Consumer intentions to use collaborative economy platforms: A meta-analysis

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest

Funding acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada (SSHRC) [grant number 430-2018-00415].

Data availability statement

The data is accessible from the authors upon reasonable request

Author biographies

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Abstract

Collaborative economy platforms (CEP) have been investigated from various disciplines, theoretical frameworks, and methodological approaches. Subsequently, numerous models emerged to explain the cognitive process underlying intentions to use CEP. Yet, their findings are fragmented and diverse, impeding thereby theory development and management practice. This paper addresses this deficiency by a meta-analysis of psychosocial determinants of collaborative economy platforms (CEP) use intentions. Based on information from a total of 27 independent samples, we find support for the relation between psychosocial determinants and CEP use intentions, as well as willingness to pay a premium price on CEP. The findings show that: (1) emotional and flexibility utility exert the strongest influence on use intentions; (2) functional and social utility exert more influence on willingness to pay a premium price; (3) CEP are primarily used for enjoyment and practical purposes; and, (4) hedonism does not strongly lead to an increased willingness to pay.

Keywords: Collaborative economy; collaborative economy platforms; sharing economy; meta-analytic structural equation modeling (MASEM); factors; intentions; willingness to pay.

Introduction

Collaborative economy platforms (CEP) refer to web-mediated (or technology-mediated) collaborative economy (CE) configurations (May et al., 2017) that enable consumers to both use and provide, temporarily or permanently, valuable resources or services through direct interaction with others or through an intermediary (Ertz et al., 2019; Belk, 2014). Several studies have already sought to explore CEP. For example, Armstrong

Soule and Hanson (2022) investigate secondhand exchanges in the context of the platform economy, whereas Sun et al. (2022) determined that there are no less than seven different CEP types. Besides, since an increasing number of CEP seek to convert non-users into users and assess willingness to pay (WTP) for using their premium services, academic research has increasingly studied consumers' intention to use CEP while WTP is less prevalent. Consequently, a substantial body of empirical research has been accumulated on intentions to engage in CEP (e.g., Hamari et al., 2016; Ertz et al., 2021; Akin et al., 2021; Chung et al., 2022). Research findings to date, however, are rather fragmented and inconclusive. Most studies denote isolated attempts to explain CEP use by a few specific factors. Furthermore, research designs, as well as construct terminologies and variable operationalizations, are diverse, leading to confusion and misunderstanding. Besides, CEP studies are subject to idiosyncratic, i.e., context-specific, effects on research findings. It has thus become imperative to systematically review and summarize the topical literature on CEP use intentions. This paper presents the first step in that direction.

The purpose of this paper is to review the topical literature on CEP intentions and WTP to construct a predictive model of CEP usage intentions and WTP a premium price on CEP. It answers the following research questions:

1) What are the factors influencing intentions to use CEP?
2) What are the factors influencing willingness to pay a premium price on CEP?

To answer both questions, the model proposed and tested in this study entails a unidirectional predictive relationship and is displayed in Figure 1. The posited relationships in the model, which will be tested in this study, constitute a synthesis and amalgamation of previous empirical work and represent the basis for our review. This study thus advances

the topical literature by synthesizing prior knowledge on determinants of CEP usage intentions, as well as the WTP on CEP using meta-analytic structural equation modeling (MASEM).

This research is relevant to a variety of stakeholders, including managers, analysts, consumers, and the public at large. With the rise in collaborative platforms during the Covid-19 pandemic (Newcomer, 2020), CEP might become even more central to consumers' lives and business operations in the future. To equip managers and decision-makers with critical insights to craft relevant strategies pertaining to CEP, specifically to increase usage and profits, a solid understanding of the underlying cognitive process of consumer recourse to such platforms (i.e., intentions) and pay for them (i.e., WTP) is necessary. This study aims to provide the required basic understanding and valuable insights. The study is also relevant to researchers in different disciplines because it synthesizes the fragmented results about CEP motivations and barriers into an integrated and empirically-supported model, following rigorous meta-analytic structural equation modeling (MASEM).

By summarizing the quantitative and generalizable research findings from a broad set of research papers, the study provides a reliable model on the key variables that are most important in determining CEP intentions and WTP on CEP.

This study contributes meaningfully to theory and practice in several ways. It contributes to the literature on the theoretical formalization of CE and, in particular, CEP (e.g., Cheng, 2016; Zervas et al., 2017; Möhlmann, 2015; Sun et al., 2022) through quantitative rigor and theoretical soundness. As the first meta-analysis of determinants to CEP, this study facilitates comparing, contrasting, and prioritizing key factors based on

their impact. This is crucial as it can inform managers on the psychological and behavioral variables to modulate in order to increase usage and profits. While extant research investigated variables that influence usage and profits, results have been mixed, inconclusive, and scattered across the literature. This study draws on that corpus of literature to settle mixed results and offer a comprehensive framework of the cognitive process underlying greater usage and profits in a CEP context.

Theoretical framework

Past research has used five major theoretical frameworks to predict usage: (1) expectancy-value theories comprising the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980), theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985), and the perceived value theory (PVT) (Gallarza et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2017) ; (2) social theories such as the social determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1980), the social exchange theory (Emerson, 1976), the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), the social capital theory (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998); (3) ethics theories such as the general marketing ethics theory (Hunt & Vittel, 1986) and the justice theory (Adams, 1965); (4) technology acceptance theory such as technology acceptance model (TAM) (Davis, 1989); and (5) utilitarian theories such as the emerging adulthood theory (Arnett, 2000, 2016), the prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), and the gratification theory (Blumler, 1979).

These frameworks have incorporated a variety of constructs to explain intentions and WTP in several studies (e.g., Lacan & Desmet, 2017; Roos & Hahn, 2017; Mao & Lyu, 2017; Oyedele & Simpson, 2018; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018; Yin et al., 2018). Intentions refer to motivational factors for adopting a behavior and indicate a certain willingness to adopt a given behavior and the efforts required to perform that behavior

(Ajzen, 1991). WTP, a premium price, is a maximal price that an individual is willing to pay for a specified product (Smith & Nagle, 1994). These constructs will be equally investigated given the strategic importance of intentions and WTP for managers.

The literature review revealed a set of variables on which a predictive model for CEP intentions and WTP can be elaborated. These variables (see Figure 1) correspond to typical constructs from the five theoretical frameworks mentioned previously. To improve the validity of the study, we focused on relationships that were found significant in empirical testing in the literature without providing an exhaustive account of all relationships considered so far by researchers. The ensuing model includes variables from the utilitarian theories, including different dimensions of perceived utility, perceived value as well as perceived risk. While morality is treated as a utility type, it refers directly to ethical theories. In fact, the sustainability-oriented and prosocial benefits derived from collaborative systems (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018; Tussyadiah, 2016) contribute to well-being and quality of life, thus constituting a form of utility. Likewise, social utility refers to social theories. The attitude variable comes from the TAM and expectancy-value theories (i.e., TRA/TPB), while subjective norms refer more specifically to TRA/TPB. Table 1 summarizes definitions of each construct and cites supporting CEP literature in which the respective constructs are investigated. The following parts on hypotheses development are thus exclusively based on the findings derived from those publications.

[INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE]

[INSERT TABLE 1 HERE]

The utilitarian framework constitutes the first framework in the model, and its variables are thus presented next.

Risk and value. Perceived risk is an expectation about the potential loss in adopting a behavior (Mao & Lyu, 2017; Trang et al., 2015). Researchers have investigated various risks that individuals perceive in collaborative exchanges, such as; loss of human interaction (e.g., Trang et al., 2015); lower quality; non-delivery; loss of money (e.g., Pappas, 2017). The literature has demonstrated that perceived risk is negatively related to both perceived value (Zhu et al., 2017; Trang et al., 2015) and intentions (Mao & Lyu, 2017; Trang et al., 2015; Pappas, 2017; Lee et al., 2018). Therefore:

> **H1**: Perceived risk in using CEP is negatively related to (a) perceived value in using CEP and (b) intentions to use CEP.

