientation (meaning that they consume experiences, rather than objects), and convenience orientation. In addition, these authors mention the opportunity to access the newest trends, both in fashion and in technology without making large investments. They also mention the opportunity to try out different products before buying them.

The topic of collaborative consumption and non-ownership consumption is relevant, as there seems to have been a significant growth of such services and business models in the USA the past decade (Collaborative Consumption Hub, 2012). Examples include car sharing services such as Zipcar, Drive my car and Rent a wreck, fashion-rental services such as Bags to Riches, Rent the Runway, Bag, Borrow and Steal and Bling Yourself and several other rental or sharing services including Bookswim, Smartbike, Netflix, Airbnb, Spotify and Snapgoods. The increase in these types of services in the USA might mean that we can expect something similar in Norway. By studying the non-ownership services that already are established in Norway, through interviewing existing customers about their consumption patterns and opinions of using these services, we might get an overview of what to expect and how to develop such services. We may

be able to say something about whether there is a potential for product-service systems in Norway. As this is only a small study, we know that it will not provide generalizable answers and results. Nevertheless, we can suggest tendencies and insights that might be helpful to some new or existing operators in the Norwegian market for such services. In addition, we might be able to identify which products and services the Norwegian market is ready for. Based on our result, we might be able to provide advice to managers of product-service systems on how to market the services and how to customize and develop product-services to fit transumers' needs. We also want to find out whether there is a tendency that consumers are becoming less materialistic, as they give up ownership of materialistic goods, or whether they rather want to save money and avoid responsibility and stress related to owning a product.

Through this study, we also hope to contribute to the theoretical understanding of factors, or drivers, explaining and motivating non-ownership, and factors enhancing or impairing these drivers. In other words, we hope to contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon; what causes it, and how the market should be made for the phenomenon to take root and grow in the Norwegian market. We also want to study different groups of respondents and different services to see whether there are variations in what may affect what motivates non-ownership.

This thesis is structured as following; we will first present relevant theory, mainly theories that explain the phenomenon and define relevant concepts, and studies that proposes some potential factors motivating non-ownership consumption. Further, we will present our model of motivation factors for non-ownership consumption and define our variables that we will further use in this research, followed by a presentation of the research method of this study. Finally, we will present our findings and provide an in depth analysis and discussion of these findings, followed by a revised model of motivation factors for non-ownership consumption. A discussion and implication chapter will give the reader a summary of the findings and implications of this thesis.

2. Theory

The theory presented in this chapter is based on articles and studies we found to be relevant for our research topic. First, literature describing the phenomenon is presented to give the reader an understanding of the topic. Further, we present theory about product-service systems and non-ownership consumption, which serves as an appraisal of the research topic we will look further into in our study, followed by literature helping us explain why this topic is relevant. We thereafter have chosen to concentrate on studies and articles that are relevant for describing why consumers accept loss of ownership, enabling us to develop motivation factors and impediments for on non-ownership consumption, this will in our research help us answer our research question.

2.1. The Rise of Collaborative Consumption

Botsman and Rogers (2010) explain the development in consumer behaviour as the rise of *Collaborative Consumption*; a phenomenon where “collaborative individuals” participate in swap trading, local exchange trading systems, bartering, social lending, peer-to-peer rental, sharing and co-working, among others. It can be seen as a reinvention of traditional sharing and bartering with use of new technology, the internet and social networks. They differentiate between “peer providers” and “peer users”. The role as a “peer provider” involves that a consumer provides assets to rent, share or borrow, and the “peer user” is the one consuming the product or service available.

The authors organize the different types of collaborative consumption into three systems: product-service systems, redistribution markets and collaborative lifestyles. A *product-service system* as Botsman and Rogers (2010) describes it is a “usage mind-set”, where you pay for the benefits of accessing the product, without owning it outright. This enables products owned by a company or an individual to be shared or rented peer-to-peer. Examples of product-service systems are car sharing, solar power, vacation rentals and rental of tools. Product-service systems also include repair services that extend the life cycle of a product. The main benefits of such systems for the users are, according to Botsman and Rogers (2010); Firstly, they do not have to pay for the product outright, it removes the burdens of ownership and it enables individuals to

make the most out of products they already own. Secondly, it increases and changes options for satisfying our needs, when the relationship with goods changes from ownership to use. The core of product-service systems is the opportunity to access the product without owning it. Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) apply the term *non-ownership* to this consumption behaviour, and define it as marketing transactions that lack a transfer of ownership but instead involve the acquisition and consumption of goods through service providers by consumers who forgo reasonable ownership alternatives and instead pay for temporary possession, access or usage without the responsibilities and burdens of ownership. Product-service systems are thereby the firms providing non-ownership services.

Redistribution markets are based on social networks, which enable users to redistribute used or pre-owned goods, either by selling the item, by free exchange or a mixture of these. Finn.no and ebay.com are good examples of such marketplaces, where individuals resell or give away assets that they no longer need. Another example is “swap, sale, buy and give away”-groups on social networks like Facebook, where people living in the same area or city form a local redistribution market. The main benefit with redistribution markets is that reusing and reselling reduces waste and resources that go along with new production (Botsman and Rogers, 2010).

Collaborative lifestyles involve sharing or exchange of less tangible assets, such as time, space, skills and money (Botsman and Rogers, 2010). You can find such communities both local, for instance between neighbours or colleagues, or worldwide, between strangers with use of social networks on the Internet. One example of collaborative lifestyle communities and services is the Norwegian transport service, Easybring.com, which connects those who need to send something from one place to another with the ones that are travelling that way anyway (Easybring, 2012). Another example is the Swedish errand network, HinnerDu.se, which lets you post tasks you need done and matches you with someone willing to do it (HunnerDu.se, 2012). Collaborative lifestyles often require a high degree of trust because of human-to-human interactions. Airbnb.com is a marketplace for people who need a place to stay matched with people with a room for rent (Airbnb, 2012). When renting a part of your home to strangers, you need to trust that they do not steal or damage any of your belongings.

As there are different types of collaborative consumption, there will be many different reasons and motivations for engaging in these activities. To be able to conduct a more in-depth analysis, we have chosen to concentrate on one of the types, namely product-service systems, and will not consider the other two types any further. Product-service systems are particularly interesting in a Norwegian context as it is still rather new here. We want to study customers of existing services to see whether there is a potential for product-service systems to grow here, as they have done in the US. Since product-services are typically supplied by one company, with oversight over their customers, it is relatively easy to obtain information from market participants.

When looking at different types of collaborative consumption, Botsman and Rogers (2010) present four core principles for success; critical mass, idling capacity, belief in the commons, and trust between strangers. Philip Ball (2004, referenced in Botsman and Rogers, 2010, p.75) describes critical mass as “the existence of enough momentum in a system to make it become self-sustaining”. Critical mass is firstly vital to collaborative consumption in terms of choice; the users have to be satisfied by the choice and the convenience available to them. Whether it is in the terms of different sizes and tastes in a clothing exchange, the number of docking stations in a bike-sharing system, or the selection of different tools in a tool-lending company. Secondly, critical mass is vital to collaborative consumption in terms of users. A core group of loyal and frequent users need to be attracted, and this core group will signal a critical mass of “social proof” that this is something that others should try. The core group of early users could be bloggers who show their new clothes from a clothes-swapping group, or that a significant amount of bikers is using distinct turquoise bikes in a big city.

The second principle, idle capacity, refers to the unused potential of the item. If you own a power drill, you probably use it only a few times in its whole lifetime. In addition, you may have to spend extra money on repairing or maintaining it. Collaborative consumption allows us to allocate the resources where it is necessary, for instance ride-sharing services, where you can use the capacity of the four other seats in your car by e.g. letting other people get a lift to work. Other examples include people sharing their extra time or skills to help others, or sharing of unused spare land.

The third principle, belief in the commons, is associated with creating value and organizing a community for shared interests. By providing value to an internet community, you can expand

your social value in return, for instance by information sharing through Wikipedia or photo sharing through Flickr.

The last principle, trust between strangers, is important for collaborative consumption systems to work. Peer-to-peer platforms, where people have direct contact with each other, build trust between strangers by decentralization and transparent communities. One example is Airbnb, a marketplace that matches people looking for a place to stay with those with rooms to rent, where the two parts have to trust each other. A reputation system is building trust by travellers rating and leaving comments at the hosts profile page after staying there, and the host rating the guest in the same way. If you behave inappropriately, the whole community will know. However, despite the rating system, there is a risk that some guest may not care about the rating system and just behave the way they like, with no respect to the host. Nevertheless, it seems like the community of collaborating is working, and that people are honest with each other.

There may be other ways to differentiate between different services and systems of collaborative consumption, but we think that Botsman and Rogers' (2010) classification serve as a good framework for our study. It enables us to select a limited set of services for further investigation. To complement Botsman and Rogers' (2010) definitions of product-service systems, we present additional theory that concentrates on the same topics with a slightly different approach and definitions that are more detailed.

2.2. Appraisal

2.2.1. Product-service systems

In today's economy, consumers are increasingly demanding the function of the product rather than the product itself. We do not want the CD or the DVD, we want to enjoy the music or watch the movie they contain. Mont (2002, p. 3) refers to a functional economy, where the "...function is the key to consumers' satisfaction, not products per se". In a functional economy, there is potential for being more environmentally friendly, and the focus is shifted toward the provider of the service rather than the manufacturer. Stahel (1997, referenced in Mont, 2002, p.3) states that the objective of the functional economy is to "create the highest possible use value for the longest possible time, while consuming as few material resources and as little energy as possible".

Mont (2002, p. 3) sets the functional economy as a basis for product-service systems, which is defined as “a marketable set of products and services capable of jointly fulfilling a user’s need”. The provision of more dematerialized services through product-service systems are often associated with a change in ownership structure. The product-service system can consist of selling use of the product instead of the product, a society of leasing, substitution of goods by means of service machines, or repairing-services instead of throwing away used goods (Mont, 2002). In addition, we often see a change in consumer attitudes from sales to service orientation; the consumer is more interested in the terms of the service than the product that follows. One challenge with product-service system is to develop system solutions that are as convenient and satisfying for the customer as possible, where product and services are combined with supporting infrastructure and networks that adds quality to life for the consumer (Mont, 2002). In addition to satisfying the consumers’ needs, Mont (2002) states that the product-service system should be designed to be competitive and have a lower environmental impact than traditional business models.

Mont (2002) presents the following implications of product-service systems; for consumers, product-service systems require a higher level of involvement and education by producers. Consumers often have a closer relationship with product-service companies, which is important for customizing the service according to customers’ needs, tastes and preferences, including environmental issues. For producers, product-service systems require a higher degree of responsibility for the whole lifecycle of the product, and involvement of consumers in an early stage in the designing of the system (Mont, 2002). The reduced flow of materials often associated with such systems, also causes the producer of the service to have a stronger co-operation with suppliers. For both consumers and producers, product-service systems might involve a change in property rights.

Botsman and Rogers (2010) differentiate between two models of product-service systems, «usage» product-service systems and «extended-life» product-service systems. Usage product-service systems are associated with multiple users sharing the benefits of a product, owned by a company or an individual, through a service, e.g. car sharing or tool lending. Extended-life

product-service systems refers to reducing the need for replacement or disposal by offering after-sale services such as maintenance, repair or upgrading as an integrated part of the product's life cycle. Mont (2002) also includes revalorization services, which refers to the closing of the product's life cycle by taking products back for secondary utilization of usable parts to create new products and recycling of materials.

Benefits of product-service systems

Product-service systems have the potential of changing both consumption and production patterns in a more sustainable way (Mont, 2002). Mont (2002) presents several benefits for both companies, government and society, consumers and the environment.

For companies, product service systems can bring opportunities in terms of new strategic markets and market trends, in addition to making them stay competitive as environmental concerns are becoming more important. Product-service systems also encourage innovation, which may provide financial benefits. Manufacturing companies can obtain benefits by offering supplementing services to their products, which adds value to their existing products. These services also build stronger relationships with the customer, as they may purchase several services instead of only one product. In addition, the product-service system may extend the functions of the product or make it last longer, which increases the value for the customer. For service companies, product components extend and diversify the services, in addition to making the service harder for competitors to copy. Tangible products also make it easier to convey information about the service.

For the government and society, product-service systems can help formulate policies and promote sustainable behaviour. Mont (2002) states that such systems can assist in creating new jobs, through creating new business opportunities, and a more labour intensive economy than the economy based on mass-production.

Benefits for consumers are a greater diversity of choices from product-service systems. Consumers can chose between different schemes of product access and payment, and whether they want to own a product or not. The product-services are often more customized to the consumers' needs, and include services for maintenance and repair. Additionally, the consumer

may learn about environmental features, and the product-service system may enable them to be more environmentally friendly.

Lastly, product-service systems have great benefits for the environment. The total amount of products can be reduced, by allowing multiple users of the same product, through sharing, renting or redistribution. The producers become more responsible for the product, so that it is not just thrown away in the end of the life cycle. These two factors are contributing to less waste being created and assist in dematerialization. Botsman and Rogers (2010) argue that product-service systems often have unintended consequences of environmental friendliness. For instance when consumers buy, and producers offer access to music, through services like iTunes and Spotify, the intended reason is ease of access and saving space, not the environmental friendliness. Nevertheless, downloading music is environmentally friendly as it leads to a reduction in the amount of cd's and cd-covers, in addition to emissions related to transportation of these.

In addition to the benefits mentioned above, weaknesses as well will probably be linked to product-service systems. As it is a relatively new concept, there may be uncertainties to whether such companies are operating the right way for the concept to sustain. There is also little research on the area, which makes it hard to predict consumer patterns and needs. In addition, Mont's (2002) dissertation concentrates on product-service systems where the company provides the product-services. However, in some cases private individuals provide the product-service themselves. They may rent out their own possessions or offer access to their own products. One example is Liftsharing, which matches people needing a ride with people driving the same way (Liftshare, 2012). In that case, the company facilitating the product-service system, Liftshare, does not have control over the service provided.

Mont (2002, pp.11-12) concludes in his article about product-service systems that there are three uncertainties associated with this kind of business solution; First, the "readiness to adopt the product-service systems into a company's strategic decisions". Secondly, the "readiness to accept the product service system for consumers". Thirdly, the "environmental characteristics of product-service systems". The second uncertainty is the one that underlies our research.

2.2.2. Defining non-ownership

According to Lawson (2011) the main differences between ownership and non-ownership are as follows; When owning a product outright, the consumer is committed to it, and has responsibility for the *burdens of ownership*, i.e. maintenance, storage, divestiture of unwanted goods, and the risk related to selecting the wrong product (Lawson, 2011). Non-ownership, however, gives the consumer the freedom to try other products temporarily. The producer carries the responsibilities. However, one can argue that in some cases, the consumer does have certain responsibilities while the product is at his disposal. For example, when renting a bike, if it gets stolen or broken beyond what is considered normal abrasion, the consumer is responsible in some way, either monetary or by suspension. Still, normal usage will free the consumer from the burdens of always having responsibility for the bike, and renting might thereby be a relief.

In ownership, the products are tangible goods, whilst in non-ownership producers offer goods as services (Lawson, 2011). This means that in ownership, the consumer buys the good and takes it home. There is a transfer of ownership. The good will take up physical space and last for a long time. As opposed to this, in non-ownership the consumer rents or leases a good for a more or less specific amount of time. As there is no transfer of ownership, these activities are essentially services (Lawson, 2011). The consumer has access to the good in that specific period, but after that, it is returned to the service provider.

This means that in non-ownership, the consumer pays for access, rather than possession, to an object. It is the function or the experience that the good provides that is demanded, not the good in itself.

Lawson (2011) differentiates between ownership, contractual non-ownership, flexible non-ownership, and borrowing and sharing. Leasing is an example of contractual non-ownership, and rental can be an example of flexible non-ownership. The main differences between these two types of non-ownership are whether the contract and payment goes over a longer period and involves more obligations. According to Lawson (2011) borrowing and sharing is not considered non-ownership consumption. Firstly, sharing and borrowing mainly occurs between consumers already acquainted, and there is seldom any payment involved. Secondly, the borrower or sharer is responsible for the item while it is in his possession. In non-ownership the consumer is, as

mentioned, relieved of any burdens of ownership. Thirdly, whilst in non-ownership the risks are related to the object being rented or leased, in borrowing or sharing, the risk is social. There is a risk that you will damage the property of your friend or neighbour, and that he might dislike you for it.

2.3. The relevance of non-ownership

The phenomenon of non-ownership is increasingly relevant. Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) examine and challenge the core of services marketing paradigms, namely the assertion that services and goods are fundamentally different. Service activities are according to them, growing more diverse, and thereby the border between services and goods is more and more diffuse.

The article puts forward an old but overlooked characteristic, non-ownership, which they believe may be a basis for a new paradigm. Non-ownership is, in this article, referred to as a marketing transaction that does not involve a transfer of ownership, but a form of rental or access (Lovelock and Gummesson, 2004). They also build their argument on the fact that among texts published in recent years on services marketing, the IHIP characteristics are no longer always mentioned. The IHIP characteristics (intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability and perishability) are the classic characteristics that supposedly make services uniquely different from goods (Lovelock and Gummesson, 2004). However, the authors propose a different paradigm. That "services offer benefits through access or temporary possession, instead of ownership with payments taking the form of rental or access fees" (Lovelock and Gummesson, 2004, p.1). The implication of this new paradigm is the possibility to market goods as services, and the notion of services as a way of sharing resources. In other words, as resources are getting scarce, and environmental issues are increasingly important, sharing of goods is one possible sustainable solution. Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) are suggesting that services offer the opportunity for sharing and that the difference between services and goods is small and getting smaller. Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) argue that the claim that services are uniquely different from goods on the IHIP characteristics has never been true for all services, and that it is becoming less true. Services are getting more complex and varied. Human inputs are replaced by robots, and have the ability to be *homogenous*. Outsourcing makes them *separable*, and the Internet has made it possible to separate production and consumption, so that services are not always *perishable*.

Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) suggests that instead of differentiating between goods and services, one should differentiate between marketing exchanges that involve a transfer of ownership, and those that do not. This is in line with Lawson (2011), who claims that non-ownership goods in essence are services, as no transfer of ownership occurs. We chose to include this article because it argues that there have been developments in consumption, strengthening our view that non-ownership consumption is a relevant topic to investigate. Even though renting is not a new phenomenon, this may be a new way to approach the topic. By offering goods as services, the theory about how to market such services might need some new insights and knowledge about the consumers' need.

2.4. Motivation of non-ownership

Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) and Durgee and O'Connor (1995) present several motivational factors of non-ownership. We will present all of them here. We have done a literature study to find theories describing motivation of non-ownership. The three articles we have chosen, in our opinion, describe most of the relevant factors of motivation we have come across. As Lawson (2011) will be the foundation of our study, it is natural to include the motivation factors she found. Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) did a similar study, though with a slightly different outcome, thus we found their study interesting. Lastly, Durgee and O'Connor (1995) had a different set of factors that Lawson (2011) and Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) did not describe, we therefore wanted to have a closer look at them as well.

The consumers who participate in non-ownership consumption are called transumers. They are defined by Trendwatching.com (2006) as "consumers driven by experience instead of ownership, by entertainment, by discovery, by fighting boredom, who increasingly live a transient lifestyle, freeing themselves from the hassles of permanent ownership and possessions".

When consumers own an object, they are faced with certain burdens of ownership. These include maintenance, storage, divestiture of unwanted goods, and the risk related to selecting the wrong product (Lawson, 2011). By renting the product instead of owning it outright, the consumer is relieved of these burdens, because the producer carries them instead. *Freedom from ownership* is

thereby a motivational factor. It saves the transumer both time and energy else associated with ownership. Renting can thus be considered a “convenient” form of consumption (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). Transumers are thereby classified as *convenience oriented*.

Consumers are *price conscious* (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). Therefore, they might choose to rent instead of purchase a product because they perceive renting as cheaper. However, the factor was *not* supported by the study of Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) as a positive influence on transumption. It seemed that consumers thought renting would be more expensive in the long run. Still, we think that for consumers that want to rent new items every other week, price consciousness might be a relevant factor, as it would be considerably more expensive to buy a new mobile phone or bag every other week. Lawson (2011) found that search for cost-savings or benefits exceeding the cost of renting a product is a significant motivation factor. Thus, *value seeking* is a relevant motivational factor.

Some consumers weigh the entertainment and enjoyment aspect of consumption heavily, these consumers are *experience oriented* (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). They want hedonic goods, such as designer purses, sports cars and jewellery. Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) found no evidence that experience orientation was a significant positive influence on non-ownership consumption. However, consumers are also *variety seeking* (Lawson 2011), and variety seekers more often participate in transumption. Renting allows access to a wider range of products, for as long as the usage engenders excitement and pleasure (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010).

Transumers are *instrumentally materialistic* (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995). They find pleasure in using the product, not in having it. “They want the hole in the wall, not the drill” (Botsman, 2010). Instrumental materialism is the opposite of terminal materialism (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995), which means that the consumer is concerned with having or owning the good in itself. This means that if the consumer is more concerned with enjoying the functions of a product, than with owning it, he might see renting as a relevant option.

For some consumers, *self-projection* is important. This means displaying a personality or social status through clothes or items (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995). These items are often expensive

(e.g. designer bags) or need to be updated frequently (e.g. technical gadgets or fashion accessories). Rentals are used to meet the expectations of others regarding the extended selves, without blowing their budget (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995). Some consumers want objects that confer or symbolize status. This may turn into a very expensive habit, and renting can be a solution. Lawson (2011) calls this behaviour *status seeking*.

A growing number of consumers are concerned with environmental issues (*environmentalism*) (Lawson, 2011). They have an intention to conserve the environment (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). Non-ownership services such as bike- or car-rental let these consumers have access to products that are environmentally friendly, or at least reduce the amount of environmentally unfriendly products, such as cars, in the market. Even if they are driving a car, which is not positive for the environment, they are at least not putting another car on the road (negative). Non-ownership gives numerous transumers (temporary) access to one particular good (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). Environmentalism had no significant positive influence on non-ownership behaviour in Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) study; however, it did in Lawson's (2011).

Consumers with a high degree of *trend orientation* desire to consume innovative or fashionable products (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). This can be part of enhancing a social identity, and satisfy a need to be up-to-date on new technology. Many of these products require a significant or frequent monetary investment, and therefore rental services are a great opportunity for these transumers to gain access to the products they desire.

Consumers are *risk averse* (Lawson, 2011). When renting products before buying them, they can reduce risk by trying out the product (Lawson, 2011), and thereby find the product that fits them and their needs. Consumers may want to rent a product because they are not ready to commit to the product in the sense of ownership, and the consumer may learn more about the product and himself in the process of renting. I.e. non-ownership lets transumers be *self-exploring* (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995).

