Chapter 7
Leveraging the Power of Sharing: The Case of a Social Enterprise at the Base of the Pyramid

Pradeep Kumar Hota and Sumit Mitra

Abstract The sharing economy has been predominantly studied in developed country contexts and hence we do not understand it in the base of the pyramid (BoP) context. Considering the unique characteristics of the BoP context, it is worthwhile to explore how sharing economy can be leveraged in such a context. Specifically, we studied the case of a social enterprise operating in India and tried to understand how the organization adopted the sharing economy model for addressing its resource challenges. We found that while faced with the resource challenges of finance, human resource, and knowledge resource, the organization used different sharing such as digital platform sharing, human resource sharing, channel sharing, knowledge sharing, and business model sharing. Our study has important implications for the literature on sharing economy and social entrepreneurship.

Keywords Sharing economy · The base of the pyramid · Resource mobilization · Digital social innovation · Social enterprises

7.1 Introduction

Over the last two decades, social enterprises (SEs) have established themselves as globally relevant ventures exhibiting innovative and sustainable social value creation processes and addressing long-standing social issues through entrepreneurial processes (Austin et al., 2006; Parthiban et al., 2021; Christie & Honig, 2006). Deeply rooted in their social mission with a drive for sustainability (Mair & Marti,

P. K. Hota (✉)
Research School of Management, Australian National University, Canberra, Australia
e-mail: pradeep.hota@anu.edu.au

S. Mitra
Indian Institute of Management Kozhikode, Kozhikode, Kerala, India
e-mail: smitra@iimk.ac.in

I. Qureshi et al. (eds.), *Sharing Economy at the Base of the Pyramid*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-16-2414-8_7

2006; Short et al., 2009), the inability to tap private resources for a public purpose often leaves SEs resource-strapped (Brown & Kalegaonkar, 2002). Because of the strong focus on social value creation as against profit maximization or value capture, diverse stakeholders with competing demands like investor/donors as against end beneficiaries, hybrid organizational form with dual and often contesting focus of financial sustainability and social good, incapability to demonstrate return on investment, and ambiguities in performance management, SEs find it extremely difficult to tap into resources that commercial enterprises have access to (Hota et al., 2019a; Austin et al., 2006; Doherty et al., 2014).

SEs operating in the base of the pyramid (BoP) context face greater challenges for fulfilling resource requirements because of the unfavorable institutional environment in conjunction with a huge demand for SE activities in such a context (Kistruck et al., 2011; Mair & Marti, 2009; Bhatt et al., 2019; Zhao & Lounsbury, 2016). Under such constraints related to resource mobilization, SEs in emerging economies need to mobilize and manage their scarce resources innovatively. Hence, resource management in SE operating in emerging economies becomes an especially critical area of scholarly inquiry. High-quality resources are typically scarce and hence expensive in the BoP context (Desa, 2012). Therefore, pressures to scale up rapidly even before stabilizing create a resource stretch for the SE (Mair & Schoen, 2007).

The above situation arises because of the challenges and characteristics of BoP customers/beneficiaries whose needs the social mission of a SE intends to fulfill. Comprising about 4 billion extremely poor people worldwide who live on less than $2 per day (Prahalad & Hart, 2002), it refers to exchanges in relatively small informal networks often in very remote rural locations without accessibility and transportation (Kisturck & Beamish, 2010). In the absence of formal institutions, and remoteness of these communities from the urban providers, this leads to limited linkages between these BoP producers and their developed markets, resulting in depressed prices for their products as also expensive products and services received by the BoP customers (London et al., 2010; Kistruck et al., 2013; Shalini et al., 2021). SEs step in to provide improved channels of exchange through their intermediation by avoiding in the process, problems of adverse selection and moral hazard (Spulber, 1999). While social intermediaries help bridge transactional gaps, often at a loss, to ensure gains for identified beneficiaries, they do so by analyzing every such transaction it can internalize. This is to ensure that in the prevailing/changing institutional environment, the beneficiary and its counterpart in a transaction develop a robust and more equitable transaction over time and not be excessively dependent on an intermediary (Kistruck et al., 2013). Accordingly, models create new ways to consider local resources, community social capital, and bricolage (Pandey et al., 2021; Hota et al., 2019a) to develop sharing economy models that consider the specificities of particular communities while ensuring that the solutions can be quickly modified and replicated.

Sharing economy was defined by Frenken and Schor (2019) as *consumers granting each other temporary access to under-utilized physical assets ("idle capacity"),*

possibly for money. The sharing economy at BoP demonstrates that sharing and collaboration present potential quick ways to raise standards of living by creating access rather than ownership. It is seen that at the BoP, a sharing economy emerges on the back of digital development becoming relevant to the marginalized communities (cf Nungsari & Chuah, 2021; Qureshi et al., 2021c). This is dependent on better internet connectivity in remote locations, affordable hardware, and entrepreneurship among locals to try digital sharing for mutual good (cf Qureshi et al., 2021a, b). Research indicates that the BoP focus of digital sharing is primarily on empltoyment and income generation. An important aspect that distinguishes the sharing economy from the traditional economy is the prioritization of access to resources over the production of new ones (Mair & Reischauer, 2017); particularly difficult in the BoP section of society in an emerging economy that severely lacks resources.

Extant literature highlights that sharing economy offers a powerful means for improving resource efficiency by allowing sharing of existing resources and promoting a new business model that allows for innovative use of resources (Acquier et al., 2017; Escobedo et al., 2021; Galdini & De Nardis, 2021; Laukkanen & Tura, 2020; Pillai et al., 2021b; Schneider et al., 2019). Hence, for the social enterprises, operating in the BoP context and battling with resource challenges, sharing economy provides an opportunity to overcome the resource challenges with efficient use of resources (cf Bhatt et al., 2021; Hota et al., 2021; Pillai et al., 2021a; Qiu et al., 2021). Although social enterprises operating in the context of BoP can leverage sharing economy model to mobilize resources, we lack the understanding of how this can be done. So, we specifically ask the research question: How can SE leverage sharing economy for resource mobilization in the BoP context?

To explore the research question, we study the case of an organization operating in the BoP context of India and providing farming, market linkages, and sanitation solutions (SSs) to the rural farmers. We collected a range of data from the organization over a 36-month period and analyzed the data following guidelines of inductive theory-building research. We found that the organization used different sharing mechanisms such as resource sharing and platform sharing to mitigate resource challenges and successfully address its financial and social objectives simultaneously. Our study makes an important contribution to the social entrepreneurship literature and sharing economy at the BoP literature by identifying how the sharing economy can be leveraged by social enterprises operating in the BoP context.

The remainder of the chapter is structured as follows. We start with the theoretical background of the study that explains the literature on resource mobilization challenges of social enterprises and positions sharing economy as a possible solution for addressing resource challenges in BoP. Then we discuss the methodology adopted in this study, followed by the findings from our analysis. Finally, we discuss the implication of our work and suggest avenues for future research.

7.2 Theoretical Background

7.2.1 Resource Mobilization Challenges of Social Enterprises

Extant research suggests that social enterprises face severe resource constraints (Bridgstock et al. 2010; Hota et al., 2019a; Qureshi et al., 2021c) because they often operate in market failure condition (Di Domenico et al., 2010; Mair & Marti, 2009). Apart from the contextual challenges (Bhatt et al., 2019; Qureshi et al., 2018b), social enterprises have unique organizational characteristics that create difficulties in their resource mobilization. Their primary social objective (Dees, 1998; Austin et al., 2006; Mair & Marti, 2006) makes it difficult for them to get resources from the investors (Peredo & McLean, 2006; Lumpkin et al., 2013) or through trading activities (Di Domenico et al., 2010; Desa & Basu, 2013). Further, since social enterprises do not conform to an established organizational category (Battilana & Lee, 2014), they face legitimacy challenges, which affects their resource mobilization (Bhatt, 2021; Doherty et al., 2014). Getting suitable human resources is another challenge faced by the social enterprises, considering their inability to pay at the market rate (Austin et al., 2006) and their unique requirements of having employees with blended social and commercial values (Doherty et al., 2014).