Perceived value. The perception of value is an expectation about potential gain in adopting a behavior (Mao & Lyu, 2017). For example, collaborative exchange represents a great variety of perceived value (e.g., time savings, locational benefits) (Chen & Tsai, 2008; Chen & Lin, 2015). Furthermore, several studies empirically support the relationship between perceived value and attitudes. For example, the perceived value of a ridesharing application is positively related to attitudes towards the app (Zhu et al., 2017), while the perceived value of Airbnb has a positive influence on attitude towards Airbnb (Mao & Lyu, 2017). Besides, perceived value has a favorable impact on collaborative intentions (Zhu et al., 2017; Mao & Lyu, 2017; Trang et al., 2015) and should be construed as a direct antecedent to intentions. Therefore:

> **H2**: Perceived value in using CEP is positively related to (a) attitudes towards CEP and (b) intentions to use CEP.

Attitudes. Attitude is an individual's overall evaluation of performing a behavior (Davis, 1989). Theoretical frameworks, such as TPB/TRA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980),

support a relationship between attitudes towards collaborative systems and intentions to perform collaborative exchange (e.g., Bucher et al., 2016; Lindblom, 2018; Hawlitschek et al., 2018). Although many studies have directly studied the influence of perceived value and intention (e.g., Hamari et al., 2016; Roos & Hahn, 2017; Garau-Vadell et al., 2018), attitude is found to significantly mediate the impact of value beliefs and intentions (Zhu et al., 2017, 2010), positing attitudes as a mediator between perceived value and intentions. Therefore:

H3: Attitudes towards CEP are positively related to intentions to use CEP.

The utilitarian framework posits that consumers' reservation prices and WTP are a direct function of their expected/targeted utility. CEP should therefore present a specific form of utility to compel consumers to pay an extra price.

Perceived utility related. There are different forms of utility, and we defer the definition of each construct to Table 1. Past research emphasized that each of these utility forms significantly impact intentions to use CEP (Zhu et al., 2017; Oyedele & Simpson, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018b). Hawlitschek et al. (2018) found that disadvantages, relative to advantages, had a less significant negative impact on intentions through attitude. Therefore, perceived utilities appear more impactful than disutility. Therefore:

H4: Perceived (a) functional, (b) social, (c) emotional, (d) economic, (e) flexibility, and (f) moral utility influence positively intentions to use CEP.

Drawing on social theories, ethical theories, and the overall utilitarian framework, extant research further highlights the interconnectedness between various forms of

perceived utility such as functional, social, and emotional utility and WTP a premium price for a collaborative system experience (Zhang et al., 2018b). Therefore:

> **H5**: Perceived (a) functional, (b) social, and (c) emotional utility positively impact WTP a premium price on a CEP.

Trust. Trust is a subjective perception referring to the feeling of safety and confidence that each party will fulfill its obligations (Ert et al., 2016; Lee & Kim, 2018; Wu et al., 2017). Possibly the most important antecedent, trust, is a critical construct in the CE (Botsman & Rogers, 2010) since the most cited barrier to collaborative exchange encompasses mistrust among strangers' privacy concerns (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018;), but also "trust through technology" (Keymolen, 2013). For example, Airbnb requires interpersonal trust (guests-hosts), trust toward technology (guests-platform; provider-platform), and trust toward the company with data privacy (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018). These layers complexify trust, but once established, trust positively impacts intentions (e.g., Lee et al.,2018; Cho & Kim, 2016; Kim et al., 2018). Therefore:

> **H6**: Trust is positively related to intentions to use CEP.

Behavior-related. Both familiarity and use frequency constitute behavioral variables highlighting a user's experience with CEP. Familiarity refers to the accumulated experience with CEP and an advanced understanding of its features (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018). The more individuals become familiar with collaborative exchange systems, the more likely they will use such systems (e.g., Moeller & Wittkowski, 2010). This occurs because, with increased familiarity, users develop more positive attitudes toward collaborative systems (Hawlitschek et al., 2018). Several effects of familiarity on intentions

have been identified (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018), suggesting a predictive relationship between both constructs[1]. Therefore:

H7: Familiarity with CEP is positively related to intentions to use CEP.

The frequency of usage of a collaborative system refers to the number of times that system has been used in order to conduct exchanges (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018; Pinotti & Moretti, 2018). It was demonstrated that the more an individual has experience with peer-to-peer accommodation, the more they are likely to use it in the future (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018). Therefore:

H8: Use frequency positively relates to intentions to use CEP.

Norms and values related. There are two recurring types of variables that tend to be value- and norm-laden, namely materialism and subjective norms. Materialism holds that income, material possession, and wealth are important for achieving happiness in life (Yin et al., 2018; Ajzen, 1991; Belk, 1985). In the field of CE, past research mainly investigated the impact of materialism in mutualization and sharing exchanges. Through diverse objects of study, such as commercial sharing systems (Akbar et al., 2016), public bicycle sharing schemes (Yin et al., 2018), or toy-lending libraries (Ozanne & Ballantine, 2010), researchers found evidence that materialism is a significant inhibitor of mutualization. These results match those obtained in studies of conventional rental consumption (e.g., Durgee & O'Connor, 1995). Therefore:

H9: Materialism relates negatively to intentions to use CEP.

[1] Familiarity is also thought to affect flexibility utility, but there is not enough empirical evidence to support this relationship.

As one of the variables constituting the TPB/TRA, subjective norms represent another normative construct pertaining to the social pressure of significant others to perform or not a collaborative behavior (Roos & Hahn, 2017). Therefore, subjective norms refer to an individual's perception of how significant others view a behavior, namely CEP usage. Several authors found a positive relationship between this construct and intentions (e.g., Roos & Hahn, 2017; Mao & Lyu, 2017; Trang et al., 2015; Hawlitschek et al., 2018). Therefore:

H10: Subjective norms relate positively to intentions to use CEP.

The model in Figure 1 synthesizes different empirical results within a unified framework drawing back on existing theories for explaining CEP usage intentions and WTP. In contrast to other studies that have examined antecedents for specific collaborative exchange systems (e.g., renting, peer-to-peer lending, peer-to-peer sharing), and in specific geographical and social contexts, this study subsumes those limitations by analyzing the quantitative results of a vast array of studies to find the average coefficients pertaining to each path stipulated in the model. This approach produces less idiosyncratic, context-dependent, and collaborative exchange-dependent findings. The following section outlines more specifically the methodological approach undertaken to reach this objective.

Materials and methods

Collection and Coding of Studies

This study belongs to the meta-analytical review type (Paul and Criado, 2020) to test the integrative theoretical model presented in Figure 1. We follow the suggested guidelines to develop a review article. First, we focus on the novel topic (Paul and Criado, 2020) of

CEP. Second, we determine journal selection criteria, identifying streams and period coverage (Paul and Criado, 2020). According to Ertz and Leblanc-Proulx's (2018) bibliometric analysis, the key impetus for research on the CE was Botsman and Rogers' (2010) seminal book. We, therefore, searched publications for the period 2010-2018. Following Palmatier et al. (2006), we employed various research methods: (1) a search of ABI/Inform Global, EBSCO, ECONLit, JSTOR, PsycInfo/net, SCOPUS, and Web of Science databases. We used search keywords (Bamberg & Möser, 2007) comprising the following terms: "sharing economy," "collaborative consumption," and "collaborative economy" as these are the most common denominations of CEP (Ertz & Leblanc-Proulx, 2018) – and we verified for the study of actual online CE systems; (2) a search of the Social Sciences Citation Index, using seminal articles; (3) manual shelf searches of journals that contain empirical research on CEP; and (4) e-mails sent to researchers in the domain asking for their published and unpublished studies. We searched for scientific journal articles, book chapters, conference proceedings, and unpublished thesis. Because correlations are usually the most common metric included in empirical studies and constitute a conventional metric to conduct meta-analyses (Palmatier et al., 2006; Bamberg & Möser, 2007; Faber et al., 2018), we used correlations as input for the MASEM.

