Adoption and Resistance of Service Innovations by Travelers in the Sharing Economy

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements of the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Approved April 2019 by the
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ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

May 2019

ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines travelers' innovation adoption and repurchase behaviors in the sharing economy. The central question is to what extent the tourism industry embraces service innovations in the sharing economy. Predicated upon behavioral reasoning theory, this research makes a contribution to the tourism study and diffusion of innovation literature, by exploring the influence of travelers' reasonings in the innovation decision process. The dissertation follows a two-study format. The analysis contextualizes reasons for and against adoption, by incorporating appropriate constructs relevant to service innovations in social dining services (Study 1) and ride-sharing services (Study 2). An exploratory mixed methods approach is taken in both studies. The survey data and the semi-structured interviews are used to identify the context-specific reasons for and against adoption. And, a series of statistical analyses are employed to examine how reasonings influence intentions to adopt social dining services (Study 1) and intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip (Study 2).

The main results suggest that both reasons for and reasons against adoption have countervailing influences in the psychological processing, supporting the validity of the research models. The findings also reveal that different psychological paths in travelers' adoption and repurchase intentions. In Study 1, the trustworthiness of service providers attenuates the reasons against adoption and enhances the likelihood of adopting social dining services in the pre-adoption stage. In Study 2, attitude strength functions as an additional construct, which mediates travelers' attitudes and ultimately intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip in the post-adoption stage. By developing and testing a framework comprising a set of consumers' beliefs, reasonings for adoption and resistance, attitudes towards adoption, and behavioral responses to the

sharing economy, the insights gleaned from this research allow practical recommendations to be made for service providers, platform providers, and policy makers in the tourism industry.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is a cumulation of a wonderful five-year journey with many brilliant people. I am blessed to have had the opportunity to work with them over the past years. First and foremost, I am sincerely grateful to my academic advisor, Dr. Woojin Lee for the persistent guidance and encouragement she showed me throughout my doctoral program. I deeply appreciate her compassion and confidence to get this dissertation shaped right. I also thank the other members of my dissertation committee: Dr. Christine Buzinde taught me critical thinking and intellectual rigor in qualitative study. Dr. Christine Vogt stimulated me with her theoretical elegance, insightful ideas, and managerial relevance to the field of travel and tourism. Dr. Mary Jo Bitner greatly inspired me in the field of services marketing, which was built into my dissertation. Their contribution significantly added the value to the dissertation.

I would like to acknowledge that this dissertation was extensively supported by scholarships, awards, and amazing people which provided indispensable resources to sustain my research. I would like to thank to Dr. Mark Searle and Mrs. Judy Searle for offering me a scholarship to fund my research. Acknowledgment must also be given to the financial support provided by the Travel and Tourism Research Association and the Graduate College at Arizona State University. I would like to extend my gratitude to Dr. Richard Knopf and Mrs. Jolene Gosling for helping me recruit research participants. I would also like to thank Dr. Yen-Soon Kim and doctoral students, Hyogeun Song and Eunmin Hwang, at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas for aiding me in the collection of survey data.

I have a profound debt to many professors and fellow doctoral students at Arizona State University. The rigorous classes of Dr. Marilyn Thompson in the Sanford School of Social and Family Dynamics and Dr. Yushim Kim in the School of Public Affairs have been exceptionally valuable to hone my methodological skills. I would like to thank Lana Olsen, Chia-Ko (J. K.) Hung, and Jada Lindblom who made my time at Arizona State University wonderful. I also greatly enjoyed my time with my colleagues in the Center for Sustainable Tourism. Special thanks to Dr. Young H. Chun at Louisiana State University for his constant support since I started the MBA program for my graduate study.

Finally, I would express sincere and heartfelt gratitude to my precious family. My completion of the doctoral program would not have been possible without my family's unconditional love and support. My beloved family members who have endured much in the past five years bring me the strength to continue my study. I am eternally grateful that I have them in my life.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The sharing economy[1] has developed service innovations in the tourism industry. One of the big questions that the tourism industry is currently facing is the extent to which it embraces service innovations of platforms, such as Uber, Lyft, and Airbnb (Cheng, 2016; Sigala, 2014). In the first quarter of 2016, ride-sharing (e.g., Uber, Lyft) accounted for 46% of business ground transportation trips in North America (Phocuswright, 2016). Given the rapid growth of these platforms, many technology ventures have emerged in recent years to develop similar business models (Horton & Zeckhauser, 2016; Täuscher & Kietzmann, 2017).

Most ventures in the sharing economy, however, have not reached sufficient demand (Täucher & Kietzmann, 2017). The prime example is social dining services, such as EatWith and Feastly, in which chefs are connected to paying guests on platforms via internet or mobile devices. Many social dining apps have either closed or experienced a setback. Not all the sharing economy businesses maintain the steady stream of demand. In the third quarter of 2017, there were 500 businesses within the sharing economy realm, but only three platforms – Airbnb, Uber, and Lyft – have received the largest amount of funding (Täuscher & Kietzmann, 2017). This suggests that these highly referenced platforms do not necessarily give us the whole picture of the sharing economy business. Nor can we assume their business models are applicable to other contexts.

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[1] The sharing economy is also called collaborative consumption, peer-to-peer market, access-based services, or platform services. In this dissertation, the term "sharing economy" is used to broadly refer to these service innovations. The semantic differences between these terms are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

As the sharing economy has expanded, it has triggered significant debates within the tourism industry as to why consumers choose service innovations in the sharing economy (Guttentag, Smith, Potwarka, & Havitz, 2018; Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen, 2016; Möhlmann, 2015). Understanding consumers' adoption and resistance of service innovations is critical for tourism services in developing and marketing new products and services. This challenge is epitomized by a recent comment from a former CEO of a social dining app:

> How we get people to try this new way of experiencing a city or a new way of eating out? It's been an intellectual conundrum." (Clifford, 2017).

This comment points to the pressing need to understand the reasons that travelers often keep themselves from using innovative services. To gain sufficient demand, tourism entrepreneurs need to take account of not only valuable insights offered by customers. They should also seriously take into consideration some hidden factors of consumer resistance in the sharing economy, rarely identified in the popular press or academic research.

Problem Statement

Even as the sharing economy grows more widespread, convincing travelers to continuously use these service innovations remains challenging. With the tremendous success of Airbnb in the accommodation sector, several platforms have aspired to be the next Airbnb by attracting more adopters. Some businesses succeed while others fail in the sharing economy. For example, ride-sharing companies such as Uber or Lyft achieved

astounding success. By contrast, several small or medium sized apps in the sharing economy ended up closing their businesses due to a lack of demand. Today more than ever, researchers face intense pressure to answer the questions as to how the sharing economy businesses could attract more travelers. Answers to this challenge have important implications about the development and management of sharing economy businesses.

To respond to this challenge, efforts in academia have been devoted to studying the factors that influence the decision to use tourism services in the sharing economy. In the tourism field, the customer-centric approach to the sharing economy has emerged as an active research area, focusing primarily on Airbnb or Couchsurfing (Guttentag & Smith, 2017; Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a). To date, the existing studies on the sharing economy have targeted service attributes that distinguish Airbnb from those of the conventional accommodation sector (Guttentag & Smith, 2017; Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018b; Lee & Kim, 2018; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016) or explained why travelers choose Airbnb (Guttentag, Smith, Potwarka, & Havitz, 2018; So, Oh, & Min, 2018). The academic literature has noted that Airbnb has clear advantages over other existing services (Guttentag & Smith, 2017). Financial (economic) benefits, social benefits, and home benefits have been regarded as the factors affecting the decision to choose Airbnb over other types of accommodations (Guttentag et al., 2018; So et al., 2018; Tussyadiah, 2016).

