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Research Article

Does the sharing economy change conventional consumption modes?

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ABSTRACT

The development of peer-to-peer platforms has reduced the profitability of existing business operations. However, relatively few studies have explored consumer switching between sharing economy platforms and existing business operations. By using the push–pull–mooring framework, this study explores the predictors that affect consumer switching between a third-party online travel agent (OTA) platform and Airbnb to understand specifically how push, pull, and mooring factors shape consumers' switching behaviors. Data are collected from 347 users of third-party OTA platforms and Airbnb through an online questionnaire survey. Confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling are performed using AMOS 24.0. The findings reveal that push factors (low structural assurance and low standardization), pull factors (monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity), and mooring factors (substitutability) positively influence switching behavior. Substitutability moderates the positive effects of push factors on switching behavior. This study contributes to the PPM framework by identifying factors that influence consumers' behavior of switching between a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb. In addition, this study is the first to consider substitutability and network externalities as mooring variables that facilitate switching by consumers. Airbnb and traditional hotels compete across various market segments, which results in substitutability as well as complementary relationships between them in some cities. Traditional business sections may also consider leveraging their strengths to distinguish themselves from new sharing economy services, thus delivering distinct value propositions to their consumers. This study provides reference that managers of third-party OTA platforms can use to differentiate their services from Airbnb and to maintain or increase profit by encouraging or discouraging switching among consumers.

1. Introduction

The sharing economy has emerged as an alternative to goods and services offered by existing industries (Xu, 2020). The main reason underlying the success of the sharing economy is the benefits it provides to both service or product providers and consumers (Pappas, 2017). Providers can easily start a business at a relatively low start-up cost and generate income from excess capacity of goods; furthermore, consumers have more available supply options than those offered by existing industries. Although the sharing economy raises some political and social concerns, including unavailability of standardized levels of service and price, absence of safeguards for consumer tax evasion, and regulatory compliance, the advent of the sharing economy has altered the existing market and induced changes in customers' consumption patterns (Leung et al., 2019; Lindblom et al., 2018; Mao & Lyu, 2017; Thaichon et al., 2020). The development of peer-to-peer platforms has reduced the profitability of existing business operation in multiple sectors (Akbar & Tracogna, 2018). For example, Zervas et al. (2015) argued that for every 10 % increase in Airbnb listings, the revenue of traditional hotels decreased by 0.37 %. Although the emergence of the new sharing model is remarkable, it is a serious threat to traditional business models.

The COVID-19 pandemic has devastated the global economy and strongly affected the tourism and hospitality sectors (Lee & Deale, 2021). The number of international tourists decreased from approximately 1.5 billion in 2019 to approximately 380 million in 2020, which represents a 74 % decrease, and international tourism spending decreased by apprxoimately US$1.3 billion during this period (UNWTO, 2021). The pandemic caused travel and mobility bans and community lockdowns, which had unprecedented adverse effects on the tourism and hospitality sectors (Li et al., 2021). The tourism and hospitality sectors have adjusted their practices to help customers make informed decisions and decrease the risk of disease transmission (Leung & Cai, 2021). Because repeat visits by guests are the key to survival for organizations in the aforementioned sectors, managers have investigated how to retain

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guests and motivate purchase behavior (Yu et al., 2021). As the tourism and hospitality sectors recover from the COVID-19 pandemic, factors that encourage consumer participation in the sharing economy should be identified.

The sharing economy market has proven to be a challenge to existing service providers (Chen & Lu, 2021). Studies on the role of the sharing economy have proposed pragmatic definitions and typologies (Barnes & Mattsson, 2016; Habibi et al., 2017; Heylighen, 2017; Wirtz et al., 2019), conducted scientometric reviews (Klarin & Suseno, 2021), performed bibliometric analyses (Henry et al., 2021), addressed regulatory concerns (Chen et al., 2021; Malhotra & Van Alstyne, 2017; Thorne & Quinn, 2017), and investigated various business models (Akbar & Tracogna, 2018; Basili & Rossi, 2020; Dreyer et al., 2017; Mercier-Roy & Mailhot, 2019; Roh, 2016). Some studies have empirically examined factors such as enjoyment (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Barnes & Mattsson, 2017; Hamari et al., 2016), utility (Davidson et al., 2018; Möhlmann, 2015), value (Lamberton, 2016; Nadeem et al., 2020; Santoso & Erdaka, 2015), trust (Barnes & Mattsson, 2017; Lu et al., 2021; Marimon et al., 2019), and satisfaction (Cheng et al., 2018; Möhlmann, 2015; Xu, 2020), which encourage consumer participation in the sharing economy. However, studies have primarily focused on factors in isolation without offering a broad perspective on the sharing economy (So et al., 2018).

According to Henten and Windekilde (2016), the sharing economy has replaced traditional business operations. Despite the existence of several theories and models related to the sharing economy, studies have not explored the differences between the sharing economy and traditional services (Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017). Because consumers have shifted toward the sharing and experience-driven economy, commercial sharing platforms have ramified traditional markets (Camilleri & Neuhofer, 2017). However, relatively few studies have explored consumer switching between sharing economy platforms and existing business operations. Switching behavior is a complex phenomenon and should be explored comprehensively (Cheng et al., 2017). Research on factors that drive and those that deter consumer decisions to adopt the sharing economy is required for theoretical advancements (So et al., 2018). To survive in the new arena of the sharing economy, traditional businesses must identify the factors that encourage and discourage consumers from switching to sharing economy platforms from existing businesses. This leads us to our first research question:

Research question 1: Which factors influence consumer switching between a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb?

The push–pull–mooring (PPM) framework is an integrated theoretical lens that can be used to investigate various antecedents regarding users' switching intentions to explain human migration (Boyle et al., 1998). According to the PPM framework, push effects motivate people to leave an origin, while pull effects motivate people to migrate to a destination. Mooring variables, such as personal and social constraints, influence switching intention directly or indirectly through their interaction with push or pull factors. The PPM framework has been adapted for use in various fields, such as cross-channel integration (Chang et al., 2017; Chou et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018), online learning (Lin et al., 2021), mobile services (Cheng et al., 2019; Wang, Luo et al., 2019; Wang, Duan et al., 2019; Zhou, 2016), brand switching (Ghasrodashti, 2018; Liao et al., 2021; Tang & Chen, 2020), and social networking sites (Hou & Shiau, 2019; Li & Ku, 2018). Bansal et al. (2005) indicated that the PPM framework elucidates customers' switching intentions by structuring a list of predictors into theoretically defined effect categories. Singh and Rosengren (2020) further argued that the PPM framework offers a unifying framework to comprehensively explain consumer switching behavior. This leads us to our second research question:

Research question 2: How do push, pull, and mooring factors influence consumers' switching behavior?

Because the present study investigates consumers' switching behavior between the sharing economy platforms and existing business operations, the PPM framework is adopted to delineate push, pull, and mooring effects. Switching behavior refers to partial replacement, where individuals adopt a new service while continuing to use an old one (Ye & Potter, 2011). Because sharing economy platforms and existing businesses may differ, they cannot completely replace each other. Switching behavior in this study refers to consumers moving between sharing economy platforms and existing businesses rather than completely substituting one for the other. In particular, pull effects represent the factors that attract consumers to participate in sharing economy platforms, while push effects refer to the variables that drive customer away from existing business operations. Mooring effects reflect the aggregated influence of situational and contextual conditions in the context of the sharing economy. Based on the PPM framework, this study identifies push factors (low structural assurance and low standardization) and pull factors (monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity), which directly influence switching behavior. Additionally, mooring factors, namely substitutability and network externalities, may constrain consumer switching behavior. Furthermore, this study explores the impact of mooring variables on relationships between the push effects and consumers' switching behavior as well as those between pull effects and consumers' switching behavior.

Airbnb is used as a research context, because it is not only a dominant platform but also the most well-known sharing economy platform that is leading the home-sharing market (Mair & Reischauer, 2017; Pappas, 2017). Since its founding in 2008, Airbnb has expanded rapidly and now offers more than 6 million accommodation options in more than 100, 000 cities and 191 countries. As of July 2020, it had hosted more than 750 million guests (Airbnb, 2020). Nowadays, Airbnb has undoubtedly become the hotel industry's largest competitor (Mody et al., 2019). Instead of booking hotels from conventional websites, consumers may choose to stay in spare rooms listed on sharing platforms. More specifically, consumers may switch from third-party online travel agent (OTA) platforms that distribute hotel rooms, such as Hotels.com, Booking.com, or Expedia, to digital sharing platforms such as Airbnb (Tussyadiah, 2016). By using the sharing economy as the research context, this study investigates customers' switching behavior between a third-party OTA platform (representing existing business operations) and Airbnb (representing sharing economy platforms).

This study makes several contributions to the literature. First, the sharing economy involves a competitive business model that challenges conventional providers (Akbar & Tracogna, 2018), and Young and Farber (2019) reported that the sustainable business models of mobility service providers such as Uber and Lyft have changed the traditional taxi business; however, research on collaborative consumption has mainly focused on isolated determinants without assessing them holistically or evaluating their relative strengths (Min et al., 2019; Möhlmann, 2015). To the best of our knowledge, this study is among the first to provide theoretical insights into factors that affect consumers' switching between a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb. Second, although the PPM framework provides a theoretical foundation to explore consumers' switching, it does not use fixed factors for the push, pull, or mooring effects (Li, 2018). This study considers the drawbacks of third-party OTA platforms to be push effects, whereas the advantages of Airbnb represent pull effects. Context-specific knowledge can help managers in various industries affected by the rapid development of the sharing economy, such as the hotel industry, to develop and implement new strategies. Finally, this study provides a reference that managers of third-party OTA platforms can use to differentiate their services from those of Airbnb and to maintain or increase profit by encouraging or discouraging switching among consumers.