Inclusion Criteria

Third, we establish article search and inclusion criteria using keywords (Paul and Criado, 2020). The literature search resulted in a list of 3,481 publications matching the keywords. The next step involved a review of the publications in order to ensure that they meet the following five conditions (Bamberg & Möser, 2007): (1) use of the exact keywords in the title, abstract, and/or keywords; (2) use of a quantitative methodology; (3)

presence of a correlation matrix and sample size; and (4) conceptualization of CEP similar to the one presented in this paper; and (5) study of the antecedents of intentions to conduct exchanges on CEP.

Among the initial pool of 3,481 publications identified with the keywords "collaborative economy," "sharing economy," and "collaborative consumption," only 1,500 dealt with CEP. Furthermore, 600 publications out of the 1,500 used an empirical research approach, and 219 used a quantitative empirical analysis. Only 41 publications contained a correlation matrix and sample sizes with 75 correlations (*k*) and a combined *N* of 80,908. Further, only 22 publications used the variables included in our proposed framework of CEP use and WTP. Within these 22 different publications, 27 independent samples fulfill all the selection criteria. Table 2 summarizes the research questions, methods, and findings of those 22 publications. The corresponding 27 correlation matrices comprising 71 correlations (*k*), and yielding a combined *N* of 13,062, provide the input for calculating the pooled average correlations needed for the MASEM.

Data Items

The following information was extracted from each publication in keeping with the literature (Faber et al., 2018): 1) authors and date of publication, 2) the number of participants for each study, 3) sex of participants, 4) age range of participants, 5) measurement characteristics of the independent variables, 6) measurement characteristics of the dependent variable, and 7) the corresponding correlation coefficient.

Risk of Bias within Studies

The studies that were included in the MASEM relied on validated measures to assess the constructs under study, limiting possible bias. Besides, the studies did not rely extensively on university students, nor were they skewed towards any sex, albeit they may be skewed towards the generational cohort of Millennials. This is not critical since CEP attracts mostly Millennials (Mittendorf, 2018).

Modeling process

A standard two-stage MASEM process is conducted in line with Viswesvaran and Ones (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1995). First, following Bamberg and Möser (2007), (1) the correlation coefficients of construct pairs obtained from the primary studies are meta-analytically pooled; and (2) tested for homogeneity.

(1) We used Hedges and Olkin's (1985) three-step method for calculating the pooled correlations. First, the correlations from each study are converted into a standard normal metric using Fisher's r-to-Z transformation. Second, the transformed primary correlations are used to calculate a pooled mean correlation (Hedges & Olkin, 1985). Third, Cochran's Q statistic of homogeneity (Hedges & Olkin, 1985, p. 231) is calculated for each pooled correlation to measure effect size robustness (homogeneity). To compensate for the low power of the Q statistic (Gavaghan et al., 2000; Higgins et al., 2003), the I2 statistic was also calculated (Higgins et al., 2003; Higgins & Thompson, 2002). The details of the methodology can be found in the Appendix.

(2) We then used a Bonferroni-adjusted at-least-one approach to test the homogeneity of correlation matrices. The details of the hypothesis testing can be found in the Appendix, starting at the paragraph preceding Eq. (1).

Second, a structural equation modeling was then performed on the resulting pooled correlation matrix to conduct the MASEM.

Results

The average of the pooled correlations is 0.315. As shown in Table 3, they significantly range from 0.193 to 0.638. Although sample sizes are not large (488 to 3795), they remain in line with those used in other meta-analyses (e.g., Leonidou et al., 2002). Importantly, all results were homogeneous, showing normal *Q* statistics and I^2 values across associations.

[INSERT TABLE 3 HERE]

Meta-analytic Structural Equation Modeling Results

The fit of the model is good since the Chi-square/degree of freedom ratio is lower than 3 ($\chi^2_{(120)}$ = 155.49, p < .001). Figure 2 presents the outcomes of the estimated MASEM. Several findings empirically confirm the hypotheses of the integrated model. As such, numerous insights can be drawn from the examination of the impact of various antecedents on intentions to engage in collaborative exchanges.

[INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE]

As anticipated, perceived risk negatively affects perceived value (β = -0.096, p < .05) and intentions (β = -.360, p < .001), lending support to H1a-b. In contrast, perceived value is positively related to attitudes (β = .559, p < .001), and intentions (β = .621, p < .001),

collectively supporting H2a-b. The results support the mediational role of attitudes between value and intentions since attitudes positively relate to intentions (β = .445, p < .001), in as much as perceived value relates to attitudes and intentions while attitudes impact intentions. This finding supports H3.

Along with perceived value, emotional utility (β = 0.635, p < .001) and flexibility utility (β = 0.624, p < .001) have the largest absolute impact on intentions, in support of the importance of enjoyment and practicality of CEP (alternatively, the lack of emotional and comfort benefits could seriously undermine the attractiveness of CEP). Functional utility (β = 0.473, p < .001) and social utility (β = 0.449, p < .0001) antecedents have the greatest positive impact on WTP premium price. Although not all the value antecedents have been estimated on WTP, the greater impact of functional utility confirms the obvious importance of higher performance in exchange for higher prices within collaborative systems. Monetized CEP, therefore, provide superior value in comparison to conventional monetized consumption schemes. Relatively stronger influence of social utility on WTP premium price than on intentions (β = 0.206, p < .001) seems to reflect a difference in the operationalization of the construct at the measurement level rather than a genuine difference in the predictive power of one or the other concept. Functional utility seems equally important to predict intentions (β = 0.416, p < .001) as it is to forecast WTP. Economic (β = 0.372, p < .001) and moral utility (β = 0.370, p < .0001) are of equal importance in predicting intentions, further emphasizing the coupling of economic benefits and pro-environmental/prosocial motives related to CEP (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018). Collectively these results lend support to H4a-f and H5a-c.

Interestingly, despite showing directional, significant, and large effects, the theory of planned behavior framework, in terms of attitudes and subjective norms, provides less predictive power on intentions than emotional and flexibility utilities. Similarly, there is a significant but comparatively lower effect of trust (β = 0.420, p < .001), usually depicted as quintessential on CEP (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). This may evidence the accrued benefits of reputation mechanisms and secured exchange systems which temper the criticality of trust rather than lessening the importance of trust in the absolute. H6 is therefore supported.

From a behavioral perspective, use frequency (β = 0.222, p < .001) is less impactful than familiarity (β = 0.478, p < .001) on intentions. This is not surprising since use frequency is a mere quantitative indicator. In contrast, familiarity refers to a broader and more impactful set of factors explaining behavior, including accumulated knowledge and experiences (Oyedele and Simpson, 2018). These results lend support to both H7 and H8.

The model confirmed that materialism does not explain intentions (β = 0.082, n.s.), and H9 is thus rejected. This result seems to be explicable because we conceived of CEP as constitutive of both redistribution (i.e., transfer of ownership) and mutualization (i.e., no transfer of ownership) systems, and the publications under study examined both system types. However, materialism does not correspond well to redistribution practices that include the transfer of ownership (Lindblom et al., 2018) relative to mutualization systems (excluding the transfer of property rights). In other terms, materialism may not preclude redistribution activities because these activities entail ownership transfer and possessiveness, something valued by materialists who like to “hang on to things” while disliking “renting or leasing” (Belk, 1985, p. 270). As such, since the sampled studies

contained both mutualization and redistribution CEP types, the negative effect of materialism seems to have been mitigated.