Social enterprises operating in the BoP context face even greater resource mobilization challenges due to the uniqueness of the context. Such a context is characterized by acute poverty and the customers have very limited paying capabilities (Kolk et al., 2014; Parthiban et al., 2021; Seelos & Mair, 2007). The unique social, cultural, and institutional characteristics of the BoP market imply that the traditional product, services, and management process might not work in the BoP context (Bhatt, 2021), and organizations need to think of a radically different supply chain to cater to them (Prahalad, 2004). Further, in the BoP context resources from the product market, labor market, and capital market are scarce and typically concentrated within a few big organizations (Khanna & Palepu, 1997). The legal infrastructure is often ill developed and there is the absence of supporting mechanisms such as property rights (Seelos & Mair, 2013). As North mentioned: "Third World countries are poor because the institutional constraints define a set of payoffs to political/economic activity that does not encourage productive activity" (North, 1990, p. 110).

7.2.2 Sharing Economy at the BoP

Community-level "self-help" and "solidarity" elements associated with the local sharing economy help identify social issues they want to resolve and convening multistakeholder communities and platforms to collaboratively find the best solutions. People who voluntarily enter into a transaction in the sharing economy only do so if it is beneficial to both parties. External donors, on the other hand,

cherry-pick location and projects to implement, often without the consent of local beneficiaries. Latent capacity at the BoP is most apparent with the underutilization of labor and workers; a capacity that the community itself is unaware of its possession. Trust is a significant enabler of the digital sharing economy. In a way, trust and reputation can be more valuable than a currency (Qureshi et al., 2018a; Frenken & Schor, 2019). They can give people access to physical resources that they would not otherwise have. For the BoP, trust is usually limited to a social network of family and close friends that does not necessarily extend to a wider community. This lack of sustainable reputation systems can prevent widespread sharing in different settings and the emergence of collaborative consumption at the BOP (Möhlmann, 2015). Digital sharing economy, therefore, refers to innovations that leverage digital solutions, such as the Internet or mobile phones, to engage communities. Communities lead the development of these innovations when they are cocreators in their design and implementation, facilitated by digital tools, in ways that empower the community (Qureshi et al., 2021c; Benkler, 2006).

From a philanthropic perspective, digital sharing technologies designed for the BoP are very cost-effective in terms of impact per dollar spent (Wallenstein & Shelat, 2017). From an investment perspective, we believe collaborative businesses have a disruptive potential that can lead to creating new demand, profits, and "blue oceans"—markets where there are not yet competitive rivals (Perini & Schwarten, 2013). All this may give the social enterprise financial sustainability and break—even quite early on. While there is much inefficiency that exists in emerging markets, the business model properties of sharing businesses: reduced cost from collaboration and increased utility of assets suggest room for potential profits. Nevertheless, in the sharing economy, resources define identity: "you are what you can access" (Belk, 2014: 1598).

Although there have been attempts to generalize sharing economies, the culturally rooted pluralism of their forms and practices, which are embedded in varying cultural contexts, ultimately captures the dynamics of sharing economies. Consequently, the culturally rooted pluralism of form of sharing economy organizations accentuates that there is no such thing as "the" sharing economy organization (Bhatt et al., 2019; Mair & Reischauer, 2017). Culture shapes pluralism of organizational forms primarily in two ways—firstly, as to whether they are for-profit or not-for-profit organizations (Schor & Fitzmaurice, 2015) and secondly, the structure of the organization, in terms of how closely they resemble traditional organizations (Mair & Reischauer, 2017). One way pluralism reflects in the practices of sharing economy organizations is with regard to how they interface with nonmarket actors such as city governments or interest groups (Baron, 1995) and how they govern interactions and relationships with users (Bhatt, 2017). For example, the Food Assembly, a France-based organization in the food-sharing market that connects local farmers with consumers, allows selected users to assume managerial responsibilities. In return for coordinating and encouraging transactions between farmers and consumers, these users receive monetary compensation (Acquier et al., 2017). Most sharing economy organizations in developed markets seem not to follow this practice for its users (Mair & Reischauer, 2017). Culture, understood as

taken-for-granted meanings and rules, seems to affect these choices: sharing economy organizations follow rules like prescriptions prevalent in their cultural context and mimic prevalent expectations in their economic systems. Therefore, culture might help explain different organizational forms in the sharing economy (Mair & Reischauer, 2017).

BoP markets inherently differ from higher-tier markets, as an institutional theory lens reveals (Angeli & Jaiswal, 2015; Rivera-Santos et al., 2012). It is well known that economic resource-poor communities are characterized by institutional isolation and by an idiosyncratic structure of beliefs, sociocultural traditions, values, and norms, giving rise to a non-munificent institutional environment (Angeli & Jaiswal, 2015; Bhatt et al., 2019; Parthiban et al., 2020) and that informal institutions, rather than formal ones, have a prominent role in governing social life in these contexts (Qureshi et al., 2016; Rivera-Santos & Rufín, 2010).

In the above sociocultural and institutional environment, SE organizations "seek innovative processes that are socially inclusive towards local communities" (Smith et al., 2014: 114). If such processes have to be closed, within the trust-based local community, and yet have to overcome resource constraints of BOP using local resources (Mair et al., 2012), they may need to resort to a sharing economy within the community. By demonstrating social value creation through negotiating and renegotiating access to resources including expertise (Di Domenico et al., 2010) embedded in a community's shared economy, the SE creates legitimacy for itself. Also, this way constraining informal institutions impeding full market participation may be circumvented, unless there are constraints to sharing within the communities (Qureshi et al., 2018b; Riaz & Qureshi, 2017).

In an emerging economy like India, antecedent conditions to the role of SE in a rural BOP setting demonstrate transactions in a subsistence marketplace (Kistruck et al., 2013). Besides being dispersed and large, such a marketplace has rural consumers with poor literacy, viewing brands and prices as images instead of symbols (Viswanathan et al., 2012) making fair and transparent transactions as bedrocks of trust (Viswanathan et al., 2008). In the absence of property rights (Kostova & Zaheer, 1999) as also a lack of transparency in information (Qureshi et al., 2018b), physical assets including land cannot be used as collaterals to obtain external funds required to avail of essential products and services. This would accentuate the need to have an active and efficient local community-level sharing economy to provide for necessary resources, given the prevalent mistrust of outside individuals and organizations. This would see greater benefits from adapting to the specific needs of a highly fragmented local context rather than attempting to "cookie cut" the operating procedures across diverse locations and institutional environments (Kistruck et al., 2013).