While these studies significantly improved our understanding of the sharing economy, several gaps can be identified in the literature. First, in conceptualizing and measuring consumer behaviors, much of the existing research on the sharing economy

has relied exclusively on holistic concepts and measures, such as "intention to use" (Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a, 2018b; Tussyadiah, 2016). These measures are too broad to be used to differentiate consumers' various intentions in a complex process of the innovation adoption. While existing studies are helpful for understanding decisions on choosing sharing economy businesses, they largely neglect how the innovation decision-making takes place over time. In other words, the conventional formulation is static in nature and it tends to risk oversimplifying the actual innovation process. In this regard, recent studies in the fields of information systems and marketing fields are useful. Scholars in these fields argue that innovation decision-making consists of a multi-stage process that starts at adoption and extends to actual usage and repurchase (Shih & Venkatesh, 2004; Zhu & Kraemer, 2005). Thus, we need a dynamic model that enables us to better understand the variations in pre-adoption and post-adoption, the different points at which social dining and ride-sharing services represent. Accordingly, the focal outcomes of pre-adoption and post-adoption stages should be adoption intentions and repurchase intentions, respectively.

Second, even though some businesses in the sharing economy fail to gain sufficient tourism demand, consumers' resistance to innovations has rarely been given the opportunity to receive attention in the sharing economy. Consumer resistance to innovations refers to the degree to which consumers do not adopt innovations in their decision-making. Relatively little research on the reasons *against* innovations (i.e., resistance factors) can be found in tourism research as well as in other disciplines (Kleijnen, Lee, & Witzels, 2009; Ram & Sheth, 1989). By contrast, the reasons *for* innovations (i.e., adoption factors) have been widely discussed in existing studies (Bartels

& Reinders, 2011; Couture, Sénécal, & Ouellet, 2015; Goldsmith, Freiden, & Eastman, 1995; Meuter, Bitner, Ostrom, & Brown, 2005; Moore & Benbasat, 1991). In terms of tourism services in the sharing economy, travelers may have diverse reasons against service innovations to adopt or continue to use them. Tourism entrepreneurs should be aware of the consequences of consumer resistance, which may lead to failure of businesses if resistance factors are not identified.

Third, skepticism about the sharing economy business model has been renewed recently, in part due to safety and security concerns, which outweigh functional or social benefits of sharing economy products and services (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016). There is a substantial gap between benefits and barriers that both early and late adopters may perceive, but very little research incorporated both dimensions, partly because of the difficulty of developing measures and collecting data. In addition, the fundamental schism between benefits and barriers have been neither theorized nor fully explored in the behavioral framework. Although Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016) advanced the studies on consumer benefits and barriers in Airbnb, they acknowledged the linkage between concepts (theories) and measures is still weak and limited. Clearly, there is a need for a theoretically rigorous behavioral framework for examining how consumers negotiate the trade-offs between benefits and costs of the sharing economy services, while evaluating the reasons for and against adoption, and forming attitudes.

Fourth, little research is available within tourism that explicitly addresses innovation resistance embedded in customer-provider relationships. The research has focused predominantly on technological advances, such as self-service technology, but overlooked the service relationship at the human-to-human level between the consumer

and the service provider. The sharing economy, however, comprises not only a platform technology but also involves both customer and service provider as integral participants. The interactions between the customer and the service provider are deemed as an important part of the service delivery process. As a result, more tourism research on traveler's beliefs about the trustworthiness of the service provider is needed.

These problems in the literature limit our understanding of the process of service innovations in the sharing economy. Predicated upon important theoretical insights from the studies on innovation-decision process (Rogers, 2003) and behavioral reasoning theory (Westaby, 2005), as explained in the next section and in more detail in Chapter 2, the study attempts to create a unified theoretical framework. These problems in the literature could be addressed together and possibly remedied by the theoretical framework.

Convincing customers to adopt innovations is challenging. To adopt new services, consumers must invest time and efforts, learn new routines, and recognize new value that they could obtain from adopting innovations. Adopters negotiate the trade-offs between benefits and barriers, evaluate reasons for and against adoption, and form attitudes (Claudy, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2014; Westaby, 2005). There is a pressing need to identify a mechanism under which consumers negotiate established behaviors and change their consumption patterns in the innovation adoption and resistance literature. This calls for more research to delineate consumers' beliefs, attitudes, and behavioral intentions and to examine how travelers get convinced to try new services and continue to use them. In studying these crucial features, hence, this study could provide some practical guidelines for small and medium-sized tourism enterprises in the sharing economy.

Research Purpose

Grounded in the diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 2003) and behavioral reasoning theory (Westaby, 2005), the current study examines whether the sharing economy is indeed a new and growing phenomenon. By examining two cases of social dining and ride-sharing services, the dissertation determines how the sharing economy is applied in these two domains in tourism services; how likely these services are adopted and repurchased; and what general reasons for adoption and resistance to usage can be expected. More specifically, the primary aims of this study include: (1) identifying important categories for and against adopting service innovations in the sharing economy from an individual traveler's standpoint, and (2) examining the influences of traveler's beliefs, reasonings, and attitudes on their adoption and repurchase intentions. In doing so, the literature gap in the problem statement is addressed.

In terms of research design, the different timing of adopting new services is considered in the study. The two types of service innovations in the sharing economy, social dining and ride-sharing services, are selected to examine different contexts of innovation decision-making. These tourism services are similar in that they require face-to-face interactions between service providers and customers. However, the two cases illustrate different behavioral intentions: the adoption intentions in the pre-adoption stage and repurchase intentions in the post-adoption stage. This type of analysis is of a methodological interest because most academic research has applied the behavioral framework to a single point of innovation decision-making. As such, innovation adoption research designs predominantly consist of correlational analyses of data gathered in one-shot surveys of respondents (Eriksson & Strandvik, 2009; Kim, Park, & Morrison, 2008;

Peres, Correia, & Moital, 2011). The current study, however, reveals that the antecedents (e.g., beliefs, reasons, attitudes) carry different weights for predicting behavioral intentions in disparate innovation-decision stages. Accordingly, different marketing messages are drawn depending on travelers' intentions to adopt or repurchase service innovations.

The data were gathered from the two different types of service innovations in the sharing economy, each of which is situated at a different innovation-decision stage (i.e., pre-adoption stage and post-adoption stage). This research design corresponds with the argument that data can be gathered at two or more stages during the diffusion process, rather than only after the diffusion process is completed (Rogers, 2003). One is social dining, in which hosts organize dining experiences and guests pay to dine in private homes. In the first study (Chapter 3), social dining is selected for an empirical test in the pre-adoption stage, because this service innovation is fairly new and still in its infancy. For example, EatWith, one of the largest social dining platforms, has showcased cuisines offered in 130 countries with the strong presence in Europe (Ohr, 2017). Social dining services give the opportunity for immersion with a destination's culinary experiences, but it has not yet made great strides in the food service industry (Danovich, 2016).

Another is ride-sharing, in which passengers hail a ride from drivers in private vehicles. In the second study (Chapter 4), ride-sharing services are selected for an empirical test in the post-adoption stage. These service innovations have been developed and diffused across the world. For example, Uber is available in 83 countries and over 674 cities worldwide (Uber website). Thus, ride-sharing services provide an avenue to

examine consumer attitudes and behavior in the post-adoption stage of service innovations.

In formulating the theoretical framework, behavioral reasoning theory (Westaby, 2005) is used to identify how travelers' preferences are formed and translated into behavior. Behavioral reasoning theory is a useful theoretical framework for the broader domain of motivation by integrating the external variables, such as reasons for and against behavior. *Reasons* refer to "the specific subjective factors people use to explain their anticipated behavior" (Westaby, 2005, p. 100). Behavioral reasoning theory allows specific sub-dimensions of reasons for and against the behavior to vary in different context. Predicated upon this theory, travelers' reasons are presumed to influence attitudes, in which in turn predict intentions to adopt innovative services.

The first survey study (Chapter 3) focuses on service innovations in the *pre-adoption* stage by examining intentions to adopt social dining services. The purpose of the first survey study is to identify travelers' reasons for and against adopting social dining services and to examine the relationship between reasonings and adoption intentions in a purposive sample of food industry experts.[2] Several studies on the sharing economy have identified the lack of provider's trustworthiness as a major barrier to adopting sharing economy products and services (Cheng, 2016; Ert, Fleischer, & Magen, 2016; Federal Trade Commission, 2016; Hazée, Delcourt & Vaerenbergh, 2017). Based

[2] One of the difficulties in studying adoption is that non-users may come up with nothing to say but "do not know" or "not applicable" due to their lack of experiences (Morgan & Krueger, 1993). Thus, the experts in the food service industry are selected to be participants, because they have knowledge on the service innovations and consumer trends that make them especially good sources of information.

on the literature, the study on social dining investigates how the lack of trustworthiness may or may not hinder innovation adoption and what types of benefits may facilitate adoption intentions in social dining services.