Discussion

Discussion and theoretical implications

CEP are of increasing theoretical and practical relevance (Sun et al., 2022; Armstrong Soule and Hanson, 2022), and therefore researchers have devoted a lot of attention to studying the motivations and barriers to CEP usage intentions and, to a lesser extent, to the willingness to pay (WTP) a premium price for CEP services (e.g., Hamari et al., 2016; Ertz et al., 2021; Akin et al., 2021; Chung et al., 2022). The multiple studies conducted independently provided valuable theoretical insights into the factors driving CEP usage and WTP. Yet, this diversity of studies also created a sense of fragmentation and inconclusiveness regarding the relevant antecedents to CEP intentions and WTP. Besides, studies differ in their methodological designs, construct terminologies, or variable operationalizations.

In contrast to the studies comprised in the sample, which study the antecedents for CEP intentions and WTP independently (e.g., Pappas, 2017; Roos and Hahn, 2017), this research provides a holistic examination of factors that influence intentions to engage in CEP as well as the WTP a premium price on CEP using MASEM. A review of the results provides empirically anchored bases for preliminary theory-building. The model starts with perceived risk as the main antecedent. Although the risk may be well managed and attenuated through improved reputation mechanisms, the peer-to-peer and informal nature of many CEP schemes leaves room for “lemons problems” (Thierer et al., 2015). Some

digital collaborative platforms have mitigated risk by providing users with command controls and surveillance (Lamberton & Rose, 2012; Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012), scripting other users as neighbors (Akin et al., 2021), or using systems of legitimacy to spur confidence (Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018), but many other CEP (e.g., online resales) remain entirely based on trust and subject to abuse.

Consequently, trust remains an important construct with a highly significant impact on intentions, thus one of the key success factors of CEP, as identified early on by Botsman and Rogers (2010) and later by Akin et al. (2021). In sum, while perceived risk dampens intentions, the effect of trust is maintained on intentions, as initially suggested by the literature (Hamari et al., 2016; Oyedele & Simpson, 2018; Lamberton & Rose, 2012). Since the integrative framework shows a clear impact of trust on intentions, managers need to invest in trust-building mechanisms extensively based on technical processes such as matching-searching algorithms, background checks, competency tests, or robust reputation systems. Promising avenues lie in the integration of the blockchain, a technology that may bring in the much-needed transparency and decentralization within the CEP context (Zhou & Jia, 2019).

In line with expectancy-value theories (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980; Ajzen, 1985), beliefs about better value translate into more favorable attitudes. This means that the perception of the value of collaborative exchanges, a utilitarian construct, is associated with affective sentiments, a hedonic concept. In other words, individuals acknowledging the fact that Uber or Airbnb provide great value to users and providers alike will like or love these systems for a variety of reasons, including cheaper prices (Slee, 2015), flexibility in a

variety of consumption areas (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018), or the alternative and unconventional nature of CEP (Wang & Nicolau, 2017).

The finding that the largest effect is related to emotional and flexibility values rather than functional, economic, moral, or even social value (by order of importance) extends to the CE domain the conventional understanding that consumption relies on utilitarian and hedonic/experiential motives (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Babin et al., 1994) while bringing some nuances to the fore. Although germane with functional value, flexibility value is more concerned with convenience and ease of accessing a resource or service than its performance (i.e., functionality). Just like streaming applications, providing accessible content anywhere, anytime, for users (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018), the CE induces an "absence of limitations on product use" (Lamberton & Rose, 2012, p. 111) and is about access to products and services when, where, and how they are needed (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018). This is also the case in redistribution systems, especially with the advent of online C2C platforms that shorten the purchase-resale timeframe (Chu & Liao, 2007). This allows individuals to access any resource or service (e.g., food with UberEATs; groceries with InstaCart) in a continuous, endless, online, 24/7 cornucopia. CEP entail inherent streaming-like or playlist-like aspects, which reflect the highest levels of flexibility in consumption so far (Scholz, 2014). These results align with Sutherland and Jarrahi's (2018) findings that the major affordances of CE technologies, from an extensive 435-publication review, are essentially flexibility-based (i.e., generating flexibility, match-making, extending reach, managing transactions, and facilitating collectivity).

However, the lower impact of emotional utility on WTP than on intentions, compared to functional and social utility, is consistent with the fact that emotional utility remains an

integral motivator to CEP use, but individuals are not ready to pay a premium price –if any- for the additional emotional value associated with CEP. For example, in secondhand marketplaces, individuals enjoy the thrill associated with bargaining and deal-hunting (Bardhi & Arnould, 2005), the hunt for treasures, rare finds, antiques, and collectibles (Guiot & Roux, 2010), as well as the positive feeling of smart shopping (Mano & Elliott, 1997). Not paying more. Past research showed that these emotional benefits associated with thrift are even stronger in online C2C exchange marketplaces (Chu & Liao, 2007; Nissanoff, 2006). Both flexible and functional characteristics of online platforms increase the performance of exchanges. Resales, for example, enable consumers to easily write off the old product's value before purchasing a new product to avoid the feeling of waste (Purohit, 1995; Okada, 2001). Similar results can be found in mutualization systems (Bellotti et al., 2014; Bellotti et al., 2015). The enjoyment aspect is thus consubstantial with reduction or even the absence of price so that this autotelic construct will minimally impact WTP.

Conversely, the lower effect of social utility on intentions than on WTP suggests the reverse. In sum, the prospect of meeting other people, socializing, or spending time with others is the weakest predictor of CEP intentions. Past research emphasized that consumers primarily use CEP for personal benefit and only marginally for social interaction (e.g., Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). These results are even less at odds with the literature emphasizing how technology contributes to social isolation (Muhammad et al., 2019). In sum, as web-mediated technologies, CEP may contribute to social isolation by helping to avoid social interactions, as opposed to socialization, thus accounting for the low influence of social utility overall.

Familiarity and use frequency appear similar although distinct and proved their dissimilarity through respective differences in the impact on intentions. While familiarity strongly influenced intentions, use frequency impacted it in smaller proportions. Familiarity comprises both past experiences *and* understanding of the features of the CE (Oyedele & Simpson, 2018). In other words, experiences *combined with* advanced knowledge of the CE's features is a more decisive impetus for intentions than past experiences alone.

The non-significant impact of materialism on intentions aligns with Lindblom et al. (2018), who found that materialism does not prevent individuals from engaging, at least in redistribution exchange in CEP. This is possible because secondhand marketplaces resemble the conventional consumption market and its logic, enabling individuals to access products they could not afford full-price or would usually not buy (Lindblom et al., 2018). Yet, the fact that the majority of collaborative exchanges are of the redistribution type (Nielsen, 2014; PwC, 2015; Owyang et al., 2013), explains the lack of significant impact of materialism on overall intentions to engage in the CE, be it mutualization or redistribution (Ertz et al., 2016), i.e., whether there is a transfer of ownership or not (Hamari et al., 2016), respectively.

Managerial implications

The comparatively lower influence of attitudes than other utility-oriented variables or even perceived value may hint at the fact that affective polarity may be less decisive in the decision to engage in CEP than the perception of specific forms of value: particularly emotional and flexibility values. It is therefore incumbent on managers to show the

pleasure derived from collaborative systems as well as its seemingly stream-like nature: the access to any resource at any time.

The dissimilarity in impact between familiarity and user frequency mirrors the difference between relational and transactional relationships (Pels et al., 2000), in as much as mere user frequency can be equated with transactionalism. In contrast, familiarity can be paralleled with relationalism. Mere use is inferior in impact than use coupled with a deeper insight into the system feature and benefits. This shows the importance for managers to communicate on a constant basis with their users about the benefits and features of CEP. The rationale is that extended knowledge will form greater familiarity, providing more insight, experience, and knowledge, all of which extend beyond the quantitative metric of mere usage.