As has been seen in other research, in remote BOP communities, local intervention using local dialect leverages trust to convince farmers to adopt modern farming and sanitation practices (Hota et al., 2019a). In something like "learning by doing," a sharing economy may overcome farmer resistance more easily than resorting to constant and frequent persuasion, as highlighted by Di Domenico et al. (2010) in a unidirectional flow of information and role models. This is somewhat

highlighted in the effectiveness of the farmer interest group (FIG) sharing information in the group using a local representative. This also helped the SE to embed itself in the community (Hota et al., 2019a). In this way, the optimal use of local resources (Kitchen & Marsden, 2009) assisted in maintaining local equilibrium in resource use, making localities more resilient (Bristow, 2010; Christopherson et al., 2010). It needs to be seen how the sharing economy can leverage with ease the advantages of belonging to a closed community where they undergo similar socialization, resulting in localized indigenous solutions to problems by showing considerable "resourcefulness and improvisation" (Attri & Bapuji, 2021; Garud & Karnøe, 2003).

7.2.3 Leveraging Sharing Economy for Resource Mobilization

Extant literature highlights that sharing economy offers a powerful means for improving resource efficiency (Acquier et al., 2017; Laukkanen & Tura, 2020; Schneider et al., 2019). This is possible because sharing economy allows for the sharing of resources (Hira & Reilly, 2017) and fosters new business models that enable innovative use of resources (Curtis & Mont, 2020; Laukkanen & Tura, 2020). There is also an indication in the literature that actors operating in the BoP context can leverage the concept of sharing economy to address their resource mobilization challenges (Sengupta et al., 2019; Szabó, 2017). For instance, Sengupta et al. (2019) explored how an organization leveraged digital platforms to provide support to resource-poor farmers in the BoP context, particularly where there are challenges to sharing arising from prevalent social divide (Qureshi et al., 2018b). Similarly, Szabó (2017) discussed how an organization leveraged unused resources using the sharing economy approach. Although these works are useful in highlighting that the sharing economy model can be leveraged by a social enterprise, there is a need to better understand how social enterprises employ the sharing economy model in response to resource mobilization and social challenges. This is the focus of this chapter.

7.3 Research Methodology

To explore the research question, we adopted an inductive case study approach, as the phenomenon is new and emerging (Eisenhardt, 1989). The case study research is useful when a "why" or "how" question is being asked about new or little-known phenomena, as in our study (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Yin, 1994). Further, given the paucity of research in understanding sharing economy at the BoP, we decided to explore a single case in depth (Sarker et al., 2012).

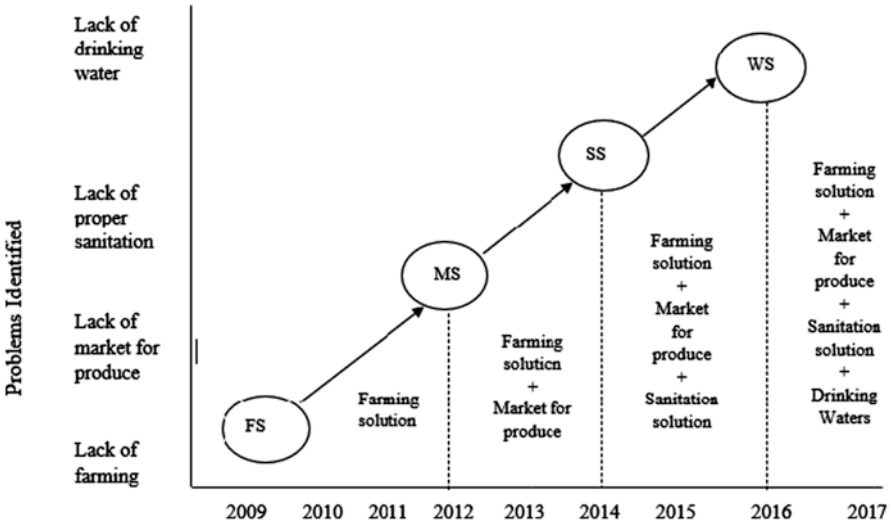

Fig. 7.1 Evolution of *FF.* Note: *FS* Farming solution, *MS* market solution, *SS* sanitation solution, *WS* water solution

7.3.1 Empirical Setting

Following the suggestions from the methodologist (Patton, 1990), we sought to identify a case that can provide insight into the topic of interest. *FarmersFriend* (pseudonym), selected through the process of theoretical sampling (Strauss & Corbin, 1967), suitably matches our requirements. *FarmersFriend* (henceforth *FF*) is a social enterprise operating in multiple eastern provinces of India. The founder of *FF* was awarded a fellowship from Ashoka Foundation,[1] which awards social entrepreneurs with innovative and systemic social impact. *FF* was started when its founder observed the multitude of issues faced by the rural farmers. To help the farmers come out of poverty, the founder of *FF* started an intervention to provide required inputs such as knowledge, seeds, fertilizers, and others. This initiative provided farmers with high-quality, affordable, and timely inputs, leading to better farm yield. Further, upon realizing the absence of a market in the rural areas and the resulting difficulties faced by the farmers in selling their products, *FF* designed an intervention to take the farm produce from rural farmers and sell it in the urban market. This helped the farmers in getting a better price for their farm produce and reducing wastage. Subsequently, *FF* realized that sanitation is a big challenge for the rural farmers and *FF* used its existing channel to provide quality sanitation materials for the rural farmers. Please see Fig. 7.1 for the evolution of *FF*.

[1] https://www.ashoka.org/en

7.3.2 Data Collection

We collected data over 36 months in multiple interactions with *FF*. To start with the data collection, we collected a range of information about *FF* from the Ashoka Foundation website, *FF*'s website, published cases, social media pages of *FF,* and other published materials. The analysis provided us a very good understanding of the different activities and impacts of *FF*. Subsequently, the first author visited *FF* and its field of activities to collect a range of data in terms of semi-structured interviews, field observations, and internal materials from *FF*. The semi-structured interview was the main instrument for data collection. We prepared an interview protocol containing an outline of topics to be covered, with suggested questions (Yin, 1994). The interview protocol serves as a conversational guide and it produces guided conversation during an interview (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). Wherever possible, we recorded the interviews after getting consent from the interviewee. These interviews were subsequently transcribed for analysis. Data collected from other sources helped to ensure triangulation (Yin, 1994). Further, we collected data from FF in subsequent visits. In total, we conducted 37 interviews with the organizational members and other stakeholders of the organization.

7.3.3 Data Analysis

Data begin by compiling and sorting interview transcripts, field notes, and other secondary data to create a database (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Yin, 1994). We followed the established process of grounded theory-building research for analyzing the data (Eisenhardt, 1989; Miles et al., 2014), by moving back and forth between data and emerging theoretical categories (Locke, 2001). To identify themes in our data, we used the open-coding approach to highlight distinct concepts that were repeated in the data (Miles et al., 2014; Strauss & Corbin 1998). We reiterated between the data and emerging theoretical categories (Langley, 1999; Locke, 2001). This process resulted in the identification of different themes and the linkages between them, resulting in theory development (Spiggle, 1994).