The rest of this article is organized as follows. Section 2 explains the sharing economy and introduces the PPM framework. Section 3 presents the hypotheses of this study and the interrelationships among the research constructs. Section 4 presents the research methodology, which includes tests for the validity, reliability, and adequacy of the collected

data. Section 5 presents the results of confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM). Section 6 presents an interpretation of the results and their theoretical and practical implications.

2. Theoretical foundation

2.1. Sharing economy

Although the sharing economy has become a popular topic of discussion, a widely agreed-upon definition for the term does not exist, and the boundaries are blurred (Munoz & Cohen, 2017). For instance, Hamari et al. (2016) proposed that the sharing economy is "the peer-to-peer-based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services, coordinated through community-based online services" (p. 2047). Huurne et al. (2017) defined the sharing economy as "an economic model based on sharing underutilized assets between peers without the transfer of ownership, ranging from spaces, to skills, to stuff, for monetary or non-monetary benefits via an online mediated platform, thereby encompassing all the different kind of activities that take place on the various sharing platforms" (p. 486). Laurell and Sandström (2017) defined the sharing economy as "information communication technology-enabled platforms for exchanges of goods and services drawing on non-market logics such as sharing, lending, gifting and swapping as well as market logics such as renting and selling" (p. 63). Böcker and Meelen (2017) defined the sharing economy as "consumers granting each other temporary access to their underutilized physical assets, possibly for money" (p. 29).

As the sharing economy is still fuzzy, various terms are equivalent or similar to the sharing economy (Klarin & Suseno, 2021; Ma et al., 2021), such as "collaborative consumption" (Belk, 2007), "access-based economy" (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012), "commercial sharing" (Ferrell et al., 2017; Milanova & Maas, 2017), "gig economy" (Friedman, 2014), or "peer-to peer economy" (Böcker & Meelen, 2017). The sharing economy is considered an umbrella term for a broad spectrum of digital platforms and services (Hawlitschek et al., 2018). For example, Hamari et al. (2016) indicated that open-source software, online collaboration, file sharing, and peer-to-peer financing are examples of various activities encompassed by the sharing economy. Thorne and Quinn (2017) proposed that sharing involves a wide range of activities, so that sharing activities encompass the groupings of (a) gratuitous versus non-gratuitous, (b) formal versus informal, (c) monetary versus nonmonetary, and (d) commercial versus noncommercial. Munoz and Cohen (2017) identified seven distinguished dimensions of sharing business models, including platforms for collaboration, underutilized resources, peer-to-peer interactions, collaborative governance, mission-driven, alternative funding, and technology reliance. Habibi et al. (2017) suggested that sharing economy activities vary in terms of the level of market mediation and levels of money, socialization, and community. In summary, the sharing economy is still subject to debate regarding distinctions such as whether it belongs to the gift or purchasing economies and whether it is peer-to-peer versus business-to-peer and for-profit versus not-for-profit in nature (Murillo et al., 2017).

Among the similar terms adopted by relevant research, the concept of collaborative consumption is the most often discussed and used synonymously for the sharing economy (Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017). Botsman and Rogers (2010) defined collaborative consumption as traditional sharing, lending, trading, gifting, swapping, and bartering. Belk (2014) argued that this view was too broad, mixing the concepts of exchange, gift giving, and sharing, proceeded to define collaborative consumption as individuals' efforts to coordinate the distribution and acquisition of resources for a fee or compensation. However, Böcker and Meelen (2017) indicated that the sharing economy represents peer-to-peer exchanges of goods, whereas collaborative consumption represents large-scale business-to-consumer services. The rise of the sharing economy is associated with digital platforms where firms create two-sided markets to earn a profit (Dreyer et al., 2017). Due to its focus on peer-to-peer commercial sharing on digital platforms, this study uses the term sharing economy rather than collaborative consumption. Following Böcker and Meelen (2017), this study defines the sharing economy as an economic model by which consumers grant temporary access to underutilized physical assets owned by service providers (individuals or firms) through short-term rental with monetary compensation. From this standpoint, economic incentive is prioritized, rather than a collaborative lifestyle. Furthermore, digital platforms enable the interaction between sharing parties but do not own the underutilized resources for transaction or hire service providers (i.e., hosts) (Lee et al., 2019).

2.2. PPM framework

The PPM framework integrates different antecedents of users' switching intention including push, pull, and mooring factors (Moon, 1995). Push factors, such as dissatisfaction with service quality, perceived risk, and low commitment, drive users away from incumbent services. Pull factors, such as alternative attractiveness, perceived value, and trust, attract users to alternative or substitute services. Because switching involves a complex decision process, mooring factors refer to personal, situational, and supplementary constraints that impel or prohibit switching behaviors (Wang, Luo et al., 2019; Wang, Duan et al., 2019). According to the PPM, push, pull, and mooring factors directly influence switching intention. In addition to direct effects, mooring factors moderate the effects of push and pull factors on switching intention. More specifically, although push and pull effects are strong, users may choose not to switch because of the existence of mooring effects (Bansal et al., 2005).

Because of the need for predictive power in switching decisions, the PPM has been applied to switching behaviors in various offline and online contexts (Cheng et al., 2019). For instance Fu (2011) investigated whether a professional intend to stay in or leave a career is determined by push (e.g., satisfaction and threat of professional obsolescence), pull (e.g., attractive alternative), and mooring factors (e.g., career investment and profession self-efficacy). Tang and Chen (2020) explored the impacts of push (dissatisfaction with information quality, dissatisfaction with service quality, and person brand unfit), pull (alternative attractiveness), and mooring (perceived unfollowing costs) effects on unfollowing intention of brand microblogs. Cheng et al. (2017) further posited that the PPM is one of the most suitable frameworks for explaining consumer switching behaviors between different services or service providers. Because users' switching between a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb is analogous to the phenomenon of service provider switching, the PPM is considered the theoretical foundation of this study.

In contrast to some theories comprising fixed factors, such as confirmation and satisfaction in the expectation–confirmation model, the PPM does not mandate that specific factors belong to the push, pull or mooring category (Li & Ku, 2018). The push, pull, and mooring variables for switching behaviors vary across research contexts. More specifically, the PPM does not set a few specified factors for push, pull, or mooring effects, thus offering flexibility that enables the PPM framework to be adapted to various research settings (Chen & Keng, 2019; Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017). Consequently, distinct features of each research context should be reflected, while identifying push, pull, and mooring variables (Xu et al., 2014). Through the lens of the PPM framework, this study considers distinct characteristics of the third-party OTA platforms and Airbnb to elucidate push and pull factors. Based on a study by Xu et al. (2014), push and pull variables are generally symmetrical, and whether a variable classified as a push or pull effect is contingent on its pertinence to the origin or destination.

Previously, customers often booked hotels on third-party OTA platforms such as Hotels.com, Booking.com, and Expedia. Airbnb is a digital sharing platform that enables potential hosts to share spare rooms with

those seeking short-term accommodation (Li & Fang, 2022). Both third-party OTA platforms and Airbnb provide accommodation for tourists. Because Airbnb has challenged the hotel industry (Mao & Lyu, 2017), this study explores consumers' switching between a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb. In this study, push factors reflect the properties of a third-party OTA platform that compel customer away from it (the OTA platform), while pull factors represent the characteristics of Airbnb that motivate customers to use it (Airbnb). Mooring effects reflect the aggregated influences of personal and contextual conditions in the context of Airbnb.

2.2.1. Push effects

With regard to push factors, Oskam and Boswijk (2016) suggested that people decide to use traditional hotels, because the hotels offer standardization and safety regulations and have to maintain their business reputations, which may reduce perceived risks. In accordance with the suggestion of Oskam and Boswijk (2016), in the present study, we select standardization and safety regulations as two features of the third-party OTA platforms. Business reputation was not included because this study does not use a specific third-party OTA platform as the research context. For providing a comprehensive concept of structures and regulations, this study replaced safety regulations with structural assurance. Accordingly, in the present study, we consider low structure assurance and low standardization to be push factors that influence consumer switching between a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb.

Structural assurance is the belief that structures, such as guarantees, regulations, promises, legal resources, or procedures, are in place to guarantee the operations of service or business process (McKnight et al., 2002). Structural assurance can be structural supports, such as legal protection and guarantees, offered by vendors (Barnes & Mattsson, 2017; Cheng et al., 2021). Structural assurance represents the consumer belief that firms will guarantee the business process through structural support such as regulations or legal resources (Cheng et al., 2018). When a platform provides high structural assurance, consumers are protected from the loss of privacy, money, and security (Cheng et al., 2018).

Standardization represents a sequential process of reducing variation; standardization involves assessment of processes at each step for ensuring that uniform outcomes are achieved (Shostack, 1987). The objective of standardization is to control output activity through scientific management, in the form of manuals, operating procedures, and other blueprints (Agha Kasiri & Mansori, 2016; Wang et al., 2010). Standardized services focus on meeting aggregated preferences of customers (Ding & Keh, 2016). Vasile and Laurentiu (2008) proposed three main aspects of service standardization, namely service quality standardization, service method standardization, and service process proceeding. The benefits of standardization are regulation of individual behavior, facilitation of contracting, minimizing errors, controlling performance deviation, and improving capacity in comparison with competitors (Agha Kasiri & Mansori, 2016).