Limits and future research avenues

A limitation of the current meta-analytic approach is that all studies used a cross-sectional design. Besides, studies relied on surveys to assess the variables under study. Therefore, subsequent studies should use the present meta-analytic framework as a foundational component for experiments and longitudinal studies in order to determine causality. It must also be noted that the majority of the studies are biased towards Millennials, confining the conclusions to this type of population. Although Millennials are the most active segment in CEP (PwC, 2015; Pels et al., 2000), more diverse samples could also allow examining generational cohort, sex, income, education, or civil status effects on the model.

As shown in the sampling section, the research field remains dominated by conceptual works and qualitative research (e.g., Ertz et al., 2018). Therefore, the current meta-analytic endeavor is also based on a relatively limited set of studies. This is complicated by the risk of excluding relevant publications for a variety of reasons (e.g., unpublished thesis or dissertation, non-digital format, publication language other than English). For example, Makkar (2019) introduced the concept of socio-material conditions and narratives used by platforms and users to draw attention to their content, which might then turn non-users into users. Yet, these constructs could not be included due to a lack of quantitative examination. Future research could further use hypothetic-deductive approaches to test those numerous conceptual and qualitative works to further enrich the theoretical basis of CEP studies.

Although we focused on those variables that matched the inclusion criteria, it is worth mentioning that other antecedents may impact CEP intentions and WTP. This ties back to a methodological limitation of the meta-analysis, which necessitates exclusive reliance on quantitative empirical findings conducted in the framework of hypothetico-deductive research designs. The absence of some variables does not necessarily mean we exclude them from the overall framework, but rather that we have not found (enough) supporting empirical evidence in the literature to include them. Future research using quantitative methods to test qualitative propositions as well as mixed-methods methodologies may provide additional insights into the study of such additional constructs. Therefore, additional studies could augment the proposed framework with additional relevant variables.

Appendix

MASEM – Stage 1: Univariate Analysis

In the first stage, the correlation coefficients of construct pairs obtained from the primary studies are meta-analytically pooled and tested for homogeneity (Bamberg & Möser, 2007). We use Hedges and Olkin's (1985) three-step method for calculating the pooled correlations. First, the correlations from each study are converted into a standard normal metric using Fisher's *r*-to-*Z* transformation. Second, the transformed primary correlations are then used to calculate a pooled mean correlation, in which each primary correlation is weighted by the inverse of its within-study variance, which is known as the "fixed-effects" model (Hedges & Olkin, 1985, p. 231). Third, Cochran's *Q* statistic of homogeneity (Hedges & Olkin, 1985, p. 231) is calculated for each pooled correlation to measure effect size robustness (homogeneity). The *Q* statistic has been shown to have low power as a comprehensive heterogeneity test when the number of studies is small (Gavaghan et al., 2000) or large (Higgins et al., 2003). To compensate for this limitation, the I^2 statistic was also calculated. This statistic describes the percentage of variation across studies due to heterogeneity rather than chance (sampling error) independent of the number of studies (Higgins et al., 2003; Higgins & Thompson, 2002). Both *Q* and I^2 are reported in Table 3. According to Higgins et al. (2003), an I^2 of 25% might be considered low, 50% moderate, and 75% high. As can be seen, in Table 3, most I^2 statistics are above 75% and marginally close to 100%, indicating that it is heterogeneity rather than chance (sampling error) that accounts for the variation across studies. Given the great variety in contexts of the various studies, this is not surprising but worth mentioning.

In addition to the sensitivity of the *Q*-test to sample size, the *Q*-test was further developed for univariate *z*-values (Bamberg & Möser, 2007). Thus, we used a Bonferroni-

adjusted at-least-one approach for testing the homogeneity of correlation matrices. The *Q* statistic was therefore calculated as follows (Hedges & Vevea, 1998, p. 490):

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i(T_i - \bar{T}.)^2 \quad (1)$$

The hypothesis of homogeneity is to be rejected if at least one of the elements of a pooled correlation matrix is heterogeneous across studies. In case the heterogeneity tests are insignificant, this means that the fixed-effects model is appropriate for calculating the pooled correlation matrix. However, when these tests show heterogeneity, applying a fixed-effects model is not adequate (Hunter & Schmidt, 2000). In this case, the random-effects model had to be used for pooling the correlations. A random-effect model signifies that for calculating the pooled correlations, we weight the single primary studies by using the inverse of a variance term incorporating within-study as well as the between-studies variance for calculating the pooled correlations. We estimate the between-studies variance component by applying a non-iterative method based on the results of the *Q*-statistic (Hedges & Vevea, 1998, p. 492). The pooled random-effects correlation matrix is thus recalculated with these new weights and converted back to the r metric.

The confidence intervals for the mean effect size were estimated with Hedges and Vevea's (1998) equation using the Fisher's *r*-to-*Z* transformation with the random effect model weights. The confidence limits are then converted back to the *r* metric. The confidence limits are shown in Table 3.

$$L^* = \bar{T}_.^* - z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}\sqrt{v_.^*} \leq \mu \leq \bar{T}_.^* + z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}\sqrt{v_.^*} \quad (2)$$

Finally, we computed Orwin's *Fail-safe N*, which determines the number of missing studies that would bring the overall effect to a specified level other than zero (Orwin, 1983).

This typically allows modeling a series of other distributions for those missing studies (Begg & Mazumdar, 1994). For example, if Orwin's *Fail-safe N* is 103, "there would need to be over 100 studies with a mean risk ratio of 1.0 added to the analysis before the cumulative effect would become trivial (defined as a risk ratio of 1.05)" (Borenstein et al., 2011, p. 7). If none are required, the risk of the cumulated effect is already trivial, and lower N amounts hint at the closeness to triviality. We use Orwin's (1983, p. 157) original formula:

$$N_{fs} = (N_0/Z_c^2)(N_0\bar{Z}_0^2 - Z_c^2) \quad (3)$$

One common problem in synthesizing correlation matrices is that studies involve different variables and different paths. The most common way to handle this issue is to estimate the elements of the pooled correlation matrix based on different numbers of studies (i.e., pairwise deletion) (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1995). However, when the pairwise deletion is used to generate pooled correlation matrices, the elements of this correlation matrix are based on different sample sizes. This issue worsens when the number of variables increases in a model. For example, with 9 variables, 36 pooled mean correlations are necessary for testing the model. In our case, with 16 variables, this would require 120 correlations. Yet, with only 27 correlation matrices available, this means that the 27 samples included in the meta-analysis would vary considerably over these 120 cells. Furthermore, while many independent primary correlations were available for some associations (e.g., attitude-intentions), only one would be available for others (Bamberg & Möser, 2007). In line with Faber et al. (2018, p. 432-434), we decided to focus on the correlations for the key relationships in the meta-analytic models instead of including the correlations involving all possible inter-construct associations of the meta-analytic

framework (e.g., functional utility-social utility). Consequently, the pooled correlation matrix contained only pooled correlations found in the meta-analytic framework. We used this pooled correlation matrix as input for the MASEM.