7.4 Findings

7.4.1 Business Model

FF has adopted an entrepreneurship-based business model to improve the livelihood of smallholder farmers. Through a decentralized network of micro-entrepreneurs, *FF* is engaging itself with the farming community and providing them with required services. In the following section, we discuss the business model

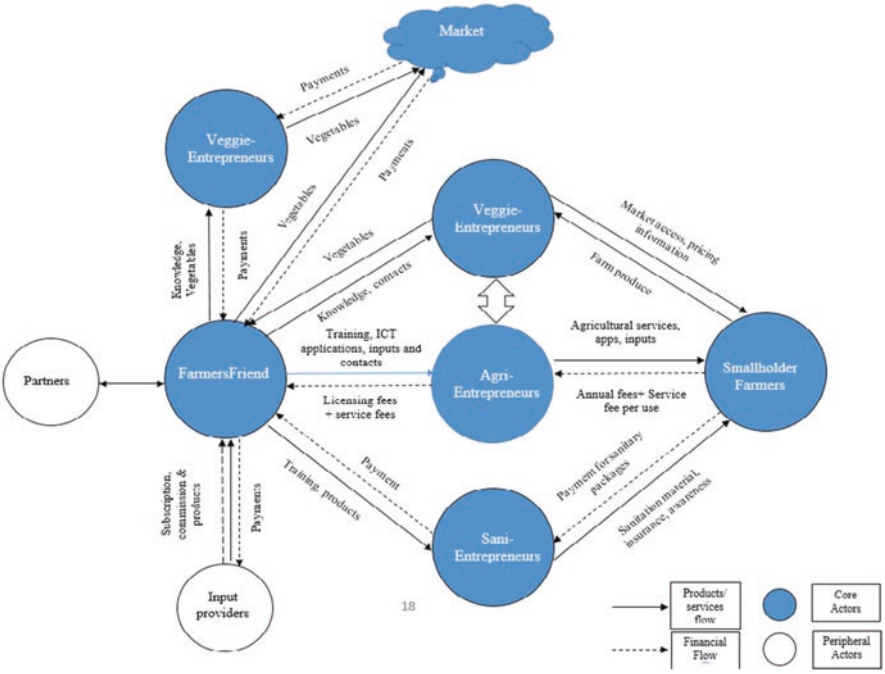

Fig. 7.2 Business model of *FF*

of *FF* in detail and then we discuss different business model parameters and how *FF* fits into them. Please see Fig. 7.2 for the business model of *FF*.

FF caters to different needs of smallholder farmers through its three verticals, each addressing a specific requirement of the farmers. The first vertical we call *FF*-Agri, which delivers agricultural services to smallholder farmers. The second one we call *FF*-Vegi, which takes products from the farmers to the urban market. The third one we call *FF*-Sani, which provides sanitation solution to rural farmers. All the subsidiaries work in an entrepreneur-based model. We discuss each of the subsidiaries in detail below.

7.4.1.1 FF-Agri

This was the first intervention by *FF*, and it provides agricultural services to smallholder farmers for improving their productivity. In this, *FF* first surveys rural areas, consults local farmers, and finds one educated youth, who is interested to learn new technology and provide services to farmers in that region. *FF* recruits the entrepreneurs and provides them with training, knowledge, and Information Communication Technology (ICT) tools for service delivery. The entrepreneurs need to pay the license fees to *FF* for the ICT tool and then they pay commission to *FF* based on usage of the applications. The initial cost for the entrepreneurs comes to around

$500. Also, the entrepreneurs set their offices on their premises for delivering services to the farmers. One of the entrepreneurs described his role as

> I help farmers in their farming practices. It all starts with soil testing. Use a tool given by [FF], where I enter different things, and finally based on details it suggests the type of fruits and vegetables that can be grown. It also says what type of fruit or vegetable should be grown in which month for a better price. For example, in summer cauliflower are rare, so if someone grows it, the profit will be more. Sometimes when some issues come I contact [FF] and they get proper information. Like this I provide all information during the farming like the seed to be used, fertilizers to be used, in case of a problem what pesticides to be used and all. When there is any problem in growth, we take photos and send them to [FF], they send them to some scientist and then send their recommendation to us. I then recommend the farmer. (Interviewee 28)

Entrepreneurs are happy with *FF* because they can work from their own home and earn money while serving farmers. Entrepreneurs provide services to the farmers using the ICT tool from *FF*. Entrepreneurs are also responsible for creating farmer's interest groups and coordinate communication among farmers and with *FF*. Since these entrepreneurs are from the local community, they command trust among the local people and leverage that trust to reach out to several farmers in the area. The farmers pay nominal fees per year and then a small number of fees per service availed. The entrepreneur keeps a percentage from the service fees and passes on the rest of the amount to *FF* based on a preexisting agreement. The entrepreneurs earn a good amount of money for themselves from the service fees. Moreover, with a sizable number of farmer connections, *FF* has been able to negotiate with input providers such as seed company, fertilizer company, and pesticide companies for a better price on their products. Then those inputs are provided to the farmers through the entrepreneurs. So, the farmers can get quality seeds at the right price and are relieved of problems faced by them earlier such as adulterated low-quality seeds from local traders and higher prices. The input supplier company provides a subscription fee and commission to *FF*. Entrepreneurs are also able to earn from supplies of the input to the farmers. Through these agricultural services, farmers have been able to improve their productivity. Apart from these services, *FF* is also building credit scores for the smallholder farmers so that they can get loans from the formal banking systems and credit agencies.

7.4.1.2 FF-Vegi

FF started with the intervention FF-Vegi in 2013 after realizing that farmers were not able to get a better price for their products due to lack of market access. The problem was severe for perishable products like vegetables. FF-Vegi provides the missing link, as it provides a way to take farmers' produce to urban customers who want to consume fresh vegetables but had no access, thus addressing the farmer's problem on one side and the urban consumer's problem on the other side. This intervention is done through an entrepreneur-based model of FF. The process of entrepreneur selection was explained by the procurement manager in the following terms:

> So if I go to a place, firstly we will have a farmer meeting. Farmers will decide that who will be their entrepreneur, a person who can coordinate with all the farmers and who can send all vegetables and input to us. So they will decide that this person is our entrepreneur, he is our representative and he becomes their entrepreneur. (Interviewee 12)

In many cases, the entrepreneurs, who provide agricultural services to the farmers, collect the vegetables from the farmers. The entrepreneurs get a percentage of revenue from the vegetables collected and supplied to *FF*.

Subsequently, *FF* collects vegetables from different entrepreneurs and then takes them to their warehouse. In the warehouse, *FF* does the sorting, grading, and packaging of vegetables and then sells them through different channels in the urban market. The majority of the vegetable sales is are done through the entrepreneur-based model. There are two types of such models. First, *FF* identifies people who are already running grocery shops and are ready to sell *FF*'s packaged vegetables in their shop itself. They act as their entrepreneurs for selling vegetables. *FF* provides 10% of total sales as commission to these grocery shop owners. Every day, *FF* delivers and arranges vegetable packets in the shop of the entrepreneur. Unsold vegetables of the previous day are taken out by *FF* (maximum up to a certain percentage as agreed to by them). The entrepreneurs make a good amount of profit from selling *FF*'s vegetables. Also, the entrepreneurs get a feel-good factor that by selling *FF*'s vegetables they are helping poor farmers in the rural area. As one of them mentioned:

> The first thing is no investment, only profit. Also, we have nothing to lose…no risk at all. Then we need not go to the market and get things, FF delivers to us and arrange them for us also. Whatever remains after the day, FF people come and take it back. So not even a 1% loss for us. Then also, they are getting from poor farmers in the village, and if we sell FF's products we are helping those poor farmers. (Interviewee 19)

The second type of entrepreneur-based model *FF* use for selling vegetables is the usage of a pushcart in the city. *FF* has designed a special pushcart with its logo on it. Then, it selects people who are interested in selling vegetables in the cart based on the sharing agreement. *FF* supplies vegetables to these carts and then the entrepreneurs sell them to consumers. Apart from selling vegetables through the entrepreneurship-based model, *FF* also has other channels such as online sales and direct supply to restaurants, academic institutions, etc.