2.2.2. Pull effects

Pull factors represent the characteristics of Airbnb that attract consumers to use it. Several studies have proposed benefits of sharing platforms that motivate consumers to use these platforms. For instance, Matzler et al. (2015) argued that the sharing economy potentially unites cost saving, convenience, environmental consciousness, and benefit augmentation. Tussyadiah (2016) found that economic and social benefits, maximizing utility, and convenience are drivers for the intention to using peer-to-peer services. Kathan et al. (2016) posited that price advantages, environmental sustainability, convenience, new consumption experiences, and social interactions are potentially crucial factors supporting the survival of the sharing economy. Barnes and Mattsson (2017) confirmed that economic benefits, environmental benefits, and social benefits influence consumers' perceived usefulness of car sharing. Lutz and Newlands (2018) suggested that the benefits offered by sharing platforms include democratizing economic activity, increasing social interaction, and providing sustainable and environmentally friendly options to customers. Razeghian and Weber (2018) confirmed that trust, regulation and incentives, technological development, reliability of financial transactions, consumer confidence, and environmental awareness are factors affecting consumers' sharing propensity.

In summary, various factors, including convenience, the need to help others, authenticity (social atmosphere at their host's house), uniqueness (atypical places to stay), positive environmental impact (sustainability and environmental consciousness), economic benefits (relatively low costs), and social benefits (increased social interaction and social connection), motivate consumers to use sharing economy platforms (Hamari et al., 2016; Leung et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2021; Pappas, 2017; Ruihe et al., 2019). Based on the results of the study by Kathan et al. (2016), the present study uses monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity to represent price advantages, environmental sustainability, social interactions, and new consumption experiences, respectively. Because convenience is a multidimensional construct that comprises decision convenience, access convenience, benefit convenience, transaction convenience, and postbenefit convenience (Seiders et al., 2007), it may overlap with other pull factors; hence, convenience is not included in this study. Accordingly, this study considers monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity as factors that motivate consumers to use Airbnb.

First, economic benefit is an extrinsic incentive that can usually be expressed as money generated from an action (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018). Consumers participating in sharing activities can exhibit rational behavior when they replace ownership of goods with sharing options (Hamari et al., 2016; Trabucchi et al., 2019). Compared with hotels that hire teams of employees for service delivery, sharing services rely on hosts to satisfy the needs for the accommodation service process. Additionally, the absence of professionally furnished rooms reduces the costs (for consumers) in shared accommodations. More specifically, a cost-effective service model helps consumers reduce the expenditure on products or services.

Second, participating in the sharing economy is highly ecologically sustainable. Sharing services enhances efficiency and maximizes use because spare resources are used instead of new products (Böcker & Meelen, 2017; Modgil et al., 2021). Consumers are allowed to pool or withdraw resources and reduce waste, fallow excess, and carbon emissions (Lamberton, 2016). Compared with the sharing economy, traditional access of services or facilities is relatively resource intensive (Lee, 2019; Tussyadiah, 2016). Because the sharing economy provides consumers with a more sustainable consumption pattern than traditional businesses, sustainability is considered as an environmental benefit. Sustainability is the results of environmental, social, and economic consumption for satisfying the needs of current and future generations (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Luchs et al., 2011).

Third, interactivity represents an individual's subjective experience toward interactions (Burgoon et al., 2000; Yang et al., 2018). High interactivity results in customer engagement and participation (Lu et al., 2014). In contrast to hotel reservations, which are mediated by a third-party OTA platform, Airbnb encourages hosts and guests to communicate with each other through a direct messaging system. Supplementary information exchanged during host–guest interactions enables consumers to perceive additional cues before making purchasing decisions. Therefore, interactivity can be considered a benefit that motivates consumers to use Airbnb. The present study conceptualizes that interactivity represents an individual's perception about two-way communication, which highlights interpersonal communication mediated through information technology (Mero, 2018).

Fourth, consumers seek authentic experiences and attempt to individuate those experiences (Li et al., 2019). Authenticity is an experience of actual culture (Johnson & Neuhofer, 2017). Authenticity is reflected by unique accommodation interiors and a unique atmosphere as well as interaction with local culture (Paulauskaite et al., 2017). The strength of

Airbnb is its capacity to integrate practical attributes into an authentic experience (Akbar & Tracogna, 2018). Although internationally branded resorts and all-inclusive packages dominate the hotel industry, they do not offer customers with an experience of real culture (Johnson & Neuhofer, 2017). Authenticity is defined as consumers' recognition of real experiences while staying at an Airbnb accommodation.

2.2.3. Mooring effects

Mooring factors account for personal or contextual constraints that remain with origins or move to destinations (Ojiaku et al., 2018). In the present study, we investigate two critical mooring effects, namely substitutability and network externalities, to determine their influence on consumer switching between a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb. Substitutability is considered because the sharing economy market is a type of substitution for existing business operations (Henten & Windekilde, 2016). Furthermore, sharing platforms require social networks that connect users for the exchange of products or service (Lai et al., 2007). Network systems affect the user behaviors and decisions; thus, network effects, namely externalities, cannot be neglected.

Substitutability is defined as the degree to which the lack for sensory input in a brick-and-mortar venue is compensated by the online shopping (Dennis et al., 2010). High levels of substitutability between any two services results in high levels of cannibalism between them (Flavián & Gurrea, 2007). According to Aaker and Keller (1990), substitutable products often satisfy the same need of customers and can replace each other. They share similar physical or functional properties (Pillai & Bindroo, 2014). Furthermore, Zervas et al. (2017) argued that Airbnb may possibly substitute existing industrial developments. While a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb provide similar services to customers, namely accommodation reservation, consumers can replace one with the other. Accordingly, substitutability is assumed to influence consumers' switching decisions.

The sharing economy system uses social networking sites for supporting collaborative consumption (Roh, 2016). Network systems enable users to share products or services by using social network platforms (Geissinger et al., 2020). Services listed on the Internet exhibit strong network effects, because the number of users may influence users' decisions (Kim & Min, 2015). When the network size grows, individuals obtain value from connecting with a large network consisting of numerous providers, resources, and consumers (Bauer & Gegenhuber, 2015). As the number of users increases, the availability of complementary products may increase, and the numerous connections facilitate the sharing of their possessions. More specifically, users obtain additional utility when the user network expands (Zhou & Lu, 2011). Network externalities are a positive network effect that represent the benefits that individuals receive when numerous individuals join a network or use a product (Cheng et al., 2011; Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017). Network externalities may be of the direct or indirect type (Lai et al., 2007; Lin & Bhattacherjee, 2008a, 2008b; Zhou & Lu, 2011; Zhou et al., 2015). Direct network externalities represent network size, whereas indirect network externalities refer to perceived complementarity. Network size reflects the number of users of a platform, whereas perceived complementary is a market-mediated effect that represents complementary products, services, or functions available to users (Lin & Bhattacherjee, 2008a, 2008b; Zhou & Lu, 2011). Because the focus of the present study is on benefits availed by consumers by using a sharing platform, only direct network externality is considered. Therefore, network externality is considered as a situational constraint that influences customers' decisions to use Airbnb.

In summary, this study explores how push factors (low structural assurance and low standardization), pull factors (monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity), and mooring factors (substitutability and network externalities), influence customer switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb. Furthermore, the study explores the moderating roles of mooring effects on the influences of pull and push effects on switching behavior.

3. Hypothesis development

Low structural assurance and low standardization are considered two push factors that motivate consumers' switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb. Structural assurance is the consumer belief that hotels on a third-party OTA platform structurally support service procedures through regulation or legal resources. Structural assurance provided by a platform contributes to consumer trust (Huurne et al., 2017). When institutional guarantees protect consumers from loss of money, security or property, consumers tend to develop trust toward the firm. Barnes and Mattsson (2017) discovered that consumer trust increases behavioral intention in the context of car-sharing websites. When consumers gain trust in services by receiving structural forms of support such as legal protection and safety guarantees, their intention to use the services increases. Cheng et al. (2018) indicated that structural assurance is an antecedent of online service quality and results in customer loyalty. Thus, a lack of structural assurance decreases consumers' intention to use a service. Ye and Potter (2011) posited that consumers consider switching services if a substitute service offers new advantages. Some consumers prefer traditional hotels, instead of Airbnb, for security, hygiene, and protection from uncertain or fluctuating quality (Lieberman, 2015). In particular, safety-related concerns force consumers to select traditional hotels (Mody et al., 2017). When consumers perceive that a third-party OTA platform lacks structural assurance, they evaluate it less favorably and are thus likely to switch to Airbnb.