The second survey study (Chapter 4) addresses *post-adoption* variations in usage by examining intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services. The purpose of the second survey study is to identify travelers' reasons for and against using ride-sharing services and to examine the relationship between *reasonings* and *repurchase intentions* among a random sample of travelers. In the post-adoption stage, travelers secure further reasons that they should adopt or reject the innovations and strengthen their attitudes towards innovations. Thus, *attitude confidence* is added to gauge the degree to which reasons become clear and certain in the post-adoption stage.

Using the customer-centric view, this dissertation research explores how travelers respond to new services offered by the sharing economy. This is important, as Sigala (2014) has called for more tourism research that explores the factors motivating and inhibiting the adoption of sharing economy products and services.

Research Background

Sharing Economy as Service Innovations

The sharing economy, also referred to as the peer-to-peer market, is conceptualized as a way for consumers to be engaged in a new social-economic phenomenon. The sharing economy is defined as "an economic system in which assets or services are shared between private individuals, either for free or for a fee typically using the internet" (Oxford Dictionary, 2017). In the sharing economy, service providers use their assets or

services for personal consumption, but sometimes rent them out to consumers temporarily via platforms (Belk, 2010; Horton & Zeckhauser, 2016).

In this dissertation, the definition of the sharing economy is built on three characteristics that distinguish it from the conventional types of tourism services. First, the sharing economy requires a high level of customer participation. Unlike conventional businesses, the sharing economy customers are expected to participate substantively in the service delivery process by refining their information search, exchanging information, building relationships with service providers, and/or posting reviews (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Hazée, Delcourt & Vaerenbergh, 2017). This requires customers to accept their role as cocreators (Benoit, Baker, Bolton, Gruber, & Kandampully, 2017; Michel, Brown & Gallan, 2008) within the sharing economy system. A high level of customer participation calls into question whether cocreators play an important role in shaping reasons for adopting or using service innovations.

Second, the sharing economy is characterized by granting customers temporary access to personal goods and services, while service providers capitalize on them. The goods and services exchanged are of a more intimate nature than those exchanged in a non-sharing market. A growing number of individuals share their own personal resources (Sundararajan, 2016). For example, service providers offer goods that are traditionally purchased for personal uses only, such as vehicles, real estate properties, time or skills. The tasks traditionally conducted within a family (e.g., giving someone a ride, serving a home-cooked meal, running an errand) are carried out by strangers in exchange for payment. Compared with exchanges via traditional e-commerce companies, such as eBay, exchanges within the sharing economy-platforms expose consumers to the service

delivery, offered by providers with the varying degrees of abilities and reliability to perform services. While transactions in traditional e-commerce are relatively anonymous, the interactions between providers and consumers in the sharing economy are of a more private and personal character. This inevitably prompts attention to service providers' trustworthiness as a factor that drives adoption of service innovations in sharing economy platforms (Abrahao, Parigi, Gupta, & Cook, 2017; Ert, Fleischer, & Magen, 2016).

Third, platforms on the internet, or mobile technologies, open the door to sharing possibilities. The increasing penetration of the internet and the proliferation of smartphones with high-resolution digital cameras make these new marketplaces feasible (Horton & Zeckhauser, 2016). For example, Uber would not work in a world where a few travelers have GPS-enabled smartphones. The Uber app in the smartphone displays the available Uber drivers, matches a traveler and a driver, navigates to the destination through the GPS system, and charges the traveler's credit card. These technological advances are important in connecting travelers to micro entrepreneurs in the sharing economy.

The platform providers of the sharing economy, such as Airbnb, Uber and Lyft, play an important role of network facilitator (Larivière, Bowen, Andreassen, Kunz, Sirianni, Voss, Wunderlich & De Keyser, 2017), which opens markets to the public and connect consumers with service providers. In the sharing economy, technology has expanded the scope of the network, so that the market exchange is not restricted to only two parties anymore, but instead open to many people. It now connects consumers with ordinary owners who have underutilized assets (e.g., homes, vehicles). Technology provides consumers with more opportunities to engage through platform technology on

the online or mobile market place (Evans & Schmalensee, 2016). Therefore, a key advantage of the sharing economy might be in facilitating greater diversity in services offered and consumed on platforms (Horton & Zeckhauser, 2016). Consumer-generated reviews, ratings and reputation system of technological platforms, such as Airbnb and Uber, mediate the relationship between providers and consumers.

In summary, the technological platforms in sharing economy has disrupted the notion of ownership and consumption in the tourism industry (Davis, 2014; Friedman, 2013; Zervas, Byers & Proserpio, 2017). As a result, many emerging startups are appearing in the accommodation, transport, and tour guide sectors (UNWTO, 2017). The sharing economy provides new business opportunities to small- and medium-sized entrepreneurs (SMEs) in the tourism industry (Cheng, 2016; Fan, Ye, & Law, 2016; Heo, 2016).

Tourism Services in the Sharing Economy

Since the start of the sharing economy, the tourism industry has been one of the pioneering sectors for its growth (Cheng, 2016; OECD, 2016; UNWTO, 2017). The sharing economy marketplace spans over a range of services (e.g., lodging, ride-sharing, social dining, local touring).

Table 1 shows the relevant platforms and descriptions of tourism services in the sharing economy. In the tourism industry, small- and medium-sized enterprises leverage service innovations in a variety of areas. These entrepreneurs have taken advantage of technological advances to build facilitating platforms. The platforms dramatically lower transaction costs and provide individuals with useful tools previously only available to

relatively large firms (Einav, Farronato & Levin, 2016). Among these platforms, the current study focuses on ride-sharing and social dining services.

Table 1

Types of Tourism Services in the Sharing Economy

Type	Examples	Descriptions
Lodging	Airbnb, Couchsurfing, OneFineStay, VRBO	Connect homeowners with people who need to place to stay when they are traveling.
Ride-sharing	Uber, Lyft, Bla Bla Car, Turo, Zimride	Allow passengers to hail a ride from drivers in their private vehicles.
Social dining	EatWith, Feastly, Meal Sharing, BonAppetour	Organize dining experiences in which guests pay to dine in private homes.
Local touring	Trip4Real, Localeur, Vayable, ToursByLocals	Allow travelers to search for tours guides offered by residents at destinations.

Note. Adapted from Sundararajan (2016, p. 50) and UNWTO (2017, p. 15).

Ride-sharing. Ride-sharing involves participating in an arrangement, in which a passenger travels in a private vehicle driven by its owner, for free or for a fee. These rides are usually arranged by a websites or mobile applications. Although ride-sharing services are used in the first place by locals, they serve travelers' needs as well (OECD, 2016; UNWTO, 2017). The most commonly discussed type of transport service is that of short-distance ride-sharing, such as Uber and Lyft. Ride-sharing is comparable to the services provided by a regular taxi, but it is provided by private individuals using their own vehicles to drive travelers for a fee. More transportation options, convenience, affordable prices, and better accessibility are highlighted as benefits (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012;

Hazée et al., 2017; Schaefers, 2013). Yet, the safety standards, such as driver's background checks or insurance, are not always guaranteed when using ride-sharing services (Einav, Farronato & Levin, 2016; UNWTO, 2017). There is a high degree of heterogeneity regarding driving skills, car insurance, and vehicle qualities. Drivers' ability to deliver consistent and accurate services could be one of major interests to customers.

Social dining (meal-sharing). Even though there is a paucity of academic literature, social dining has been classified as a notable phenomenon under the banner of the sharing economy (Sundrarajan, 2016; UNWTO, 2017). Social dining is based on the idea that guests are connected to amateur or professional chefs via mobile apps or internet. Social dining services are similar to existing services, such as pop-up restaurants and supper clubs, held in private settings or homes. However, social dining services get popular through the use of apps on smartphones, whereby connect hosts with guests on a large scale (Zurek, 2016). By leveraging technology, hosts open up private boundaries to the public, invite guests to private homes, cater with home-cooked meals (CNBC, 2015). Social dining creates an environment where travelers may explore a destination's culinary traditions. At the same time, concerns over uncertified kitchen or food safety have been barriers to adopting the service innovations. Accordingly, diners may have concerns about chef's ability or willingness to deliver services properly.