7.4.1.3 FF-Sani

The *FF*-Sani intervention was brought in when *FF* realized that farmers in rural areas are having a lot of issues because of the lack of availability of sanitation solutions. *FF* decided to address the sanitation problem through their entrepreneurship model, which was working well for delivering agricultural services to farmers. The problem identified by *FF* was that rural people were not having access to quality sanitation materials and were paying a high price for low-quality materials in the local market. So, *FF* decided to create a complete sanitation package for building

toilets and sale to rural people through locally identified entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs earn from selling the products of *FF*. The organization negotiates the price with the companies that sell sanitary materials and get them at a cheaper rate. They also help the companies to increase their reach. While working with farmers, *FF* also realized that the toilets made by them are prone to natural disasters like cyclones, storms, and so on. So, in partnership with one insurance company called Bajaj Allianz, *FF* decided to provide the farmers with toilet insurance at a reasonable cost. In case of any damage, the rural people can claim insurance amount for repair. Further, over time *FF* realized that the rural people were facing challenges for drinking water. So, it leveraged its entrepreneur network to deliver clean drinking water to the rural people.

7.4.2 Resource Challenges

FF works in the BoP context and tries to help poor smallholder farmers and hence it faces multiple resource challenges typically faced by social enterprises operating in such contexts. Generation of financial resources through business activities is difficult for *FF* because the cost of serving the smallholder farmers is much higher as compared to the fees that *FF* can get from the farmers. One of the interviewees explained this problem in the following terms:

> We work with a lot of poor farmers, who are willing to pay some amount of fees for better service but that amount is not enough to provide support to them. For example, farmers might be willing to pay around 100 rupees [1.5$] for soil testing but that is not enough to provide the tools for soil testing…working with such a group is always challenging in terms of revenue generation. (Interviewee 1)

Getting suitable human resources is another problem that *FF* has to deal with, specifically at the field level. This is because *FF* needs individuals with certain basic criteria to employ as an entrepreneur in the villages and it is difficult to get many such individuals. As one of the interviewees mentioned:

> We look for people with minimum educational qualification, who is present in the village most of the time, have a good reputation at the village level. There are very few people who fulfill all the criteria. Even you cannot deploy a person from outside because he will not understand the local culture, language, and people will not easily trust him. So this is a real challenge for us. (Interviewee 8)

Another related problem of human resources is the difficulties in getting people for providing training to the farmers. Although the entrepreneurs employed by *FF* provide training and guidance to farmers, it is difficult for them to reach all the farmers and support them.

Knowledge is another critical resource for the success of *FF* as the organization needed to develop tools and technologies for providing support to the farmers. Besides, the organization has to develop knowledge about farming practices and pass on that knowledge to the rural farmers. Moreover, any problem such as pest

attack on farms needs knowledge for diagnosing the problem and providing solutions for the same. However, it was difficult for *FF* to develop all the knowledge within the organization. As one of the interviewees mentioned:

> We cannot have all knowledge developed within [FF]. Take the example of the IT tool. We have an IT department but they were not in the position to develop all software tools by themselves. Also, think about the farming issues… when there is a problem with the crop, farmers expect support from us but it is difficult to develop all these knowledge within our organization… (Interviewee 7)

7.4.3 Leveraging Sharing Economy Model

We found that *FF* used several components of the sharing economy model to address its resource mobilization challenges. Specifically, we identified the use of digital sharing platform, sharing of human resources, sharing of the channel, sharing of knowledge, and sharing of business models. These factors helped the organization to overcome resource limitations and ultimately achieve its dual objectives of social value creation and financial sustainability.

Recognizing the difficulties of serving the poor farmers, *FF* developed a digital platform that can be used to provide various agriculture-related services to the farmers such as soil testing, crop planning, seed selection, nutrition management, harvest and marketing, pest and disease management, farmers' portfolio management, supply chain risk assessment, and farmers' risk assessment. This technology platform is managed by an individual entrepreneur identified and trained by *FF* at the village level. These entrepreneurs provide various services to the farmers at a very nominal price and get a percentage of the fees paid by each farmer. In this way, the cost of the service is shared by several farmers and this platform makes it possible for *FF* to serve the rural smallholder farmers in a financially sustainable manner. As one of the interviewees mentioned:

> The magnitude of the problem was huge… we thought that the only way to go about it is to leverage the power of information and communication technology. That's when we developed a technology platform in partnership with one of the leading technology organizations. This platform has all the tools required to provide different services to rural farmers. To operate that tool, we identify an entrepreneur in the villages and provide the tool and training to him. That person, in turn, provides all services to farmers at a very reasonable price. (Interviewee 3)

We observed that *FF* was engaged in sharing human resources at different levels. For instance, the entrepreneur who initially provided inputs to the farmer was also used for collecting farm produce and sending it back to *FF* to be sold in the markets. Moreover, *FF* shared staff in IT support, human resources, legal support, and communication among its different subsidiaries so that they can be used efficiently. As one interviewee mentioned:

> All non-core activities are centralized, converged and shared among different units. In this process there is a huge saving for all the units. (Interviewee 2)

Different units of *FF* also shared the channel among themselves for efficient utilization. For instance, the supply channel that is used to provide inputs to the farmers such as seeds, fertilizers, and pesticides is leveraged by *FF* to collect farm produce and take it to the urban market. This helped the organization to efficiently use its supply channel and save costs. As one of the interviewees mentioned:

> At the end of the day operating in such environment [BoP context] is all about using the existing supply chain very efficiently. So, we schedule our batches in such a way that the same truck that takes different farm inputs also brings farm output to us. (Interviewee 16)

We also found evidence of knowledge sharing at various levels. For instance, at the field level, we found that *FF* created farmers' interest groups that allowed the farmers to come together and share their knowledge and this helps *FF* to support a larger group of farmers. At the organization level, we found that there is a lot of knowledge sharing happening between different units. For instance, when the sanitation unit started, it got all knowledge support from other units that were already working successfully. *FF* also gets regular knowledge from external partners. For example, it has a tie-up with one agriculture university for developing farming knowledge and supporting farmers when there are any issues like pests in their fields.

There are several instances of business model sharing that we observed in the case of *FF*. For example, the sanitation business leveraged on the tried and tested entrepreneurship model developed by the other units. As one of the interviewees mentioned:

> We had an award-winning model that we started with agriculture … while giving agriculture support, experience, machinery, and other things in the field we realized that …sanitation is one of the core aspects… we wanted to test with the same model that was in the field for water sanitation… so, we started leveraging that model for sustainable provision of sanitation solution. (Interviewee 2)

FF also shared its model externally with many other social enterprises and worked with them for its implementation. For instance, it drew from business models implemented across different places of the world and provided its business model to them. As one of the interviewees mentioned:

> I took the innovation of [a person] from the USA to India and started implementing it. He took my model to the USA and started implementing it. I also took the model from a social entrepreneur in LAAM and he took my model to LAAM countries. (Interviewee 1)

7.4.4 Empirically Grounded Model

The resulting empirically grounded model from our case is presented in Fig. 7.3. This model explains how *FF* leveraged sharing economy model to overcome resource challenges and finally achieved its dual mission of financial sustainability and social value creation. We found that different resource challenges faced by *FF* were mitigated using different types of sharing. For instance, the financial resource challenges were mitigated through digital platform sharing, human resource

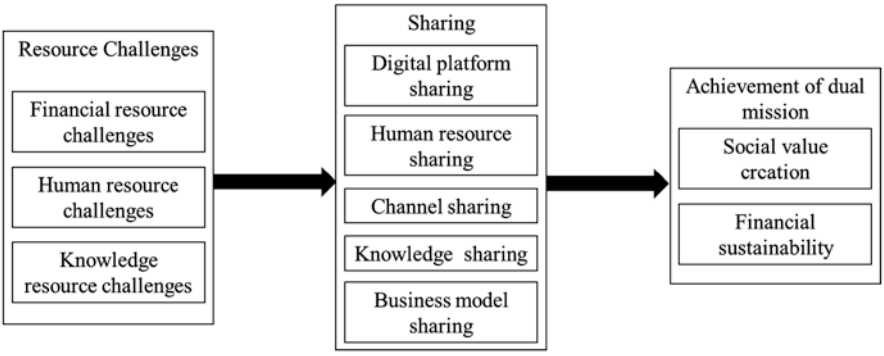

Fig. 7.3 Empirically grounded model of *FF*

sharing, and channel sharing. The human resource challenges were mitigated by digital platform sharing, human resource sharing, and knowledge resource sharing. The knowledge resource challenges were mitigated by knowledge sharing and business model sharing. With the successful mobilization of resources using the sharing economy model, *FF* has been able to address its social value creation objectives by helping farmers to come out of poverty and its financial sustainability objectives by creating revenue for its sustenance.