Standardization is a nonvariable sequential process directed toward the achievement of high-quality service. When the service processes are controlled under standardization, fewer mistakes in operations are likely; consequently, high operation efficiencies and reliability of service activities are achieved. Thus, standardization provides step-by-step service procedures that control output activities and thus reduce the hazard of unknown quality (Beltagui et al., 2017). Consistency and predictability of service standardization promote positive consumer evaluation (Ding & Keh, 2016). Furthermore, Agha Kasiri and Mansori (2016) argued that standardization fosters competitiveness by increasing efficiency and productivity, which in turn improves consumer satisfaction. McCole et al. (2019) discovered that satisfaction is a key determinant of continuance intention. In contrast to accommodations on Airbnb, traditional hotels are usually operated by lodging professionals (Xie & Mao, 2017). Standardized service procedures enable traditional hotels to minimize mistakes and performance deviation among employees, who represent the conventional workforce in the hotel industry and often well-trained professionals. Stable and repeatable procedures maintain the predictability, regularity in timing, and regularity in output of the services (Bouville & Alis, 2014). Consumers can receive consistent and high-quality services while staying at traditional hotels. When consumers receive standardized services with high reliability and predictability, they tend to exhibit positive value perceptions and decide to stay at hotels listed on third-party OTA platforms. Conversely, when a high level of variation exists in service activities, consumers may perceive a high level of risk; consequently, their switching behavior is strengthened. Thus, the first hypothesis is proposed.

H_1: The push effects, namely low structural assurance and low standardization associated with hotels on third-party OTA platforms, exert a positive influence on consumers' switching behavior to an accommodation on Airbnb.

Switching benefits are the utilities that users acquire on switching from a status quo to a new situation (Kim & Kankanhalli, 2009). When consumers expect to benefit from switching, they display switching behavior (Min et al., 2019; Park & Ryoo, 2013). The switch to Airbnb might provide benefits, such as monetary savings, sustainability, authenticity, and interactivity. Monetary savings represent an

individual's self-benefit that creates highly favorable price perceptions among customers (Möhlmann, 2015). Cost definitely determines consumers' decisions of choosing service providers (Kumar et al., 2018). Reasonable cost increases consumers' perception of economic gains (Lee et al., 2021). When one service provider offers relatively low prices, customers may not easily switch to an alternative with similar services (Kumar et al., 2018). Furthermore, Hamari et al. (2016) reported that economic benefits increase behavioral intentions to switch to collaborative consumption. Monetary saving is an economic benefit that consumers receive by using Airbnb, because consumers have access to low-cost accommodation. Wu, Li et al. (2017), Wu, Vassileva et al. (2017) and Wu, Zeng et al. (2017) argued that monetary saving is a motivation that positively influences travelers' behavioral intentions. Consumers gain economic benefits by sharing spare rooms or accommodations at lower prices than rooms offered by traditional hotels (Breidbach & Brodie, 2017). When consumers can save money by using Airbnb, they may decide to switch from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

The sharing economy is a subdivision of the circular economy (Henry et al., 2021). Previously, sharing activities were a means of reducing the use of scarce natural resources (Böcker & Meelen, 2017). Nowadays, increasing concerns about ecologically sustainable consumption have resulted in the growth of sharing behavior (Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017). Several studies have proposed that environmental concern is a key indicator that drives customers to participate in sharing activities. For example, Tussyadiah (2016) and Barnes and Mattsson (2017) suggested that sustainability provides environmental benefits that motivate participation in accommodation sharing. As suggested by Ye and Potter (2011), consumers consider switching if a substitute offers relative advantages over the present condition. Sharing potentially reduces environmental damage and stimulates reflection on wasteful consumption (Kathan et al., 2016). Home-sharing on the Airbnb platform protects the earth from damage because it reduces waste production and water consumption and enables guests to develop and practice green travel habits (Murillo et al., 2017). When staying in an Airbnb accommodation provides consumers with more environmental benefits than does staying at a traditional hotel, such as reducing waste and increasing green consumption, consumers may choose to switch to Airbnb.

Perceived interactivity represents two-way communication between hosts and guests on Airbnb. When hosts and guests can directly interact, the problems of information asymmetry, fear of opportunism, and uncertainty can be alleviated considerably (Barnes, 2021). Chang and Chou (2012) proposed that perceived interactivity creates scenarios that facilitate relationship marketing, create strong brand identity, and improve the overall shopping experience. Lu et al. (2014) posited that website interactivity positively influences behavioral intentions. More specifically, interactivity offers relative advantages in social interactions by allowing users to effectively communicate with other users (Chiang, 2013). According to Park and Ryoo (2013), a relative advantage may deter or stimulate consumers' switching behavior. Airbnb offers the status of "super host" to the most active and well-reviewed hosts (Barnes, 2021). This encourages hosts to invite travelers to leave reviews, which in turn increases host–guest interaction (Moro et al., 2019). In addition, a direct messaging system offered by Airbnb enables guests to reduce uncertainty and promotes trust formation with hosts. This study considers interactivity to be a feature of Airbnb because its systematic function is to enable consumers to interact with hosts through direct messages and one-on-one communication (Yang et al., 2018). This interaction, from which guests can also acquire information regarding accommodations, encourages the use of Airbnb.

In contrast to traditional hotels, accommodations on Airbnb provide consumers with a first-hand experience of a local reality and an opportunity to connect with people at a host's home. Authenticity represents consumers' recognition of real experiences while staying at Airbnb accommodations (So et al., 2018). In other words, authenticity can be considered a benefit that Airbnb provides to its customers. According to Bansal et al. (2005), when consumers perceive that an alternative service offers more benefit than an incumbent service, they are inclined to engage in switching behaviors. Hence, authentic experiences facilitate consumers' switching behaviors. Compared with traditional hotels, tourists have access to homely amenities in Airbnb, which lack modernity within the service space; therefore, tourists perceive authenticity. So et al. (2018) argued that authenticity is fundamental to the Airbnb experiences because consumers become guests instead of travelers when they share lifestyles and dwellings with locals. When consumers can acquire more authentic local experiences, such as unique accommodation interiors and atmosphere, from an accommodation on Airbnb than from a traditional hotel on a third-party OTA platform, their switching behavior is strengthened. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

H_2 Pull effects, namely monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity, exert positive influences on consumers' behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

Third-party OTA platforms and Airbnb provide accommodation options for tourists. For instance, Booking.com, a commonly used site in Europe, is a third-party OTA platform. Booking.com partners with numerous hotels to facilitate the exploration and reservation processes. Airbnb is not a traditional lodging service that allows customers to rent various spaces for accommodation purposes. These spaces can be entire homes or apartments or individual private rooms. Third-party OTA platforms aggregate hotel offers, whereas Airbnb provides peer-to-peer accommodation. Neirotti et al. (2016) indicated that Airbnb is the substitute product of online intermediation platforms, such as Booking.com. Both enable users to explore options and reserve accommodations; thus, their services are substitutes for each other (Gyódi, 2019).

Substitutability represents the extent to which a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb share the same or similar attributes. Substitutable products or services stimulate users' switching behaviors because they can obtain the same or similar products or services from multiple sources (Ye et al., 2008). Conversely, discrepancies between two products reduce perceived substitutability (Cha & Chan-Olmsted, 2012). High substitutability between two products induces consumers' attribute-based evaluations (Dibiaggio et al., 2014). Customers decide to switch to the service with relatively numerous advantages. An increase in the activities one entity may reduce the marginal benefit of another entity (Hagedoorn & Wang, 2012). Furthermore, Dennis et al. (2010) confirmed the positive influence of substitutability on purchase intentions. Li (2018) reported that substitutability positively influences consumer switching between traditional membership cards and branded apps. When consumers perceive that Airbnb substitutes the functions or services of a third-party OTA platform, they may decide to switch to Airbnb.

H_3 Substitutability exerts positive influences on consumers' behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

Airbnb is driven by information technology and collaborative online communication (Hamari et al., 2016). More than 150 million users worldwide have booked more than 1 billion stays (iProperty Management, 2022). When the number of users increases, the availability of complementary products may increase, and thus facilitate the sharing of possessions. As the number of Airbnb users increases, the amount of information in the form of ratings and reviews increases, which is shared in virtual communities such as Facebook. This information helps consumers evaluate accommodation options.

A platform that is accessible to a critical target population can provide a useful density of connections (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). Social economy networks exhibit the structural features of large populations of active participants (Bauer & Gegenhuber, 2015). Network externalities derived from the increases in the total number of consumers participating in a given platform benefits consumers (Tseng & Teng, 2014; Wang, Luo et al., 2019; Wang, Duan et al., 2019). Consumers are encouraged to discuss with other users or find additional ratings or

reviews about the products or services available on the platform (Zervas et al., 2017). As suggested by Rogers (2003), relative advantage is precedents for any adoption decision. Relative advantage is defined as the degree to which a new service or product is perceived to be better than an existing product (Jin, 2016). Furthermore, Pae and Jung (2002) argued that the relatively large market share of a technology can be interpreted by consumers as evidence of higher quality and capability, regardless of the actual performance of the technology. Similarly, on sharing platforms, a large user population provides evidence of value or utility of the services and motivates new users to join. Therefore, network externalities facilitate consumers' switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

H_4 Network externalities exert positive influences on consumers' behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

The PPM framework structures a list of predictors into theoretical categories for explaining migration behavior (Bansal et al., 2005). According to the PPM, framework mooring effects not only directly influence switching behavior but also moderate relationships between push and switching behavior as well as those between pull factors and switching behavior. For instance, customers might decide not to switch despite low quality or attractive alternatives because of the moderating factor inertia. More specifically, in the present study, we assume that mooring variables moderate the relationships between the push factors and switching behavior as well as those between pull factors and switching behavior. When two elements complement the same other elements, they can be considered to be substitutable (Dibiaggio et al., 2014). Substitutability forces consumers to evaluate the pros and cons of each product (Li, 2018). If consumers perceive that a third-party OTA platform provides low structural assurance and low standardization and that its functions or services can be substituted by Airbnb, they may decide to switch to Airbnb. Accordingly, when a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb are perceived as substitutable, the effects of low structural assurance and low standardization on switching behavior are strengthened.