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Table 1. Variables definitions, aliases, and representative studies

Constructs	Definitions	Common aliases	Representative papers
Antecedents			
Perceived risk	Subjectively determined expectation of a potential loss when pursuing a desired collaborative exchange	Risk perception; risk	Trang et al. (2015); Zhu et al. (2017); Mittendorf (2018); Pappas (2017); Lee et al. (2018)
Perceived value	Subjectively determined expectation of a potential gain when pursuing a desired collaborative exchange	Value; utility; value perception; benefits; perceived benefits	Zhu et al. (2017); Trang et al. (2015); Mao and Lyu (2017)
Functional utility	Perceived utility acquired from a collaborative system's capacity for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance	Perceived usefulness; Shareaids; Amenities; Locational benefits; functional value	Lacan and Desmet (2017); Zhang et al. (2018a, 2018b); Oyedele and Simpson (2018); Zhu et al. (2017)
Social utility	Benefits or relative advantages that accrue to collaborative system participants in the form of approval of reference groups	Social interactions; social benefits; social value; social motives; social aspects; social appeal	Tussyadiah (2016); Pappas (2017); Oyedele and Simpson (2018); Zhang et al. (2018a); Zhu et al. (2017)
Emotional utility	Autotelic nature of the activity of collaborative exchange or enjoyment derived from the activity itself	Enjoyment; emotional value; hedonic motivation	Kim et al. (2018); Pinotti and Moretti (2018); Tussyadiah (2016); Hamari et al. (2016); Pappas (2017); Zhang et al. (2018a); Zhu et al. (2017)
Economic utility	Deal value perceived in a collaborative system	Economic benefits; financial benefits; transaction utility; monetary motives; economic aspects; economic appeal	Hamari et al. (2016); Garau-Vadell et al. (2018); Pinotti and Moretti (2018); Tussyadiah (2016); Pappas (2017); Zhang et al. (2018a)
Flexibility utility	Absence of limitations on resource use in a collaborative system	Access; flexibility	Oyedele and Simpson (2018) study 1; Oyedele and Simpson (2018) study 2
Moral utility	Sustainability-oriented and environment-friendly benefits derived from the use of collaborative systems	Prosocial utility; sustainability orientation; moral motives	Oyedele and Simpson (2018) study 1; Oyedele and Simpson (2018) study 2; Tussyadiah (2016)
Attitude	Psychological emotion about and positive or negative	Evaluation; affect	Mao and Lyu (2017); Zhu et al. (2017); Roos and Hahn

	evaluation of performing a collaborative behavior		(2017); Hamari et al. (2016); Garau-Vadell et al. (2018); Bucher et al. (2016); Lindblom et al. (2018); Lacan and Desmet (2017)
Trust	Feeling of confidence and security in the collaborative exchange	Confidence; security	Mittendorf (2018); Pappas (2017); Cho and Kim (2016); Lee et al. (2018); Tussyadiah (2016); Kim et al. (2018)
Familiarity	Accumulated experience with a collaborative system and the advanced understanding of its features and flexibility	Experience;	Oyedele and Simpson (2018) study 1; Oyedele and Simpson (2018) study 2
Use frequency	Quantified recourse to a collaborative system	Travel frequency; pre-experience	Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2018); Pinotti and Moretti (2018)
Subjective norms	Perception of whether significant referents approve or disapprove of the collaborative behavior	Perceived opinions;	Roos and Hahn (2017); Mao and Lyu (2017); Trang et al. (2015)
Materialism	Importance individuals place on material goods as a means for reaching important life goals	Possessiveness; non-generosity	Yin et al. (2018); Lindblom et al. (2018)
Conative factors			
Willingness to pay a premium	Premium price for the collaborative system experience in the pre-/mid-/post-exchange stages	Will; likelihood	Zhang et al. (2018b) study 1, Zhang et al. (2018b) study 2; Zhang et al. (2018b) study 3
Intentions	Proxy of likely behavior to engage in a collaborative exchange that is often unobservable and the best indicator of behavior	Behavioral intentions; future intentions; willingness; adoption intention	Mao and Lyu (2017); Tussyadiah (2016);

Table 2. Summary of the research questions, methods, and findings of the retained 22 publications

Authors (year)	**Summary of the research questions**	**Methods**	**Findings**
Bucher et al. (2016)	This article examines the different motivations for sharing via the Internet and their role in shaping the attitudes towards sharing personal property in commercial and non-commercial contexts.	Qualitative and quantitative /questionnaire inquiry; It first develops a scale of sharing motives and then employs a sharing motivation model based on the theory of planned behavior.	The findings indicate that moral, social-hedonic, and monetary motivations drive sharing attitudes. The most critical role affecting sharing attitudes is social-hedonic motivation, followed by moral motivation and monetary motivation. Materialism (monetary), sociability (social-hedonic), and volunteering (moral) can be used as predictors of sharing motivation in different sharing contexts.
Bokyeong & Cho (2016)	Taking the accommodation sharing economy as an example, this research examines the impact of justice dimensions (i.e., procedural justice, interactional justice, distributive Justice) and perceived values (i.e., Perceived price, Perceived trust, Perceived experience) on customer intentions, satisfaction, and loyalty.	Online survey and quantitative methods (e.g., factor analysis, regression, and ANOVA).	The dimensions of justice and perceived values are significant and effective in improving customer satisfaction and loyalty, and satisfaction positively affects loyalty.
Garau-Vadell et al. (2019)	This study attempts to investigate how the perception of the impact of peer-to-peer accommodation sharing activities affects the attitudes and support of local residents.	Structured self-administered questionnaires ; Structural equation model	The findings show that the support of residents is directly and positively influenced by their perceptions of social and cultural influences, especially economic influences. However, the impact of the perception of environmental impact is not significant. Compared with the attitudes towards the sharing economy and local economic conditions, the perceptions of local residents depend to a large extent on whether they personally benefit from the peer-to-peer accommodation activities.
Hamari et al. (2016)	This article investigates people's motivations for participating in collaborative consumption.	Questionnaire; Structural equation modeling	The results show that participation in collaborative consumption is driven by many factors such as the sustainability of consumption activities, enjoyment of activities, and economic benefits. Interestingly, sustainability might only be an essential factor for those who value eco-consumption. In addition, it also indicates that there may be an attitude-behavior gap in collaborative consumption, that is, people's positive attitudes in collaborative

			consumption do not necessarily translate into practical actions.
Kim et al. (2018)	This research attempts to answer why in the online hospitality exchange networks, hosts help strangers without any expected financial benefits.	A Web survey conducted with CouchSurfing hosts; Structural equation modeling	The results show that helping, sharing narratives, desire to make friends, and reciprocity significantly affect the host's intention to share accommodation. Although trust directly and positively affects the intention to share accommodations, it may negatively moderate the relationship between these influencing factors and the host's intention.
Lacan & Desmet (2017)	This study aims to examine the effect of crowdfunding internet platforms on contributors' willingness to participate in crowdfunding projects (i.e., willingness to share word-of-mouth and willingness to participate in a project).	Online survey, Structural equation modeling based on the theoretical framework of a two-sided market	The findings show that perceived usefulness and ease of use positively affect contributors' willingness to participate in crowdfunding projects. However, the perceived risk of the financial transaction is negatively related to the ease of use of the platform, which contributors' willingness to participate. In addition, it also found that the influence of willingness to participate is stronger than that of word of mouth.
Lee et al. (2018)	Based on an empirical investigation of Uber, this study examines the effects of inhibiting, motivating, and technological factors on users' willingness to participate in the sharing economy.	Self-reported online survey; Structural equation modeling	The findings indicate that perceived risks, perceived benefits, and trust in the platform are important determinants of whether users are willing to participate in Uber. In addition, the perceived quality of the platform will make users trust the platform, which has a great impact on users' willingness to participate in the sharing economy.
Lindblom et al. (2018)	This study examines how materialism and price awareness are related to consumers' attitudes towards collaborative consumption (CC) and their intention to engage in such CC behaviors.	Questionnaire survey; SEM	The findings show that materialism is negatively related to consumers' attitudes towards CC but positively related to consumers' intentions to CC. Price consciousness is positively correlated with CC attitudes and CE intentions. Overall, consumers' attitude towards CC is positively related to their intentions to CC.
Mao & Lyu (2017)	This study examines the psychological factors that motivate travelers to consider reusing Airbnb.	Questionnaire survey; SEM-based on the theory of planned behavior and the prospect theory	The findings indicate that attitude and subject norms are significant determinants of reuse willingness, while perceived behavior control is not. In addition, perceived value and perceived risk have direct and significant impacts on attitude and indirectly affect reuse willingness. Moreover, unique experience expectations, familiarity, and electronic word of mouth, directly and indirectly, affect reuse willingness.
Mittendorf (2017)	This study investigates the assessment of perceived risk and trust by potential Uber drivers and the impact of perceived risk and trust on the user's intention to create an account on Uber.	Questionnaire survey; Covariance-based structural equation modeling	The results indicate that trust in the platform and perceived risk are significant factors that affect users' intention to create Uber accounts.
Oyedele & Simpson (2018)	This study aims to test Lamberton and Rose's (2012) commercial sharing utility model of access-based consumption in three different contexts (i.e., car-sharing, room-	Questionnaire survey; Partial least squares structural equation modeling	The results show that the flexibility utility has the strongest direct impact on the willingness to participate in sharing consumption, and it also has an indirect impact in three contexts. In addition, the emerging adulthood life stage can affect transaction utility and sharing shareaids, and the shareaids have