It is clear that not all these motivation factors are relevant to all consumers. When studying Norwegian consumers, some of the factors may not be relevant at all. We want to consider several dissertations to get a broad basis of factors for our study. Many of these motivations of non-ownership are quite similar. We will discuss which factors we want to include in our study and why we have chosen these specific factors in the model chapter.

2.5. Impediments to non-ownership

Scholl (2008) explains the different conditions under which consumers may accept loss of ownership. He has two perspectives on non-ownership; the functional and the symbolic.

2.5.1. The functional perspective

The functional perspective builds on neoclassical economics, and includes property rights theory, information economics, transaction-cost theory and principal-agent theory.

Ownership is at the core of *property rights theory* (Scholl, 2008). It represents the right to use a good (way, frequency, time and place), the right to exclude third parties from access to the good, and the right to change the property. These rights may be very attractive for consumers, thereby making non-ownership unattractive and not an option. For example, when owning a car, the consumer can leave items that he wants to use, when driving, in the car. He may adjust the driver's seat and mirrors so that they fit him perfectly, or in other ways make the car personal. When renting the car, he has no rights to make these adjustments. He has to adjust the seat every time. However, property rights imply duties, e.g. maintenance and storage. If these duties are heavy compared to the rights, the consumer might see renting as the more attractive option.

Information economics is related to different qualities of a product (Scholl, 2008). Search qualities are the qualities that can be assessed prior to purchase, for example the display resolution of a television. Experience qualities refer to the qualities that can only be evaluated when using the product, for instance the comfort of a car. Credence qualities are the qualities that cannot be evaluated neither prior to nor during use, such as environmental performance. The problem with product-services is that they often are characterized by experience and credence qualities, which entails a higher risk for the consumer as it is harder to assess the quality of the service. To reduce the risk for consumers, service suppliers can use signalling strategies to

communicate the quality of the service. Alternatively, the consumers can do market screening, such as product trials, reading product tests or investigating the product in other ways.

Transaction costs are costs associated with the process of finding the right products, and with other aspects of the trade, including initiating, agreeing on and controlling the contractual arrangements between market participants. When renting, seeing as the transaction possibly will be made several times, securities might have to be deposited, there might be control costs and transportation costs (these will decrease the more the service is used), transaction costs might be higher for non-ownership consumption. However, the theory assumes that costs diminish with increasing number of transactions (Scholl, 2008). Thus, transaction costs may be an impediment to non-ownership, though there are ways to reduce the costs, for example by improving the user interface, making it easier for the consumer to adapt.

Principal-agent theory includes asymmetric information and moral hazard. Moral hazard (hidden action) implies that the user cannot be sanctioned for misusing the good (Scholl, 2008). This is an argument for producers to do not enter the non-ownership market. However, the producer might try to sanction the consumer by making the product more robust, monitoring the utilization or try to detect misuse afterwards (probably the easiest way) (Scholl, 2008). These actions may be costly, thereby making it more expensive for both parties to participate.

Asymmetric information in the form of hidden characteristics is the situation where the principal faces lack of information and is inclined to display opportunistic behaviour (Scholl, 2008). In other words, the producer has incentive to offer a lower quality, thereby achieving a larger profit margin, because the consumer is unable to anticipate the quality of the service. However, in non-ownership, there is a chance that the consumer and the producer might meet again. Therefore, producers offering rental services have incentives to offer a higher quality, in order to obtain loyal customers.

2.5.2. The symbolic perspective

The economic value of an object is not always the actual value of many objects owned by consumers. The possession value is often the value in use, not the economic value of the object (Richins, 1994). For many consumers, ownership has a symbolic meaning. Consumers consume in order to preserve or achieve a superior social status (Veblen, 1899). Commodities have

symbolic meaning, and this plays an important role in creating and maintaining personal and social identities (Scholl, 2008). The identity is the image the consumer has of himself, and the medium that signifies self toward others (Scholl, 2008). It is very similar to self-concept, which is how the individual evaluates his own qualities. The identity is often expressed through material items. Items are also used to symbolize categorical evidence, i.e. group membership and social position. Scholl (2008) asks himself whether the symbolic meaning of things is altered when consumers move from ownership to non-ownership.

We can link the symbolic perspective to consumers that are materialistic; it might be difficult for them to give up ownership as they often attach symbolic meanings to their materialistic belongings. Belk (2006) argues that materialism is one of the main threats to sharing, and thus non-ownership. Materialism has been defined as "the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions. At the highest levels of materialism, such possessions assume a central place in a person's life and are believed to provide the greatest sources of satisfaction" (Belk 1985, p. 265). For some, objects are considered the key source of happiness, meaning that non-ownership probably is out of the question. That is, for these consumers, objects has a symbolic meaning of happiness and wealth. In most cultures, materialism is considered an undesirable trait and condemned by most; still, it is somehow inescapable (Ger and Belk 1999).

Items, according to Scholl (2008), have intrapersonal and interpersonal meaning (these are intertwined for the consumer). Possessions may express control (mastery), they are symbolic containers of our memories, transition objects that we bring with us e.g. when moving (symbolizing security and stability) and symbolic self-completion (e.g. a pair of expensive shoes, symbolizing success or wealth). In addition, some objects are not economics or fungible goods. This means that they are inalienable, or irreplaceable, e.g. pets or family photos. These are intrapersonal meanings of objects. Interpersonal meaning is the meaning that depends on others. For example, some items are *status symbols*, kind of like trophies. Items are used to display social position, and often individuals will emulate consumption habits of reference groups or role models. Visible possessions are signs that are interpreted by observers (Richins 1994). The interpersonal meaning can be both vertical (status) and horizontal (affiliation). In other words,

possessions are a means to ensure personal continuity and coherence, support individual autonomy, give a sense of uniqueness and provide social affiliation (Scholl, 2008).

The question that is interesting to us, however, is; will the symbolic meaning of possessions fade when the possessions are rented, and can this be an impediment to non-ownership? Belk (2006) states that we can come to feel possessive about and have a sense of ownership toward things that are not ours in a legal sense. That is, it is probable that we can attach symbolic meaning to rented objects. According to Scholl (2008), it depends on perceived control. When consumers give up ownership, they also often give up control. This may greatly weaken the symbolic meaning of the object (Scholl, 2008). To enhance the symbolic meaning of non-ownership means to regain intrapersonal symbolic qualities and strengthen the interpersonal symbolic qualities. Scholl (2008) divides the service concept into three processes; the resources (the internal factors necessary to produce the service), the process (delivery, or execution of the service), and the result of the service (direct, e.g. a repaired car or indirect, e.g. regaining mobility). To let the consumer regain control, changes should be made in all of the three processes.

In the service resources, a larger access to or scope of the service will give enhanced intrapersonal meaning. That is, the consumer should be able to access the service easily, and there should be a large range of options.

In the service delivery process, the quality of the interaction between producer and consumer is important. The service personnel should be friendly and welcoming, and in addition, they need to develop routines and standards for the service delivery. This is because consumers make stereotyped mental scripts of how the service is supposed to be delivered (Scholl, 2008).

Therefore, if they can predict how they will be treated and what they can expect from the service after having tried it a couple of times, they will feel in control of the situation and the intrapersonal meaning of the service will be enhanced. The physical surroundings are also very important (Scholl, 2008). Clear signage, a good spatial layout and good functionality of the service scape may make the experience more pleasurable for the consumer, and contribute to perceptions of personal control.

Lastly, in the result process of the service, mastery of the object is alpha omega for the consumer to feel like he is in control. This implies that when consumers are unfamiliar with the service,

they should be instructed and introduced to the service product properly. In addition, the design and instructions for the product should be intuitive and clear (Scholl, 2008).

To enhance the interpersonal meaning of non-ownership services, the service brand needs to be dedicated to their customers (Scholl, 2008). This is because the service needs to connect with the consumers' lifestyle. The brand carries a set of social meanings associated with consumption of the branded good (Scholl, 2008). The associations help consumers choose which brand will fit their lifestyle best. It provides orientation, generates trust and conveys prestige (Scholl, 2008). For the producer, the brand associations helps profile the offer and communicate desired product images (Scholl, 2008). This implies that thorough brand management is imperative for product-service systems.

In short, this means that consumers are willing to give up ownership if (1) they perceive duties of ownership to be too demanding, (2) there is little risk related to experience and credence qualities, (3) the transaction cost are not higher than buying the product outright, (4) the probability that producers will exploit asymmetric information is low, (5) access and scope of the service product is satisfactory, interaction with the producer and the service scape is pleasant, and (6) the brand is socially accepted. Present consumer behaviour is loaded with symbolic meaning and this has to change or be reformulated if consumption is to alter radically (Scholl 2008).

The symbolic perspective and the functional perspective of non-ownership are important in our study. If the consumer cannot derive the desired interpersonal or intrapersonal symbolic meaning from renting objects, it *may* be an impediment to non-ownership consumption. Simultaneously, if transaction costs are relatively high, information is hard to find, quality is hard to foresee and there is a high perceived risk that the producer will try to take advantage of information asymmetry to gain a higher profit, the consumer might choose not to rent. We will discuss the functional and symbolic perspective further in the model chapter.

2.6. Limits for non-ownership

In the literature we have studied, several limits to what consumers would like to rent occur. We have summarized these here.

Consumers might perceive certain items as rare or scarce, and therefore want buy it just to be sure not to miss it (Belk, 2006). Similarly, some objects are considered valuable to certain consumers, because they are very expensive or rare, and only a few individuals can afford to own them. These objects would immediately lose their value if all consumers were given the opportunity to rent them. An example could be Hermès Birkin bags. They are extremely expensive, and some even claim that owners are handpicked by Hermès. They are not supposed to be carried by any given rich person. If it was possible to rent a Birkin, owners could risk being suspected of having rented it too, and they would fall tremendously in perceived value. It is unlikely that these kinds of products would be subject to rental.

Many consumers genuinely like to shop (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). Many of the respondents of Arnold and Reynolds' (2003) study reported that they shop for the sheer excitement and adventure of it, i.e. *adventure shopping*. Others said that they like to shop because it is a way to spend time with friends and family. Arnold and Reynolds call it *social shopping*, meaning that the activity is something the consumers in question like to do in the company of others. Some shop for gratification, meaning that they shop to relieve stress or a negative mood, so called *gratification shopping*, while others like to shop for gifts to friends or family (roleshopping) (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). The last category we would like to mention is *value shopping*. Value shoppers see the activity as a game or a challenge to be conquered, as they hunt for sales or bargains. These consumers are competitive.

The common denominator is that shopping makes these consumers feel good, and that the consumers obtain hedonic benefits from shopping, which provide sensory involvement and excitement (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003). Thus, even if consumers are motivated for non-ownership consumption there is a limit to the extent that consumers will switch to this way of consumption; most consumers will still want to shop, either to browse, to please friends, to gratify themselves or to find bargains.

Certain items contain memories or act as transfer objects, symbolizing safety and stability (Richins, 1994). These items are for example pets, pictures or things we have owned for a long time such as teddy bears or ornaments. Such items will probably not be subject to non-ownership, because we would lose a part of our background or personality by changing them often. A new teddy bear could never replace the one you cuddled every night as a child. These kinds of objects are inalienable (Richins, 1994). In addition, some might consider it unethical to rent pets. Animals have feelings and need taking care of, and many consider it highly unethical to treat pets as objects one can dispose of at wish (McGrath, 2007). Possessions such as gifts, mementos and pictures are defined as representations of interpersonal ties (Richins, 1994). It is hard to replace such objects by short time rentals. It is not so much the object in itself, but the memories attached to it that matter to us.

In the article “Love on a Lease: renting man’s best friend” (McGrath, 2007) the idea of dog rental is presented as a solution for want-to-be pet owners that do not have time to own a pet full time, or want to find out what kind of dog they want to have. The company offering this service is called FlexPetz. In New York, the FlexPetz office attracted 100 members in just the first two weeks. Still, in the comment-section following the article readers share their opinion of the matter, and it seems that the majority of the readers saw the article as shocking. Several of the commentators think the service should be illegal, they feel sorry for the dogs, and say that FlexPetz makes them sick. The shared opinion is that dogs are in need of a stable environment, and that meeting new humans with new rules every other week is going to be very stressful on the dog (McGrath, 2007). It seems that there is a limit to non-ownership. Not all items are suitable for renting.

2.7. Summary

Collaborative consumption can be summed up as a phenomenon where collaborative individuals participate in swap trading, local exchange systems, bartering, social lending, peer-to-peer rental, sharing and co-working. Collaborative consumption may be divided into three different systems, where we have chosen to concentrate on only one; product-service systems.

Botsman and Rogers (2010) describe product-service systems as a "usage mind-set". Consumers pay for the functions of products, not for owning them, thus renting rather than possessing.

According to Botsman and Rogers (2010), the main benefits of product-service systems are removal of burdens of ownership and increased and more varied options. Consumers can access the product without owning it. Mont (2002, p.3) refers to a *functional* economy where "function is the key to consumers satisfaction, not products per se". For the functional economy, the objective must be to "create the highest possible use value for the longest possible time, while consuming as few material resources and energy as possible" (Mont, 2002, p.3). In this economy, the product-service systems sell services providing use of products, rather than selling the product itself, or repairing rather than throwing away used goods (Mont, 2002). For consumers and producers, adapting to the functional economy will mean change. A higher level of involvement and education for consumers, and more responsibility for producers. In addition, both parts may get different property rights. The benefits of product-service systems include new markets, innovation, diversified services, new jobs and environmental benefits. However, there are some uncertainties; consumers have to be ready to adopt to these changes, producers have to be ready to change their strategies, and there are some uncertainties as to the environmental characteristics of product-services.

Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) apply the term non-ownership to the consumption behaviour in product-service systems. In short, they define it as market transactions that lack a transfer of ownership. They call the firms providing non-ownership services product-service systems.

According to Lawson (2011), the main differences between ownership and non-ownership are that consumers are freed from burdens of ownership, such as maintenance and storage; goods are offered as services; and consumers pay for access rather than possession.

Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) suggest that services are getting more complex and varied, that robots replace human inputs, and have the ability to be homogeneous. Outsourcing is separating production stages and the Internet has separated production and consumption, so that they are not perishable. Because of this, Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) claim that instead of differentiating between services and goods, one should differentiate between marketing exchanges that involve a transfer of ownership, and those that do not. For our study, this may mean that non-ownership is taking root.

There are several impediments to non-ownership. Scholl (2008) discusses in his article how these may be overcome. He divides his argument into two perspectives, the functional and the symbolic. The functional perspective builds on neoclassical economics of property rights, transaction costs and principal-agent theory. The symbolic perspective builds on inter- and intrapersonal meanings of objects.

The functional perspective describes the practical sides of consumption. That is the rights of ownership associated with buying a product, the qualities of the service that can or cannot be assessed before or during use, costs associated with the process of finding and trading the product and asymmetric information. If the owner of a certain product perceives transaction costs of renting, to be lower than with buying, renting may be the more attractive alternative. In addition, in rental services, hiding information from customers is foolish, seeing as the customer is likely to return for a new trade if he was happy with the first. This might make consumption less risky for consumers. On the other hand, it may be more risky for the producer as they carry most of the responsibility and it is hard to monitor customers to reveal hidden actions (moral hazard). In addition, there is a risk that consumers take less care of rentals than they would if they owned the product. Some property rights (e.g. exclusivity of, and the right to change or adjust the product) may seem too attractive to give up. Still, if the product is a tool or another product that is subject to little affection, these property rights may not be an issue.

This takes us to the symbolic perspective. Intrapersonal meaning is the control possessions express. Some objects are not just of economic value. They may be symbolic containers of our memories, transition objects that we have brought with us through changes in our lives, and symbolic self-completion. Some objects are even inalienable, or irreplaceable (e.g. family photos). Interpersonal meaning is the meaning that depends on others. This implies that objects can be status symbols, both vertical and horizontal (affiliation). Possessions are a means to ensure personal continuity and coherence, support individual autonomy, give a sense of uniqueness and provide social affiliation. The question is whether this also holds for rentals. According to Scholl (2008), it depends on the amount of perceived control the consumer has over the object. That is, the consumer needs to be able to access products easily, and there should be a wide range of options for the consumer to feel like he has chosen the right object for him. Services should be standardized for the customers to be able to predict how they will experience

it, and they should be able to find their way around the shop easily and pleurably. In addition, the service brand needs to match the individuals' identity.

We have chosen, after a thorough literature study, to use the Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) and Durgee and O'Connor (1995) articles as the basis for our theory of motivations of non-ownership behaviour. The factors they present are somewhat similar, so the next part of our thesis will discuss which factors we want to use, and why.

Lawson (2011) presents freedom from ownership, value seeking, variety seeking, status seeking, environmentalism and risk aversion as factors that have a significant positive influence on non-ownership consumption. Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) present importance of possession (negative influence), experience orientation, price consciousness, convenience orientation, trend orientation and environmentalism. However, only importance of ownership, convenience orientation and trend orientation turn out to have a significant impact on non-ownership. Durgee and O'Connor (1995) discuss several factors, but only three seemed to us to be relevant as factors of motivation. These were instrumental materialism, self-exploration and self-projection.

Lastly, there are some limits to non-ownership. Possessions such as gifts, mementoes and pictures are defined as representations of interpersonal ties, and cannot be replaced by short time rentals. Some items have value for an individual's identity and self-expression. Other objects might symbolize safety and stability in our lives, like a teddy bear we had as a child. In addition, some things are considered unethical to rent, for example pets.

Some consumers may perceive certain items as rare or scarce and want to buy it just to make sure they are not missing out. In addition, many consumers genuinely like to shop. They enjoy hunting for bargains, buying presents for friends or family, browsing, or shop to relieve stress or depression. Shopping will make many consumers feel good and they obtain hedonic benefits from the act of shopping.

3. Model

3.1. Grounds of motivation factors

As we want to study what motivates Norwegian consumers to participate in non-ownership consumption, we have developed a model illustrating our theory of the relationship between the motivation factors and non-ownership consumption. We believe there is a positive relationship between the motivation factors (independent variable) and non-ownership consumption (dependent variable), which means that the more motivation factors that are significant for the consumer in question, the greater the likelihood is that the consumer wants to participate in non-ownership consumption. Our theory is based on the literature we have presented in the theory chapter. Our motivation factors are the following: *Simplicity orientation, perceived economic gain, variety and experience seeking, image orientation, environmentalism, trend orientation and exploration and trial*. We will further explain and argue for our choice of motivation factors. A definition of our final choice of motivation factors follows the subsection of moderating variables.

To construct our motivation factors we used the ones presented in the Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), and Durgee and O'Connor (1995) studies, discussed in the theory chapter. In the first motivation factor, simplicity orientation, we have included Lawson's (2011) factor of freedom from ownership and Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) factor of convenience orientation. These factors denote an easier way to consume. The consumer spends less energy and time with non-ownership consumption than with ownership, because he is relieved of the burdens of ownership and risks associated with the commitment of owning outright. Simplicity orientation is in our view a relevant factor for Norwegian consumers, as many endeavour an easier, smarter and quicker way of doing things in their busy lives. Thus, not having to worry about insurance or decision-making might be attractive.

Our second factor, perceived economic gain, includes Lawson's (2011) factor value seeking, and Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) factor price consciousness. Both factors are associated with consumers' price sensitivity, seeking the least expensive option. As mentioned earlier, price

consciousness was not a significant factor according to Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), but as it appears in Lawson's (2011) study as well, we want to study this factor to see whether it is a significant factor for Norwegian consumers. As the financial situation has been harder in the US than in Norway the past few years, this factor may be more relevant for American consumers than the Norwegian consumers. Anyway, some groups are more price conscious than others are, independent of the country's economy, for instance students or single mothers.

Both instrumental materialism (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995), variety seeking (Lawson, 2011) and experience orientation (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010) refer to the enjoyment of using the product and the opportunity to have access to a variety of experiences or products, as opposed to buying a product that you are stuck with and is so expensive that you cannot afford to buy other options. These factors are all included in our third motivation factor, variety and experience seeking. Although Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) conclude that experience orientation is not a significant factor, we want to include it in our research, as it seems to be an important factor in Lawson's (2011) and Durgee and O'Connor's (1995) studies. As product-service systems are not fully prevalent in Norway, some consumers may not be aware that non-ownership gives them the opportunity to seek variation and experiences. However, it should be interesting to study whether these values are something Norwegian consumers find important.

We have merged self-projection (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995) and status seeking (Lawson, 2011) into our fourth motivation factor, image orientation. Both factors imply using a product to reflect an identity or a certain status in the presence of others. They are about expressing a desired image. As renting will enable transusers to access goods that are otherwise out of their price range, it is a great opportunity for them to reflect a desired identity. E.g. the handbag or car that otherwise would be too expensive, is within reach, giving the transuser the ability to express a luxurious image.

When it comes to our fifth motivation factor, environmentalism, which we find in both Lawson's (2011) and Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) study; there are disagreements as to whether it is a significant factor or not. In Norway, as well as in the US, the environment and sustainability is considered highly important issues. Norwegian consumers should thus be concerned about it. On

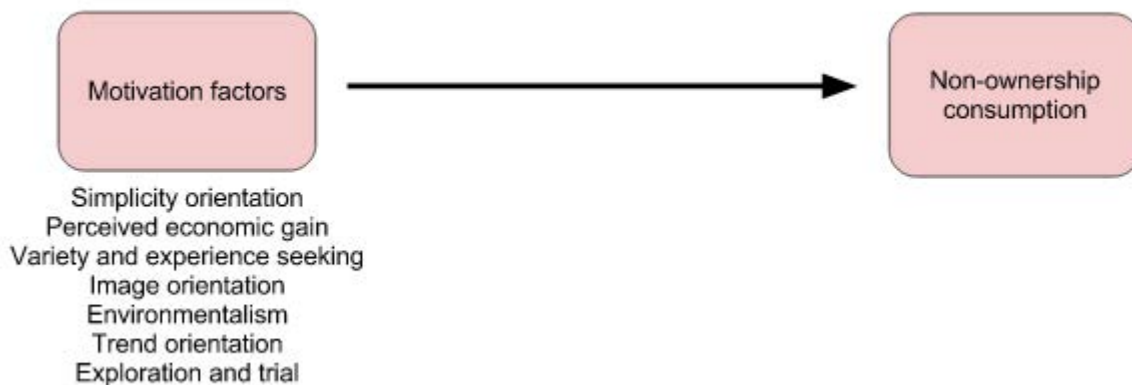
the other hand, it does not necessarily affect their motivation of non-ownership consumption. Either way, we want to examine this factor in our research.

Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) present trend orientation as a significant factor. Even though we do not find supporting results in other studies, we want to include this factor in our model, as we see it as an interesting finding. We are not sure if it is relevant for all of the non-ownership consumers we plan to interview, however, we include it because we think it is for at least some of them.