H_5 Substitutability moderates relationships between push effects and switching behavior. The stronger the substitutability, the stronger are the relationship between push variables (low structural assurance and low standardization) and switching behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

When a substitutive relationship emerges, firms consider the synergistic costs and benefits of each option (Hagedoorn & Wang, 2012). Similarly, consumers judge the substitutability of the products that exhibit similar elements. The level of substitutability of knowledge elements reveals that the value of each solution influences the selection of the most useful solution (Dibiaggio et al., 2014). People tend to choose products or services that provide relative advantages (Jin, 2016). When consumers perceive that a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb are substitutable but that Airbnb is cheaper and provides sustainability, authenticity, and interactivity, they are likely to switch to Airbnb.

H_6 Substitutability moderates relationships between pull effects and switching behavior. The stronger the mooring effects, the stronger are the relationships between pull variables (monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity) and behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

Users on sharing economy platforms gain access to a large network of service providers, customers, or resources (Bauer & Gegenhuber, 2015). When a sharing economy platform reaches a critical mass, numerous active participants constitute a dense network of connections. A large network size provides users with opportunities to communicate with numerous friends and colleagues (Zhou et al., 2015). Network externalities facilitate information sharing and receiving because of the expansion of a user base (Lai et al., 2007). Networks externalities indicate that networks offer benefits to users because of their size; consequently, they attract more new users to join (Dreyer et al., 2017). Furthermore, Tseng and Teng (2014) argued that network externality of one provider can induce users to receive additional benefits by abandoning their present provider. Similarly, network externalities induce consumers to regard Airbnb as useful, thus attracting an increasing number of new consumers to join Airbnb. When consumers perceive low structural assurance and low standardization of hotels on a third-party OTA platform, if the user base of Airbnb is large, consumers' switching behavior will be strengthened. Thus, the next hypothesis can be formulated.

H_7 Network externalities moderate relationships between push effects and switching behavior. The stronger the mooring effects, the stronger are the relationships between push variables (low structural assurance and low standardization) and behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

Network externalities represent increased utility with an increased number of users (Zhou et al., 2015). Additional utilities, such as product reviews or ratings, facilitates consumers' evaluation of product attributes, which assists them in making decisions. Stanko et al. (2013) indicated that when the number of users increases, utility from consumption increases. Lin and Lu (2011) argued that network externality enhances users' perceived usefulness and perceived enjoyment of using the social networking sites. Pae and Jung (2002) proposed that network externalities play a critical role in usage decision. Sharing economy platforms allow consumers to connect with other consumers or producers domestically or internationally (Bauer & Gegenhuber, 2015). When consumers receive benefits from using Airbnb, such as monetary saving, sustainability, authenticity, and interactivity, if consumers can acquire additional utilities from using Airbnb, their behavior toward switching to Airbnb will be bolstered.

H_8 Network externalities moderate relationships between pull effects and switching behavior. The stronger the mooring effects, the stronger are the relationships between pull variables (monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity) and behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

Fig. 1 displays the research model.

4. Methodology

4.1. Measurement development

Measurement scales are obtained from relevant validated scales and adapted in the current study. According to studies by Churchill (1979), statistical and judgmental criteria are used to make decisions in favor of scale purification. Statistical criteria refer to the comparison of results of a calculation with a cut-off value for quantitative data, while judgmental criteria are the evaluation of qualitative data that are concerned with the appropriateness of the constructs and scales. We evaluate questionnaire items by using a 7-point Likert-type scale, with anchors ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). We perform a pretest by recruiting 1 manager and 2 tour guides among travel agents and 10 experienced independent travelers to justify the length and wordings of the scales. Furthermore, we conduct a pilot test with 2 professors teaching in department of leisure and recreation management and 30 users of Airbnb to obtain feedback and refine the instrument. The questionnaire items are listed in the Appendix.

4.2. Questionnaire administration

To empirically test the proposed research model, we conducted a quantitative survey through online data collection. To ensure the appropriateness of the sample, we only target individuals who had stayed at accommodations displayed on both Airbnb and a third-party OTA platform, such as Booking.com, for at least one night. To restrict the data to responsive customers, we asked respondents to specify the city and country that they visited during their most recent trip with transaction experiences on Airbnb and a third-party OTA platform separately. We invite target consumers to participate in the survey through a banner with a hyperlink connected to our web survey

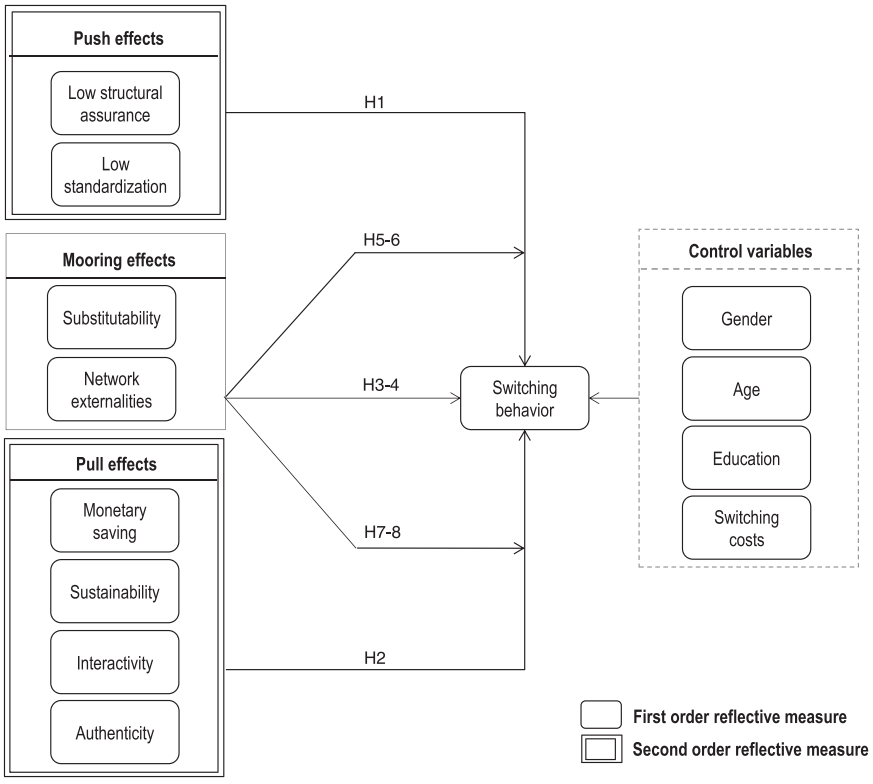

Fig. 1. The Research Framework of this Study.

published on several bulletin board systems, fan pages, and chat rooms on Facebook and Instagram as well as on virtual communities.

The online questionnaire was distributed from December 25, 2021, to January 22, 2022. In total, 358 questionnaires were received, with 11 duplicates and incomplete responses. Consequently, we determine 347 questionnaires to be valid. As shown in Table 1, approximately 59 % of the respondents are female, while 42 % of all respondents are aged 26–35 years. In terms of the educational background, 84 % of the respondents are at least university graduates. More than 63 % of the respondents are unmarried and 49 % of the respondents have booked accommodation on Airbnb two to four times. Regarding monthly income, 31 % of the sample earn more than USD1590. According to iProperty Management (2021), 54 % of Airbnb guests are female, and 36 % of guests are between ages of 25 and 34, which is similar to the demographics of the respondents.

Table 1
Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents.

Measure	Items	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	143	41.2
	Female	204	58.8
Age	20 years old and below	2	0.6
	21–25 years old	40	11.5
	26–30 years old	79	22.8
	31–35 years old	66	19.0
	36–40 years old	63	18.2
	41–45 years old	48	13.8
	46–50 years old	30	8.6
	51 years old and over	19	5.5
Level of education	Senior high school and below	55	15.9
	University	211	60.8
	Graduate school and above	81	23.3
Marital Status	Unmarried	219	63.1
	Married	128	36.9
Occupation	Military personnel, government functionary, or teaching staff	49	14.1
	Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, or husbandry	3	0.9
	Manufacturing industry	72	20.7
	Business or Service industry	146	42.1
	Homemaker	37	10.7
	Student	21	6.1
	Other	19	5.5
What is your average monthly income in the past year?	Under US$635	30	8.6
	US$636–953	41	11.8
	US$954–1271	91	26.2
	US$1272–1589	77	22.2
	Over US$1590	108	31.1

Several tests are performed to determine the validity of the survey data. To identify potential nonresponse bias, this study separates the samples into the early 25 % and late 25 % of survey responses to analyze the demographic variables and measures (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). This study performs Pearson's chi-square tests for the categorical variables, namely the demographic variables, and *t* tests for the continuous variables, namely the measured variables. The results of Pearson's chi-square tests indicate that the early respondents do not significantly differ from the late respondents in terms of gender ($\chi^2 = 1.6$, $p > .05$), age ($\chi^2 = 3.21$, $p > .05$), level of education ($\chi^2 = 2.31$, $p > .05$), marital status ($\chi^2 = 0.37$, $p > .05$), occupation ($\chi^2 = 3.19$, $p > .05$), and income ($\chi^2 = 0.31$, $p > .05$). The *t* tests indicate nonsignificant differences in structural assurance ($t = 1.63$, $p > .05$), standardization ($t = 0.96$, $p > .05$), monetary savings ($t = 1.33$, $p > .05$), sustainability ($t = 0.47$, $p > .05$), interactivity ($t = 0.19$, $p > .05$), authenticity ($t = 1.21$, $p > .05$), substitutability ($t = 0.99$, $p > .05$), network externalities ($t = 0.11$, $p > .05$), and switching behavior ($t = 1.30$, $p > .05$) between the early and late respondents for a 99 % confidence interval.