7.5 Discussion

In this study, we sought to explore the case of a social enterprise operating in the BoP context for understanding how the sharing economy model can be used by social enterprises to address their resource challenges. We found that by using different sharing such as digital platform sharing, human resource sharing, knowledge sharing, channel sharing, and business model sharing at various stages, the organization was able to address resource challenges and successfully address its financial sustainability and social value creation challenges. Our study contributes to the literature on social entrepreneurship and sharing economy literature. We articulate and discuss our contribution in the following section.

Extant social entrepreneurship literature has acknowledged the resource mobilization challenges faced by social enterprises (Desa & Basu, 2013; Doherty et al., 2014; Hota et al., 2019a; Seelos & Mair, 2013) and highlighted that understanding how social enterprises address their resource challenges is an interesting research topic (Agarwal et al., 2020; Hota et al., 2019b; McNamara et al., 2018). Our study addresses this call by exploring how social enterprises operating in the BoP context can leverage sharing economy model to overcome different resource challenges such as human resource challenges, financial resource challenges, and knowledge resource challenges. We specifically identified five different types of sharing useful

for such social enterprises such as digital platform sharing, human resource sharing, knowledge sharing, channel sharing, and business model sharing. Digital platform sharing is one interesting dimension that has gained significant attention in the sharing economy literature (Garud et al., 2020; Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018). However, the primary focus has been on the urban and developed economy context. We bring that idea to the BoP context and discuss how it helps social enterprises to address resource challenges. Similarly, other sharing such as human resource sharing (Mair & Reischauer, 2017; Wang et al., 2017), knowledge sharing (Pang et al., 2020; Qureshi & Fang, 2011; Qureshi et al., 2018a; Wang et al., 2020), and channel sharing (Choi et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019) have been discussed in the literature predominantly in a resource surplus environment, but we propose that they can be useful for addressing resource challenges of social enterprises operating in a resource-poor BoP context. Business model sharing is another interesting finding. Literature primarily discusses the business model design for sharing economy (Kumar et al., 2018; Ritter & Schanz, 2019). However, our findings suggest that organizations can also share business models with other organizations. In identifying different types of sharing and bringing them to the BoP context, our work also addresses the call for a better understanding of sharing economy in the BoP context (Schaefers et al., 2018; Wiprächtiger et al., 2019).

Our study also contributes to practice, as it can help the founders and managers of social enterprises by suggesting to them how they can mobilize resources when faced with resource challenges in the BoP context. In particular, our study identified different sharing, which will serve as a guideline for the social enterprises to plan for resource management and achievement of their dual mission. In sum, we hope that our work has laid the foundation for future research in the areas of sharing economy and resource mobilization in the BoP context.

7.6 Limitation and Future Research Direction

We choose the case of *FF* as it helps us to unpack novel dynamics, but this raises the issue of generalizability (Siggelkow, 2007). For instance, the BoP contexts themselves are so diverse and it might have different impacts on the organizational processes. So, we encourage researchers to engage in the replications, explore the extensions, and identify the boundary conditions of the insights of this study.

Our study suggests five different types of sharing that can be leveraged by social enterprises while faced with resource challenges. The degree of effectiveness of the different sharing can vary. But with a single case, we could not make a comparative study to understand the variation. We encourage future scholars to conduct multiple case studies and compare the variation in results (Eisenhardt, 1989). Similarly, more work is needed to understand which sharing mechanism is more effective for the short-term versus long-term resource challenges. Moreover, we observed sharing of business models to be one interesting dimension and future research can try to understand it in greater detail.

References

Acquier, A., Daudigeos, T., & Pinkse, J. (2017). Promises and paradoxes of the sharing economy: An organizing framework. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 125*, 1–10.

Agarwal, N., Chakrabarti, R., Prabhu, J. C., & Brem, A. (2020). Managing dilemmas of resource mobilization through jugaad: A multi-method study of social enterprises in Indian healthcare. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal, 14*(3), 419–443.

Angeli, F., & Jaiswal, A. K. (2015). Competitive dynamics between MNCs and domestic companies at the base of the pyramid: An institutional perspective. *Long Range Planning, 48*(3), 182–199.

Attri, P., & Bapuji, H. (2021). Digital discrimination in sharing economy at the base of the pyramid. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 209–234). Springer.

Austin, J., Stevenson, H., & Wei-Skillern, J. (2006). Social and commercial entrepreneurship: Same, different, or both? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 30*(1), 1–22.

Baron, D. P. (1995). Integrated strategy: Market and nonmarket components. *California Management Review, 37*(2), 47–65.

Battilana, J., & Lee, M. (2014). Advancing research on hybrid organizing–Insights from the study of social enterprises. *Academy of Management Annals, 8*(1), 397–441.

Belk, R. (2014). You are what you can access: Sharing and collaborative consumption online. *Journal of Business Research, 67*(8), 1595–1600.

Benkler, Y. (2006). *The wealth of networks: How social production transforms markets and freedom*. Yale University Press.

Bhatt, B. (2017). *The role of social enterprises in building inclusive social capital: Evidences from multi-case, qualitative field study*, Doctoral dissertation, Carleton University.

Bhatt. B. (2021). Ethical Complexity of Social Change: Negotiated Actions of a Social Enterprise. Journal of Business Ethics (forthcoming).

Bhatt, B., Qureshi, I., & Riaz, S. (2019). Social entrepreneurship in non-munificent institutional environments and implications for institutional work: Insights from China. *Journal of Business Ethics, 154*(3), 605–630.

Bhatt, B., Dembek, K., Hota, P. K., & Qureshi, I. (2021). Sharing economy model for the base of the pyramid: An ecosystem approach. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 301–316). Springer.

Bridgstock, R., Lettice, F., Özbilgin, M. F., & Tatli, A. (2010). Diversity management for innovation in social enterprises in the UK. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 22*(6), 557–574.

Bristow, G. (2010). Resilient regions: Re-'place'ing regional competitiveness. *Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy and Society, 3*(1), 153–167.

Brown, L. D., & Kalegaonkar, A. (2002). Support organizations and the evolution of the NGO sector. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 31*(2), 231–258.

Choi, T. M., Taleizadeh, A. A., & Yue, X. (2020). Game theory applications in production research in the sharing and circular economy era. *International Journal of Production Research, 58*(21), 6660–6669.

Christie, M. J., & Honig, B. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: New research findings. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 1–5.

Christopherson, S., Michie, J., & Tyler, P. (2010). Regional resilience: Theoretical and empirical perspectives. *Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy and Society, 3*(1), 3–10.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2016). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage.