The seventh and last motivation factor in our model, exploration and trial, is composed of risk aversion in Lawson's (2011) study and self-exploration in Durgee and O'Connor's (1995) research article. Both factors describe the benefit of trying different products or services to see what fits you the best before deciding on which to buy. We believe the factor is relevant for Norwegian consumers, as many consumer goods, for example cars, are highly expensive in Norway.

The motivation factors are presented in the following figure (figure 1).

Figure 1



3.2. Moderating variables

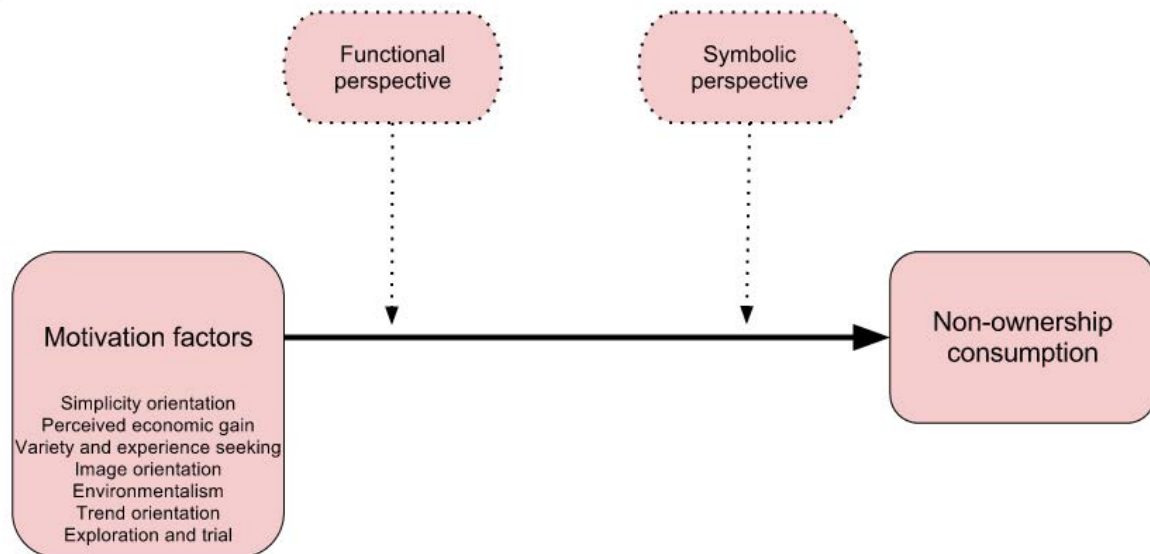
To construct our moderating variables, i.e. factors that may weaken the relationship between our independent and dependent variables, we chose to use Scholl's (2008) article as a basis. This

article addresses several factors that may be impediments to non-ownership consumption. On the other hand, Scholl (2008) argues that if the consumers accept or find these factors less important, there is a possibility that the consumer accept loss of ownership.

Scholl (2008) distinguishes between the functional and symbolic perspectives of objects' meanings. The functional perspective builds on property rights, information economics, transaction costs and principal-agent theory. It implies, as mentioned in the theory chapter, that consumers want to rent goods when property rights are of little importance, when they are able to foresee the quality of the service or product, when transaction costs associated with renting the object are lower than when buying the object, and when there is low possibility that the producers will exploit asymmetric information (Scholl, 2008). The symbolic perspective denotes the intrapersonal and interpersonal meanings of an object (Scholl, 2008). According to Scholl (2008), it is hard to attach symbolic meaning to rented goods, because of the lack of control over them. However, he poses some suggestions as to what may enhance the symbolic meaning. If product-service systems cannot enable customers to attach symbolic meaning to the goods they rent, some of the motivation factors might be impaired in motivating non-ownership consumption. Image orientation, for instance, is hard when the individual does not feel that the product in question has symbolic value. On the other hand, not all goods necessarily have a symbolic meaning, neither interpersonal nor intrapersonal. A hammer, for instance, is valuable because of its ability to knock nails into walls, and seldom has any sentimental value. For these kind of goods, other motivation factors may be especially relevant, making non-ownership an attractive option. We will discuss the relations between our variables in the coming chapter.

3.3. The model

Figure 2



3.4. Definition of variables

In the following, we will define the different motivation factors that we have included in our model (figure 2).

3.4.1. The dependent variable (Non-ownership consumption)

In our research, we will test whether the variable, non-ownership consumption, is dependent on the independent variable, motivation factors. Lovelock and Gummesson (2004) explains non-ownership as marketing transactions that lack a transfer of ownership but instead involve the acquisition and consumption of goods through service providers by consumers who forgo reasonable ownership alternatives and instead pay for temporary possession, access or usage without the responsibilities and burdens of ownership. That is, the dependent variable denotes the choice to rent (high frequency, short-time) rather than own as a part of consumers lifestyle. In our research, we will try to identify a relationship between the two variables by asking the respondents in interviews what motivated them to rent, and by asking whether each of the specific factors had an impact on the respondents' choice.

3.4.2. The independent variable (Motivation factors)

Simplicity orientation

Simplicity orientation denotes the motivation of choosing non-ownership consumption to avoid burdens that comes with owning a product, such as “...maintenance, storage, divestiture of unwanted goods, and the risk related to choosing the wrong product or becoming obsolete” (Berry and Maricle, 1973, referenced in Lawson, 2011, p.19). The motivation factor also entails the convenience related to not owning the product, the possibility to save time and energy (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). When renting a product the consumer may reduce the amount of planning, as there is less risk attached to choosing the wrong alternative. In addition, it frees consumers from burdens like storing the product. These elements may make renting more convenient.

Perceived economic gain

Perceived economic gain entails that the consumer is searching for cost-savings or discovers that the benefits of renting rather than owning a product exceeds the cost (Lawson, 2011). Price-conscious consumers are seeking value by making the decision whether to buy or rent a product based on his “...perception of the value of the good in terms of cost outlay in return for quality” (Dolan and Simon, 1996, referenced in Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010, p.6).

Variety and experience seeking

Variety and experience seeking is linked to the term “experienced-oriented consumption” which Barbin et al. (1994, referenced in Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010, p.6) define as “... consumption as a source of entertainment and enjoyment”. Such consumers seek variety by trying new and different things (Lawson, 2011). The motivation is associated with instrumental materialism, i.e. getting satisfaction from using the product, in contrast to the satisfaction of possessing the product (Durgee and O’Connor, 1995).

Image orientation

Image orientation denotes how consumers use particular products as status symbols (Lawson, 2011) or to meet expectations of others (Durgee and O’Connor, 1995). This motivation factor is related to status consumption, where the consumer is interested in what others think of their

possessions. By renting products, the consumer can get access to items that he could not otherwise.

Environmentalism

Environmentalism can be defined as the intention or contribution to conserve the environment (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). This variable includes environmental concerns such as reducing pollution, reducing waste and preventing new production. An example is consumers engaging in car sharing, which contributes to fewer vehicles on the road, which in turn contributes to less pollution.

Trend orientation

Trend orientation refers to the desire of some consumers to obtain access to the newest products (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). These consumers are likely to seek innovative and fashionable products.

Exploration and trial

Exploration and trial denotes the aim to try alternative selves (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995). This variable also includes the reduction of risk related to choosing the wrong product. By renting different products, the consumers can try a product before buying it (Lawson, 2011).

3.4.3. The moderators

The functional perspective

The functional perspective includes the four factors; property rights, information economics, transaction costs and principal-agent theory (Scholl, 2008). In the model, the functional perspective refers to how the four factors, can negatively influence the impact of the motivation factors on non-ownership consumption. Property rights are only gained by ownership, and are defined as the right to use and change the product, in addition to the right to exclude others from using it (Scholl, 2008). This is considered attractive, and should be an impediment to non-ownership. Information economics concerns the ability to foresee the quality of products (Scholl, 2008). As the quality of product-services can be determined only during or after use, it may be an impediment to non-ownership. Transaction costs are defined as all costs related to the rental situation, including finding the product, accessing it and delivering it (Scholl, 2008). If these are considered as higher than when *buying* a corresponding product, transaction costs may be an

impediment to non-ownership. Principal-agent theory concerns information asymmetry and moral hazard (Scholl, 2008). Information asymmetry is the relevant factor in our study. If the consumer perceives it as likely that the producer will try to exploit the information asymmetry and gain a higher profit, we expect the consumer to choose not to rent.

The symbolic perspective

The symbolic perspective addresses the intrapersonal and interpersonal meaning of objects (Scholl, 2008). The variable denotes whether symbolic meaning of products can moderate the impact of motivation factors on non-ownership consumption or not. The symbolic perspective is related to whether consumers focus on the symbolic meaning of objects, in contrast to *features* of objects. If the consumers are concerned with the symbolic meaning of objects, it may weaken the motivation factors impact on non-ownership consumption depending on whether the symbolic meaning can or cannot be transferred to rented objects. On the other hand, if the consumers see the products' features as the most important, the symbolic perspective should not have any impact.

3.5. Relations between the variables

3.5.1. The dependent and independent variables

Motivation factors

Our intention is to compare Norwegian consumers to e.g. studies of American and German consumers, to see whether they are motivated by the same factors. We want to examine whether there is a foundation for product-service systems based on non-ownership in Norway.

The motivation factors in the model affect the dependent variable, non-ownership consumption, in the following way; when the motivation factors are relevant for a given consumer, he is more likely to engage in non-ownership consumption.

Moderators

Even if a given consumer is motivated by simplicity orientation, perceived economic gain, variety and experience seeking, image orientation, environmentalism, trend-orientation or

exploration and trial, there are some moderating factors that might change the consumers mind and prevent non-ownership.

The functional perspective

The functional perspective involves that non-ownership might be less attractive than ownership if the rights of ownership are very attractive, if there is little risk related to experience and credence qualities, if the transaction costs are lower than when buying the product, and if the probability that producers will exploit asymmetric information is low (Scholl, 2008).

We can relate this to some of the motivation factors in the model. First, if the consumer perceives the transaction costs for renting the object in question as higher than for buying it, the rent transaction may not seem as attractive after all, even if he is simplicity oriented or is seeking variety and experience. Secondly, if the property rights of the object are important to the consumer, it may not matter that he will save money or be freed from burdens of ownership, ownership might still be more appealing.

The symbolic perspective

Whether the product-service is consumed based on symbolic meaning of objects or features of objects may have an impact on the underlying motivation factors. In addition, it is not certain that symbolic meaning can be attached to rented objects, meaning that consumption otherwise motivated by symbolic needs, such as image orientation, might not be possible through product-service systems.

According to Scholl (2008), certain measures need to be taken in order for rented objects to symbolize interpersonal or intrapersonal meaning, such as providing a sufficient product variety and amount of options. If the consumer does not feel that the object in question provides the desired inter- or intrapersonal meaning, it may not matter that the offer is budget friendly, or that he is freed from burdens of ownership. On the other hand, in some cases symbolic meaning may not be an issue. For example when in need of a power drill, it is the ability to make a hole in the wall that is desired, not the pleasure of having the drill in itself.

We believe that if the object in question does not have the ability to express symbolic meaning, the motivation factors, especially image orientation and trend orientation, will be impaired, and non-ownership consumption will not be appealing. This is because the factors mentioned involve the feeling of finding an identity and expressing it to significant others, in addition to the feeling of being able to access certain objects, or leading a certain kind of lifestyle. If this is not possible with a rented product, they will probably not be interested in renting.

We thus see the symbolic perspective moderator as split in two; the features component, and the symbolic-meaning component. If the consumer is concerned mainly by the features of a product, the symbolic meaning is not relevant. However, this does not mean that the motivation factors not mentioned above in relation to features or symbolic meaning respectively are not affected. If the consumer *is* able to derive symbolic meaning from a rental, he is probably also very happy about saving money and the environment.

3.6 Concluding remarks

We now have a clear framework of how product-service systems work, and what non-ownership consumption is. Most of the literature is based on American and German studies of business models and consumers in these countries. The motivation factors included in this model are all factors extracted from experiences and exploration of market trends in these countries where the phenomenon already is present in a large scale. In Norway, where Collaborative Consumption is not that widespread, other factors may be at play. There may be a reason why so few Norwegian consumers are engaged in such consumption patterns, or there may be a great potential among Norwegian consumer that is not yet exploited.

We do not yet know which of the motivation factors are valid for Norwegian consumers, or whether we have overlooked some factors. As the research on this area is quite limited, it is hard to generalize findings from a few countries to consumers all over the world. Therefore, we want to study the Norwegian consumers, to see whether there is a tendency that the same factors can be applied to Norwegian markets. The studies from other countries, i.e. Germany and USA, can serve as a basis for comparison. Our results may be interesting for companies in the product-

service market as to how they may customize their product-services to customers' needs and wants.

4. Methods

4.1. Research design

The purpose of the research is often classified as either explanatory, descriptive or exploratory research methods (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Explanatory studies are studies that aim to explain or determine a relationship between variables by studying a problem or a situation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Descriptive studies aim “to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations” (Bobson, 2002, referred in Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p.140). An exploratory design is a “means of finding out what is happening; to seek new insight; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light” (Robson, 2002, referenced in Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, p.139). According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009, p.140) exploratory research designs are “flexible and adaptable to change”, meaning that you might have to change your direction as new data and insights appear.

We have chosen an exploratory design for our study. An exploratory research design is relevant for our study as there are few studies on the research topic of collaborative consumption and non-ownership consumption. We want to assess the phenomena in a new light by looking at Norwegian consumers, as previous studies have investigated the consumption patterns of American and German consumers. We wanted to explore why Norwegian consumers are willing to rent rather than to own, and compare our findings to quite new research on the topic, and search for new insights. There has not been done a lot of research on this topic, and as far as we know, there has not been done any Norwegian studies, yet. Therefore, to gain new insight, an exploratory design seemed fitting. In addition, we didn't have a clear framework for which variables to include in our model and which to leave out, so the main mission was to explore the factors, decide on which factors to include or not and search for new factors affecting non-ownership consumption, in contrast to explaining an already known relationship. An explanation of the relationship would demand a large amount of data, and a more solid theoretical foundation. An explanatory design was therefore out of the question in our opinion. The same was the case for a descriptive study. In our opinion, an exploratory design gave us the freedom to explore this new and rather unknown topic, which is what we wanted. According to Saunders,

Lewis and Thornhill (2009, p.140) there are three principal ways of conducting exploratory studies; “a search of the literature, interviewing “experts” in the subject, and conducting focus group interviews”. We have chosen to do a deep search in the literature to gather different motivation factors for non-ownership consumption presented in earlier studies for comparing and to create a basis for our exploration of Norwegian consumers. In addition, we interviewed the consumers we thought would give us the best insight on the topic and therefore serve as “experts”, namely the consumers who engage in non-ownership consumption.

4.1.1. Research strategy

Our research strategy is a case study, defined as “...doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence” (Robson, 2002, referenced in Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009, pp. 145-146). By using interviews, we investigated multiple cases categorized by type of service. We included the following services: the car-sharing community, Bildeleringen, the music streaming service, Spotify, and the rental service, Sindro. Choosing the case-study strategy was relevant for us to get a rich understanding of the phenomenon in Norway, and for study the consumers of non-ownership services in depth. As mentioned in the previous section, the topic is very new and there is little theory and research on it. A case study therefore seemed the most fitting way to explore Norwegian non-ownership consumption. In the following, we will present the three cases.

Bideleringen

Bideleringen is a car-pooling system in Bergen (Bideleringen, 2012b), where the customers have access to a wide range of cars parked across the city. The users of the service book a car for a limited amount of time and park the car afterwards at a prearranged location. Bideleringen covers and are responsible for all maintenance and repairs. The users of the service only have the responsibility to refuel and leave the car tidy and in the same condition as they found it. In addition, any errors, injuries and defects must be reported. The payment includes a fee to be paid twice a year, in addition to a hourly rate and a small sum per kilometre (Bideleringen, 2012a).

Spotify

Spotify is a music streaming service with millions of tracks available for PC, Mac, home audio systems and mobile phone (Spotify, 2012a). Users can listen and search for music, in addition to

create and discover playlists. The service also have a social dimension, enabling users to share playlists, tracks and what they are listening to right now with their Facebook friends. Either the users get free access to a limited version of the service, or they can pay a monthly fee for either an unlimited or a premium version of the service (Spotify, 2012b).

Sindro

Sindro is a newly established service providing renting, swapping and giving away services to their customers (Sindro, 2012). The service targets both private individuals, businesses and non-profit organizations. Users can rent all kind of things through Sindro, e.g. tools, storage, musical instruments and clothes. There is also the possibility to form open or closed groups in order to communicate with friends and family. Unfortunately, the service is not completely up and running yet, resulting in that many of our respondents are people who have expressed interest in the service but have not actually tried it yet.

When we searched for and decided which services we wanted to base our study on, we had some criteria; the service should be a rental service, meaning that we only wanted services were people pay for accessing products for a limited time. Preferably, we wanted services that the consumers use on a regular basis, not just once a year. We wanted to interview transumers that had chosen to rent rather than own as part of their lifestyle. In addition, we searched for diverging services, i.e. services for different types of products. Several businesses rent tools and equipment; products that the average consumer only uses very rarely. Therefore, we looked for other services as well. Unfortunately, there are few rental services in Norway, so we had a limited set of service providers to choose among. However, we tried to get as varied services as possible to create variation in our data and findings related to our independent variables and moderators. The service are different in terms of expansion; Bildeleringen is limited to a set of users from one city, Spotify is a very widespread service with millions of users from many countries, and Sindro is a quite new service with only few users yet, spread across Norway. The non-ownership services is also quite different when it comes to the product that they have built their service around; Bildeleringen provides transportation and access to cars, Spotify provides access to music and playlists, and Sindro provides access to all kinds of products. In addition, when it comes to Bildeleringen and Spotify the users buy the service directly from these companies, but with Sindro, the users are in contact with other users.

We also wanted to have a case that was based on rental of fashion products, like the designer bag rental LittLuksus.no, but we were not able to get any participants from them. By including a service like LittLuksus.no, we would have had broader range of respondents, in terms of purpose for renting, as users of such services probably rent to express a special style or status. We also tried to contact Bysykkel Oslo, a bike-sharing service in Oslo. However, after several attempts we did not succeed in receiving an answer. Bysykkel is a collaboration between the municipality of Oslo and Clear Channel Norway, the largest provider of outdoor advertisement in Norway. It seems to us that the smaller companies like Bildeleringen and Sindro were a lot easier to reach out to than to a major company like Clear Channel.

4.1.2. Data collection

Our study is based on qualitative data, i.e. meanings expressed through words that are impossible to quantify or count, that we gathered ourselves, i.e. primary data, by conducting semi-structured interviews of consumers using the different services mentioned above. The use of semi-structured interviews allows us to follow a guided script while having the opportunity to explore topics that comes up during the interview and enables an in depth discussion of topics of interest (Merriam, 1998, referenced in Lawson, 2011, p. 17). The interviews mainly took place at cafés in Bergen or Oslo, in addition to video calls via Skype.

The interview guide

For our interviews we prepared an interview guide (see appendix). We used the theory presented in the theory chapter, mainly findings from studies and articles by Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), Durgee and O'Connor (1995) and Scholl (2008). We used these findings and theories to develop the model we presented in the model chapter, and used this as a basis for the interview guide. The questions were related to the different independent variables, i.e. motivation factors and moderators, and the relations between the variables. We tried to be quite to the point, covering each factor by at least one question. We also had a checklist consisting of all the variables included in our model, to ensure that we managed to cover all the variables in the interview. We started the interview by asking questions that are more general, about their renting behaviour and the service that they used in order to get to know the respondent and to enable us to detect potential underlying variables or commonalities that might have threatened the internal

validity. In other words, to see whether any other variables than the ones we were studying could explain their participation in non-ownership consumption. We will discuss this later in this chapter. Further, we had designed detailed questions about their reason for renting and their expectations and suggestions to improvements of the service. Thereafter, as the main part of our interview guide, we designed reflection questions asking about the motivation factors and the moderators. At the end of the guide, we had prepared a couple of extra question regarding sentimental value and the respondents' limits for renting.

When we started to coding and structuring our data, we realized that we did not have satisfying answers to explore the moderators. Therefore, we sent a follow-up email to all of our respondents, consisting of five question where we asked the respondents to reply in written answers. The questions concerned the functional and the symbolic perspective, and were more to the point than the questions we used in our interviews. The answers better enabled us to uncover the impediments to non-ownership.

Sample

We recruited respondents by contacting the service providers, asking them whether they could help us to get in touch with some of their customers. The respondents themselves volunteered to participate in the study after receiving an email from the service provider, informing them about our thesis and its topic, and asking for volunteers. To our third case, Spotify, we recruited the respondents ourselves by asking a varied group of users amongst our friends and acquaintances. We recruited three to five respondents per case, dependent on how many we were able to get in touch with, that is 12 respondents total. Unfortunately, we were running out of time and were only able to get in touch with and conduct interviews with three respondents using Spotify. As we had planned to recruit three to five respondents from each case, we were at the time satisfied with the three respondents and moved on to analysing the interviews. When looking back, it would have been advantageous to take the time to recruit one or two more respondents, to strengthen the validity of this particular case. An overview of the respondents is provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Case	Respondent nr.	Gender	Age
Bildeleringen	2	Male	32
	4	Male	32
	5	Male	38
	6	Female	53
Spotify	3	Female	24
	9	Female	23
	11	Male	22
Sindro	1	Female	34
	7	Female	34
	8	Female	25
	10	Male	53
	12	Female	39

Respondents using Bildeleringen were mostly men over the age of 30, while the respondents using Spotify were two women and one man between the age of 22 and 24, and the respondents using Sindro were mostly women over the age of 25. Thus, the respondents using Spotify were younger than the other respondents were. Several respondents using Bildeleringen stated that they used the service once a week on average; while two of the three respondents using Spotify stated they listened to music through Spotify every day. In contrast, our respondents recruited from Sindro had not yet tried the service. However, most of them used similar services or were members of communities or forums for renting, swapping and/or giving away.

We also gathered *secondary* data through a literature study of the studies and articles by Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), Durgee and O'Connor (1995) and Scholl (2008), in addition to a few other studies. The secondary data formed a basis for our model and interview guide, and in the analysis, we used them to compare with our findings.

4.1.3. Data analysis

Our study has a deductive approach. We started out with a literature study and based our model on those theories. This was also our basis for the analysis. We used transcript coding to organize the data by the factors we defined in the model chapter. Further, we categorized and compared the data with the use of tables and charts in Excel, to look for patterns and trends. We used the tables to calculate the proportions of the respondents that agreed and disagreed with the different

motivation factors and moderators. The different motivation factors and moderators were compared across the cases. In addition, we calculated the distribution of men and women across the cases, and likewise the distribution of environmentally conscious respondents, to see whether these factors might have biased the opinions of our respondents.