Because this study uses self-report measures, concerns pertaining to common method bias exist. All the respondents were assured that their responses would be anonymous and confidential, and the survey questions were simple to ensure full comprehension. This study uses SPSS 26 to detect common method bias through the analytical method proposed by Harman (1967). A total of 77.93 % of the total variance is explained,

and the initial factor explains 25.15 % of the variance. Therefore, no single factor causes large variance, and most of the variance is not explained by the first factor.

This study also uses a common latent factor in AMOS 24, as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003), to detect common method bias. All items are allowed to load on their theoretical constructs and on a latent common method factor, which determines the variance among the overserved items in the research model. All loadings on the common latent factor must be equal. Squaring the unstandardized loading reveals the common variance across the items in the model. This test reveals a common variance of 20.25 %, which is within the acceptable limit. Therefore, common method bias is not a substantial concern in this study.

5. Results

5.1. Assessment of the measurement model

As suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), this study uses two-step SEM to validate the measurement and structural models. Confirmatory factor analysis is performed to validate the measurements in AMOS 24, and the results indicate statistically acceptable model fit (χ^2 = 1756.19, degrees of freedom [df] = 620, χ^2/df = 2.83, mean square error of approximation [MSEA] = 0.062 [0.059; 0.066], comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.935, Tucker–Lewis index [TLI] = 0.927, and incremental fit index [IFI] = 0.936). The standardized factor loadings of the items range from 0.56 to 0.95 (Table 2). The reliability and validity of the research constructs are also evaluated. One item from the construct of low sustainability (SU3) is eliminated in the purification process because of nonsignificant factor loadings. This study detects internal construct consistency by examining composite reliability (CR). As depicted in Table 2, CR of each construct exceeds the benchmark of 0.7. Validity is assessed using the average variance extracted (AVE). AVE is higher than the cut-off point of 0.5, which shows an adequate convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 3, the AVE is greater than all of the squared interconstruct correlations, which ensures the discriminant validity of research constructs. In addition, all subconstructs of the composite latent construct are significant at the level of 0.05. Accordingly, the psychometric test demonstrates the unidimensionality and conceptual consistency of the composite latent construct.

5.2. Assessment of the structural model

To test the research hypotheses, this study creates and evaluates a structural model through AMOS 22.0. Four descriptive statistical variables, namely gender, age, education, and switching costs, are used as control variables to determine the effects of extraneous factors. The structural model adequately fits the data (χ^2 = 1755.25, df = 758, χ^2/df = 2.32, MSEA = 0.062 [0.058; 0.065], CFI = 0.903, TLI = 0.895, and IFI = 0.903). A shown in Fig. 2, both push (β = .28, p < .001) and pull effects (β = .54, p < .001) positively affect switching behavior. In terms of the mooring effects, substitutability (β = .19, p < .001) has a positive and significant effect on switching behavior; however, network externalities (β = .01, p > .05) do not affect switching behavior. Thus, H_1, H_2, and H_3 are supported; however, H_4 is not supported. The push, pull, and mooring constructs account for 52.2 % of the total variance in consumer switching behavior.

The moderating role of substitutability on switching behavior is also examined. This study tests H_5 and H_6 by dividing the respondents into high and low groups on the basis of their responses. K-means clustering is used because it enables the number of clusters to be specified (Hair et al., 2014). The responses are split into high-substitutability (N = 98), medium-sustainability (N = 155), and low-substitutability (N = 94) groups. Only the low- and high-substitutability groups are compared because of their large difference (Kelley, 1939). Before the statistical significance of the differences in the path coefficients between two

Table 2
Factor Loadings and Reliability.

Construct	Loading	t-values	CR[a]	AVE[b]
Low structural assurance			0.93	0.77
SA1	0.88	–		
SA2	0.90	24.06		
SA3	0.83	20.47		
SA4	0.89	23.47		
Low standardization			0.88	0.65
ST1	0.88	15.89		
ST2	0.88	16.01		
ST3	0.73	13.30		
ST4	0.73	–		
Monetary saving			0.90	0.70
MS1	0.79	–		
MS2	0.95	20.87		
MS3	0.93	20.35		
MS4	0.63	12.28		
Sustainability			0.91	0.72
SU1	0.80	–		
SU2	0.81	16.81		
SU4	0.87	18.51		
SU5	0.90	19.28		
Interactivity			0.91	0.66
IN1	0.81	18.11		
IN2	0.86	19.56		
IN3	0.79	17.56		
IN4	0.77	16.78		
IN5	0.84	–		
Authenticity			0.89	0.74
AU1	0.81	–		
AU2	0.89	18.74		
AU3	0.87	18.37		
Substitutability			0.88	0.65
SB1	0.85	–		
SB2	0.91	21.59		
SB3	0.86	20.15		
SB4	0.56	10.97		
Network externalities			0.82	0.61
NE1	0.71	–		

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (*continued*)

Construct	Loading	t-values	CR[a]	AVE[b]
NE2	0.80	12.72		
NE3	0.82	12.87		
Switching behavior			0.95	0.85
SI1	0.88	–		
SI2	0.95	27.93		
SI3	0.94	27.17		
Switching costs			0.88	0.65
SC1	0.88	–		
SC2	0.89	22.32		
SC3	0.72	15.97		
SC4	0.83	20.09		

Note:
[a] CR, composite reliability.
[b] AVE, average variance extracted.

groups is determined, a measurement invariance test is conducted. In accordance with the methods of Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), this study tests for configural invariance to determine whether the measurement models are invariant across groups. Measurement models are invariant when the chi-square test reveals no significant difference across groups. The nonrestricted model adequately fits the data (χ^2 = 2256.58, df = 1240, χ^2/df = 1.82, MSEA = 0.066, CFI = 0.83, TLI = 0.81, and IFI = 0.81). The aforementioned results are compared with those of the full-metric invariance model, in which all loadings must be invariant (χ^2 = 2293.14, df = 1268, χ^2/df = 1.82, MSEA = 0.066, CFI = 0.83, TLI = 0.81, and IFI = 0.83). The difference in chi-square values between the nonrestricted and full-metric invariance models is nonsignificant, which indicates the existence of full-metric invariance ($\triangle\chi^2$ = 36.56, df = 28, $p > .05$). Therefore, the measurement models satisfy the measurement invariance criteria and can thus be used in subsequent analyses.

To determine the invariance of specific paths, all paths in the baseline model are identified; the parameters in the nested models must be equal across groups. Table 4 presents the results of the invariance test for specific paths. The results indicate significant differences in chi-square values between the high- and low-substitutability groups ($\triangle\chi^2$ = 6.77, $p < .01$), which indicates that substitutability moderates the influence of push effects on switching behavior (β_{high} =.327, β_{low} =.245, $p < .01$; Table 4). However, the association between pull effects and switching behavior is nonsignificant across the high- and low-substitutability groups ($\triangle\chi^2$ = 0.33, $p > .05$), which indicates that

Table 3
Correlations among major constructs.

Variable	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)	(h)	(i)	(j)
(a) Low structural assurance	**0.88**									
(a) Low standardization	0.56	**0.81**								
(a) Monetary saving	0.17	0.21	**0.84**							
(a) Sustainability	-0.05	0.07	0.43	**0.85**						
(a) Interactivity	0.18	0.22	0.48	0.36	**0.81**					
(a) Authenticity	-0.01	0.09	0.42	0.54	0.45	**0.86**				
(a) Substitutability	-0.01	0.10	0.33	0.40	0.38	0.34	**0.81**			
(a) Network externalities	0.17	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.14	0.00	0.29	**0.78**		
(i) Switching behavior	0.33	0.31	0.50	0.29	0.53	0.31	0.36	0.28	**0.92**	
(a) Switching costs	0.14	0.13	-0.29	-0.23	-0.15	-0.22	-0.21	0.09	-0.15	**0.81**
Mean	3.21	3.59	4.49	4.86	4.41	4.98	5.23	4.45	3.65	3.83
Standard deviation	1.19	1.38	1.29	1.13	1.21	1.16	1.11	1.35	1.25	1.30

Note: Diagonal elements are the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) of the reflective scales. Off-diagonal elements are correlations between construct.