Research Questions

The overarching research questions are postulated to address the problems and to achieve goals of this investigation:

- How do travelers form the *reasons for and against innovations* in social dining and ride-sharing services?
- How do travelers' *reasonings for and against the innovation*s influence *intentions to adopt* social dining services in the pre-adoption stage (Chapter 3) and *intentions to repurchase* ride-sharing services for a next trip in the post-adoption stage (Chapter 4)?

Innovation-Decision Process

This dissertation builds on the innovation-decision process, as an overarching framework to understand the process under which individuals make decisions on accepting service innovations over time. Rogers (2003) described the *innovation-decision* process as "the process through which an indivtidual or other decision-making unit passes from first knowledge of an innovation, to forming an attitude towards the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and to confirmation of this decision" (p. 20). This study postulates that the innovation-decision process consists of the pre-adoption and post-adoption stages based on the innovation adoption literature (Karahanna, Straub, & Chervany, 1999; Shih & Venkatesh, 2004).

In the pre-adoption stage, an individual engages in activities that lead to a choice to adopt (Laukkanen, 2016; Manning, Bearden, & Madden, 1995; Taylor & Todd, 1995; Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003) or reject an adoption (Claudy, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2014; Heidenreich, Kraemer, & Handrich, 2016; Kleijnen, Lee, Wetzels,

2009). In the post-adoption stage, individuals may shape their behavioral intention by reinforcing the innovation-decision they have already made. Individuals choose continued adoption or discontinuance (Breward, Hassanein, & Head, 2017; Damon, Campbell, Wells, & Valacich, 2013; Karahanna, Straub, & Chervany, 1999). Academic research on the innovation-decision making, critique of the literature, and contribution of the study to innovation decision-making research are discussed in more details in Chapter 2.

Significance of the Study

This dissertation contributes to the literature by (1) developing conceptual frameworks consisting of a unique set of reasons that drive travelers' attitudinal and behavioral responses to the sharing economy, and (2) identifying the current and future trends of the sharing economy in the domains of travelers' food consumption (chapter 3) and travelers' ground transportation use (chapter 4). A theoretical contribution of the current study is to develop and assess the conceptual model that predicts adoption and repurchase intentions. It contributes to the literature by delineating salient dimensions that influence behavioral intentions to use social dining and ride-sharing services.

A practical contribution of the study is to assist small and medium-sized entrepreneurs (SMEs) in understanding travelers' perspectives on service innovations in the sharing economy. Tourism SMEs are subject to variations of market conditions and consumer tastes (Shaw & Williams, 2010). While they compete with conventional tourist services, tourism SMEs are susceptible to unusually high failure rates in their three years of operation (Cosh, Hughes, Bullock, & Milner, 2008). Given that service innovations

occur by capturing consumers' perceptions in the tourism field (Shaw & Williams, 2010), this study opens the door to better understanding of the dynamics of growth and failure in the sharing economy. The dynamics may lead to the delineation of salient factors facilitating and inhibiting service innovations. Tourism SMEs have questioned whether the sharing economy is either competing within an existing industry or carving out a new market. To this end, understanding travelers' acceptance of service innovations is relevant to the growth of the sharing economy.

Delimitations

This dissertation research is delimited to social dining (e.g., EatWith) and ride-sharing (e.g., Uber, Lyft) services, as a form of the sharing economy. Data were collected during a particular time frame of the tourism season, not across an entire year of tourism demand. The sharing economy has been adopted and diffused globally, but this dissertation research was conducted in the United States. This research did not seek out measures related to the firm or the policy maker. Data were measured and analyzed at the individual level.

Limitations

The dissertation study focuses on cross-sectional data that was gathered at the two points in the adoption process, which represent pre-adoption and post-adoption stages. As such, no measurements of the longitudinal nature of the innovation process, as a group of participants navigate innovations ranging from knowledge to confirmation, were

conducted. Each element of the innovation adoption process was measured through self-reports, meaning certain responses may be under- or over-represented.

Outline of Chapters

This dissertation follows a two-study format, with each study addressing a portion of the problem statement and the research questions. Chapter 2 includes the literature review on the adoption and resistance of service innovations, highlighting behavioral reasoning theory as an overarching theoretical framework that guides the present research.

Table 2

Organization of Chapters

	Chapter 3	**Chapter 4**
Innovation of study	Social dining	Ride-sharing
Innovation-decision making	Pre-adoption stage	Post-adoption stage
Variables of interest	Adoption intentions	Repurchase intentions
Context	Travelers' food consumption	Travelers' ground transportation choice
Theory	Behavioral Reasoning Theory	
Elements common to both models	Reasons for and against innovations	
Elements unique to each model	Trustworthiness	Attitudes towards adoption Attitude confidence (strength)
Method	Focus group interview + Survey	Semi-structured interviews+ Survey

Table 2 summarizes the organizations of Chapters 3 and 4. Predicated upon the innovation-decision process (Rogers, 2003), Chapter 3 includes the pre-adoption stage by examining predictions of intentions to adopt emerging social dining services. Chapter 4

encompasses the post-adoption stage by estimating intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services. Finally, Chapter 5 concludes the dissertation in which the findings of all the chapters are discussed holistically with summary, implications, and recommendations for future research.

Definition of Terms

Adoption: a decision to make full use of an innovation as the best action available (Rogers, 2003).

Diffusion: the process in which an innovation is communicated over time among the members of a social system (Rogers, 2003).

Innovation: an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption (Rogers, 2003). In businesses, an innovation refers to the process of bringing new products and services to market (Hauser, Tellis, & Griffin, 2006; Michel, Brown, & Gallan, 2008).

Innovation-decision process: an information-seeking and information processing activity in which an individual is motivated to reduce uncertainty about the advantages and disadvantages of an innovation (Rogers, 2003).

> ***Pre-adoption stage*:** An individual gets aware of an innovation, gains an understanding of how it functions, then tries an innovation (Campbell, Wells, & Valacich, 2013; Karahanna, Strau, & Chervany, 1999).
>
> ***Post-adoption stage*:** An individual who tries an innovation, then builds a favorable or a unfavorable attitude towards the innovation and reinforce their choices to adopt or reject an innovation. An individual seeks reinforcement of an innovation-decision already made, but he or she may reverse this previous decision (Karahanna et al., 1999; Zhu & Kraemer, 2005)

Network facilitator. Technology that opens markets to the public and matches consumers with service providers (Larivière, Bowen, Andreassen, Kunz, Sirianni, Voss, Wunderlich & De Keyser, 2017).

Peer-to-peer accommodation connects homeowners with people who need to place to stay when they are traveling. Examples are Airbnb or Couchsurfing (Tussyadiah, 2016).

Platform provider (Platform technology): the provider in the sharing economy that supplies the online or mobile market place for a particular asset or service, and communicates its value proposition (Benoit, Baker, Boltn, Gruber, & Kandampully, 2017).

Reason: the specific subjective factors people use to explain their anticipated behavior (Westaby, 2005).

> ***Reasons for innovations***: a cognitive process to evaluate benefits.
> ***Reasons against innovations***: a cognitive process to evaluate barriers.

Relative advantage: one of main innovation characteristics. The degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better than its precursor (Moore & Benbasat, 1991).

Resistance to innovations: a cognitive process of not adopting service innovations (Talke & Heidenreich, 2013).

> ***Rejection***: a decision not to adopt an innovation.
> ***Active resistance*** (discontinuance): a decision not adopting an innovation after having previously adopted in the pre-adoption stage.
> ***Passive resistance*** (non-adoption): a decision never considering the use of an innovation in the post-adoption stage.

Ride-sharing**:** transportation services that allow passengers to hail a ride from drivers in their private vehicles. Examples are Uber or Lyft (Furuhata et al., 2013; Nielsen et al., 2015).

Service provider: the actor in the sharing economy that supplies and gives access to a particular asset (e.g., Uber or Lyft vehicle) or service (social dining) in exchange for a monetary contribution from the customer (UNWTO, 2017).

Sharing economy: a new socio-economic phenomenon in which assets or services are shared between private individuals, either for free or for a fee, typically using the internet (UNWTO, 2017). Also called collaborative consumption (Benoit et al., 2017; Botsman & Rogers, 201).