Curtis, S. K., & Mont, O. (2020). Sharing economy business models for sustainability. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 266*, 121519.

Dees, J. G. (1998). *The meaning of social entrepreneurship*. Duke University.

Desa, G. (2012). Resource mobilization in international social entrepreneurship: Bricolage as a mechanism of institutional transformation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 36*(4), 727–751.

Desa, G., & Basu, S. (2013). Optimization or bricolage? Overcoming resource constraints in global social entrepreneurship. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal, 7*(1), 26–49.

Di Domenico, M., Haugh, H., & Tracey, P. (2010). Social bricolage: Theorizing social value creation in social enterprises. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 34*(4), 681–703.

Doherty, B., Haugh, H., & Lyon, F. (2014). Social enterprises as hybrid organizations: A review and research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 16*(4), 417–436.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(4), 532–550.

Eisenhardt, K. M., & Graebner, M. E. (2007). Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(1), 25–32.

Escobedo, M. B., Zheng, Z., & Bhatt, B. (2021). Socially oriented sharing economy platform in regional Australia: A Polanyian analysis. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 49–68). Springer.

Frenken, K., & Schor, J. (2019). Putting the sharing economy into perspective. In *A research agenda for sustainable consumption governance*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Galdini, R., & De Nardis, S. (2021). Not only for-profit. Sharing solidarity, promoting opportunities. A case study in Rome. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 25–48). Springer.

Garud, R., & Karnøe, P. (2003). Bricolage versus breakthrough: Distributed and embedded agency in technology entrepreneurship. *Research Policy, 32*(2), 277–300.

Garud, R., Kumaraswamy, A., Roberts, A., & Xu, L. (2020). Liminal movement by digital platform-based sharing economy ventures: The case of Uber Technologies. *Strategic Management Journal*. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.3148

Hira, A., & Reilly, K. (2017). The emergence of the sharing economy: Implications for development. *Journal of Developing Societies, 33*(2), 175–190.

Hota, P. K., Mitra, S., & Qureshi, I. (2019a). Adopting bricolage to overcome resource constraints: The case of social enterprises in rural India. *Management and Organization Review, 15*(2), 371–402.

Hota, P. K., Subramanian, B., & Narayanamurthy, G. (2019b). Mapping the intellectual structure of social entrepreneurship research: A citation/co-citation analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 166*, 1–26.

Hota, P. K., Qiu, S., & Bhatt, B. (2021). Ethitrade: Countering challenges of sharing economy at the base of the pyramid using technology. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 267–282). Springer.

Khanna, T., & Palepu, K. (1997). Why focused strategies may be wrong for emerging markets. *Harvard Business Review, 75*, 41–54.

Kistruck, G. M., & Beamish, P. W. (2010). The interplay of form, structure, and embeddedness in social intrapreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 34*(4), 735–761.

Kistruck, G. M., Webb, J. W., Sutter, C. J., & Ireland, R. D. (2011). Microfranchising in base–of–the–pyramid markets: Institutional challenges and adaptations to the franchise model. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 35*(3), 503–531.

Kistruck, G. M., Beamish, P. W., Qureshi, I., & Sutter, C. J. (2013). Social intermediation in base-of-the-pyramid markets. *Journal of Management Studies, 50*(1), 31–66.

Kitchen, L., & Marsden, T. (2009). Creating sustainable rural development through stimulating the eco-economy: Beyond the eco-economic paradox? *Sociologia Ruralis, 49*(3), 273–294.

Kolk, A., Rivera-Santos, M., & Rufín, C. (2014). Reviewing a decade of research on the "base/bottom of the pyramid" (BOP) concept. *Business & Society, 53*(3), 338–377.

Kostova, T., & Zaheer, S. (1999). Organizational legitimacy under conditions of complexity: The case of the multinational enterprise. *Academy of Management Review, 24*(1), 64–81.

Kumar, V., Lahiri, A., & Dogan, O. B. (2018). A strategic framework for a profitable business model in the sharing economy. *Industrial Marketing Management, 69*, 147–160.

Langley, A. (1999). Strategies for theorizing from process data. *Academy of Management Review, 24*(4), 691–710.

Laukkanen, M., & Tura, N. (2020). The potential of sharing economy business models for sustainable value creation. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 253*, 120004.

Li, G., Zhang, X., Chiu, S. M., Liu, M., & Sethi, S. P. (2019). Online market entry and channel sharing strategy with direct selling diseconomies in the sharing economy era. *International Journal of Production Economics, 218*, 135–147.

Locke, K. D. (2001). *Grounded theory in management research*. Sage.

London, T., Anupindi, R., & Sheth, S. (2010). Creating mutual value: Lessons learned from ventures serving base of the pyramid producers. *Journal of Business Research, 63*(6), 582–594.

Lumpkin, G. T., Moss, T. W., Gras, D. M., Kato, S., & Amezcua, A. S. (2013). Entrepreneurial processes in social contexts: How are they different, if at all? *Small Business Economics, 40*(3), 761–783.

Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2006). Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 36–44.

Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2009). Entrepreneurship in and around institutional voids: A case study from Bangladesh. *Journal of Business Venturing, 24*(5), 419–435.

Mair, J., & Reischauer, G. (2017). Capturing the dynamics of the sharing economy: Institutional research on the plural forms and practices of sharing economy organizations. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 125*, 11–20.

Mair, J., & Schoen, O. (2007). Successful social entrepreneurial business models in the context of developing economies: An explorative study. *International Journal of Emerging Markets, 2*(1), 54–68.

Mair, J., Marti, I., & Ventresca, M. J. (2012). Building inclusive markets in rural Bangladesh: How intermediaries work institutional voids. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*(4), 819–850.

McNamara, P., Pazzaglia, F., & Sonpar, K. (2018). Large-scale events as catalysts for creating mutual dependence between social ventures and resource providers. *Journal of Management, 44*(2), 470–500.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. Sage.

Möhlmann, M. (2015). Collaborative consumption: Determinants of satisfaction and the likelihood of using a sharing economy option again. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 14*(3), 193–207.

North, D. C. (1990). *Institutions, institutional change and economic performance*. Cambridge University Press.

Nungsari, M., & Chuah, H. Y. (2021). Participation in the sharing economy for refugees in Malaysia: A solution that bypasses legal constraints? In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 119–138). Springer.

Pandey, M., Bhati, M., Shukla, D. M., & Qureshi, I. (2021). Resourcing and value creation: A case of sharing economy model at the base of the pyramid. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 185–208). Springer.

Pang, S., Bao, P., Hao, W., Kim, J., & Gu, W. (2020). Knowledge sharing platforms: An empirical study of the factors affecting continued use intention. *Sustainability, 12*(6), 2341.

Parthiban, R., Qureshi, I., Bandyopadhyay, S., Bhatt, B., & Jaikumar, S. (2020). Leveraging ICT to overcome complementary institutional voids: Insights from institutional work by a social enterprise to help marginalized. *Information Systems Frontiers, 22*, 1–21.

Parthiban, R., Qureshi, I., Bandyopadhyay, S., & Jaikumar, S. (2021). Digitally mediated value creation for non-commodity base of the pyramid producers. *International Journal of Information Management, 56*, 102256.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Sage.

Peredo, A. M., & McLean, M. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: A critical review of the concept. *Journal of World Business, 41*(1), 56–65.

Perini, F., & Schwarten, G. (2013). *The power of sharing: Exploring the digital sharing economy at the base of the pyramid*. NESsT Publishing.