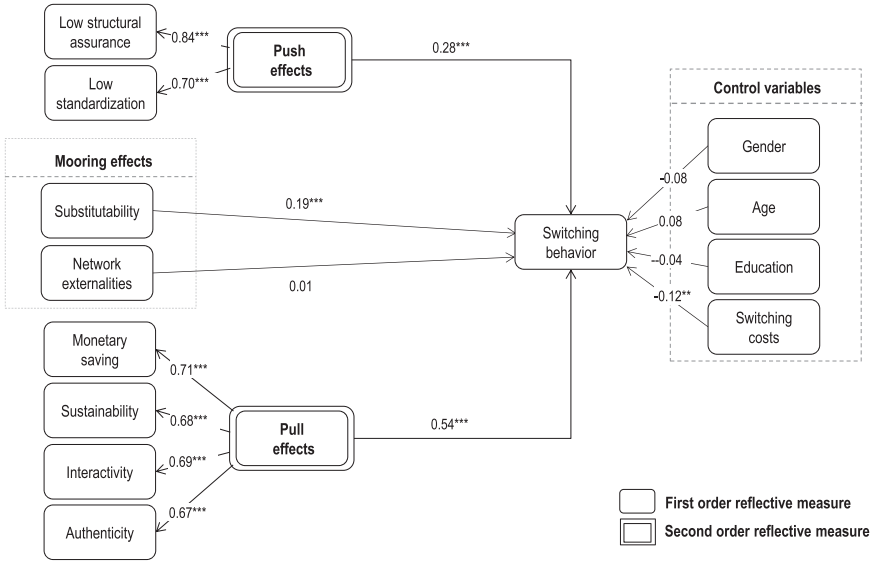

Fig. 2. PLS Results for the Proposed Model Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$*** $p < 0.001$.

Table 4
Invariance Test of Path for Hypothesized Moderation.

Relationships	High	Low	Fit of the model		Chi-square difference test	Significance
			Baseline model	Nested model		
Moderator: substitutability						
Push effects-switching behavior	0.327***	0.245***	$\chi2$ (650) = 1165.01	$\chi2$ (651) = 1171.01	$\triangle\chi2 = 6.77$, $p < 0.01$	**Yes**
Pull effects- switching behavior	0.440***	0.593***	$\chi2$ (650) = 1165.01	$\chi2$ (651) = 1165.34	$\triangle\chi2 = 0.33$, $p > 0.05$	**No**

Note: *** $p < 0.001$.

substitutability does not moderate the influence of pull effects on switching behavior (β_{high} =.440, β_{low} =.593, $p > .05$). Therefore, H_5 is supported but H_6–H_8 are not supported.

6. Research discussion

6.1. Research findings

This study applies the PPM framework to develop a research model for identifying key predictors, namely push, pull, and mooring effects, which influence consumers' switching behavior. The present study has several findings. First, push factors, namely low structural assurance and low standardization, trigger consumers' switching behavior. When a third-party OTA platform does not provide consumers with sufficient safeguards and legal protection, or when the platform does not follow strict operating procedures, consumers may choose to abandon those traditional business operation platforms. The finding is consistent with that of Oskam and Boswijk (2016), who stated that consumers trust traditional hotels because of standardization and safety regulations.

Second, pull variables, namely monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity, motivate customers to use Airbnb. When consumers perceive that they receive benefits, such as saving money, consuming sustainably, receiving an authentic local experience, and communicating with hosts directly, they tend to book accommodation on Airbnb. These results are consistent with those mentioned in previous studies. Barnes and Mattsson (2017) proposed that economic benefits, environmental benefits, and social benefits, influence consumers' behavior intentions. Hobson et al. (2021) considered Airbnb a circular economy that employs underutilized assets to increase efficiency and sustainability and create a community. Mao and Lyu (2017) indicated that Airbnb offers consumers different lodging experiences by acquainting them with real people with real homes and enables them to make real-life friends. Accordingly, pull effects, namely monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity, facilitate consumers to switch from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb.

Third, substitutability of mooring effect facilitates consumers' behavior toward switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb. When consumers perceive that Airbnb substitutes third-party OTA platforms, they tend to switch to Airbnb. The findings of the present study confirm those of a study by Li (2018), which reported that substitutability positively influences consumer switching between two products that satisfy similar needs. Furthermore, substitutability moderates the relationship between the push effect and switching behavior. When consumers perceive that a third-party OTA platform and Airbnb are substitutable and the accommodation reserved using the third-party OTA platform has low structural assurance and low standardization, they may choose to abandon the third-party OTA platform and switch to Airbnb. This supports the notion reported by Dibiaggio et al. (2014), who suggested that when products are substitutable, consumers usually evaluate product features and choose the product that offers the most value.

However, substitutability does not determine the impact of the pull effect on switching behavior. This finding contradicted our prediction that substitutability moderates relationships between pull effects and switching behavior. A possible explanation would be that distrust constrains consumers from using Airbnb (So et al., 2018; Tussyadiah & Park, 2018). On sharing platforms, individuals who do not know each other or lack common connections are expected to share and use resources. Because sharing generally occurs among individuals who trust each other, such as family or friends, trust is a determinant of active participation in the sharing economy (Sutherland & Jarrahi, 2018). Consumers can book accommodations either from a third-party OTA platform or Airbnb, but they may trust hotels provided by a third-party OTA platform instead of rooms available on Airbnb. Accordingly, although Airbnb provides benefits to consumers and can be considered substitute of a third-party OTA platform, if consumers distrust services provided or offered by Airbnb, they may not decide to switch.

Finally, in contrast to our expectations, network externalities do not directly affect consumers' behavior of switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb, nor do they moderate the relationships between pull effects and switching behavior and between push effects and switching behavior. These unexpected findings may be due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Several countries have closed borders and imposed strict travel restrictions during the pandemic, which has caused travel demand to decrease considerably. Because this study's data is collected by the end of 2021, the pandemic forced travelers to cancel their vacations and business trips. This phenomenon decreased the number of customers reserving rooms on third-party OTA platforms and Airbnb as well as discussion of travel plans on blogs and social media. Therefore, network externality is not a key determinant of customers' decisions. This finding contradicts those of Wu, Li et al. (2017), Wu, Vassileva et al. (2017) and Wu, Zeng et al. (2017), who demonstrated that individuals benefit from products and services with strong network effects. Thus, the number of users of a third-party OTA platform may not affect customers' decision to switch to Airbnb.

6.2. Theoretical implications

The present study differs from prior literature in three critical ways. First, the sharing economy, which disaggregates goods and services in space and time represents a threat to traditional transactions (Gonzalez-Padron, 2017). Although several previous studies have identified the factors that determine an individual's willingness to partake in the sharing economy (Barnes & Mattsson, 2016; Park & Armstrong, 2019), few studies have explored consumer switching between a new sharing platform and an existing business operation. For example, convenience, improved service experience, and lower prices, which are in contrast to the traditional ownership market model, attract consumers to engage in new types of transactions with temporary use and sharing of resources (Camilleri & Neuhofer, 2017; Mäntymäki et al., 2019; Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017). By applying the PPM framework (Boyle et al., 1998), this study empirically investigates how push, pull, and mooring factors affect consumers' behavior of switching from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb. The present study responds to the suggestion of So et al. (2018), who stated, "studies providing a more complete account of what drives and deters consumer decisions to adopt Airbnb are in great need for theoretical advances" (p. 225).

Second, the PPM framework has been adapted to analyze information system switching behaviors with reference to various technological artifacts across multiple disciplines. However, most studies using the PPM framework have used similar variables, such as quality (Chen &

Keng, 2019; Hou & Shiau, 2019), inertia (Wang, Luo et al., 2019; Wang, Duan et al., 2019), alternative attractiveness (Ghazali et al., 2020; Hou & Shiau, 2019), and switching costs (Sajjad et al., 2020; Singh & Rosengren, 2020), as predictors of switching intention across different settings, and few have considered differences in research contexts. Because the PPM framework does not specify the factors classified under the push, pull, or mooring categories, it offers flexibility, which enables the framework to be adapted to different contexts (Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017). Furthermore, specific factors determined by specific contexts may facilitate or hinder users' switching decisions (Sun et al., 2017). Although Ruihe et al. (2019) explored switching from hotels to peer-to-peer accommodation services by using the PPM framework, they focused on satiation, value, benefits, and optimal stimulation level and did not elucidate specific push, pull, or mooring factors. In this study, low structural assurance and low standardization are considered push effects, while monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity are considered pull effects that attract consumers to switch from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb. This study responds to the following statement by Gyódi (2019): "A number of questions have yet to be addressed, including to what extent Airbnb offers are segmented, what the relationship is between traditional and Airbnb accommodation prices, and how the competition between accommodation providers varies across different parts of cities" (p. 538).

Third, the PPM framework posits that mooring variables interact with push and pull factors to either promote or hamper potential migration to the new destination (Moon, 1995). The contingency factors determine whether underlying why logics in one field can be applied to another field (Mair & Reischauer, 2017). In the present study, we consider substitutability and network externalities to be mooring variables that facilitate consumers' switching behavior from a third-party OTA platform to Airbnb. This study responds to the following statement in a study by Mao and Lyu (2017): "there is a critical need to find context-specific antecedents or drivers of the repurchase intention in regard to Airbnb (p. 2465)." This study also responds to Gyódi (2019) observation that "the extent to which Airbnb is becoming a substitute for the traditional hotel industry has been only partially investigated" (p. 538).

6.3. Managerial implications

The present study provides suggestions to managers in developing new businesses that follow the trends of the sharing economy. First, services provided by peer-to-peer relationship are different from those provided by industry specialists; consequently, the features of sharing economy platforms are different from those of traditional business operations. Both push effects, namely low structural assurance and low standardization, and pull effects, namely monetary saving, sustainability, interactivity, and authenticity, exert positive influences on switching behavior. As described by Gyódi (2019), Airbnb and traditional hotels compete across various market segments, which results in substitutability as well as complementary relationships between them in some cities. For example, more than 70 % of Airbnb accommodations are not located at the major hotel districts (Zervas et al., 2017). Consumers cannot book rooms at five-star hotels by using the Airbnb platform, but they can easily book hotel rooms, including five-star hotel rooms, through a third-party OTA platform.