Social dining: dining experiences in which guests are connected to amateur or professional chefs on the internet or mobile apps. Similar services to meal-sharing, pop-up restaurants, supper clubs, or underground dinners. Examples are platforms such as EatWith and Feastly (Ketter, 2017).

Tourism services: a generic umbrella term, encompassing both the intangible and tangible aspects that a destination offers. It includes tourist activities, ranging from accommodations, transports, dining services to tour guide services (UNWTO, 2017).

> ***Conventional tourism services***: the incumbent businesses that operate within the existing regulatory framework in the tourism industry, often through a government license, such as hotels, taxis, or restaurants.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

The literature review in this chapter provides a basis for advancing the research questions (Creswell, 2014). As outlined in the chapter 1, the research questions are: How do travelers form the reasons for and against service innovations? And, how do travelers' reasonings influence the adoption and repurchase intentions? To answer these questions, research on traveler's innovation decision-making requires multi-disciplinary approaches, drawing on consumer behavior, information systems, and tourism. Thus, theoretical foundations in this chapter seek to: (1) integrate these fields into scholarly conversation about the sharing economy in tourism, (2) review previous academic works on adoption and rejection, (3) build bridges between related topics, and (4) identify the central issues that tourism studies could glean from other fields (Cooper, 2010).

The central focus of the dissertation study is consumer innovation acceptance and resistance. Scrutinizing the body of the knowledge on the sharing economy reveals the problems in the existing research on this new phenomenon. Research on innovation adoption and resistance from tourism and other fields guides to creating research questions. The literature review, hence, calls for examining a comprehensive set of consumers' adoption and resistance of service innovations in the sharing economy. In response to this call, behavioral reasoning theory (BRT) was introduced and advanced as a theoretical framework for the entire study. The BRT is a most appropriate theory by which both adoption and resistance could be simultaneously formulated. Utilizing the BRT and placing it into the context of tourism points to the creation of research hypotheses and the data collection procedure in the empirical studies on social dining

services (chapter 3) and ride-sharing services (chapter 4). Drawn on the BRT, the dissertation study explains the cognitive process of innovation decision-making. This means that the major constructs, such as beliefs, attitudes, and reasons for and against behavior, are discussed in the context of service innovations. Moving beyond a direct application of the BRT, the study will extend and revise the BRT, by highlighting the importance of trustworthiness of service providers and attitude certainty and by incorporating these factors into the BRT framework.

Literature Review

In the literature review, the existing studies on the sharing economy are first discussed. The first section introduces similar terms and the current state of knowledge on the sharing economy in the tourism and hospitality fields (Cheng, 2016). Then, the second section contains scholarly works on adoption of service innovations, while the third section encompasses studies on resistance to service innovations, which has been considered an opposite concept of adoption. These two sections associate the present research topics with a broader research stream of the adoption and resistance. The robust findings of the existing studies are incorporated into the theoretical framework.

Sharing Economy

Many terms have been proposed to describe the phenomenon of the sharing economy. There are several terms which are used interchangeably. They include but are not limited to: peer-to-peer (P2P) market (Einav, Farronato & Levin, 2016; Horton & Zeckhauser, 2016), collaboration consumption (Botsman & Rogers, 2010), access-based services (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Hazeé et al., 2017; Schaefers, Wittkowski, Benoit, & Ferraro,

2016), or platform tourism services (UNWTO, 2017). Table 3 summarizes similar terms and definitions of the sharing economy.

Table 3

Similar Terms and Definitions of the Sharing Economy

Terms	Authors	Definitions
Sharing economy	Belk (2010, 2014)	Mediated by technology, goods and services are used and exchanged at levels closer to their full capacity.
	Sundararajan (2013)	Crowd-based capitalism, blurring lines between fully employed and casual labor, between independent and dependent employment, between work and leisure.
Peer-to-peer market	Einav et al. (2016); Horton & Zeckhauser (2016); Tussyadiah & Pesonen (2016)	Assets and services used for personal consumption are shared between private individuals in exchange for payment.
Collaborative consumption	Botsman & Rogers (2010); Sigala (2014)	Maximizing idle capacity of unused or underused assets through shared redistribution. The access to goods and services is driven by trust in strangers and belief in commons.
Access-based services	Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012), Hazeé et al. (2017), Schaefer et al. (2016)	Temporary access to goods and services; Services which grant customers the right to access a good temporarily but require them to share particular goods with others.
Platform tourism services	UNWTO (2017)	Business models in which services are offered to travelers through digital platforms in the areas of tourism information, accommodation, transport, food, and tourist activities.

These terms have common ground that the phenomenon consists of three important components, that is, digital platform (i.e., platform provider), service providers,

and customers (Benoit, Baker, Bolton, Gruber, & Kandampully, 2017). In other words, the transactions in the sharing economy are made between the service provider and the customer. The provider is not a company but generally a private person offering product, service or information through a platform on internet or mobile. The UN World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) follows the similar triadic framework of the sharing economy. According UNWTO (2017), the sharing economy have developed in four fields of activities in the tourism context. The field of activity includes accommodation, transport, food, and guided tours. The phenomenon of the sharing economy extends to user-generated reviews or ratings on TripAdvisor or Yelp (UNWTO, 2017).

With the rising phenomenon of the sharing economy, the academic literature in the tourism field has highlighted research agendas and future prospects. The recent review articles summarize the current state of understanding on the sharing economy in the tourism and hospitality settings (Cheng, 2016; Sigala, 2014). Overall, three broad knowledge domains have been suggested in the context of the sharing economy. The first line of research is based on a customer-centric approach. Researchers have examined how tourists use sharing economy products and services (Möhlmann, 2015; Tussyadiah & Personen, 2015). In the second line of research, the sharing economy is regarded as a disruptive innovation on a firm, industry, or organizational level (Guttentag, 2015; Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2017). Researchers in this stream have focused on operating practices of a new business model. They investigate how the rise of the sharing economy presents challenges to the existing markets. Finally, the impacts of the sharing economy at the community or government level have been discussed (Fan, Ye & Law, 2016; Hartl, Hoffman & Kirchler, 2016). This research focuses on the impacts of regulatory rules and

policies on tax collection, insurance, employment, and consumer protection. Overall, the impacts of the sharing economy on the individual, corporate, and government levels have gained attention.

Among various knowledge domains, the customer-centric view has been active research area in the tourism field, primarily focusing on Airbnb (Guttentag & Smith, 2017; Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a; Tussyadia & Pesonen, 2017). In a survey on tourists, Guttentag and Smith (2017) found that Airbnb is used almost exclusively as a substitute for existing accommodations. According to them, Airbnb significantly outperformed budget hotels and underperformed upscale hostels. Overall, price, authenticity or uniqueness of the experience were regarded as strength of Airbnb (Guttentag & Smith, 2017; Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018b; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016). By contrast, findings highlight that the lack of security, confidence in quality, or ease of placing a reservation are the areas that are barriers to using Airbnb (Guttentag & Smith, 2017; Tussyadiah, 2016).

Despite the growing literature on the sharing economy, existing studies in the tourism and hospitality field largely focus on Airbnb. Given the impacts of the sharing economy across tourism services, research topics should extend to other types of service innovations, such as social dining or ride-sharing services. Furthermore, there has been limited recognition or incorporation of the consumer behaviors that have emerged in innovative services: travelers' reasons for the adoption and resistance to innovations in the sharing economy context. The phenomenon of the sharing economy has been neither theorized, nor fully explored, in the consumer behavior framework in the context of service innovations. In general, the existing research calls for more tourism research on

innovation studies, specifically conducted on travelers' decision-making processes and their consumption preferences in sharing economy services other than Airbnb.

Adoption of Service Innovations

The adoption of innovative products and services has been studied extensively in several fields, including information systems, consumer research, and tourism. Researchers have highlighted the underlying factors that influence technology adoption and use, particularly in the context of self-service technologies (Al-Natour & Benbasat, 2009; Blut, Wang, Schoefer, 2016; Lee, Castellanos, & Choi, 2012; Meuter, Bitner, Ostrom, & Brown, 2005). In the tourism literature, there is a plethora of studies on travelers' perceptions, attitudes, and intentions in adopting the internet or mobile in information search or travel booking (Buhalis & Law, 2008; Kim, Lee & Law, 2008).