Pillai, V., Shukla, D. M., & Qureshi, I. (2021a). Social intermediation using sharing economy in India: A case study of Farmizen. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 93–118). Springer.

Pillai, V., Pandey, M., & Bhatt, B. (2021b). Social sustainability at BOP through building inclusive social capital: a case study of Drishtee. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 283–300). Springer.

Prahalad, C. K. (2004). *The fortune at the bottom of the pyramid: Eradicating poverty through profits*. Wharton School Publishing.

Prahalad, C. K., & Hart, S. L. (2002). Strategy+ business. *The Fortune at the Bottom of the Pyramid, 26*, 2–14.

Qiu, S., Xu, Z., & Bhatt, B. (2021). The Sharing economy platforms in rural China: Bridging institutional voids through institutional entrepreneurship. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 69–92). Springer.

Qureshi, I., Kistruck, G. M., & Bhatt, B. (2016). The enabling and constraining effects of social ties in the process of institutional entrepreneurship. *Organization Studies, 37*(3), 425–447.

Qureshi, I., Fang, Y., Haggerty, N., Compeau, D. R., & Zhang, X. (2018a). IT-mediated social interactions and knowledge sharing: Role of competence-based trust and background heterogeneity. Information Systems Journal, 28(5), 929-955.

Qureshi, I., Sutter, C., & Bhatt, B. (2018b). The transformative power of knowledge sharing in settings of poverty and social inequality. *Organization Studies, 39*(11), 1575–1599.

Qureshi, I., & Fang, Y. (2011). Socialization in open source software projects: A growth mixture modeling approach. Organizational Research Methods, 14(1), 208-238.

Qureshi, I., Bhatt, B., & Shukla, D. M. (2021a). Overview of sharing economy at the base of the pyramid. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 1–24). Springer.

Qureshi, I., Bhatt, B., & Shukla, D. M. (2021b). Sharing economy at the base of the pyramid-research framework and future directions. In I. Qureshi, B. Bhatt, & D. M. Shukla (Eds.), *Sharing Economy at the base of the pyramid: Opportunity and challenges* (pp. 317–328). Springer.

Qureshi, I., Pan, S. L., & Zheng, Y. (2021c). Digital social innovation: An overview and research framework. *Information Systems Journal, 35*(1), 1–25.

Riaz, S., & Qureshi, I. (2017). Emergence of a new institutional logic: Shaping the institutionally complex field of community radio in India. In *Emergence*. Emerald Publishing Limited.

Ritter, M., & Schanz, H. (2019). The sharing economy: A comprehensive business model framework. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 213*, 320–331.

Rivera-Santos, M., & Rufín, C. (2010). Global village vs. small town: Understanding networks at the Base of the Pyramid. *International Business Review, 19*(2), 126–139.

Rivera-Santos, M., Rufin, C., & Kolk, A. (2012). Bridging the institutional divide: Partnerships in subsistence markets. *Journal of Business Research, 65*(12), 1721–1727.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2011). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Sage.

Sarker, S., Sarker, S., Sahaym, A., & Bjørn-Andersen, N. (2012). Exploring value cocreation in relationships between an ERP vendor and its partners: A revelatory case study. *MIS Quarterly, 36*(1), 317–338.

Schaefers, T., Moser, R., & Narayanamurthy, G. (2018). Access-based services for the base of the pyramid. *Journal of Service Research, 21*(4), 421–437.

Schneider, P., Folkens, L., Meyer, A., & Fauk, T. (2019). Sustainability and dimensions of a nexus approach in a sharing economy. *Sustainability, 11*(3), 909.

Schor, J. B., & Fitzmaurice, C. J. (2015). Collaborating and connecting: The emergence of the sharing economy. In *Handbook of research on sustainable consumption*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
Seelos, C., & Mair, J. (2007). Profitable business models and market creation in the context of deep poverty: A strategic view. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 21*(4), 49–63.
Seelos, C., & Mair, J. (2013). Innovate and scale: A tough balancing act. *Stanford Social Innovation Review, Summer*, 12–14.
Sengupta, T., Narayanamurthy, G., Moser, R., & Hota, P. K. (2019). Sharing app for farm mechanization: Gold Farm's digitized access based solution for financially constrained farmers. *Computers in Industry, 109*, 195–203.
Shalini, Manoharan, B., Parthiban, R., Qureshi, I., Bhatt, B., & Rakshit, K. (2021). Digital technology-enabled transformative consumer responsibilisation: A case study. *European Journal of Marketing*. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-02-2020-0139
Short, J. C., Moss, T. W., & Lumpkin, G. T. (2009). Research in social entrepreneurship: Past contributions and future opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal, 3*(2), 161–194.
Sigglekow, N. (2007). Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(1), 20–24.
Smith, A., Fressoli, M., & Thomas, H. (2014). Grassroots innovation movements: Challenges and contributions. *Journal of Cleaner Production, 63*, 114–124.
Spiggle, S. (1994). Analysis and interpretation of qualitative data in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 21*(3), 491–503.
Spulber, D. F. (1999). *Market microstructure: Intermediaries and the theory of the firm*. Cambridge University Press.
Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1967). *Discovery of grounded theory*. Routledge.
Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research techniques*. Sage.
Sutherland, W., & Jarrahi, M. H. (2018). The sharing economy and digital platforms: A review and research agenda. *International Journal of Information Management, 43*, 328–341.
Szabó, K. (2017). Institutional entrepreneurship: Agents' ability and activity for building up new institutions by combining existing elements. *Society and Economy, 39*(3), 359–383.
Viswanathan, M., Gajendiran, S., & Venkatesan, R. (2008). Understanding and enabling marketplace literacy in subsistence contexts: The development of a consumer and entrepreneurial literacy educational program in South India. *International Journal of Educational Development, 28*(3), 300–319.
Viswanathan, M., Sridharan, S., Ritchie, R., Venugopal, S., & Jung, K. (2012). Marketing interactions in subsistence marketplaces: A bottom-up approach to designing public policy. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 31*(2), 159–177.
Wallenstein, J., & Shelat, U. (2017). Hopping aboard the sharing economy. *Boston Consulting Group, 22*, 2017.
Wang, Y., Wei, L., Weiru, C., Leiblein, M., Lieberman, M., & Markman, G. (2017). Challenges and opportunities in the sharing economy. *Journal of Management Studies*.
Wang, C., Mei, J., & Feng, J. (2020). Exploring influencing factors of offline knowledge service transactions on an online-to-offline knowledge-sharing economy platform. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-12-2019-0702
Wiprächtiger, D., Narayanamurthy, G., Moser, R., & Sengupta, T. (2019). Access-based business model innovation in frontier markets: Case study of shared mobility in Timor-Leste. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 143*, 224–238.
Yin, R. K. (1994). Discovering the future of the case study. Method in evaluation research. *Evaluation Practice, 15*(3), 283–290.
Zhao, E. Y., & Lounsbury, M. (2016). An institutional logics approach to social entrepreneurship: Market logic, religious diversity, and resource acquisition by microfinance organizations. *Journal of Business Venturing, 31*(6), 643–662.

Pradeep Kumar Hota is a postdoctoral scholar at the Australian National University. His research interest lies in the areas of hybrid organizations, social entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship, and sustainable development. He particularly engages in research that investigates social entrepreneurial initiatives in rural areas aimed at improving the livelihood of the village poor.

Sumit Mitra is Professor of Strategic Management at the Indian Institute of Management Kozhikode, India. He actively engages in researching issues of entrepreneurship, including social and women entrepreneurship. His publications have appeared in the Journal of World Business, Management and Organization Review, China and World Economy and others.