To investigate whether the respondents' answers fit with our motivation factors, we compared our definitions of the factors with comments and opinions from the respondents. We thereby have also used an inductive approach, exploring the data we gathered, as we were curious to whether our respondents provided new factors or thoughts on the subject. We also compared our results and findings to those of Lawson's (2011), Lovelock and Gummesson's (2004) and Durgee and O'Connor's (1995) studies. From this, we were able to revise our model, and exclude the factors that did not fit with our respondents' reasons for renting.

4.2. Validity and reliability

4.2.1. Reliability

Reliability refers to whether our data collection technique and analysis procedures would provide consistent findings (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

A potential problem is that respondents' answers are affected by trends or recent events, such as the environmental trend. However, when it comes to environmental concerns, this has been on the agenda for several years now and will probably continue to be so. By avoiding trends and events, we hope that our measures will yield the same results on other occasions or at a later point in time.

To secure the reliability we tried to gather a heterogeneous group of respondents by recruiting consumers from different non-ownership services and both men and women. Nevertheless, we did not get an even distribution of men and women on each case, e.g. it appeared to be a majority of men volunteering from Bildeleringen, and a majority of women volunteering from Sindro. This may have biased our results, which we will investigate further in the analysis chapter. However, when looking at the respondents as a whole we got almost half-and-half of each gender. On the other hand, we did not get as many respondents or as different cases as we wanted. Unfortunately, some of the services we contacted was not able to get us any participants,

signalling that these consumers might be different from our existing respondents. In other words, it may be that the respondents we *did* interview volunteered because they are especially interested in non-ownership. The consumers who did not want to participate would perhaps have been valuable to include in our study, as they might have yielded other results.

Another threat to reliability is the subject or participant bias (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Our respondents might have been saying what they thought we wanted to hear, or what they think is the “right” thing to say. For example, some of our questions concerned environmental consciousness, the welfare of animals and suggestions of ways to use the different services. There is a probability that some of the respondents tried to answer according to norms or the perceived common opinion of what is right, or that they wanted to be positive and say that they agreed with suggestions that they at the end of the day would not agree with. To try to avoid this, we made sure they knew that the interview was anonymous, and that no one but us would know who answered what. In addition, we formulated the questions as open as possible; trying not to give any signs that there was any preferred answers. Lastly, when we analysed the data, we were careful to consider whether the data actually told us what we thought they told us.

Other threats to reliability are related to the fact that we are two observers, i.e. there is a chance that we have used slightly different interview schedules or techniques (the observer error), and that we have different ways of interpreting the replies (the observer bias) (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). We addressed these problems by creating a detailed and well-prepared interview guide, in addition to doing the first five interviews together. We thereby got a common starting point and a basis for how to do the rest of the interviews. Of course, there might be problems related to how we interpret the replies. Nevertheless, we have worked close together to get a common understanding of our respondents.

4.2.2. Validity

External validity

External validity is concerned with whether our findings may be applied to other research settings (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Our intention is *not* to produce results or a model that is generalizable to all populations. We are only seeking to explore and describe the

Norwegian market, and we are aware that the results might not be true for all kinds of non-ownership services, or transusers, as we were only able to get a limited set of cases for our study.

Construct validity

Whether our measurement questions actually measure the presence of those constructs we intended them to measure is referred to as construct validity (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). To ensure that this was the case, we modified the interview guide during our interview process, and sent a follow-up email to all respondents asking questions about measures that we were not satisfied with based on the initial interviews

Internal validity

To determine whether the relationship we have tried to identify between the independent variable (motivation factors) and the dependent variable (non-ownership consumption) actually is a relationship, and is not influenced by underlying variables, we needed to check for internal validity. Internal validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about, or if the relationship between the two variables is a causal relationship (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). One of the major threats to internal validity is *history* (events that may have had an impact on the respondents' decision to rent that is not part of the motivation factors). Therefore, we began each of the interviews by asking different questions about the person to identify potential underlying variables. We asked questions such as:

Could you please take a minute to write down some keywords about what makes you want to rent rather than own these products?

How did you find out about the service? /How did you start using this service?

Are there any other aspects to your way of living that is different from others?

The point of asking these questions was to reveal any other motivating factors than the ones we were studying. We hoped that if they were motivated by very different reasons than our motivation factors, they would tell us directly or indirectly through answering these questions. Luckily, for our study, the reasons mostly correlated with our definitions.

We started the interviews by asking the first question, and then let them sit for a minute to think and write down some keywords. Even if they used different words, the recurring ones were:

Environmentally friendly, price, predictable costs, space, responsibility, variety, new (cars), ethics, and do not want to own too much “stuff”.

All of the keywords that came up could be categorized under our motivation factors.

Environmentally friendly naturally belongs in environmentalism, along with ethics and “don’t want too much stuff”. Price goes under *perceived economic gain* and predictable costs, space and responsibility fits with *simplicity orientation*. Variety is part of the definition of *function orientation* and new fits with trend orientation. In addition, some mentioned that it was a part of teaching their children good values, taking responsibility for the surroundings and building a social community. Even if these are not directly connected to our motivation factors, they are so indirectly, because they concern environmentalism.

The most frequent answers to the second question were:

“Time and money” (Respondent 1)

“Through work” (about Bildeleringen) (Respondent 4)

“Through friends” (about Spotify) (Respondent 3)

None of our respondents mentioned other major reasons such as financial trouble or the need to replace lost items. All of our respondents started using the services because of time, money or environmental concern, and they heard about the service from friends or family in the same situation.

Our respondents were approximately split in half by our third question, one half being environmentally conscious and the other not feeling different at all. Only two respondents stood out. One of them said that he was more willing than others were to try out new things; the other said she was into social media, and always chose podcasts and web TV instead of listening to the radio or watching TV, so that she could set up her own entertainment. None of the respondents mentioned reasons or motivations for starting to rent rather than own that could not be matched

with a least one or two of our motivation factors, or that stood out as major reasons that might have been more important than our factors in initiating non-ownership consumption.

Mortality is also a threat to internal validity (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Some of our participants did not respond to our follow-up email, leading to a lower response rate on the questions related to functional perspective. Luckily, most of the respondents gave us satisfying insights at this topic in the interviews.

Other threats to internal validity are testing, instrumentation and maturation. Testing (i.e. knowing that they are being tested (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009)) and maturation (i.e. changing their view over time (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009)) are not relevant to our respondents, as they were not tested for their capabilities or knowledge and would therefore not fear to fail, and as the interview was a one-time event. One could say that the follow up-questions could have been affected by maturation, however, these questions were a bit different from the interview questions, and in addition, the follow-up answers seemed to correlate well with the first answers. Instrumentation (i.e. whether they were prepared for the interview (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009)) may have had an impact on our data, as the respondents received an email from us, informing them about the interview and the topic. However, we had to remind all of them about the topic before each interview, as none of them seemed to remember why they were being interviewed. Of course, they may have thought about their view of non-ownership when they received the email and thus have subconsciously made up their minds of what they should answer. However, to us their answers seemed to be sincere and personal.

4.3. Weaknesses

Our sample, consisting of a non-probability and self-selection sampling, might lead to a special group of respondents participating. For example, participants that are passionate about the topic or participants that have extreme opinions about the topic, instead of the average consumer. On the other hand, the self-selection sample might have given us supplementary answers and more in-depth interviews, as they are more motivated to contribute to our study. This may in turn have affected our results. On the one hand, if the participants are different from the average consumer, our results may be biased by this, meaning that they only apply to this group of consumers,

namely those who already rent and have developed a passion for non-ownership. If this is true, our results cannot be transferred to the rest of the population, and they are less useful to producers of product-services. On the other hand, these transumers, as mentioned, might have given us supplementary answers and more in-depth interviews, meaning that they have reflected on the topic before, and are interested in it. That is, our respondents often gave us long and reflected answers, enabling us to draw a large amount of data from the interviews, and do a thorough and in-depth analysis. With less committed respondents, this may not have been the case. We could have ended up with short answers from respondents who were keener to be done with the interview and leave. Thus, we believe our sample was a good one, providing us with high-quality data, and thereby solid results. However, it would have been beneficial to check this. That is, it would have been interesting to do interviews with a control group of consumers who do not already rent, to see whether our results may be applied to average consumers as well.

As mentioned earlier, some of the non-ownership services we contacted were not able to get in touch with customers that were willing to participate in our study. One example is the designer-handbag rental service, LittLuksus.no, which might have given us interesting insights and a broader group of respondents. In addition, we would have liked to have more respondents from each case, especially, as mentioned, from Spotify. This would have strengthened our results in terms of validity and reliability. A larger, more varied group of respondents would have made it easier to see whether the tendencies we have found are true for the population as a whole. That is, the larger the sample, the more representative the results would have been. As our research is a qualitative one, it would anyway have been hard to generalize; however, it would have made the results stronger. In terms of reliability, we tried to get as heterogeneous group as possible. This would have been easier if the group was larger, and consisted of a wider range of cases. Especially in the case of Spotify, we only had three respondents, all in their early twenties, possibly with the same relation to music. It would have been beneficial to have a larger group, with different types of people. In addition, a larger group may have consisted of a wider range of age groups, political views and education. That is, we could have tested the importance of different socioeconomic characteristics. We wanted to test the importance of environmental consciousness, something that was difficult due to the uneven distribution of women. This may have been possible with a larger sample.

Another weakness related to our sample is that the respondents from Sindro did not actually use the service, as the rental service Sindro.com is only a beta version and not officially launched yet. This makes the answers of these respondents a bit hypothetical. In addition, we would have liked to be better prepared for this. Sindro did not inform us that their respondents were not actual *users* of the service. Therefore, the first interviews with Sindro respondents, before we knew that the service was not properly up and running, could have been improved by revising the interview guide to better suit these respondents. Nevertheless, the participants from Sindro were listed as interested in the service, and seemed to be interested in non-ownership services in general. Many of the respondents were already using other rental or swapping services, making them interesting and important respondents in our study.

Lastly, some of our questions, we discovered, were not as to the point as we thought they were, meaning that the answers we had did not directly describe our factors. Thus, for some of the factors we had to interpret the respondents' answers. Through the follow-up questions, we tried to get answers that were more specific to enlighten the factors that we, before the follow up, did not have enough data to analyse. However, because we sent the questions by email, we were not able to guide the respondents if they misunderstood the question. Thus, after the follow-up we still had to interpret some of the opinions to analyse our factors. This may have led to biases in our analysis of the data. In addition, two of the interviews were done by using Skype. Delays and poor reception made these interviews more difficult to conduct, as we sometimes struggled to hear each other, and it was very difficult to read the respondents' body language. We have considered this when analysing the data from these interviews. Both of us worked on transcribing them, and we spent time discussing the parts of these interviews that were especially difficult to interpret. However, this is still a limitation to our data.

5. Findings

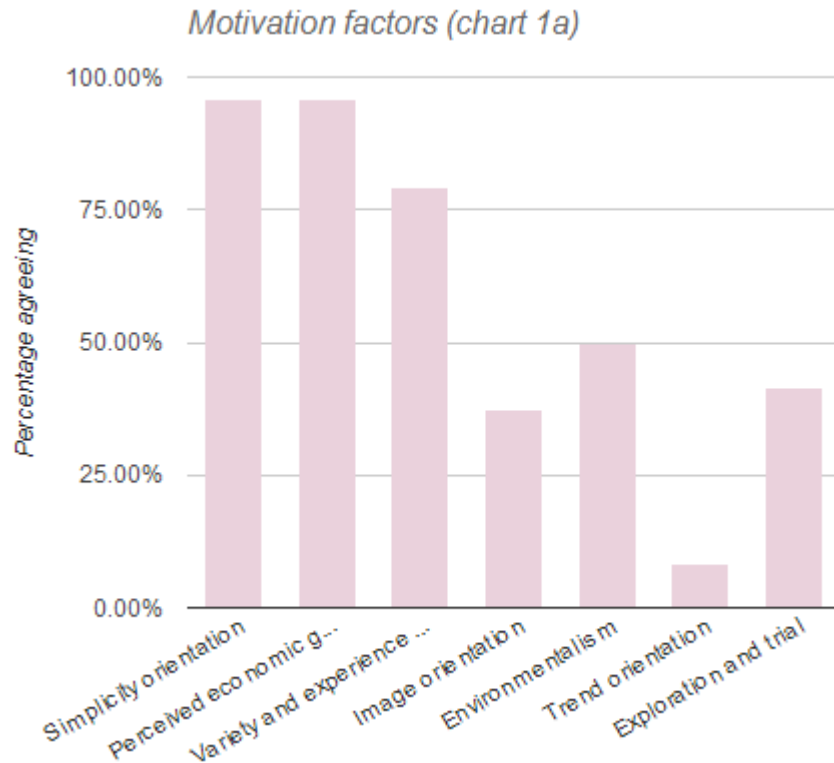
5.1. Presentation and illustration of results

We have coded the data from our interviews and sorted them to see how important each of our motivation factors were to the respondents. We sorted them based on who agreed with our statements, and who disagreed (table 2 in appendix). From that, we were able to calculate the percentage of how many of our respondents agreed with our motivation factors, and thus draw the diagrams we have used to illustrate in this chapter. We then grouped the respondents based on the different cases to see whether case affiliation had any impact on opinion. Thereafter, we analysed the data based on gender and on environmental opinion to see whether the differences between the cases were actually due to case affiliation. We keep in mind that our sample of respondents is very small, and it is difficult to draw conclusions for the rest of the population based on our data. However, if there are no systematic biases in our sample it should be possible to say something about tendencies. We will study the variations in the sample to see whether they may apply to other consumers, and point out the tendencies. In addition, because of our sample-size, small deviations, like the opinion of only one or two people, may have an impact on the charts, and therefore we will only comment on the largest deviations. We will present our data in the following, and discuss and analyse the results in the next chapter.

5.1.1. The overall result

The following results and charts is a presentation of all respondents as a whole. Differences between cases will be presented later in this chapter.

The motivation factors



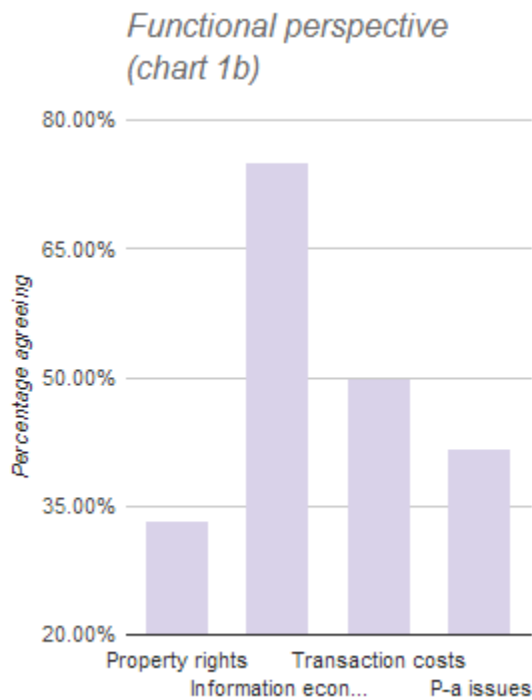
It seems that simplicity orientation and perceived economic gain are the *most important* motivations for renting products, rather than owning them outright. I.e., for our respondents the relief of not having to maintain, store, and get rid of goods, in addition to saving money, or getting more value for their money, were the most relevant factors for renting rather than owning. Variety and experience seeking, meaning consumption as “... a source of entertainment and enjoyment” (Barbin et al., 1994, referenced in Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010, p.6), was the third most important motivation factor.

Half of the respondents agreed with environmentalism being a motivation factor. The other three motivation factors; image orientation, trend orientation and exploration and trial had a very low percentage of agreeing respondents. Less than half of the respondents agreed that these were important factors, and only two of our twelve respondents agreed with trend orientation. We will discuss possible reasons for this in the analysis chapter. Some of our motivation factors also have more than one component, implying that our respondents may give them diverging meanings. We will discuss this further in the same chapter.

The moderators

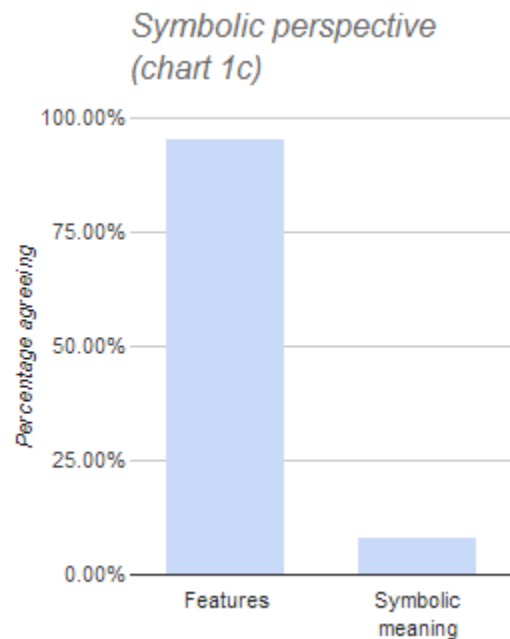
As with the motivation factors, we sorted the data about the moderators based on who agreed that they were impediments, and who disagreed. In the figures illustrating the results, we have presented the percentage of respondents agreeing, i.e. the respondents who expressed that each of the factors could be impediments to non-ownership. The four factors related to the functional perspective were; property rights, information economics, transaction costs and principal-agent issues, and correspondingly for the symbolic perspective; features and symbolic meaning.

The functional perspective



According to Scholl (2008) property rights, information economics, transaction costs and principal-agent issues may be impediments to non-ownership. According to chart 1b, information economics and transaction costs are, to our respondents, the most likely impediments. I.e., respectively over half and half of our respondents will not rent if they cannot properly foresee the quality of the product, or if they perceive the transaction costs as being higher than if buying the product. The other two factors are less important. We will discuss the reasons for this and discuss whether our results match our model in the analysis and discussion chapter.

The symbolic perspective

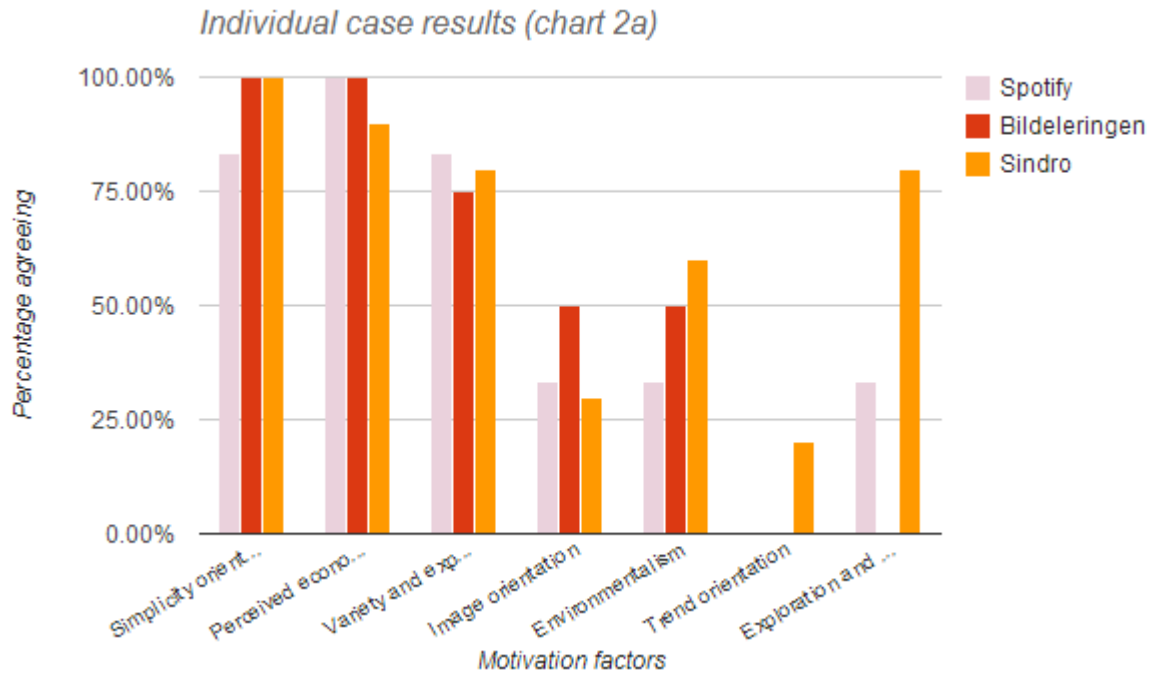


Our data indicates that almost all of the respondents care about the features of the products they rent, and not about whether the product gives them a symbolic meaning or not. Only a few of the respondents mentioned that they want the values of the producer to match their values, but none of our respondents expressed that a symbolic meaning is fundamentally important. We will discuss whether this result aligns with the theory and our model in the analysis chapter.

5.1.2. Individual case results

In our interviews, we had respondents from three different product-service systems (cases); namely Spotify (music streaming), Bildeleringen (car sharing) and Sindro (rental service for various products). We divided our respondents into these three groups, to see whether case affiliation had any impact on opinion. The following figures are developed the same way as the overall results, the only difference being that we have divided the results into the three cases.

The motivation factors



When comparing the three cases, it seems there are only small differences between them concerning the most important motivation factors; simplicity orientation, perceived economic gain and variety and experience seeking.

The most significant difference between the three cases is that over half of the respondents using Sindro express exploration and trial, meaning they aim to try alternative selves (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995), as a motivation factor for renting. This factor does not seem to be important at all for respondents using Spotify and Bildeleringen.

Spotify

The majority of Spotify users seem to be simplicity orientated. However, perceived economic gain, i.e. getting as much value for your money as possible or paying as low a price as possible for the product, is the most important factor. The possibility of listening to varied music as well as being able to make lists and change these at wish, also seem to be important, thus making *variety and experience seeking* an important motivation factor. The rest of the factors, that is image orientation, environmentalism, trend orientation and exploration and trial, are not as relevant for the Spotify users.

Bildeleringen

Bideleringen users all agree that simplicity orientation and perceived economic gain are the most important motivation factors. In addition, the majority of them seem to be seeking variety and experience. Only half of the Bideleringen respondents agree that image orientation and environmentalism are motivating factors, and none of them seem to be trend-oriented or using the service for exploration and trail. Overall, Spotify users and Bideleringen users are, thus, quite similar.