The *adoption* factors have been widely studied in performing adoption behavior, whether related to matters such as eating a healthy diet (Conner, Norman, & Bell, 2002), using public transit (Chen & Chao, 2011), or conserving energy (Mills & Schleich, 2012). In the tourism, adoption behavior was discussed in the context of staying at green hotels (Chen & Tung, 2014), and any other domains. The adoption factors include demographic profiles (age, education level, income), consumer innovativeness (individual personality traits), consumer readiness (role clarity, motives), perceived innovation characteristics, usefulness or ease-of-use of technological innovations (Bartels & Reinders, 2011; Couture, Sénécal, & Ouellet, 2015; Goldsmith, Freiden, & Eastman, 1995; Meuter et al., 2005; Moore & Benbasat, 1991).

In the tourism field, the dominant paradigm used to examine traveler's responses to innovations is Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and its

extensions. Drawn from the field of social psychology, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA, Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) is one of the most influential theories of innovation adoption. According to this model, the immediate cause of the behavior is behavioral intentions, a conscious decision to engage in a certain action. The two determinants of intentions are attitudes toward the behavior and subjective norms. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB, Ajzen, 1991) is deemed as the most prominent extension to the TRA; TPB (Ajzen, 1991) features one additional construct of perceived behavioral control. Ajzen (1991) defined perceived behavioral control as "the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior" (p. 188). In the context of information system research, the perceived control refers to "perceptions of internal and external constraints on behavior" (Taylor and Todd, 1995, p. 149).

There is a growing body of tourism research that has applied TRA and TPB in its original and extended forms (Han, 2015; Ye, Soutar, Sneddon, & Lee, 2017). Some extensions of the TPB have been applied to predict tourists' use of sharing economy services such as Airbnb (So, Oh, & Min, 2018) and bike sharing on holiday (Kaplan, Manca, Nielsen, & Prato, 2015). These extensions enhance understanding of those behaviors over which a person does not have complete voluntary control, including complex behaviors that require extensive planning or preparation.

Overall, the TRA and TPB have been influential behavioral frameworks in tourism, as well as social psychology. Nevertheless, many researchers have criticized these theories (Eagly & Chaiken, 1992). One issue that has received empirical attention is the role of external variables. More specifically, motivation mechanism continues to be debated (Fazio, 1990; Fazio, Powell, & William, 1989). In these studies, the influences of

motivational mechanism in the behavioral model are not always fully mediated by global motives such as attitudes (Olson & Zanna, 1993). However, scholars point out that behavior can be affected by different factors other than attitudes, social norms, and perceived controls (Eagly and Chaiken (1992; Howe & Krosnick, 2017; Olson & Zanna, 1993). Therefore, the role of additional variables calls for more research to examine the determinants of travelers' intentions to adopt and repurchase service innovations. In the theoretical framework section, the additional variables, such as reasons for and against adoption, trustworthiness of service providers, and attitude confidence, will be discussed further to elucidate their influence on adoption and repurchase intentions.

Resistance to Service Innovations

Innovation resistance is defined as a conscious response offered by consumers to an innovation "either because it poses potential changes from a satisfactory status quo or because it conflicts with their belief structure" (Ram & Sheth, 1989, p. 6). The tourism and hospitality literature has focused on innovation or technology adoption (Couture, Arcand, Sénécal, & Ouellet, 2015; Enz, 2012; Gomezelj, 2016; Randhawa et al., 2016; Verma, Stock, & McCarthy, 2012), but there seems to be little substantive theoretical explanation for consumer resistance to innovations in other fields.

Even though consumers' resistance has not yet received a significant amount of attention, evidence in the service or tourism industry indicates that innovations have been hampered by consumer resistance. For example, self-service technology was first introduced to financial services with the automatic teller machine (ATM), but it took more than a decade for the ATM to succeed as a mainstream service (Garcia, Bardhi, & Friedrich, 2007). In the airline industry, electronic tickets were first issued by United

Airlines in 1994, but the development went fairly slowly (Hjalager, 2015). E-ticketing was not fully implemented until a new standard in 2004 by the International Airport Transportation Association sped up its development (Hjalager, 2015). Many ultimately successful innovations (e.g., gas stations, airport check-in kiosks, or movie ticket kiosks) languished for years in the gap between early adopters and the mainstream market (Gavett, 2015).

Prior studies delve into three factors that drive consumer resistance (Kleijnen, Lee, & Wetzels, 2009; Ram & Sheth, 1989). First, innovations, which require consumers to change their established behavioral patterns, norms, habits and traditions, are likely to be resisted. Consumers must learn new routines and habits or embrace new traditions and values. Second, innovations, which in some way cause a psychological conflict or problem for consumers, are likely to be resisted. Lastly, innovations that are difficult to understand or hard to observe are susceptible to resistance, causing uncertainties of the outcome of the innovation (Ram & Sheth, 1989). Overall, consumer resistance to innovation may arise because the innovation requires the acceptance of unfamiliar routines or compels people to abandon deep-rooted traditions. It also takes place because the innovation conflicts with consumers' ingrained belief structures.

Innovation resistance varies in degree (Ram & Sheth, 1989). There are three forms of innovation resistance (Szmigin & Foxall, 1998): rejection, postponement, and opposition. The most extreme form of resistance is rejection. Consumers may postpone adopting an innovation even though they may find it acceptable. In many cases, postponement would appear to be caused by situational factors (Heidenreich & Kraemer, 2015; Heidenreich, Kraemer, & Handrich, 2016; Kleijnen, Lee, & Wetzels, 2009; Martin,

Gustaffsson, & Choi, 2016). Consumers may try out the innovation, but finally decide to launch an attack against its adoption. For example, when Google Glass was introduced, the device initially met with high market resistance because consumers thought that the technology was unsettling, intrusive, and privacy-destroying (Naughton, 2017). In this way, innovations are opposed because consumers do not perceive relative advantage. Another example is electric vehicles. Early adopters had to cope with a lack of necessary charging stations; a notable reason for drivers to shun electric vehicles (Zhang, Gensler, & Garcia, 2011). Consumers may experience usage barriers when an innovation conflicts with their existing usage patterns (Ram & Sheth, 1989).

Critique of the Existing Literature

In what follows, prior studies are discussed with a focus on adoption and resistance to service innovations in the sharing economy. A critical review of this literature reveals that in general there is a lack of perspectives on consumer-decision making in adopting service innovations.

First, the extant research has done little to provide a more complete picture of the entire innovation-decision process. As Rogers (2003) suggested, the innovation-decision process is a dynamic, multilevel, and lengthy process involving actions of several stages. However, the existing research designs of innovation adoption mainly consist of correlational analyses of data gathered in one-shot surveys of respondents (Eriksson & Strandvik, 2009; Kim, Park, & Morrison, 2008; Peres, Correia, & Moital, 2011). Gathering data from respondents only at a particular time frame does not capture the adoption process as a whole. One way of addressing this shortcoming is to obtain data

from multiple types of innovations situated in the different stages of the innovation-decision process (e.g., pre-adoption and post-adoption).

Second, consumer resistance to innovation has been deemed less important than customer adoption. This means that the literature provides inadequate insights on consumer responses to innovations. It is perplexing that there are only a few studies on consumer resistance to innovations, given that resistance is a critical component to our understanding of consumers' decisions to adopt and continue to use innovative services (Laukkanen, 2016; Talke & Heidenreich, 2014). The factors that lead to adoption have been widely studied both in marketing and tourism fields (Blut, Wang, Schoefer, 2016; Morosan, 2014), but consumer resistance has been understudied. Since Ram and Seth (1989) paid attention to customer resistance as a distinct construct, several studies have begun to highlight the notion of consumer resistance. In the tourism field, Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016) noted barriers to using Airbnb, such as the lack of trust and efficacy. Liang, Choi, and Joppe (2018b) examined the effect of perceived risk on intentions to use Airbnb. However, these studies do not explicitly account for a distinct influence of consumers' resistance on adoption intentions.