Conceivably, although consumer behavior shifts toward a sharing-driven experience, some reasons, such as safety-related incidents and fluctuating quality, explain why some consumers favor hotels. Airbnb should consider complementing the hotel industry by targeting different market segments, highlighting fair prices for highly price-conscious customers, and providing a wide variety of options to customers who desire authentic traveling experiences. Although managers of traditional business sections may decide to compete with the sharing economy by extending their services to the peer-to peer market, transforming from a traditional business into a peer-to peer service provider is difficult. For instance, traditional business sections neglect customer interaction in one-sided rating systems, in which hotels do not rate guests. However, standardization, safety regulations, and the ability to view the reputation of traditional hotels strengthen customer trust. Thus, traditional business sections may also consider leveraging their strengths to distinguish themselves from new sharing economy services, thus delivering distinct value propositions to their consumers.

Second, monetary saving exerts the strongest influence on pull effects (0.71), followed by interactivity (0.69), sustainability (0.68), and authenticity (0.67). When a new business has a limited amount of resources to attract consumers to their sharing economy platform, managers should consider offering monetary incentives. Subsequently, firms should provide convenient communication channels with users and address any concerns regarding environmental sustainability. Although a digital platform promotes sustainable options and motivate environment friendly behaviors, digital and emerging technologies bring adverse impacts on the natural world (Dwivedi et al., 2022). For instance, the Internet of Things (IoT) devices that are required to be powered over time cause biodegradable or toxic e-waste. Furthermore, acquiring an authentic experience is likely to be the last factor that consumers consider for selecting sharing economy platforms. The sharing economy offers numerous possibilities and thus creates a profitable trend that lures many entrepreneurs to participate in it; however, the sharing economy also has serious threats. For instance, service users and providers are aware that the sharing economy lacks regulation, privacy, and safety while using or sharing unutilized resources or properties (Chen & Lu, 2021). Therefore, managers of new business sectors should reduce consumers' concern, such as screening users, guaranteeing quality, enhancing brand image, offering feedback loops, and introducing third-party certificates.

Third, substitutability concerns the ability of competitors to replicate positional advantages. The more substitutable consumers consider sharing economy sectors and traditional business operations, the higher the possibility of cannibalism between them. In particular, when traditional business operations offer low structural assurance and standardization, consumers perceive that their services can be replaced by new sharing economy business, and consumers tend to switch to sharing economy platforms. To reduce substitutability, products or services should be distinguished from those of competitors. Notably, the level of substitutability is perceived when individuals process multiple attributes of products or services. When consumers obtain relevant information, they can establish a knowledge base and evaluate product cues and possibilities. Therefore, managers of traditional business should properly distinguish offerings from new economy operations to satisfy positioned consumers' needs as well as deliver marketing messages and matching brand image to expand their customers' knowledge base.

The COVID-19 pandemic has caused a health crisis and an economic crisis. Because COVID-19 is a highly infectious disease, individuals have been cautioned to remain at home, community lockdowns have been implemented, businesses have closed, and international exchange has stagnated. Travel and mobility bans have adversely affected the hospitality industry. The decrease in international tourism during 2020 resulted in losses of US$300–500 billion in the tourism industry worldwide (UNWTO, 2021). Although several hotels provided quarantine services for those who may have contracted COVID-19, the hotel industry collapsed, with almost two-third of hotels at or below 50 % occupancy (AHLA, 2020). The hotel industry will likely undergo irreversible changes, forcing owners and managers of tourism enterprises to reconsider their business models and adjust operations to satisfy customer needs. However, with crisis comes opportunity. Firms must transform in response to the pandemic to retain customers and encourage revisitation. Fear of the pandemic among the general public has served as reminder of the importance of sanitation and hygiene. Managers and owners must elevate their hygiene standards and revise their cleaning protocols. In addition, sharing economy executed through

platforms can predict and balance supply and demand by leveraging data and advanced analytics (Dwivedi et al., 2022). Technology such as robotics and algorithms can provide solutions and thus minimize human contact. Employees should focus on serving customers in nonroutine tasks. In the postpandemic era, managers and owners in the hotel industry should strive to transform crises into unique opportunities.

6.4. Research limitations and further research directions

The current study has several limitations. First, this study explores consumer switching behavior in the context of sharing economy by using Airbnb as the research context. Consumers' motivations for using a sharing economy option vary in different contexts (Milanova & Maas, 2017). Future studies on other sectors or industries of the sharing economy are warranted. Second, the present study applies the PPM framework to explore consumer switching behavior. According to Cheng et al. (2019), the PPM does not specify the exact set of factors for impelling or prohibiting migration. The present study considers cognition-centric factors as pull, push, and mooring effects. However, affective factors should be considered while discussing switching behavior (Sun et al., 2017). Thus, subsequent studies should address the critical antecedents of switching behavior by identifying emotional variables. Finally, this study is conducted in Taiwan. Different countries may have different results; cross-cultural factors should be included in future studies for the research result to be generalizable.

7. Conclusion

The sharing economy emerged after a series of technological advancements that increased social connectivity and empowered individuals. The sharing economy has changed consumption practices and the perception of ownership. Sharing platforms also threaten the economic sustainability of the hotel industry. However, relatively few studies have explored the features of sharing economy platforms in comparison with existing business operations. To acquire a comprehensive understanding, in the present study, we explore the features of Airbnb in comparison to those of a third-party OTA platform and their influences on consumers' switching behavior. The findings of this study offer a reference regarding consumer switching behavior for managers of third-party OTA platforms and Airbnb.

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Appendix. : Questionnaire items

Low structural assurance (adapted from Cheng et al., 2018**)**
SA1 Third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com provide fewer safeguards to make me feel comfortable renting a space than does Airbnb.
SA2 The protective legal structures of third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com are inferior to those of Airbnb.
SA3 The encryption protocol and technology used by third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com are less effective in ensuring the safety of my online transactions than are those of Airbnb.
SA4 Transactions through third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com are less safe than are those through Airbnb.
Low standardization (adapted from Hsieh & Hsieh, 2001**)**
ST1 Hotels working with third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com follow fewer standard operating procedures than do those working with Airbnb.
ST2 The procedures for employees of hotels on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com are less strict than are those on Airbnb.
ST3 The procedures for employees of hotels on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com satisfy customers' needs less than do those on Airbnb.
ST4 Hotels on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com use automation to reliably serve customers less effectively than do those on Airbnb.
Monetary saving (adapted from Tussyadiah, 2016**)**
MS1 Airbnb benefits me financially more than do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
MS2 Airbnb helps me save more money than do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
MS3 Airbnb helps reduce travel costs more than do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
MS4 Airbnb makes travel more affordable than do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
Sustainability (adapted from Möhlmann, 2015**)**
SU1 Booking accommodations through Airbnb helps me conserve more resources for travel than does booking accommodations through third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
SU2 Booking accommodations through Airbnb is a more sustainable consumption method than is booking accommodations through third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
SU3 Booking accommodations through Airbnb is more socially responsible than is booking accommodations through third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.*
SU4 Booking accommodations through Airbnb is more efficient in terms of resource utilization than is booking accommodations through third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
SU5 Booking accommodations through Airbnb is more environmentally friendly than is booking accommodations through third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
Authenticity (adapted from Wu, Li et al., 2017; Wu, Vassileva et al., 2017; Wu, Zeng et al., 2017**)**
AU1 Airbnb provides a more authentic local experience than do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
AU2 Airbnb offers more unique experiences than do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
AU3 Airbnb offers accommodations that are more connected to the local culture than do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
Interactivity (adapted from Yang et al., 2018**)**
IN1 I engage in more two-way communication on Airbnb than I do on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
IN2 I receive a more immediate response on Airbnb than I do on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
IN3 I receive less responses on Airbnb than I do on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com. (R)
IN4 I receive more answers to questions on Airbnb than on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
IN5 I can engage in more consistent communication on Airbnb than I can on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.

(*continued on next page*)

(*continued*)

Network externalities (adapted from Kim & Min, 2015**)**
NE1 I think a more sizable number of people use Airbnb over third-party OTA platforms, such as Booking.com.
NE2 I think that most people use Airbnb over third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
NE3 I think that more people will start using Airbnb than third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
Substitutability (adapted from Flavián & Gurrea, 2007**)**
SU1 Airbnb provides service in the same manner as do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
SU2 Airbnb satisfies needs that third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com also can.
SU3 Airbnb's services do not differ from those of third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.
SU4 Airbnb is the same as third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com in that they are used for reserving hotel rooms.
Switching costs (adapted from Hsieh et al., 2012**)**
SC1 It would cost me a lot of time and money to switch from third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com to Airbnb.
SC2 The cost of switching from third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com to Airbnb would be high in terms of time, money, effort, and frustration.
SC3 I would lose a lot if I were to switch from third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com to Airbnb.
SC4 The cost of leaving third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com for Airbnb would be high.
Switching behavior (adapted from Hsieh et al., 2012**)**
SI1 I switched from third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com to Airbnb to plan trips.
SI2 I am decreasing the time I spend on third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com and increasing the time I spend on Airbnb.
SI3 I use Airbnb more frequently than I do third-party OTA platforms such as Booking.com.

Note: * represents items eliminated in the purification process; R refers to reversed item.

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