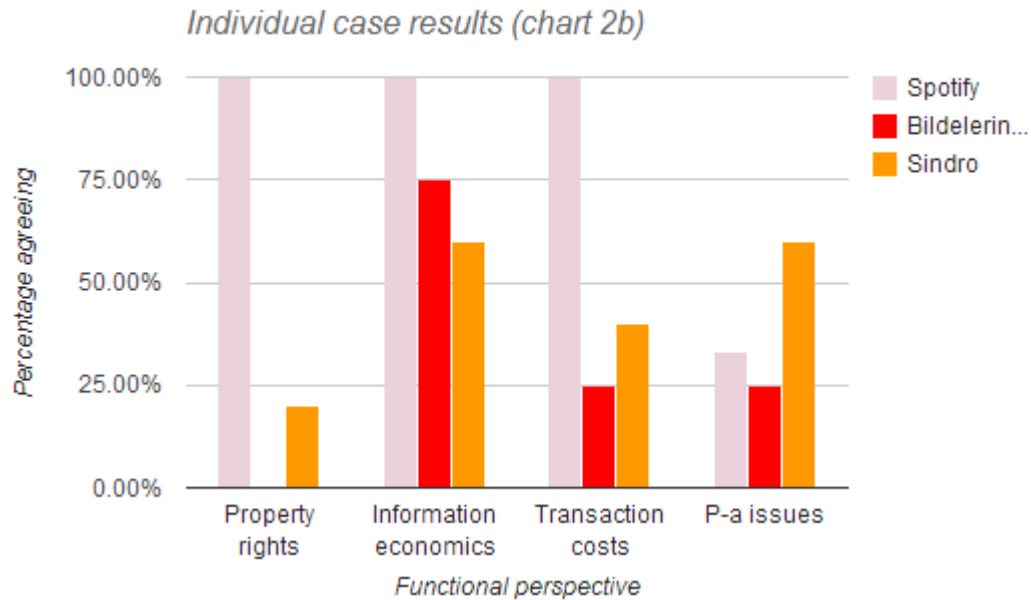
Sindro

To our respondents from Sindro, like those from Bideleringen, simplicity orientation is the most important motivating factor. Well over half of them also agreed that perceived economic gain and variety and experience seeking are important factors. What distinguishes Sindro respondents from Bideleringen and Spotify respondents is that well over half of them seem to think that exploration and trial is an important motivator. This factor is respectively irrelevant and just faintly relevant for the other groups. Over half of the Sindro respondents seem to think about the environment when they choose between renting and owning, and half of them seem to agree that image orientation is relevant, however, trend-orientation is again barely mentioned.

Overall, the three cases are as mentioned quite similar, except that Sindro respondents seem to be very different from the others when it comes to exploration and trial. A further analysis of possible reasons for this is presented later.

The moderators

We tested the moderating variables in our interviews and through a follow-up questionnaire that we e-mailed to our respondents after the interviews. We decided to do the follow-up questionnaire because we realized that the answers we got in the interviews were not satisfactory, and that it was difficult to tie them to the moderators. In the following, we will describe the data we collected regarding the functional and the symbolic perspective.



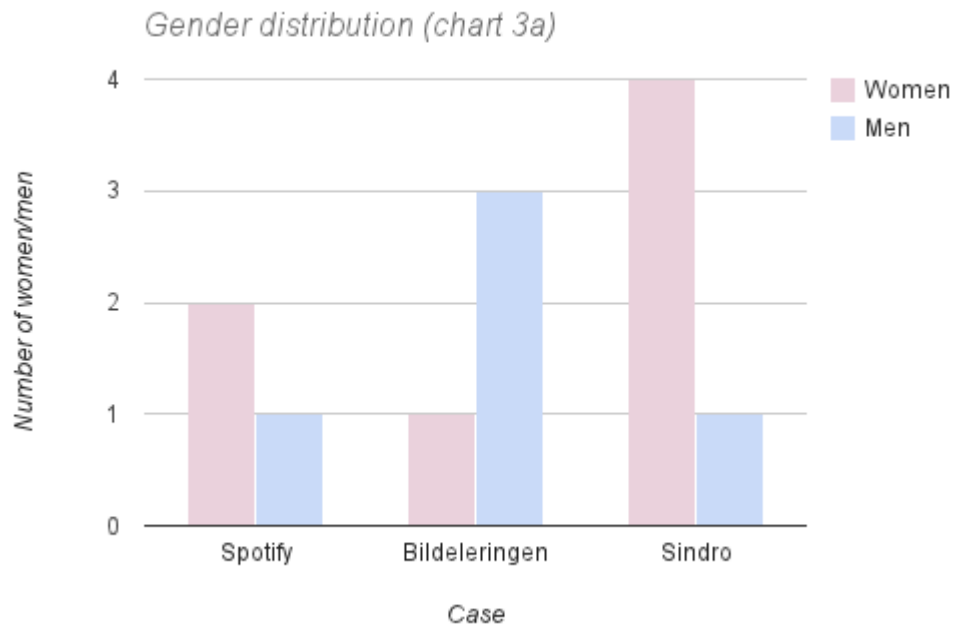
According to chart 2b, respondents using Spotify stand out from the other respondents when it comes to property rights and transaction costs in the functional perspective. All respondents using Spotify expressed that property rights were important to them and could in some cases be an impediment to renting, in contrast to the other two cases where almost none of the respondents were concerned about property rights. In addition, Spotify users saw information economics, i.e. difficulty of foreseeing quality (Scholl, 2008) as an important impediment, however, so did the other respondents as well. When it comes to *transaction costs*, it is again mainly the respondents using Spotify that are not willing to rent if they perceive the transaction costs as higher than if buying the product. Principal-agent issues, as we stated from chart 1b, is of little importance to most of the respondents. However, over half of the respondents using Sindro express this as an impediment. We will discuss the reasons for why Spotify and Sindro users stand out in this manner, in the analysis chapter.

There were no differences of importance between the different cases what concern the symbolic perspective (chart 2c in appendix). Thus, we will not comment any further on this.

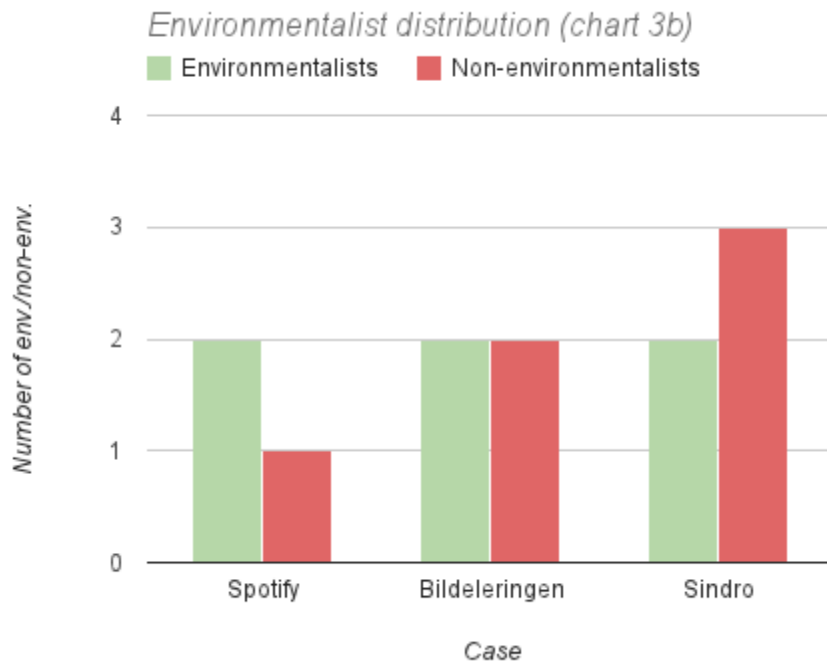
5.1.3. Other differences

We wanted to see whether the differences between the cases could be due to other factors than case affiliation. One of the most obvious factors, at least to us, was gender. In addition, we have

divided our respondents based on environmental opinion. The reason for choosing the environmentalism factor is that half of the respondents thought that environmentalism is the *most* important factor motivating them to engage in non-ownership consumption.



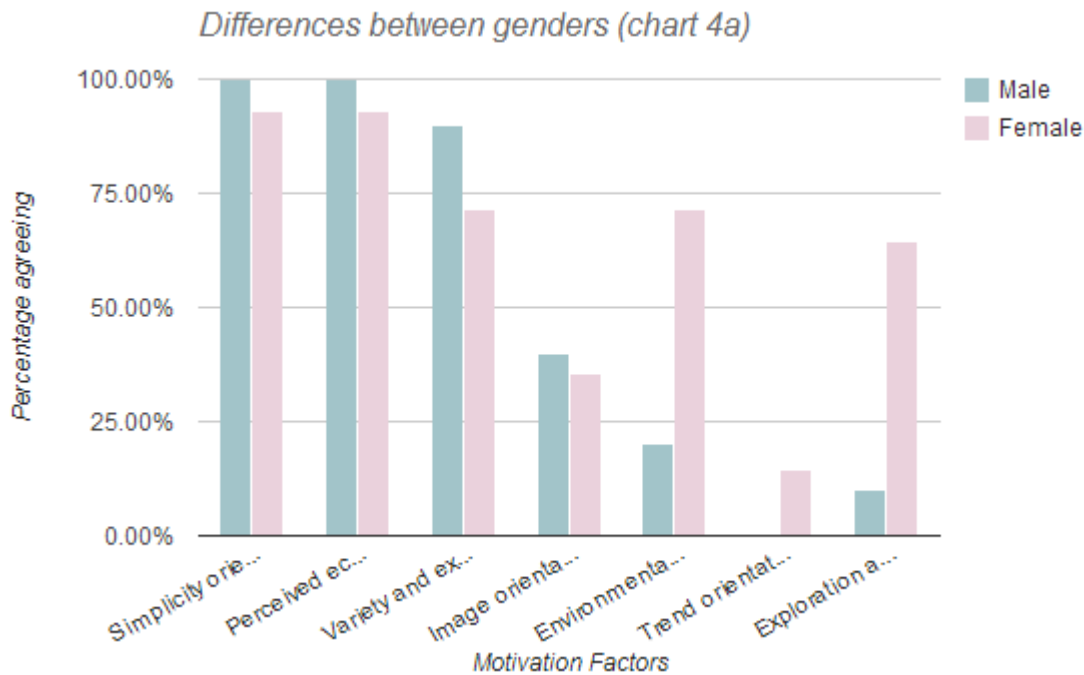
In chart 3a, we have presented the share of men and women in the different cases. As is easy to see, the distribution of men and women is rather uneven, especially for Sindro. Thus, some of the differences between the cases may be due to this.



The distribution of environmentalists and non-environmentalists over the three cases is as illustrated in chart 3b. We have few respondents, meaning that it is hard to tell whether we have a representative sample of respondents. Nevertheless, it seems as if the environmentalists are quite evenly distributed across the cases, at least more so than the men and women. This suggests that even if environmentalists and non-environmentalists disagree on some points, it should not affect the differences between the cases.

We therefore proceeded by analysing the differences between the genders only. The results are presented below.

The motivation factors



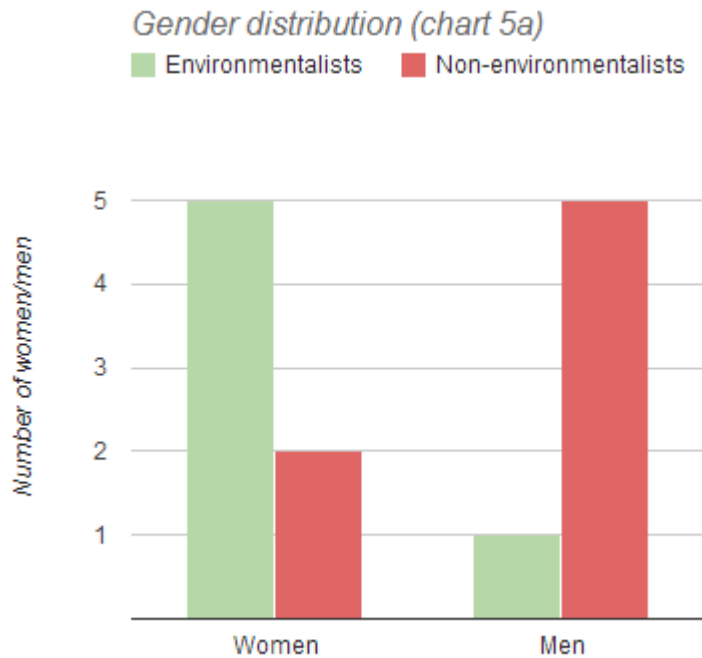
Our data tell us that the men and women in our study are very similar when it comes to the factors simplicity orientation and perceived economic gain. These are the two most important factors for both sexes, and they are equally important. To the male respondents, variety and experience seeking is also one of the main reasons for why they rent rather than own. Men and women agree that trend-orientation and image orientation is not important for why they rent.

The main difference between the male and the female respondents is that the women are definitely more concerned about the environment in their choice of consumption than the men are. In addition, the women definitely use rental services as tools for exploration and trial more often than men do. There is also a minor difference when it comes to *variety and experience seeking*; women seem to agree less to variety and experience seeking than men do. However, as this is only small difference, we will not comment or analyse this any further.

The moderators

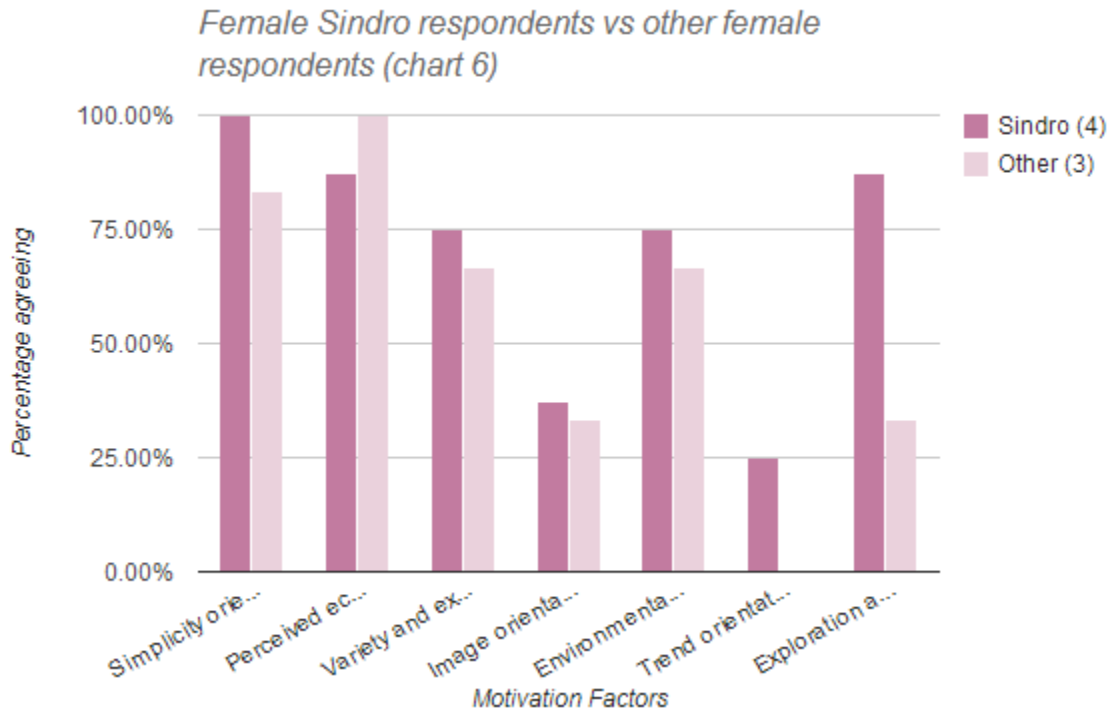
The result from analysing the moderators was that the differences between men and women were not significant. The diagrams are presented in charts 4b and 4c the appendix; however, we will not mention them any further here.

The environmentalist-non-environmentalist ratio



The difference between the sexes in environmental opinion, led us to take a closer look at our respondents. We discovered that the environmentalist/non-environmentalist ratio was as shown in chart 5a. We did another analysis, splitting the genders into environmentalists and non-environmentalists, to see whether we could see any tendencies that the groups were any different. As there are only two non-environmentalist women and one environmentalist man, it was impossible to look at our data and tell whether there really was a difference between environmentalist and non-environmentalists, or whether the difference was just between genders. Charts 5b, 5c and 5d, which illustrate this analysis, can be viewed in the appendix. However, we will not present them here. The differences shown in the analysis could be due to any number of individual factors and coincidences, not just environmental consciousness, and we found our data foundation to be too thin to proceed with further analysis.

The difference between Sindro and the other cases revisited



The major difference between Sindro and the other cases was in exploration and trial. This was one of the major differences between the genders as well. Thus, we wanted to see whether this difference was due to the majority of women, or because of case affiliation. According to chart 6, the only major difference between women using Sindro and the other women in our study is the difference in exploration and trial. This indicates that Sindro respondents *are* different from the other respondents. We will look further into this in the analysis chapter.

5.1.4. Summary of results

Our overall results indicate that simplicity orientation, perceived economic gain and variety and experience seeking are the *most* important motivation factors for non-ownership consumption. When looking at the moderators, information economics and transaction costs seem to be the only impediments to non-ownership consumption. The symbolic meaning of objects does not seem to be important to our respondents. We will discuss these findings in the following chapter.

When comparing the three different cases, we found that respondents in all three cases were quite similar. However, respondents using Sindro provided somewhat different results when it

comes to exploration and trial, as they seem to be more motivated by this factor than the other respondents are. When it comes to the moderators, Spotify users were the ones that stood out; they were more concerned with property rights, information economics and transaction costs than the other respondents were. An analysis of these differences will be provided in the next chapter.

As men and women were unevenly distributed across the three cases, we took a closer look at the difference between genders. We found that the difference between cases in exploration and trial was also a difference between the genders. Thus, we looked further into the difference between female Sindro respondents and other female respondents. Our theory is that the difference actually might be due to case affiliation, and not the majority of women. However, we will discuss this difference in depth in the next chapter.

In addition, we found that female respondents also were more concerned with environmentalism. Unfortunately, our number of respondents was too small for us to be able to see whether the difference was because the majority of women are “environmentalists”, or whether women in general are more environmentally concerned. Therefore, we were not able to analyse this any further. However, chart 6 shows us that women agrees on most of the factors, regardless of case. Thus, the result that there are differences between the genders is strengthened. There were no significant differences between genders when it came to the moderators, and we will therefore not analyse them based on gender differences.

5.2. Analysis

In this chapter, we will discuss only the results we mentioned in the presentation chapter as worthy of further inquiry.

5.2.1. The motivation factors

We will in the following analyse and compare our findings related to our motivation factors to the findings of Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) and Durgee and O’Connor (1995). In addition, we will analyse whether the responses related to our motivation factors align with our definitions of the factors presented in the model chapter, and thus enable ourselves to revise our model according to our results.

Simplicity orientation

Based on our data and the figures presented in the previous chapter, simplicity orientation seems to be an *important* motivation factor for non-ownership consumption, both when looking at all respondents and when comparing different groups of respondents, and the different genders. It seems product or gender does not affect it, all consumers regard this factor as important. When looking at the interviews, several themes related to simplicity orientation recur.

In our definition of simplicity orientation, we included Lawson's (2011) motivation factor freedom from ownership. As in Lawson's (2011) study, we found that almost all our respondents used the product-service systems to simplify their lives.

"You always end up with so many things that you really don't need, that just lies about as clutter."
(Respondent 1)

"Consumers are seeking ways to reduce their commitments and responsibilities related to ownership by using what they need when they need it" (Lawson 2011, p.19). Both storage, maintenance and expenses are repeatedly mentioned in our interviews. They are all related to commitments that comes with owning a product (Lawson, 2011),

"The best part is that you avoid responsibility for the asset. Once you own a car then you have to bother with taxes and tire change, repair ... and worries if this and that happens one time or another, and where to park, and shovelling snow, and all these things. That's the best thing (about renting)." (Respondent 2)

"I don't need to have the car all the time, so the cost .. Ehm .. It is an unnecessary expense .. At the same time now and then is there a need for a car, and then it's okay to have it available" (Respondent 12)

The other component in our definition of *simplicity orientation* is Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) convenience orientation. Just like Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), we found that the factor was highly relevant for our respondents. The respondents claimed that renting a product is less stressful than owning it, and that you get easier access to the product or service regardless of where you are. This implies that renting is easier than owning, and that you save time and energy. Relevant comments included the following:

“The fact that it is stress-free. Take Spotify as an example, you do not need to categorize the music, copy it, take backup. If you switch pc, then you have to move it, and all that... You don't need to do that.”

(Respondent 5)

“Because, if something happens to the car, you automatically have access to another car.” (Respondent 2)

“It's convenient. You can switch when you want. Listen to whatever you want, like with albums, perhaps there is one good song while the rest is uninteresting. Then you can just take the songs you like, and make your own list”. (Respondent 3).

As many of the respondents agreed with this, convenience orientation by itself proved to be one of the most relevant factors in our study.

Perceived economic gain

Like simplicity orientation, perceived economic gain was important to *all* respondents, regardless of gender or case. That is, regardless of which product consumers rent, or who they are, price and value is imperative for their choice. Therefore, it is very likely that this result may be applied to the population as a whole.

Lawson's (2011) motivation factor value seeking was one of the components of our motivation factor perceived economic gain. Lawson (2011) found that consumers were either trying to find cost-savings, or benefits that exceed the costs of renting. This matches our study well.

“I use Bildeleringen quite “irresponsibly” actually. I use it quite a lot, so I think that I could have defended buying a lousy old car for the money that I rent the automobile for... But, there are so many things to take into consideration. Because, if you own the car, you have a pretty sharp depreciation from one year to the next on the car, ehm... But, what has become an argument, actually, after I became a dad, eh is that I only drive new cars. I drive cars from 2012, which is of 2012 safety...” (Respondent 4)

This quote also matches another finding in the Lawson (2011) study, namely that consumer's practice mental accounting. They calculate the costs of renting and know that, summed up they may afford to buy the rented product instead. However, as in this case, with the up-to-date safety

level of the cars, various other seasonal benefits comes with renting, and they find that they get more value back.

We also included Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) factor price consciousness in our motivation factor perceived economic gain, as it had a lot in common with Lawson's (2011) factor value seeking. Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) define the factor as "the extent to which potential buyers view price (in its negative sense) as a sacrifice" (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010, p. 180). We found that price, for many of our transumers, was an important factor. Over half of them stated that if the price of renting exceeded that of buying, they would not rent. Thus, our result differs from that of Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), as they found that price consciousness was not a significant positive influence on non-ownership. They explained that consumers probably think that renting in the end is not cost saving. Our respondents, on the other hand, thought exactly the opposite; that they save money by renting.

"Yes, definitely. For the simple reason that if you talk to the bank, they say that having a car will cost you slightly under 3000 NOK a month, while we spend between 700 and 1,000 each month, roughly. So it is a simple calculation". (Respondent 6)

One respondent also expressed that he likes to rent products because of the fixed and predictable costs that comes with e.g. renting a holiday home. Nevertheless, these results are not major enough to have an impact on our definition of the motivation factor.