There may be some reasons why research on the sharing economy has not sufficiently included the construct of consumer resistance. One reason would be that the start-ups for launching innovative services frequently emphasize only their advantages over competing businesses. The start-ups tend to overlook that they should address not only the attributes of service innovations but also the consumer's mind-set regarding the innovation. Thus, overemphasis lies in consumer adoption. Another reason could be rooted in inadequate conceptualization of consumer resistance in the literature. Consumer

resistance is seemingly regarded as a stark opposite concept to consumer adoption, but as mentioned above, non-adoption does not mean resistance, for non-adopters could be potential users who are qualitatively different from consumers who actually resist service innovations. Also, methodologically it is difficult to conduct research on resistance among non-users or non-adopters.

In relation to tourism services, consumers may experience multiple reasons why they do not adopt or discontinue to use service innovations in the sharing economy. Among others, the major reasons for the barriers to adoption in the sharing economy are related to the issues of safety and security (Schindler, 2015; So, Oh, & Min, 2018; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018), which could undermine the smooth diffusion of service innovations (Claudia, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2015; Ram & Sheth, 1989). Tourism entrepreneurs, thus, should be aware of the detrimental effects of resistance, which may eventually lead to the failure of their businesses in early adoption stage. Failure to address consumer resistance can result in slow diffusion times.

Third, the extant studies largely fail to identify a mechanism under which consumers embrace service innovations of the sharing economy. Researchers have emphasized novel offerings of the sharing economy that differentiate it from the conventional tourism services, but little is known about how consumers respond to this new type of technology-mediated transactions. In the technology-driven innovation, one of the most critical challenges is how to persuade consumers to try new ideas and practices. Unless the benefits of the innovation are perceived, many consumers prefer to stick to the tried and true practices they normally take part in (Chesborough, 2004; Lovelock & Young, 1979). From a consumer's standpoint, a significant behavior change

is involved in trying new types of services for the first time. If they obtain some degree of cognitive value from the technological innovation, then they might be certain that the sharing economy represents a superior alternative to the conventional tourism services. Therefore, it calls for more research on the consumers' psychological mind-sets that comprise beliefs, reasons, and attitudes as drivers of behavioral responses to the sharing economy.

Despite the growing literature on customers' perspectives on the sharing economy, there has been limited recognition of individuals' decision-making of adopting service innovations. To adopt service innovations, travelers must learn new routines, get new habits, and embrace new values. Getting into new consumer behavior is not easy, because it has to be gone through a complex individual's rational calculus and a deep psychological process. As a result, travelers may have valid reasons against service innovations.

Theoretical Framework

The present research draws on behavioral reasoning theory (BRT; Westaby, 2005) to obtain a comprehensive picture of service innovations, which guides theory and empirical implications of the entire dissertation. BRT provides a theoretical framework by which overall research questions are formulated, a logic of argumentations is developed, research hypotheses on social dining and ride-sharing services are generated, and the data collection procedure for empirical studies is guided. BRT is especially relevant here, for it provides insightful explanations about fundamental determinants of a consumer's adoption and usage behavior, by integrating the sub-dimensions of reasons: reasons *for*

and reasons *against* consumer behavior. An essential theoretical implication of BRT is that both an individual's reasoning and attitude predict one's intention to engage in behavior (Westaby, 2005).

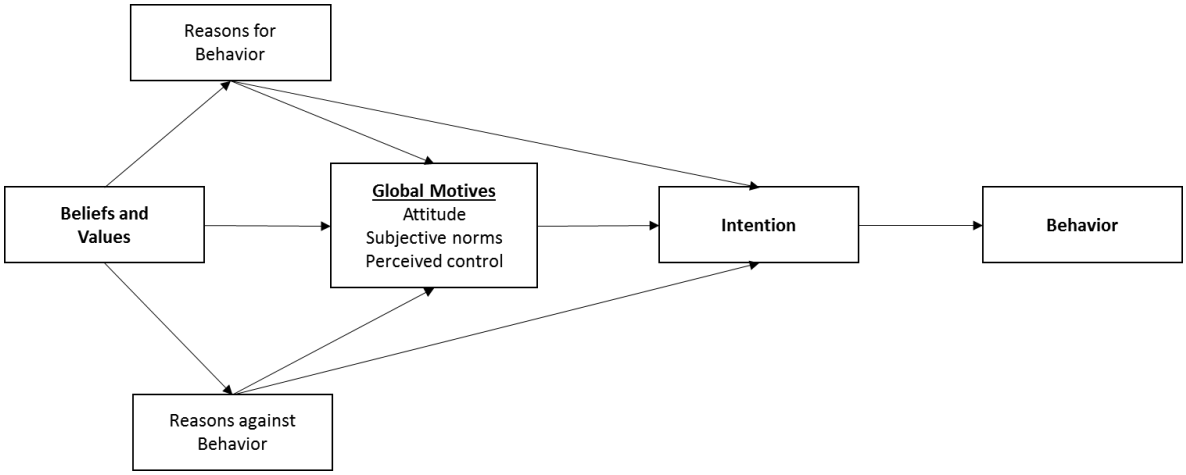
Behavioral Reasoning Theory (BRT)

BRT provides a useful prototype for studying innovation acceptance, which centers around the adoption and rejection of the sharing economy. BRT has been traditionally in line with an attitude-behavior framework in social psychology, in that attitudes are hypothesized to predict intentions to behave. However, Westaby (2005) argues that the traditional behavioral intention models have not theoretically addressed how the concept of *reason* provides a unique insight into motivational mechanisms. The theoretical tenet of BRT is that individual *reasons* serve as the underlying determinants of behavior.

In BRT, *reasons* are defined as "the specific subjective factors people use to explain their anticipated behavior" (Westaby, 2005, p. 100). The construct of the reasons for and against behavior provides important linkages among individuals' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. Reasons are further theorized to have two broad sub-dimensions: "reasons for" and "reasons against" performing a behavior. BRT allows for the specific sub-dimensions of reasons for and against behavior to vary in different contexts. This distinction between reasons for and against has been supported by several psychological models that propose a form of dichotomous variables as benefits versus costs (Kamleitner & Ruzeviciute, 2016) and facilitators versus constraints/barriers (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003).

In explaining BRT, Westaby (2005) indicates that four classes of variables must be considered: (1) people's reasons *for* the behavior, (2) people's reasons *against* the

behavior, (3) attitudes towards behaviors, and (4) behavioral intentions. Thus, the following statement represents the underlying logic for explaining behavior: intentions are predictors of behavior. Attitudes are expected to predict intentions; this concept is in line with that of past models. As a unique prediction, reasons that people sustain or refuse the behavior are presumed to predict attitudes and intentions (Westaby, 2005). Figure 1 illustrates the relationships between the variables.



Source: Westaby (2005)

Figure 1. Behavioral Reasoning Theory

Furthermore, BRT highlights that the concepts of reasons must be contextualized to the specific behavior under investigation, often through qualitative elicitation research (Westaby, 2005). Context is defined as "the set of factors surrounding a phenomenon that exert some direct or indirect influence on it" (Whetten, 2009, p. 31). Contextualization entails linking observations to a set of relevant facts, events, or point of views that make possible research and theory that form part of a larger whole (Rousseau & Fried, 2001).

While contextualization requires researchers to forgo parsimony and generalizability (Hong, Chan, Thong, & Chasalow, & Dhillon, 2014), it can have both subtle and powerful effects on research results (Johns, 2006). When context is not understood, the person-situation interactions cannot be fully understood, and findings may be incomplete or inconclusive (Johns, 2006; Whetten, 2009). Additionally, context can make research more salient and relevant to practitioners. It helps them to make sense of the context, solve practical problems, and shape strategies (Johns, 2006).

The dissertation contextualizes reasons for and against adoption, by incorporating appropriate constructs relevant to service innovations in social dining and ride-sharing services. The specific steps of the contextualization were as follows. First, the high-level core constructs of reasons for and against innovation adoption were decomposed into the factors that pertain to the context of social dining and ride-sharing services. The qualitative elicitation research was used to explore the context-specific factors that underlie reasons for and against service innovations. Second, these contextual factors were added to the antecedents of the behavioral reasoning theory. Thus, it allows the contextual variables to directly influence the intentions to adopt or continue to use service innovations.