	sharing, and household goods purchases) and extend the model by examining the effects of emerging adulthood as a life-stage on the perceived value of social applications that facilitate and promote transaction utility (i.e., shareaids).		a positive effect on consumers' perceptions of the social utility value of access-based consumption.
Pappas (2017)	This study investigates the complexity of attribute configuration affecting travel decisions involving peer-to-peer accommodation and the destination sharing economy affected by the recession.	Questionnaire survey; Fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA)	The findings reveal three configurations that explain the attributes of holidaymakers' tourism decisions, namely, socioeconomic orientation, trust formation, and price sensitivity.
de Cássia Pinotti & do Amaral Moretti (2018)	This research explores the impact of pre-experience with websites of services, hospitality, enjoyment, and perceived economic benefits on the intention to repurchase accommodation sharing.	Questionnaire survey; SEM	The results show that all factors influence repurchase intentions, among which enjoyment is the most important influencing factor, followed by perceived economic benefits and hospitality. However, the pre-experience with websites of services shows a weaker effect on repurchase intentions.
Roos & Hahn (2019)	This paper uses the extended theory of planned behavior to examine the relative influence of consumers' personal norms and the theory's basic socio-psychological variables attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control on collaborative consumption.	Online survey; SEM	The findings show that compared with subjective norms, personal norms and attitudes have a greater impact on collaborative consumption (CC). It indicates that the personal norms of CC depend on the consumers' altruism, biosphere, and egoism value orientation. At the same time, the cost savings, effective use of resources, and community with others are the consumers' attitudinal beliefs underlying CC.
Trang et al. (2015)	This paper investigates how eliminating human interaction affects the acceptance of collaborative consumption.	SEM; It develops a research model in P2P car sharing to explain service acceptance from the perspective of car owners and uses a mental experiment to understand the impact of information systems integration on service acceptance.	The results show that reducing the impact of interpersonal interaction by increasing information systems integration has a negative impact on service acceptance.

Tussyadiah (2016)	This study examines the factors influencing guest satisfaction with peer-to-peer accommodation and their intentions to reuse it for future trips.	Questionnaire survey; SEM	The findings indicate that guest satisfaction is affected by enjoyment, monetary benefits (value), and accommodation amenities. The intention to reuse P2P accommodation in the future depends on enjoyment and value
Tussyadiah & Pesonen (2018)	This research attempts to investigate market characteristics and factors that drive and hinder the use of P2P accommodation.	Survey and inquiry; Exploratory factor analysis and correlation analysis	The results show that social appeal (desire for community and sustainability) and economic appeal (cost savings) are the two factors that promote the use of P2P accommodation. In contrast, trust, efficacy, familiarity with the system, and cost are barriers to using P2P accommodation.
Wu et al. (2017)	This study explores factors that affect Chinese travelers' behavioral intentions toward room-sharing platforms.	Online survey/ Questionnaire Partial least squares (PLS) regression approach based on theories of motivation	The findings indicate that utilitarian motivation (i.e., service experience, information acquisition, cost-saving, and resource efficiency), hedonic motivation (i.e., adventure, gratification, sharing, and friend seeking.), and perceived trust have positive effects on tourists' behavioral intentions However, past experience with room-sharing moderates these effects.
Yin (2018)	This study investigates the antecedents and mechanisms for consumers to adopt the public bicycle sharing scheme in China.	Questionnaire survey; SEM	The findings indicate that collectivism, human-natural orientation, materialism, and face-consciousness are the critical determinants of consumers' participation in public bicycle sharing schemes. It argues that a desirable sustainability program needs to cater to consumers' cultural and psychological motivations and needs to reflect the social norms and context in which the sustainability practices and consumers are embedded.
Zhang (2019)	This study aims to determine the customer value proposition (CVP) of the sharing economy business model and compare the competitive advantages of these CVPs in the sharing economy.	Questionnaire survey; SEM	The findings indicate that the four values of economy, society, emotion, and technology lead to the development of the CVP model for the sharing economy. Social and emotional value is more important than technical and economic value for customer repurchase intention. Furthermore, social and emotional values play an equal role in motivating customers to re-engage in sharing economy business.
Zhang (2018)	This study investigates the role of value co-creation in the three different service stages of the sharing economy business model (pre-consumption, mid-consumption, and post-consumption) by examining consumers' WTP premium price.	Questionnaire survey; SEM	The results indicate that activities involving functional and social value in the pre-consumption stage are stimulus factors for paying premiums. Emotional value is the important stimulus factor in the mid-consumption stage. As to the post-consumption stage, only activities based on social value are related to the WTP at a premium price.
Zhu (2017)	This study employs social cognition theory as the theoretical framework to investigate the important factors that motivate consumers to adopt the emerging ride-sharing app.	Questionnaire survey; SEM	The findings indicate that self-efficacy is a basic factor that directly impacts consumers' perception of value and indirectly impacts behavioral intentions. Functional value, emotional value, and social value are the key antecedents of the overall perceived value of the ridesharing app.

Table 3. Detailed results of the meta-analytic framework

Variables	Pooled *r*	*N*	Lower CI	Upper CI	*z*-value	*p*	*k*	*Q*	I^2	Orwin's fail-safe (0.05)
Perceived risk – Perceived value	-0.108	488	-0.478	0.295	-0.513	0.608	2	19.554	94.886	0
Perceived risk – Intentions	-0.177	2181	-0.583	0.299	-0.720	0.472	6	649.283	99.230	16
Perceived value – Attitudes	-0.088	938	-0.924	0.894	-0.113	0.910	2	503.576	99.801	0
Perceived value – Intentions	0.621	1112	0.536	0.693	11.156	< 0.001	3	8.007	75.023	41
Attitudes – Intentions	0.545	3795	0.385	0.673	5.836	< 0.001	7	228.323	97.372	79
Functional utility – Intentions	0.423	1763	0.326	0.511	7.857	< 0.001	4	15.232	80.305	33
Social utility - Intentions	0.212	2589	0.010	0.398	2.053	0.040	5	108.518	96.314	17
Emotional utility – Intentions	0.638	1926	0.461	0.766	5.781	< 0.001	5	107.116	96.266	71
Economic utility – Intentions	0.372	3276	0.205	0.519	4.182	< 0.001	6	127.321	96.073	41
Flexibility utility – Intentions	0.624	690	0.403	0.776	4.708	< 0.001	2	16.523	93.948	0
Moral utility – Intentions	0.370	690	0.304	0.433	10.164	< 0.001	2	0.367	0.000	0
Trust – Intentions	0.420	2888	0.231	0.578	4.138	< 0.001	9	265.019	96.981	72
Familiarity – Intentions	0.478	690	0.086	0.742	2.348	0.019	2	33.536	97.018	0
User frequency – Intentions	0.222	2045	0.181	0.263	10.204	< 0.001	2	0.214	0.000	0
Subjective norms – Intentions	0.435	1022	0.384	0.483	14.829	< 0.001	3	1.224	0.000	25
Materialism – Intentions	-0.096	1731	-0.332	0.151	-0.759	0.448	2	27.294	96.336	0
Functional utility – WTP premium price	0.479	1470	0.223	0.673	3.472	< 0.001	3	66.048	96.972	29
Emotional utility – WTP premium prise	0.193	1470	0.016	0.359	2.131	0.033	3	24.646	91,885	9
Social utility – WTP premium price	0.452	1470	0.377	0.520	10.565	< 0.001	3	6.199	67,737	27

Notes: *r* = Pearson's correlation coefficient; *N* = sample size; *CI* = Confidence Interval; *p* = p-value; *k* = number of independent studies; *Q* = Q-value; I^2 = I^2-value. WTP = Willingness to pay.