Variety and experience seeking

Variety and experience seeking is an important factor motivating almost all our respondents, regardless of case. This implies that the aim to seek variety and rent products for the experience it gives them is a strong motivation factor, which potentially would apply to other consumers in the population. We have included Lawson's (2011) motivation factor variety seeking in our motivation factor variety and experience seeking. According to Lawson (2011) "variety seeking is characterized by the degree to which a person expresses a desire to try new and different themes" (Lawson, 2011, p. 22). Her respondents were renters of inter alia fashion items and since our respondents were mostly renters of cars and music, we did not get quite the same results. We did, however hope to interview customers of a bag-rental service called LittLuksus.no, and if we

had interviewed these consumers, we believe our results would have been closer to those of Lawson (2011). Nevertheless, some of our respondents did mention that Bildeleringen enabled them to use different cars for different occasions, and that they sometimes tried new car models, even if this was not a reason for why they chose to rent rather than own.

“.. that is, in the summer for example, we take out a lux car, a nice big wagon and enjoy ourselves on the trip... for the daily urban driving and stuff I take a small electric car..” (Respondent 4)

However, it seems that the respondents using Bildeleringen do not vary their choice of cars very often. Nevertheless, they like to have the opportunity to do so. It seems like many of the respondents were more concerned with having access to different types of car, rather than actually seeking to vary which car they use. In addition, users of Spotify used the service to find new music and explore genres. However, most of them stated that they tend to listen to the same music every time. Our respondents from Sindro did not have any experience from the service, as it is not up and running yet. However, many of them stated that they thought they would want to use the service for varying their consumption. Nevertheless, none of the respondents seems to have been directly motivated by variety seeking when they chose between ownership and non-ownership.

Another component of variety and experience seeking is Moeller and Wittkowski’s (2010) factor experience orientation. Experience orientation is “... consumption as a source of entertainment and enjoyment” (Barbin et al. 1994, referenced in Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010, p.6). Few of our respondents mentioned this in the interviews. However, one of the respondents using Spotify stated:

“It’s really nice that you get to listen to music and stuff. Very pleasant when being at a pre-party... You can turn on Spotify and everyone can search for music, and you have access to everything you want to listen to...” (Respondent 9)

When we defined our motivation factors and model, we chose to include experience orientation as a motivation factor even if Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) found that it was not significant. This was because similar factors were important in both Lawson’s (2011) study and Durgee and

O'Connor's (1995) article. However, the respondents seem to be more concerned about the function of the product, rather than seeking enjoyment and entertainment. Thus, as Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) found, experience orientation seems unrelated to the choice of non-ownership consumption. Again, we do believe that this result may have been altered if we were able to include former users of LittLuksus.no.

The third component of our factor variety and experience seeking is instrumental materialism (Durgee and O'Connor 1995). Most respondents seem to fit with our description of instrumental materialism. They are interested in using the product, rather than in *owning* it. For example, upon asking whether she is instrumentally or terminally materialistic, a respondent answer:

"So, I'm probably instrumentally materialistic. Because it is very few things that in itself give me pleasure." (Respondent 8)

Another respondent stated:

"I understand the charm of buying a car that you own. However, for me it's probably most important that the usage... The car is a means of transport rather than a thing you buy because you want to have it. It's mainly a utility article." (Respondent 2)

Durgee and O'Connor (1995) describe instrumental materialism as consumers deriving satisfaction from using an object, in contrast to having the possession as an end in itself. We found that many of the respondents were interested in the function of the product rather than the product itself, and were interested in having access to e.g. the car or the music. This confirms what Durgee and O'Connor (1995, p.93) states; "...renting is more closely associated with instrumental materialism" because the important thing is the activity, not the item in itself.

In our study, we found that variety and experience seeking was one of the three most important motivation factors. However, it seemed that most of our results were more connected to instrumental materialism *than* variety seeking and experience orientation. Based on our data, it seems like instrumental materialism better describes what motivates the respondents to non-ownership consumption than the other components of variety and experience seeking do.

Image orientation

We included Lawson's (2011) factor status seeking in addition to Durgee and O'Connor's (1995) factor self-projection in our motivation factor image orientation. According to Lawson (2011), her respondents are concerned about what significant others think about their possessions or rentals. Durgee and O'Connor (1995, p.95) states that "rental can be used as a tool for (...) self-projection"

In our study, image orientation was not an important factor. However, this may be related to our sample, rather than to differences between nationalities. Lawson (2011) interviewed renters of designer bags and other luxurious items, while we had respondents from car-sharing services and music-sharing services. Thus, we believe that if we had managed to get respondents from the now discontinued service LittLuksus.no we might have had other results.

Environmentalism

Lawson (2011) states that "a growing number of consumers are concerned with environmental, social and animal welfare issues. (...) Consumers concerned about the environment are more likely to purchase from firms they deem socially responsible" (Lawson, 2011, p. 23).

We too found that many of our respondents were environmentally conscious. It actually seemed to be the major reason for why about half of our respondents choose to rent rather than own.

"That is the main reason, really. That it is environmentally friendly. It has to do with the need to create something from new resources. One should use what already is there!" (Respondent 8).

Another quite interesting result was that women seemed to be more environmentally conscious than men were. From chart 6, we saw that case did not have an important impact on environmentalism, strengthening the result that gender is the decisive factor. Unfortunately, we did not have enough female non-environmentalists respondents to see whether there is a difference between these groups.

In Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) study, unlike Lawson's (2011) study, environmentalism did not have a significant positive influence on non-ownership consumption. They stated that this was because transumers either think that to be environmentally friendly they have to *refrain* from

consumption, or that they would rather by eco-friendly products, or that they do not know that non-ownership reduces the amount of goods produced (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). However, some of the car sharers admitted that sharing a car rather than owning a car, still put a car on the road. They also said that according to a study they had seen, car sharing was not environmentally friendly. Nevertheless, almost half of our respondents chose to rent *mainly* based on environmental consciousness. It was the major reason for them to look for alternatives to the “disposable” consumption that characterizes the western world. All the other factors came second to environmentalism, or were impacted by the “environmental” way of thinking. We therefore see this factor as very important, even if chart 1a tells us that only half of the respondents agree with this factor.

Trend orientation

According to Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), trend orientation refers to the aim of some consumers to obtain access to the newest products. This factor turned, in their study, out to have a significant positive influence on non-ownership consumption. In our study, however, this factor was the least important. Only one respondent stated that she would have liked to use a rental service to try out the newest technology. As we have repeatedly stated, we believe that interviewing former users of LittLuksus.no would have given us a different result, more like the one of Moeller and Wittkowski (2010), as trend orientation is more related to fashion and seasonal products than to cars and music. In this study, trend orientation seems to be irrelevant to our respondents.

Exploration and trial

Lawson’s (2011) factor risk aversion is one of the components in exploration and trial. Lawson (2011) found that transumers rent rather than buy to reduce the anxiety associated with choosing an object for permanent ownership. According to our respondents, they do not deliberately use rental services for this particular purpose. However, many of them said, after we asked whether they have thought about it, that it definitely would be a good idea, and that they probably would use rental services for this purpose in the future.

The other component of exploration and trial is Durgee and O’Connor’s (1995) factor self-exploration. According to our study, the majority of the respondents do not use rental services to

try out alternative selves. However, some consumers state that they use the rental service to explore new music before buying it, or to try products to see whether they are worth buying. Nevertheless, it seems that few respondents use products to reflect their identity or to try out a different version of themselves. That is, it seems that what motivates some of our respondents is *testing* a product rather than self-exploration. As mentioned in the previous chapter, all of the respondents using Sindro expressed that they would be interested in using rental services to test out products. In the following, we will take a closer look at differences between cases when it comes to this factor.

Sindro versus other cases

We found, in the previous chapter, that the three cases we have studied seem to be quite similar, except that respondents from Sindro were more concerned with exploration and trial than the other respondents were (chart 2a). In fact, all of the respondents using Sindro expressed in some way that exploration and trial can be a motivating factor for renting. This might be a result of that exploration and trial is more relevant for services like Sindro than it is for Spotify and Bildeleringen. It may also be due to the majority of female respondents in the two cases, as women more often than men mentioned exploration and trial as a motivation factor.

Respondents using Spotify often stated that to them, buying the music instead of renting it was not an alternative. In other words, the main intention for using the service was not to explore music to see whether they like it or not. The same seems to be true for respondents using Bildeleringen.

“No, because I would not buy the music!” (Respondent 11)(Spotify)

“No! (...) That is not the purpose. I will probably continue to have this arrangement for many years. It is based on where I live rather than what I want.” (Respondent 2)(Bildeleringen)

We think it is safe to say that even though exploration and trial seem to be irrelevant for services like Bildeleringen and Spotify, it is clear that respondents using Sindro find it relevant. This might be a reason for including this factor in our model after all, as it seems to be relevant for at least some types of non-ownership consumption.

Respondents using Sindro might have different lifestyles or different consumption patterns than the other respondents. In addition, Sindro is a more general rental service. It might be that respondents using Sindro, compared to the other respondents, are more open to renting all kinds of products rather than one specific service or product. We took a closer look at our respondents' answers to see whether there were any differences between them based on the introduction questions concerning whether they would (or already do) use other rental services or not. There seemed to be a tendency that the respondents from Sindro were more open to using rental services for a wider range of products, than the other respondents were. While respondents from Bildeleringen and Spotify usually claimed that they did not consider using other rental services, or that they would use them mainly to access tools, respondents from Sindro were often interested in renting other kinds of items as well. In addition, while the other respondents rarely rented other products or used other non-ownership services, respondents from Sindro often did.

Respondents from Sindro had not yet tried the service, as it is still in the start-up phase, and thus their responses might be only hypothetical. There is a risk that their answers are biased by the interview situation, meaning that because we have asked them whether they use any other rental services or mentioned examples of these kind of services, they are more intrigued by the services, and answer that they would use the services more often than they actually would.

A third possible reason for why Sindro respondents are more into exploration and trial than other respondents is the group's majority of women. As mentioned earlier, the differences between the male and the female respondents were not major. Nevertheless, one of the greatest differences between the cases, i.e. in exploration and trial, may be due to the large proportion of female respondents in Sindro, rather than due to the difference between Sindro respondents and the other respondents, as this was the greatest difference between the genders too. This may also be the reason for why Sindro respondents are the most environmentally conscious. According to chart 6, female respondents using Sindro and the other women were quite similar, agreeing on all points, *except* the exploration and trial factor. This implies, as stated in the previous chapter, that respondents using Sindro do differ from other respondents on this particular factor, not because there is a majority of female users of Sindro.

We looked further into what the respondents thought about when we asked them the questions concerning exploration and trial. None of them had actually used any of the services for the purpose of exploration and trial. However, the Sindro users seemed to be more positive to the idea of using rental services for this purpose than the other respondents. They more often mentioned it in other examples of using rental services, and they agreed that it was a great idea and would probably start using rental services for this purpose. The non-Sindro respondents did not respond in this positive way, and said that it was a good idea, but they had not done it so far.

Thus, from this discussion and analysis, it seems to us most likely that the difference between Sindro respondents and other respondents were due to one of two reasons; (1) they are different types of non-ownership consumers, interested in more diverse services than Bildeleringen or Spotify are, and open to renting more products than other respondents were; (2) they answer hypothetically, and would at the end of the day not use rental services for this purpose.

From the introduction questions, we saw that in general, Sindro respondents were more interested in rental services, and they more often use other forms of rental or sharing services. This leads us to concluding that Sindro respondents are different from the other respondents, in that they seek out these kinds of services because they enjoy using them, or are intrigued by non-ownership in a different way than the other respondents in our study are. Thus, we will include the motivation factor exploration and trial in our model. However, it seems like the respondents are more interested in testing the product rather than "...trying alternative selves" as Durgee and O'Connor (1995) define it. Thus, *testing* would might be a better description of the motivation factor than exploration and trial.

"(...) but a video game console. That would be a thing that I might rent to check whether it is something that I want to use, buy or rent." (Respondent 12)

Summary

To sum up, we have found that our motivation factors did not always match the reasons our respondents had for renting rather than owning. Simplicity orientation, comprising freedom from ownership and convenience orientation seemed to fit very well, and so did perceived economic gain, meaning that our respondents were both value seeking and price conscious. However, variety and experience seeking did not fit. Respondents were neither variety seeking nor

experience oriented, meaning that we were left with the instrumental materialism component, which on the other hand fit very well. Image orientation did not fit well with our data, and neither did trend orientation. On the other hand, environmentalism seemed to be very important to half of our sample, influencing all their answers. Exploration and trial did not match with the respondents from Bildeleringen and Spotify, however all of the Sindro respondents said that they would like to use rental services to test different products, meaning that to some degree this factor fitted with their point of view. This may be due to that respondents using Sindro are more interested in diverse non-ownership services and rent more products than the other respondents do. Exploration and trial seem to be more relevant for such kind of non-ownership services than for Bildeleringen and Spotify. As the respondents were more interested in testing the product rather than “trying alternative selves”, we wanted to include this factor in our model as testing.

These results led us to make some changes in our own motivation factors. The revised model is presented in the next chapter.

5.2.2. The moderators

We will in the following discuss and analyse our findings related to the moderators. We will compare the findings to Scholl's (2008) theory about functional and symbolic perspective where it is relevant.

The functional perspective

From our data, we found that information economics and transaction costs were impediments to non-ownership for over half of our respondents. That is, if they do not have enough information about the product's quality or if they perceive the transaction costs as being higher than for buying the product, they might not rent. These factors may have a negative impact on the relationship, and restrict non-ownership consumption. Information economics seem to be the most important moderator and a significant factor for respondents from all of the three cases.

Half the respondents saw transaction costs as an impediment to non-ownership. However, when comparing the three cases, we found that mainly the respondents using Spotify thought transaction costs was an impediment and that less than half of the respondents from the two other cases agreed. This indicated that the moderator was not as important as first assumed.

Nevertheless, there are only three respondents from Spotify, and the other respondents that agreed with transaction costs being an impediment were two respondents using Sindro and one respondent using Bildeleringen. This implies that there is only a slight tendency that respondents using Spotify are more concerned with transaction costs than the other respondents are. Therefore, as over half of our respondents expressed transaction costs as an impediment to renting, we will include this moderator in our model.

Property rights seemed to be of low importance to the respondents in general. Only a few respondents cared about owning products. Many stated that they wanted to keep their amount of possessions as small as possible.

“No, this is not so important to me. A certain degree of customization I believe is still possible (and allowed) even if you rent. The most important thing is that you also take responsibility and think that others will use the product afterwards. If I for example rent a car, and it's full of other people's stuff, it can make me stop renting if it gets too bad. But first I would have tried to fix the problem”. (Respondent 12)

Nevertheless, all of the three respondents using Spotify expressed that property rights were important to them (chart 2b), indicating that this case was different from the other two cases. This might be because respondents using Spotify are not used to renting objects, as all of them said that they did not use any other rental services. In addition, they might not see Spotify as a non-ownership service or compare it to renting because they feel that it is the main way of listening to music. For example, one respondent stated:

“Before, you had Limewire, which you used for downloading music (...) then it became illegal. Then, people began using Spotify.” (Respondent 9)

Nevertheless, as so few of the other respondents agreed that property rights is an impediment to non-ownership consumption and the respondents from Spotify not commenting this explicitly as an important factor, we will not include this as a moderator in our model. This may be because many of the respondents care about the environment and/or are concerned about not possessing too many things, resulting in property rights being less important.

Principal-agent issues are also not important to most of our respondents. However, over half of the respondents using Sindro expressed principal-agent issues might being an impediment. A couple of the respondents did mention that they think the producers always try to take as high a price as possible, and that if they have no way of determining quality, it may be a problem. Nevertheless, most of our respondents did not see this as an issue.

“Well, the thought will probably be there. That one may be fooled. If it is probable will probably vary.”
(Respondent 6)

A possible reason why respondents using Sindro are more concerned with principal-agent issues than the other respondents may be that they do not know the service provider the same way users of Bildeleringen and Spotify do. Consumers using Bildeleringen and Spotify always deal directly with the service provider when using the service. That is, they do not have to deal with several agents. In contrast, when using Sindro they have to deal with different people for each transaction, making trust a more relevant issue. In addition, the respondents using Sindro have not tried the service yet, as it is not officially released, and therefore might be more sceptical to how the principal-agent relationship will work. Nevertheless, we will not include this factor in our model, as there is low agreement in the overall sample and as respondents using Sindro does not comment this explicitly being an important factor for their decision to rent.

The symbolic perspective

According to chart 1c only a few of our respondents attached symbolic meaning to rented objects. To investigate whether it is possible to attach symbolic meaning to non-ownership services, we want to analyse the different components that, according to theory (Scholl, 2008) have to be present for the consumer to attach symbolic meaning to a rented object.

Items have intrapersonal and interpersonal meanings (Scholl, 2008). Intrapersonal meaning of objects is related to the perceived control over the object. We asked the respondents whether they felt that they had control over the rented object, and to what extent they thought that the selection of products was satisfying. Over half of the respondents felt that they had control over the product or service, and that the selection was good. This implies that most of the respondents should be able to derive symbolic meaning from the rented object. However, we also want to

look at the interpersonal meanings of objects, which is the meaning that depends on others. We asked the respondents whether it is important to them what others think about the products they rent. There were no clear results here; half the respondent expressed that it was important, and the other half did not care about what others think. However, at least some consumers care about the opinion of others.

Since almost none of the respondents expressed that the product they rented had a symbolic meaning, we investigated whether this was because they were not able to attach symbolic meaning to the rented objects or because the respondents consider the product as only a functional object (features).

The fact that many of the respondents felt that they had control over the product or service indicates that it is possible to attach symbolic meaning to these kinds of products. It is harder to conclude whether the consumers can attach interpersonal meanings based on our data, as we did not get any clear answers here. However, we asked the respondents whether they felt that the product service reflected their identity, and many of the respondents expressed that their values matched the values of the company, or that the service in other ways contributed positively to their image. Nevertheless, this did not seem to be very important, and some of the respondents only stated that whether it reflected their identity or not was of no importance. Based on this analysis we can conclude that it is possible, at least for some consumers, to attach symbolic meaning to non-ownership services. Based on this result, it seems like not being able to attach symbolic meaning to non-ownership services is not the reason why few respondents agreed with the symbolic meaning factor.

Consequently, we want to investigate our next assumption; few respondents attach symbolic meaning to non-ownership services because they consider the product as mainly a functional object. This seems to be supported by chart 1c, where almost all of the respondents agreed that the features of the product or service was most important. In fact, all of the respondents agreed, except from one of the respondents who just partially agreed. Several comments confirm this:

“It is the function. That’s what it is. It’s a practical solution to a practical problem.” (Respondent 2)

“It is the transportation I need, not the brand” (Respondent 6)

We can thereby conclude that our respondents find the features, or the function of non-ownership services, more important than attaching symbolic meaning to the objects, and therefore this is not an impediment to non-ownership. Recapitulating the theory, Scholl (2008) states that if consumers are unable to attach symbolic meaning to rented objects, they will not rent objects that have important symbolic meaning. In our study, it firstly seems that our respondents seek the features of the products rather than the symbolic meaning, implying that the symbolic perspective is irrelevant in our case. Secondly, some of the respondents did in fact state that, in their opinion, rented objects *could* have symbolic meaning, implying that in any case, symbolic meaning should not be an impediment in our study.

Summary

When analysing the moderators related to the functional perspective, we found that information economics and transaction costs were impediments to non-ownership consumption for over half of our respondents, while property rights and principal-agent issues seem to be less important. When it comes to the symbolic perspective, the respondents did not attach symbolic meaning to objects and were only interested in the features and functions of the product, implying that symbolic meanings of objects does not have a negative impact on the relationship between the motivation factors and non-ownership consumption.

It seems that the functional perspective is a more relevant impediment to non-ownership consumption than the symbolic perspective is, as the symbolic meaning of objects did not seem to be relevant for the product-service systems we have studied, and does not prevent our respondents from renting. When looking at the two significant factors related to the functional perspective (information economics and transaction costs), these seem to have different degrees of importance. Transaction costs seem mainly to be an impediment for the respondents using Spotify, and not that important to the other respondents. This results in information economics being the most important impediment and relevant for all three cases, that the problem related to not knowing the quality of the service or product is the factor that most often inhibits consumers

from engaging in non-ownership consumption, even though other motivation factors might be present.

5.2.3. Limits to non-ownership

According to Belk (2006), Arnold and Reynolds (2003) and Richins (1994), there are limits to what products consumers will rent. That is, even if consumers are motivated by the motivation factors, they may not want to rent certain products. We have already described the moderators, but it seems that they are not always the reason for why consumers may not rent. There seems there is a limit to what consumers will rent that does not have anything to do with money or information.

In our research, we tried to identify our respondents' limits. We asked them whether there were any limits to what they would rent, and what they thought about renting pets (e.g. from FlexPetz (McGrath, 2007)) or kitchen furniture (e.g. from IKEA (DinSide, 2012)).

Our respondents answered in accordance with theory. Even if most of them thought they would rent pretty much anything, all of them had limits. Most of them drew the line at underwear, pets or personal belongings. It was not always clear to us what they meant by personal belongings, however we assume that they meant for example pictures, diaries, souvenirs and mementoes, in addition to products that have to do with personal hygiene and the such.

The majority of our respondents thought renting pets, or dogs as we suggested, was unethical. One respondent even compared the service to prostitution. Most of our respondents felt sorry for the dogs, and were concerned about their mental health.

“No, because dogs are creatures with souls and .. They are not things .. I actually think that is a bit reprehensible (...) I think that people take too little responsibility for their dogs as it is. (...) and do not realize fully that we are talking about animals. So there I think there is a clear limit there!” (Respondent 8)

As the article about Ikea renting kitchens came out after we started doing our interviews, we did not ask all of our respondents about this. Most of those who did respond thought it would be too much work to build a new kitchen that often. They thought it would be inconvenient and cumbersome. However, some of them thought it was a very interesting idea.

These results show that there is a limit to non-ownership. Our respondents would not rent anything. Even the most motivated would still want or need to buy some products.

5.3. Revised model

When analysing our data we found that some of the factors were not relevant to our respondents, some did not align with our definitions, and some components included in motivation factors were so important that we wanted to make them separate factors.

A revised model and definitions of factors are presented in this chapter.

5.3.1. The Motivation Factors

From comparing our study to those of Lawson (2011), Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) and Durgee and O'Connor (1995) we have that variety seeking, status seeking, risk aversion, experience orientation, trend orientation, status seeking, and self-projection are irrelevant to our respondents. We have therefore excluded them from our model, and changed the definitions that are impacted by this. We are left with the following motivation factors:

Freedom from ownership

We wanted to extract convenience orientation from simplicity orientation, as a separate factor for motivating non-ownership consumption, as it turned out to be very important to our respondents. Thus, the new factor consists only of Lawson's (2011) factor freedom from ownership, and the new definition is:

Freedom from ownership denotes the motivation of choosing non-ownership consumption to avoid burdens that comes with owning a product, such as "...maintenance, storage and divestiture of unwanted goods" (Berry and Maricle, 1973, referenced in Lawson, 2011, p.19).