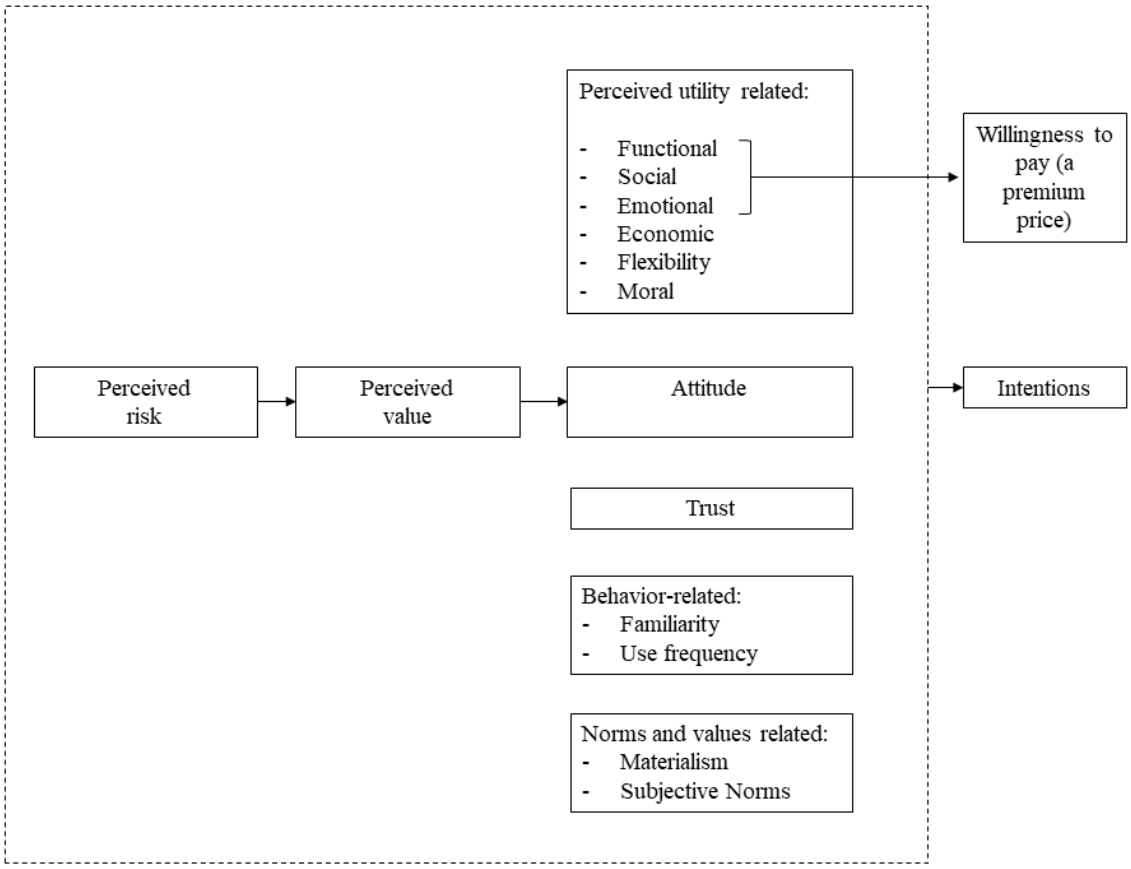
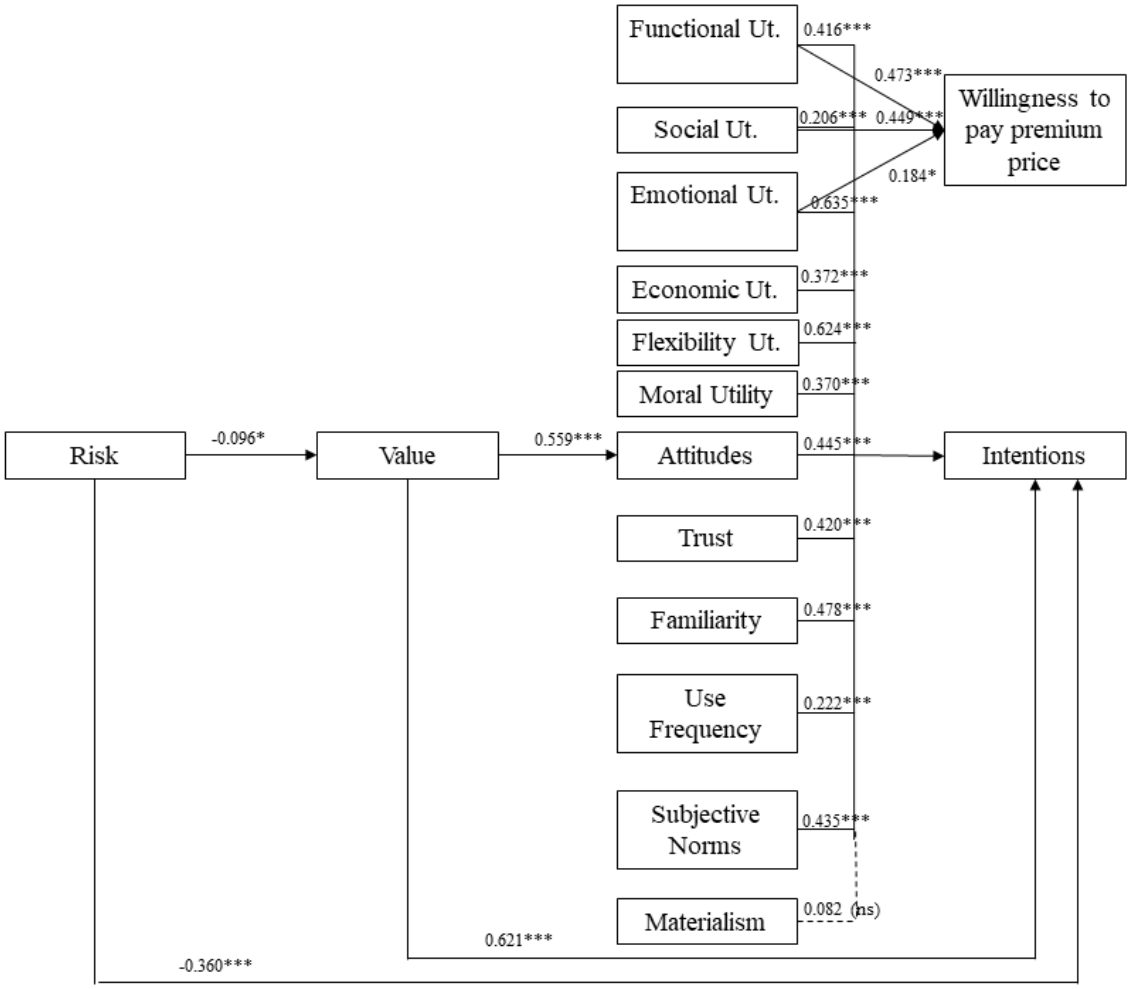


Figure 1. Synthesis of predictive collaborative economy platform models as the basis for the meta-analytic structural equation model (MASEM).



Note: dotted lines represent non-significant relationships. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure 2. Collaborative meta-analytic framework with results.