Convenience orientation

As over half of our respondents expressed that convenience orientation was an important factor motivating non-ownership consumption, we wanted to include this as a separate factor in our model. The respondents mentioned the ease of use that often is related to renting and the access to the product or service as important factors for renting instead of owning a product.

For example, some of the respondents stated:

“It has become much easier to get it (the music) on your mobile phone. And, it is easier to get new music. And... playlists.” (Respondent 11)

“... if something happens with it (the car), you have automatically access to a new car.” (Respondent 2)

The definition of this variable is:

The motivation factor entails the convenience related to not owning the product, i.e. the possibility to save time and energy (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010).

Perceived economic gain

Both value seeking (Lawson, 2011) and price consciousness (Moeller and Wittkowski, 1995) were relevant for non-ownership consumption for the respondents in our study. We therefore leave the definition as it is, i.e.:

Perceived economic gain entails that the consumer is searching for cost-savings or discovers that the benefits exceeds the cost of renting a product (Lawson, 2011). The consumers are seeking value by making the decision whether to buy or rent a product based on his “...perception of the value of the good in terms of cost outlay in return for quality” (Dolan and Simon, 1996, referenced in Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010, p.6).

Instrumental materialism

We excluded experience orientation and variety seeking from our definition of variety and experience seeking as these factors seem to be of little importance for our respondents, thus ending up with just instrumental materialism. The new definition is:

Instrumental materialism is present when the consumer derives satisfaction enabled by the possession, rather than having the possession. It denotes the pleasure of using an item, and the focus is on what the product can do, rather than having it (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995).

Environmentalism

A little less than half of our respondents expressed environmentalism as a factor motivating non-ownership consumption. However, for those respondents, it seemed to be the main motivation for renting. Environmentalism is thus an important motivation factor for these respondents; we therefore kept it in our model. The definition is:

Environmentalism can be defined as an intention or contribution to conserve the environment (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). This variable includes environmental concerns such as reducing pollution, reducing waste and preventing new production.

Testing

Despite that under half of our respondents agreed with exploration and trial being a motivating factor to non-ownership consumption, we wanted to include this factor in our model, as it seems to be a relevant factor for many of the respondents using Sindro. However, it seems like they were more motivated by being able to test different products than “testing alternative selves” as Durgee and O’Connor (1995) define self-exploration. Therefore we renamed the factor, testing. Risk aversion turned out not to be an important factor to our respondents. When we asked whether they could imagine using a rental service to avoid the risk of choosing the wrong product, most of the respondents said they probably could. However, since none of them had this factor as a reason for why they rent rather than own products, we have chosen to exclude it from our model. The new definition is thereby:

Testing denotes the intention of trying out different products to find out what best suits one’s needs.

5.3.2. The Moderators

The functional perspective

As mentioned earlier, information economics and transaction costs may have a negative impact on the relationship between the motivation factors and non-ownership. That is, if it is difficult to foresee the quality of products and if the costs related to the rental situation, including finding the product, accessing it and delivering it, are considered as higher than when buying a corresponding product, our respondents might not choose to engage in non-ownership (Scholl, 2008). These are still moderators in our model. However, property rights and principal-agent issues are not that relevant in our study, and we have thus excluded them from our model.

We do not have enough data to see whether the moderators have a more negative impact on individual motivation factors and not on other factors. As we are interviewing the respondents mainly about the service that they *do* use, it is hard to say what factors that would have been

impaired for services that they do not use because of the moderators being impediments to non-ownership consumption.

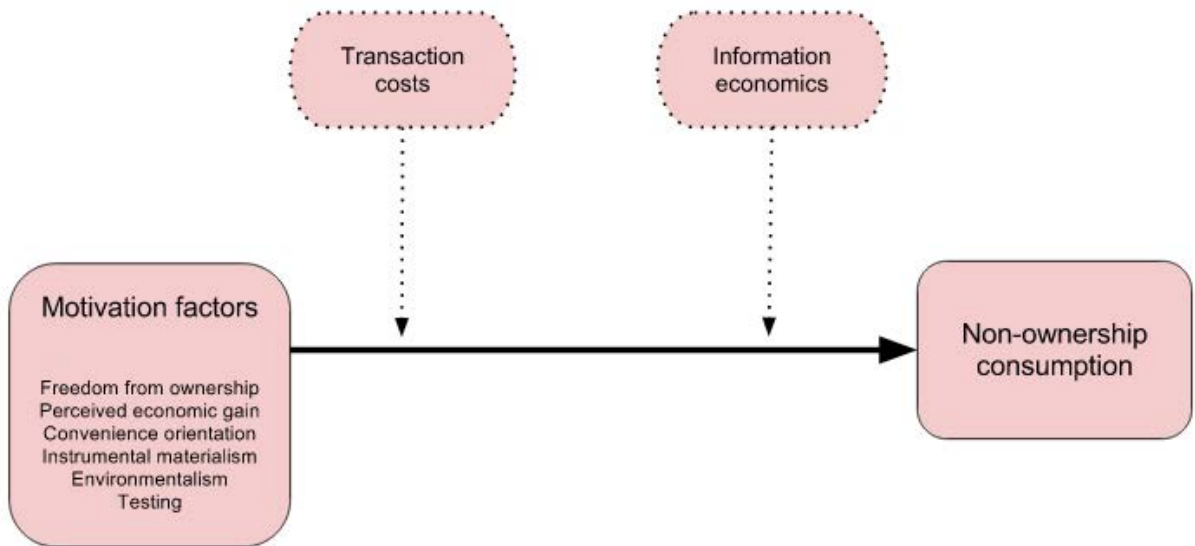
Symbolic perspective

As almost none of our respondents attached symbolic meaning to rented objects and were only interested in the features and functions of the products, we can conclude that symbolic meanings of objects is not an impediment to non-ownership consumption, at least for our respondents.

Consequently, we want to exclude the moderator from our model, as it does not seem to have a negative effect on non-ownership consumption.

4.3.3. The Model

Figure 3



Freedom from ownership, convenience orientation and perceived economic gain are, according to our study, the most likely factors motivating consumers to non-ownership consumption. All of our respondents expressed these factors as being more or less the most important reasons for them to rent rather than own. I.e. avoiding burdens associated with owning, the possibility to save time and energy through convenient solutions and the opportunity for cost-savings or higher value are the main reasons for using non-ownership services.

Instrumental materialism is also a strong factor motivating most of our respondents to non-ownership consumption, meaning that many consumers prefer renting to owning because they are interested in using the object rather than possessing it.

When it comes to environmentalism and testing, these factors are only relevant to some groups of consumers. Environmentally conscious consumers, in general, often find this as a motivation to engage in non-ownership consumption, i.e. they find such services to be more environmentally friendly. When looking at testing, respondents using Sindro often mentioned the possibility to test products through renting as a factor motivating non-ownership consumption. This indicates that consumers using a wider range of rental services and more often rent different kind of products find testing a motivating factor. I.e. it seems like the possibility to test products is a factor that motivates to engage in some types of non-ownership services.

Despite all these motivating factors, some moderating factors might prevent consumers from engaging in non-ownership consumption. Information costs, meaning the consumers are not able to foresee the quality of the product, and transaction costs, meaning the consumer perceiving the transaction costs as higher when renting than when owning the product, might be an impediment to non-ownership consumption. These moderators might be impediments to some type of rental services, and not for other types of rental services. In addition, some consumer will weigh these factors heavier than other consumers will.

6. Discussion and implications

6.1. Discussion of results

To see whether our results, analysis and discussions have provided some answers to our research question, we will recapitulate the initial question:

“What motivates non-ownership consumption? Why are some consumers renting instead of owning?”

We stated in the introduction that we wanted to study Norwegian consumers and the factors that motivate them to engage in non-ownership consumption. We will provide the reader with tendencies we have found when studying these particular groups of consumers; namely transumers of the car-sharing service Bildeleringen, the music streaming service Spotify and the rental service Sindro for renting various kind of products. We started out with a set of motivation factors, put together by relevant factors from the literature we studied. Through our work we have identified which factors were relevant to *our* respondents.

The factors we found to be most important for motivating our respondents to engage in non-ownership consumption were; the opportunity to avoid burdens that comes with ownership (freedom from ownership); seeking the convenience that is often related to not owning a product (convenience orientation) and; the possibility to save, or get more value for their money (perceived economic gain). The burdens that come with owning are associated with maintaining, storing and divestiture of goods (Lawson, 2011). It seems that transumers like to rent products rather than own them because they avoid maintenance the product, e.g. change tires on a car, they avoid storing the items, e.g. stacking CDs on a shelf in the living room, and they avoid either selling, throwing away or by other means getting rid of unwanted goods, such as an old car. The convenience with not owning a product is related to save time and energy (Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010). Our respondents were motivated to engage in non-ownership consumption by the fact that these services were less stressful, and often made it easier to access the product. For example, you could get access to music everywhere, on any computer and on your phone at

anytime, when using a music streaming service like Spotify. The possibility to save money includes the possibility for cost-savings and the opportunity to discover that the benefits exceed the costs of renting the product (Lawson, 2011). This also seems to be one of the reasons why some consumers are willing to rent rather than own products.

Another factor that seems to motivate, not all, but many of our respondents was the fact that they were interested in the function of the product and in using the service, rather than possessing the product. This is in the literature called instrumental materialism (Durgee and O'Connor, 1995). For example, these transumers are interested in accessing the means of transportation; they are not interested in the car itself.

In addition to the motivation factors presented above, being relevant to almost all of our respondents, we found some factors that seem to motivate certain groups of transumers. First, environmentally conscious consumers explain their main reason for renting as environmental considerations (environmentalism). They like to rent products rather than owning them because they regard it as more environmentally friendly, or at least not environmentally unfriendly. Secondly, we found that respondents using Sindro were interested in using rental services to *test* products to see whether they like them, or whether the products fit their needs (testing). This implies that some consumers - we assume that this applies to those using more varied types of rental services renting a wider range of products - are motivated to engage in non-ownership consumption by the fact that the services enable them to *test* different products. Other than this, there were no distinct variations in the respondent's answers. All the Bildelingen users agreed that they use the service mainly to access a car without the work and commitments owning a car implies. They thought it was convenient, easy to use and cheap. None of them used the service especially to be able to access a large range of cars, though one respondent stated that he thought being able to access cars of the newest quality and security was an important argument. Users of Sindro were, as mentioned, more concerned with exploration and trial. However, they too mostly answered that rental services were convenient and probably cheaper than ownership. Users of Spotify also, as repeatedly mentioned, valued the convenience and the economic gain of renting rather than buying music. All in all, there were no specific variations across the respondents. They all agreed about the three most important factors, and they all cared less about the last four.

In addition to the factors motivating non-ownership consumption, we found some *impediments* to non-ownership consumption that matched the moderating factors (i.e. factors impacting the relationship between the variables) in our model. We did not directly mention impediments in the research question, but they tell us something about why the motivation factors not always, or not for all consumers, result in non-ownership consumption. Some consumers find that the greatest impediments to renting are when information about the quality of a product can be evaluated only during use of the product, or cannot be assessed at all (neither prior to nor during use) (information economics) (Scholl, 2008) and/or when the costs associated with the process of finding the right products and other aspects with the trade, such as control costs and transportation costs (transaction costs) are higher than when owning. This means that information economics and transaction costs may prevent consumers from engaging in non-ownership consumption, even if they are motivated by other factors. For example, renting might require the consumer to spend more time searching for the product they need or information about it than when buying it. In addition, there might be costs associated with transportation when picking up or return the rented item that they avoid when buying it. These were, however, not impediments to *all* our respondents. Some found that non-ownership provides so many benefits for them or the environment that they were willing to spend extra money or time. Actually, the users of Spotify were the ones most concerned with transaction costs. All of the three respondents said they would not use the service if it were more expensive than buying music. As mentioned in chapter 5, this was because the alternative to Spotify is often the radio, or downloading music. The Spotify users said they rarely bought music. In addition, Spotify does not provide them with other benefits such as environmental friendliness. Thus, as other services do provide these kinds of benefits, it is not surprising that our other respondents were willing to pay more.

To sum up, freedom from ownership, convenience orientation, perceived economic gain, instrumental materialism, environmentalism and testing are factors that we found to be motivating for engaging in non-ownership consumption, that is, reasons why some consumers are renting instead of owning. Despite these factors, information economics and transaction costs

may be *impediments* to non-ownership consumption, that is, factors that might prevent some consumers from renting even though the motivation factors first mentioned are present.

The motivation factors from the theory did not always match the reasons our respondents had for renting rather than owning. Simplicity orientation fit very well, and so did perceived economic gain, contradicting Moeller and Wittkowski's (2010) finding that price consciousness was insignificant in motivating non-ownership. Respondents were neither variety seeking nor experience oriented, meaning that we were left with the instrumental-materialism component, which on the other hand fit very well. Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) also did not find support for experience orientation, thus the finding correlated with theory. However, Lawson (2011) did find that transumers are variety seeking. Again, we believe that including a different case (e.g. Litt Luksus) might have altered our results, and that the reason for why our results did not support some of Lawson's (2011) results is that the services we have studied are different. Image orientation did not fit well with our data, and neither did trend orientation. Again, we believe that this has to do with the kinds of cases we were able to study. It is understandable that car-sharers are not necessarily concerned with trends or image. On the other hand, environmentalism seemed to be very important to half of our sample, supporting Lawson's (2011) finding, even if Moeller and Wittkowski (2010) did not find support for the factor. Exploration and trial did not match with the respondents from Bildeleringen and Spotify, however all of the Sindro respondents said that they would like to use rental services to test different products, meaning that to some degree this factor fitted with their point of view.

6.2. Theoretical implications

After having worked with the theories we picked, the model we derived from that theory, and the data collection and analysis we have done throughout our study, we have some new ideas and theoretical hypothesis. We will base our thoughts on the theory chapter and revised model, and try to present these new hypotheses in the following.

Non-ownership services were in this study not demanded for the purpose of satisfying materialistic needs by non-materialistic means. Many of the respondents were motivated by environmental concern; however, the majority were merely motivated by price and convenience.

It is rather bold to generalize this result for the rest of the population as well, even if it seems like Norwegian transumers are less concerned about the hyper-consumerism than the authors of *“What’s mine is yours: The rise of collaborative consumption”* believe the market to be.

The arguments presented above, match our findings concerning property rights, and our respondents’ limits for renting. Most of our respondents were willing to, and would often prefer to rent, rather than own, tools and equipment, and their limit to what they wanted to rent often stopped there. Items like clothes, shoes and accessories were often considered too personal. On the other hand, some items we expected to be considered status objects, like cars, were often suggested as things they would like not to own. However, those who were not already car sharers stated that even if they would like not to own a car, they had to. This is in accordance with Ger and Belk’s (1999) study. Still, it did not seem to us like our respondents were as materialistic as we first assumed they would be. When we presented them with Durgee and O’Connor’s (1995) instrumental and terminal materialism categories, all of them considered themselves instrumentally materialistic. It seemed to us like even if they consider many products personal; many products are not as personal after all. It seemed like many products that used to be status symbols, are increasingly considered as tools, and demanded for their features. Even if many products are considered personal, this seemed to be mainly for hygienic reasons, or because it would be too inconvenient not to own them. Examples of this were clothes, shoes, mobile phones and PCs.

We included environmentalism in our model, as half of our respondents expressed that this was one of the main reasons for renting. Global warming and other environmental disasters are an increasing problem and an important topic for both corporations and individuals. The importance of environmental issues has increased the last decades, and will probably be even more important in the future, as the world’s population probably will be forced to do something. This might result in non-ownership consumption being more relevant to all consumers, and even corporations may be forced to operate based on this type of consumption and the idea of a more collaborative consumption. If this is true, the motivation factor environmentalism would in the future might be much more important than it is in our model from this study.

As the society is becoming more and more interactive, it is increasingly easy for consumers to find information about producers and products. Before, consumers had to consult numerous producers directly to find information. Now, through company websites, discussion forums and social media it is easy to post a question and get numerous answers back. Principal-agent issues were a weak moderator in our model, and we decided to exclude it. It seems to us that as the information is no longer as asymmetric, this factor will decrease in importance. When consumers previously had to trust producers or know someone to consult, everyone now has an interactive panel of experts to ask for advice in any purchase situation. Information economics was a strong moderator in our model. However, most of the respondents said that even if lack of information would be an impediment to non-ownership, it is quite easy to find information. We believe that, as many product-service systems are based online, rating systems and the ability to contact fellow users will make quality easier to foresee, and thus information economics might also decrease in importance as a moderator.

We found in our analysis that respondents using Sindro were different than the other consumers in one of the motivation factors. As we see it, this may indicate that different groups of consumers are using different types of product-service systems. We did not get the chance to investigate this any further, but it might be that car-sharing services like Bildeleringen in the future will attract environmentally conscious consumers, bag and fashion rental services like LittLuksus.no will attract consumers that are terminally materialistic and rental services for tools and equipment will attract consumers that are instrumentally materialistic. There is an increasing amount of different services, as there are endless amounts of different products, which may result in that there are few motivation factors that are common for all types of consumers and all types of non-ownership services. As there, today, are few such services in Norway, this might not be a problem. However, in the USA and if non-ownership services get a better foundation in Norway in the future, this may be true; making it difficult to see all such services as a whole.

The revised model is different from the first model in several ways. Firstly, the revised model has factors mainly concerning convenience, price and responsibility. The first model also concerned variety seeking, image orientation, trend orientation and exploration and trial. The new model thus implies that non-ownership consumption mainly occurs when consumers are in need of

tools, equipment or other products that they use mainly for their features. Secondly, the moderators of the first model concerned factors of both the functional and the symbolic perspective. We found that none of the respondents saw the products they rented as symbolic items. They merely wanted the features the products offered. Some of them stated that they would not have any problems with tying symbolic meaning to rentals. However, there had been no need for it so far. Also, concerning the functional perspective, we found that only transaction costs and information economics (quality) were considered impediments to non-ownership by our respondents.

The first model was an illustration of the theory we found relevant. The revised model thus shows how our findings differ from theory. In addition, our revised model is, compared to the literature we have studied, less concerned with anti-materialism and environmentalism. Both factors are present, however, they were not as strong motivators as we had thought they would be. Some of our respondents did directly mention the wish to own few things, and the intention to reduce production. However, this was not a major reason for non-ownership for the overall sample, like we first thought it would be.

6.3. Practical implications

The results of this research may be relevant to managers of existing product-service systems, or entrants in the business of non-ownership services in Norway. Our results can help them to learn what to concentrate on in their strategy regarding their customers, for example to develop ways of providing the benefits of non-ownership services that the consumers find most important. Our findings, the factors motivating non-ownership consumption, can be used as a basis in the marketing strategy. That is, enabling managers to focus on the motivation factors in their communication to the customers. Even though our findings might not apply to all consumers, they may be something for the non-ownership service firms to investigate further; it might at least be relevant for some types of non-ownership services. One example of this is the non-ownership service Sindro, which we got in contact with for recruiting participants to our interviews. Sindro was interested in using our findings in presentations and meetings with

potential collaborators, to demonstrate what consumers think about these services and what is triggering them to engage in non-ownership.

The main motivation factors for almost all our respondents were freedom from ownership, convenience orientation and perceived economic gain. This implies that these factors are the ones that the consumers are most interested in and are most concerned with when it comes to non-ownership services. As these factors are relevant for all of our respondents, they are most likely also relevant for other consumers in the market. Therefore, our general advice to all product-service systems must be to communicate these benefits clearly to the market. For example: the possibility to clear out all sheds and storerooms for good. The ability to leave the guilt of still not having taken the car to the mechanics for a check-up, to someone else. To be able to spend money on the things they *want* to spend money on, and save money on the boring things like tools.

Again, all transumers in our sample were motivated by perceived economic gain, freedom from ownership and convenience orientation. Few of our respondents used the services for the purpose of variation or experience. To us, it seems that product-services are demanded for the purpose of gaining access to the products consumers otherwise would not have bought, or would not like to spend a lot of money on. However, as there are so few non-ownership services in Norway, and as the only rental service for designer bags was discontinued this summer, it does seem like a tendency that the Norwegian market is not yet ready for this kind of consumption. In addition, according to our research, the Norwegian market is not yet ready for rental services of furniture or ornaments for the home, or pets. In other words, it is not yet ready for products that Norwegians perceive as personal. On the other hand, product-service systems for tools, cars, bikes and other products that are demanded for their features primarily, do exist. Bike sharing services, like Bysykkel in Oslo, are increasingly popular. This seems to us to again be because of the low price and convenience. Thus, we encourage producers of such services.

Our findings regarding the impediments to non-ownership consumption might serve as suggestions to what managers of non-ownership firms should take into account when designing and developing such services. It would be advantageous to develop services in a way that avoids

these impediments, for example providing their customers with enough information about the product or the service, or making transaction costs, such as control costs and transportation costs, as low as possible. It seems like information especially is important. Product-services are often built on trust between strangers, thus we encourage producers to provide their customers with enough information, for example through websites, contracts and customer support. For services like Sindro, where users can rent various products from and to strangers, a profile for each user displaying ratings and feedback from other users could be a very confidence-inspiring initiative. Services should also be easy to use. Respondents from Bildeleringen repeatedly stated that Bildeleringen was easy to contact about deficiencies or questions, and that this made them confident that it was a good company. We encourage producers to spend time and resources on customer support and user friendliness. Also, users of Spotify repeatedly argued that they particularly enjoyed the ability to make play-lists and how easy it is to find the music they are looking for. Again, a good user interface is important.

There seems to be different factors motivating different kinds of non-ownership services. For example, users of Sindro were especially concerned with exploration and trial. This implies that producers of such services (i.e. providers of various products) should be particularly concerned with supplying a good range and variety in their selection of products. In addition, producers targeting women should, according to our results, market the environmental benefits that renting may lead to. As mentioned, all producers should in addition emphasise freedom from ownership, economic gain and the convenience the rental service may mean.

6.4. Limitations and future research

In our study, our main limitation was the number of respondents. We had hoped to interview users of the bag-rental service, LittLuksus.no, and possibly a few more respondents from each of the cases. We think this would have given us a wider range of consumers, that is, making the sample more heterogeneous, and giving us a more solid foundation to base our arguments on.

As this is a qualitative study of small groups of consumers of non-ownership services, it is hard to say whether the consumption patterns and factors motivating these consumers are true for the rest of the population. Nevertheless, as stated in chapter 5, as long as we found no systematic

biases, it is very likely that the largest variations apply to other consumers as well as our respondents. Our sample consists of respondents that most likely are more than average interested in the topic. Still, we did not find any other biases than interest, meaning that our sample seems to be reasonable. The sample consists of approximately half-and-half women and men, they are in different age groups, have normal jobs, they live in different cities and they do not stand out in any particular way concerning lifestyle.

Another limitation is the fact that our respondents from Sindro had not actually tried the service yet. However, many of them expressed that they had used similar services and were quite interested in the idea of non-ownership. Despite that the answers of these respondents might be a bit hypothetical, they are at least very interested and engaged in the topic, making their answers important and interesting to our study. However, we think it would have been better for our study if all respondents were active users of the different services we picked as cases.

We realized, when analysing our data, that it would have been a good idea to start analysing some of the first interviews before doing the rest of the interviews, to learn from our first mistakes. This might have saved us the follow-up questions that we sent to our respondents some time after the first interviews, in addition to improving some of the data that we were less happy with. We did of course prepare for each of the interviews by looking at the past interviews, but some of the weaknesses were hard to identify before we started to categorize our data. One of the factors it would have been very interesting to study was the difference between environmentalists and non-environmentalists. However, it was hard to see the proportions of environmentalists before we started to categorize the data.

Our research could serve as a basis for further research on this topic in Norway. It would be interesting to investigate several types of non-ownership services, to see whether the same results apply there. As argued in the analysis chapter, we found some differences between consumers using Bildeleringen and Spotify, and consumers using Sindro. By including several cases, we may find that these differences are more significant, or we may find other differences as well.

In addition, we think it would have been interesting to do the study on a control group, that is, “regular” consumers who does not rent. It would be interesting to study consumers not engaging in non-ownership consumption, to see whether they are different or whether they agree with our respondents on the factors in our model, for example concerning trend-orientation and image-orientation. This may tell us something about how great the potential is for non-ownership services in Norway, and what non-ownership services should focus on to recruit these consumers.

7. Appendix

7.1. The interview guide (translated to English)

Introduction questions

What makes you want to rent, rather than own?

Would you like to spend a couple of minutes to write down some keywords?

How did you come across, or start using the service (Bildeleringen, Sindro, Spotify)?

Do you think you will carry on using the service?

What was your last transaction? What do you normally rent? How often do you use this service?

Do you rent other things?

Are there any sides to your lifestyle that stands out from the average Norwegian? (Vegetarian, straight edge, ecologic?)

Did this have anything to do with why you started renting?

How would feel about renting your own things to other people?

Have you changed in any way (habits, lifestyle) after you started using this service?

Has this service made your everyday life easier in any way? Has it had any impact on your life?

Are there any products in particular you wish were be offered as product-services in Norway?

Detailed questions (open questions)

What, in your opinion, is the worst/best about renting?

How would you present your choice of non-ownership to your friends and family?

Why do you use the service?

Would you recommend it to them?

Do you tell them about the service?

Do friends and family know that the product is not yours?

What do you wish was different about the service?

What expectations did you have before you started using the service?

Did it turn out as you expected?

Questions for reflection (use the checklist, more concrete questions)

The motivation factors

Simplicity orientation

- Does the fact that you are relieved of responsibility for the product have anything to do with why you rent?

Perceived economic gain

- How much did price have to say for why you started renting?

Are you always price conscious?

Do you think you save money by renting instead of owning? Is this important to you?

Experience orientation

What is more important to you? The product's functions, or the terms of the rental service?

Ex. car rental; Do you care most about the car in itself (specifications) or the service (where the car is picked up, how the terms are, how easy it is to pick up/ deliver)

Do you rent the same product every time, or do you vary?

Would you say that you are materialistic?

Are you more satisfied by using a product than owning it?

Variety and experience seeking

Is renting a kind of trial phase to see whether you would like to buy the product?

Environmentalism

Does environmental consciousness have anything to do with why you rent?

In what way?

Trend orientation

Are you interested in fashion or trends?

Do you always want or need to have the newest version of the product you are using? Does this have anything to do with why you rent?

Image orientation

To what extent does the service or product reflect your desired image or identity?

To what extent is it important to you what other people think about the product you are renting?

Symbolic and functional perspective:

The symbolic perspective

What do you associate the brand (Sindro, Spotify, Bildeleringen) with?

Was there anything in particular with this particular service that made you choose it?

Do you feel in control over the service/product?

Is there a good variety/range of products?

How do you find the rental situation? Is it well organized?

What is most important to you when you use this service? The features of the product, or what the product may symbolize?

The functional perspective

Do you find that there are less duties or burdens tied to the products when you rent it rather than when you own it?

Is it easy for you to foresee the quality of the service or product before you try it?

Is this important to you?

Do you find that the producers of this service easily may exploit asymmetric information about the product to gain a higher profit?

What are your responsibilities for this product when it is in your possession?

In what way may the producer monitor your use of the product?

Does the producer have any sanctions if you mistreat the product?

Extra questions

Do you think products your rent can gain sentimental value?

Are there any products you would not rent because of this?

Where is the limit for what you would rent? Are any products too personal to rent?

In the U.S., there are dog-rental services. What do you think about such services? How would you like to rent a dog?

IKEA have considered renting kitchen furnishings. Would you like to use such a service?

7.2. The interview guide (Norwegian)

Introspørsmål

Hva får deg til å leie i stedet for å eie?

Kan du bruke ett minutt på å skrive noen stikkord?

Hvordan kom du til å begynne å leie (vesker/ verktøy/ bil)?

Tror du du kommer til å fortsette med det?

Hva var den siste transaksjonen din? Hva pleier du å leie? Hvor ofte bruker du tjenesten?

Leier du noen andre ting?

Er det noen andre sider ved ditt konsum som skiller seg fra det andre gjør? (Vegetarianer, straight edge, økologisk).

Hadde dette noe med at du begynte å leie?

Kunne du tenkt deg å leie ut dine egne ting?

Har du forandret deg eller dine vaner etter du begynte å bruke denne tjenesten?

Har denne tjenesten gjort hverdagen din enklere på noen måte? /påvirke hverdagen din?

Er det noen produkter du skulle ønske kunne blitt tilbudt som tjenester i Norge som ikke allerede finnes?

Detaljspørsmål (åpne spørsmål)

Hva syns du er det verste/beste med å leie et produkt?

Hvordan ville du presentert valget ditt av denne tjenesten ovenfor venner og familie?

Hvorfor du bruker tjenesten?

Ville du anbefalt den til dem?

Forteller du dem om denne tjenesten?

Vet venner og familie at produktet (bilen/vesken/sykkelen) ikke er din eiendel?

Hva kunne du ønske var annerledes ved tjenesten?

Hvilke forventninger hadde du til tjenesten?

Ble forventningene møtt?

Refleksjonsspørsmål (bruk sjekkliste, mer konkrete spørsmål)

Motivasjonsfaktorene:

Simplicity orientation

- hadde det at du *slipper å ha ansvar* for tingen noen betydning for at du begynte å leie i stedet for å eie?

Perceived economic gain

- Hvor mye hadde *pris* å si for at du leier?

Er du alltid prisbevisst?

Tror du du sparer penger på å leie fremfor å eie?

- er dette noe som er viktig for deg?

Variety and experience seeking

Hva er viktigst for deg av produkters funksjoner og betingelsene ved tjenesten/bruken av produktet?

Feks ved leie av bil, bryr du deg mest om bilen i seg selv (spesifikasjoner) eller tjenesten (hvor bilene blir utlevert, hvordan avtalen er utformet, hvor enkelt det er å hente ut/levere, osv).

Leier du som regel det samme produktet hver gang, eller varierer du fra gang til gang?

Vil det at du leier si at du er *lite opptatt av å ha materielle ting*?

Blir du mer tilfredsstillt av å bruke et produkt enn å eie det?

Exploration and trial

Er dette en slags *prøvefase* for å se om du kunne tenke deg de ulike produktene, eller for å finne ut av hva du eventuelt kunne tenkt deg å kjøpe?

Opplever du at det er lavere risiko knyttet til å velge feil produkt når du leier?

Hadde dette betydning for at du begynte å leie?

Environmentalism

Har *miljøbevissthet* noe med at du velger å leie å gjøre?

På hvilken måte da?

Trend orientation

Er du opptatt av mote eller *trender*?

Er du opptatt av å ha den nyeste versjonen av produkter du bruker?

Har det noe å si for at du leier?

Image orientation

I hvilken grad gjenspeiler tjenesten/produktet din identitet/ønsket image?

I hvilken grad er det viktig hva andre synes om produktet du leier?

Symbolsk og funksjonelt perspektiv:

Symbolsk perspektiv

Hva forbinder du med merkevaren (Sindro/Bildeleringen/Spotify)?

Var det noe spesielt med merkevaren som gjorde at du valgte nettopp denne tjenesten?

Føler du at du har tilstrekkelig *kontroll* over tjenesten/produktet du leier?

Er det et godt utvalg av produkter? Er produktene varierte?

Hvordan opplever du selve leietransaksjonen? Er den godt tilrettelagt?

Hva er viktig for deg ved bruk av denne tjenesten/leie av et produkt?

Funksjoner ved produktet eller det produktet *symboliserer* for deg/ følelsen ved å bruke produktet?

Funksjonelt perspektiv

Føler du at det er færre *byrder/plikter* knyttet til produktet ved leie enn om du hadde eid produktet?

Kan du forutse hvordan *kvaliteten* på produktet/tjenesten er før du prøver det?

Er det viktig for deg å kunne forutse dette?

Føler du at produsenten av tjenesten kan utnytte *informasjon* de har om produktet som du ikke har til sin fordel?

Hvilket ansvar har du for produktet mens det er i din disposisjon? På hvilken måte kan utleieren overvåke din bruk av produktet?

Har de noen form for straff eller bot for ødeleggelser/forsinket levering etc.. ?

Ekstraspørsmål

Kan produkter du leier få affeksjonsverdi?

Er det noen produkter som du ikke ville leie på grunn av dette?

Hvor går grensen for å leie hos deg? Er det noen produkter du synes er så personlige at de ikke kan leies?

I USA kan man leie kjæledyr, ofte hunder, hva synes du om det? Hvordan ville du føholdt deg til å leie en hund?

7.3. Tables and figures

Table 2

Respondent	Case	Simplicity orientation	Perceived economic gain	Variety and experience seeking	Image orientation	Environmentalism	Trend orientation	Exploration and trial	Functional perspective				Symbolic perspective		
									Property rights	Information; economics	transaction costs	p-a issues	Features	Meaning	
1	Sindro	1	1			1		1						1	
2	Bildelingen	1	1	1	1				1					1	
3	Spotify	1	1	1	1				1					1	
4	Bildelingen	1	1	1	1				1					1	
5	Bildelingen	1	1	1	1				1					1	
6	Bildelingen	1	1	1	1				1					1	
7	Sindro	1	1	1	0,5	1	1	1	1					0,5	0,5
8	Sindro	1	1	1	0,5	1	1	1	1					1	
9	Spotify	0,5	1	1					1					1	
10	Sindro	1	1	1			0,5	1	1					1	
11	Spotify	1	1	0,5					1					1	
12	Sindro	1	0,5	1	0,5	1	0,5	1	1					1	0,5
Totalt antall		11,5	11,5	9,5	4,5	6	1	5	4	9	6	5	11,5	1	1

Chart 2c

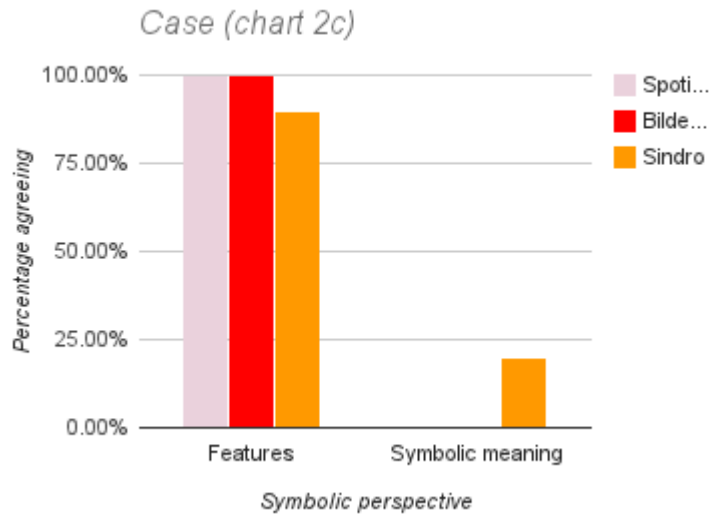


Chart 4b

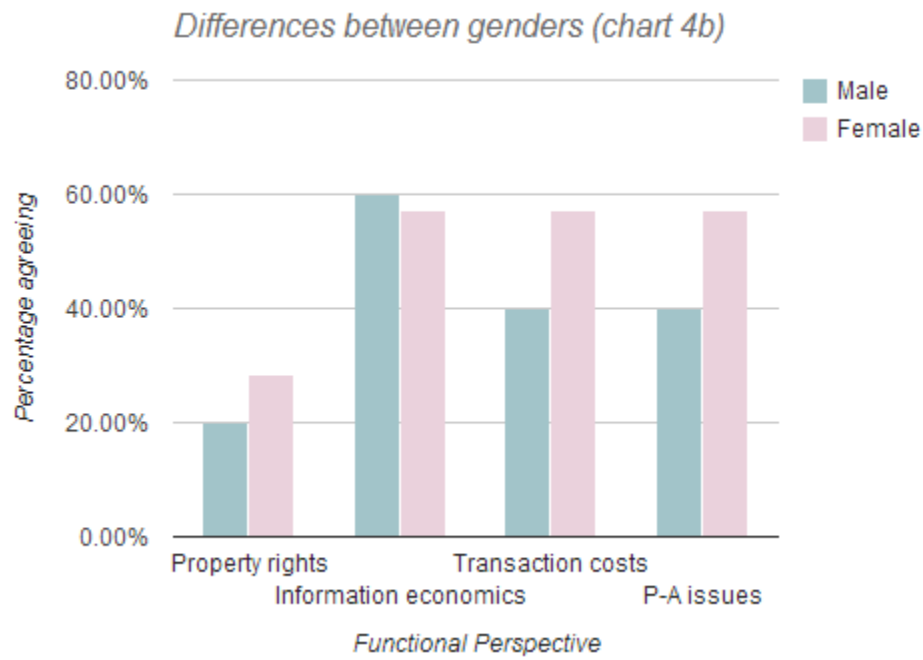


Chart 4c

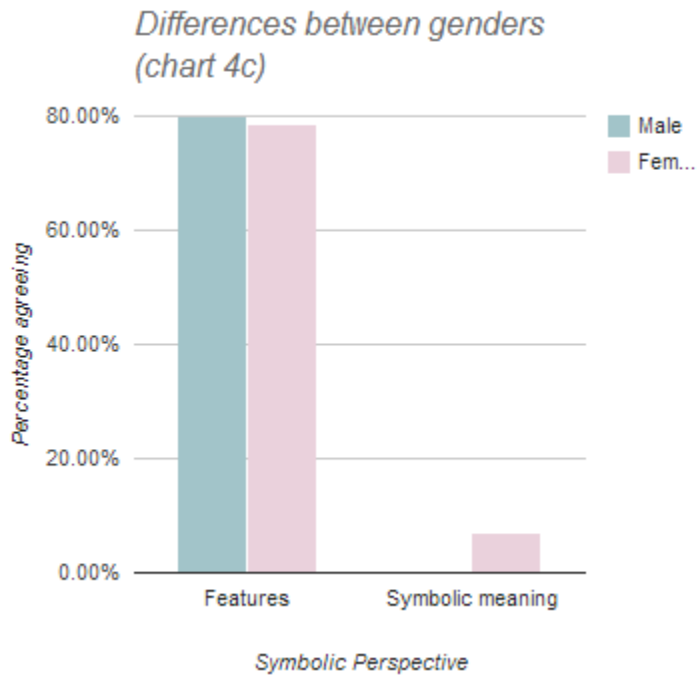


Chart 5b

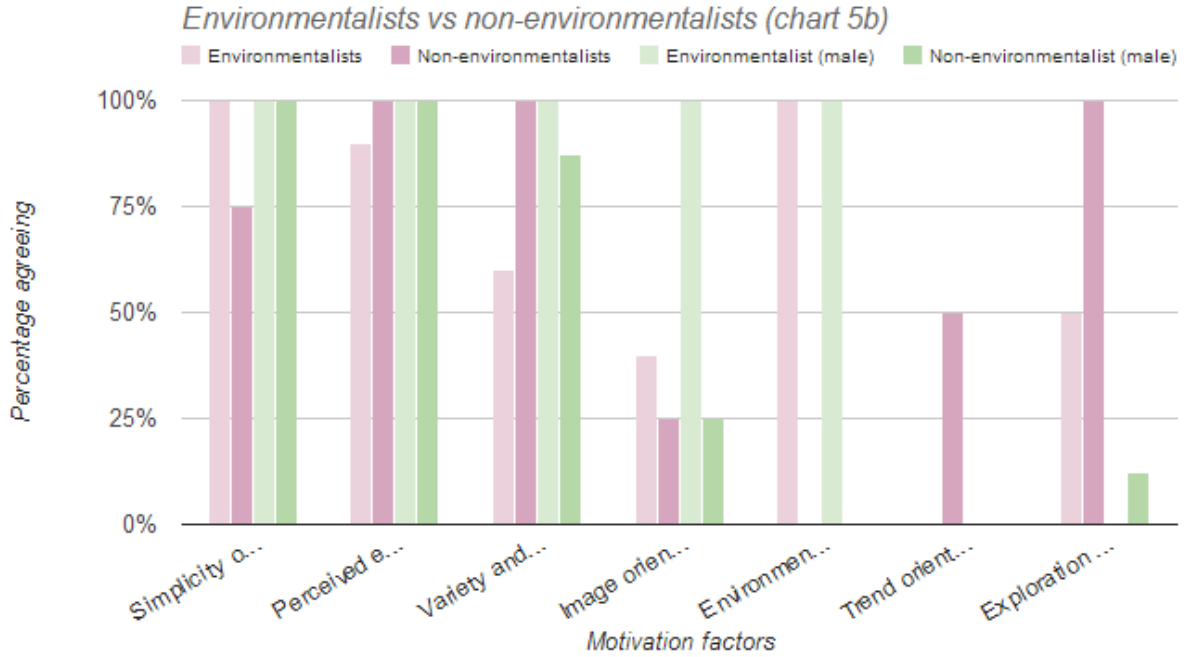


Chart 5c

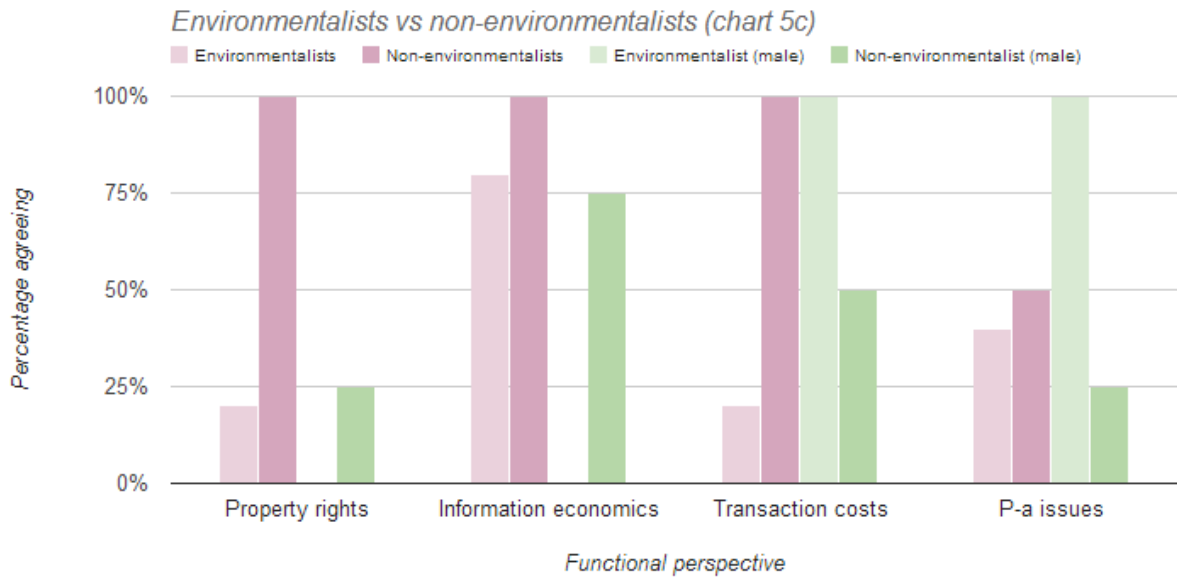
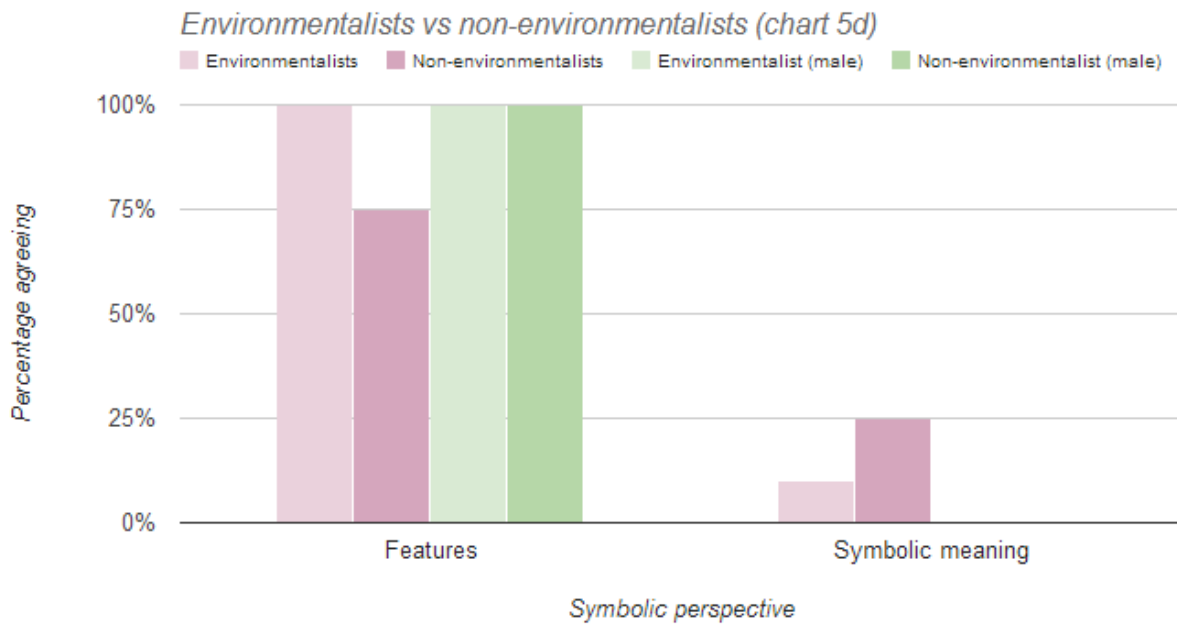


Chart 5d



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