The dissertation study extends the body of literature of the attitude-behavior framework in tourism research in several ways. First, the current research is the first study within the tourism field that conceptualizes and measures reasons for and against innovations based on BRT. The vast majority of tourism studies on Airbnb have measured motivational factors that lead to intentions to adopt service innovations (Guttentag, Smith, Potwarka, & Havitz, 2017; So, Oh, & Min, 2018). Although these

studies contribute to our knowledge on travelers' reasons *for* adopting innovations, they do not measure another important dimension of reasons *against* innovations. Reasons for and against innovations will be measured separately, as suggested in the BRT literature, but rarely applied within tourism (Claudia, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2015; Westaby, 2005). By dividing into "reasons for adoption" and "reasons against adoption" (i.e., resistance), this study seeks to understand that resistance has a direct negative effect on one's intention to adopt sharing economy services.

Second, this study regards 'trustworthiness of the service provider' as a critical belief construct and incorporate it into the attitude-behavior framework. Customers rely on trustworthiness of the service providers to reduce uncertainty in service delivery (Gambetta & Hamill, 2005). In other words, they cope with such uncertainty, by presuming that others will behave appropriately within the context of the relevant interaction. Trustworthiness is especially important in services that typically involve close interpersonal relationships, as social dining and ride-sharing services, the two main topics of empirical analysis in this research.

Third, reasons for and against adoption behavior will be contextualized to service innovations in the pre-adoption and post-adoption stages. In the empirical study on social dining service in the pre-adoption stage, the context-specific factors influencing intentions to adopt service innovations will be explored based on the literature on travelers' food consumption. Likewise, in the empirical study on ride-sharing service in the post-adoption stage, the context specific-factors influencing intentions to repurchase service innovation will be derived from the literature on travelrs' ground transportation choice.

In the following section, the key constructs of BRT are discussed, as they influence travelers' decisions on adopting and repurchasing service innovations in the sharing economy. The following section includes how travelers' reasons and against adopting service innovations could be applied to the sharing economy by evaluating the current state. Then, travelers' beliefs about service providers' trustworthiness could be applied to the theoretical framework on service innovations in the sharing economy.

Reasons for and against Adopting Innovations in the Sharing Economy

In the application of the BRT to this study of behavioral intensions to the sharing economy products and services, the reasons for and against behaviors are identified as important variables. There is an abundant literature on reasons for adopting service innovations in the sharing economy. A set of studies compared Airbnb with traditional accommodation sectors and explored consumer reasons for adopting services economy products and services (Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen; 2016; Tussyadiah & Personen, 2015; Tussyadiah & Zach, 2015). Other studies attributed satisfaction and purchase intentions to economic benefits (Möhlmann, 2015; Tussyadiah, 2016), social appeals caused by interactions with service providers and local communities (Botsman & Rogers, 2010; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016), and positive environmental effects (Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen 2016). In addition, convenience and flexibility were perceived to determine adoption intentions in the studies on car sharing (Claudy, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2015) and to shape usage motives (Schaefers, 2013).

The reasons against adopting sharing economy products and services have been studied as well, although not as widely as the reasons for adoption. The complexity barrier (usage barrier) takes place when consumers have difficulty in using services in the

sharing economy (Hazée, Delcourt, & Van Vaerenbergh, 2017). Consumers are also concerned about uncertainty in safety and security (i.e., risk barrier) as well as consistent and accurate service performance services (i.e., reliability barrier), as indicated by recent literature (Claudy et al., 2014; Hazée et al., 2017).

The public concerns about providers' trustworthiness have been suggested as a major challenge in the sharing economy. Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016) indicate that consumer distrust towards the hosts, including concerns about privacy and safety, deters travelers from using peer-to-peer accommodations. One of the rationales underlying consumer distrust is service providers' unscrupulous behavior, such as selectivity. Karlsson, Kemperman, and Dolnicar (2017) provide empirical evidence that service providers selectively grant or deny permission to certain types of consumers. The attributes that affect providers' decisions to deny permissions include tourists' length of stay, purposes for their trip, travel party, and self-reference of tourists regarding their behaviors. Other scholars also support that service providers' selectivity depends on certain demographic characteristics, such as gender, age (Karlsson, Kemperman, & Dolnicar, 2017), and ethnicity (Edelman, Lucca, & Svirsky, 2015). The selection bias involved in service providers' decisions to accept booking requests from consumers may hamper customers from determining trustworthiness of service providers. Table 4 summarizes the main findings of the literature on the reasons for and against service innovations.

Table 4.

Reasons for and against Service Innovations in the Sharing Economy

	Definition	Supporting literature
Reasons for adoption (Benefits/Values)		
Functional benefits/value		
Economic benefit	Consumer's perceived benefits obtained from reduction of its costs (cost savings, economic appeal)	Möhlmann (2015), Tussyadiah (2016)
Convenience benefit	Consumer's perceived benefits derived from saving time and energy by obtaining temporary access to goods and services rather than owning them.	Claudy et al. (2015), Schaefers (2013)
Psychological benefits/value		
Social benefit	Consumer's perceived benefits obtained from personal recognition by a service provider the development of friendship (social appeal).	Tussyadiah & Pesonen (2016)
Community belonging	Consumer's perceived benefits derived from creating and maintaining social connections and sense of community.	Botsman & Rogers (2010), Tussyadiah & Pesonen (2018)
Environmental benefit	Consumer's perceived benefits associated with positive environmental impacts of an innovation.	Hamari et al. (2016),
Reasons for resistance (Barriers)		
Functional barriers		
Usage barrier (Complexity barrier)	Consumer's perceived difficulty associated with understanding, transacting, and using an innovation.	Claudy et al. (2015), Hazée et al. (2017)
Safety risk	Consumer's perceived uncertainty regarding consequences of using an innovation, including concerns over safety and security.	Claudy et al. (2015)
Performance risk	Consumer's perceived uncertainty related to the consistent and accurate performance of an innovation.	Hazée et al. (2017)
Psychological barriers		
Responsibility barrier	Consumer's concerns about being held responsible for their usage of an innovation due to unscrupulous behavior of service providers.	Hazée et al. (2017), Karlsson et al. (2017)

The existing empirical studies illustrate reasons for and against using services in the sharing economy (So, Oh, & Min, 2018; Tussyadia & Pesonen, 2016), but the systemic framework on this emerging and rapidly growing category of service is still lacking. Thus, this study aims to explore attitudinal and behavioral responses to adopting tourism services in the sharing economy and identify a more comprehensive set of reasons for and against adoption and usage.

The majority of a customer-centric approach to the sharing economy predominantly examines the conditions under which people get engaged with service innovations (Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen, 2016; Möhlmann, 2015; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018). These studies emphasize pro-adoption rather than non-adoption or anti-adoption influences. Some argue that the latter is simply the exact opposite of the former. But, recent research suggests that these arguments hold only in the case of intentions or attitudes, but not in the case of underlying cognitions, such as reasons for and against behaviors (Chazidakis & Lee, 2013; Claudy, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2014; Sutton, 2004). In the study on peer-to-peer accommodations, Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016) provide firm evidence that reasons *against* the behavior is not merely opposite of the reasons *for* the behavior. Their findings indicate that additional considerations should be included, such as concerns over safety and privacy issues, and anxiety about trustworthiness of hosts (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018), which remain unresolved in the traditional adoption research. Recognizing these anti-adoption or non-adoption factors calls for more research to explain reasons against adoption as well as reasons for adoption in the sharing economy.

Trustworthiness of Service Providers Affecting Adoption Intentions (Study 1)

The first study on social dining services (Chapter 3) applies trustworthiness to BRT, in order to examine the relationship between customer and service providers. According to the studies of trust issues in the sharing economy (Ert, Fleischer, and Magen 2016; Hartl, Hofmann, & Kirchler, 2016; Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a; So, Oh, & Min, 2018), there are two mechanisms in which consumer trust is established. One mechanism is a process in which reviews, ratings, and social network recommendations that platform providers usually offer (Ert, Fleischer, and Magen 2016; So, Oh, & Min, 2018). Another mechanism is a deeper process of trust building, creating trustworthiness of the service providers that consumers could rely on (Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a). The first study on social dining services (Chapter 3) focuses on the latter mechanism where trustworthiness of service providers plays an important role in reducing uncertainty in service innovations. Customers cope with uncertainty in service outcomes, based on the belief that the trusted party (i.e., service providers) would deliver services as they expect (Gambetta & Hamill, 2005). As such, customers encounter quality issues if service provides have different levels of qualifications or deliver inconsistent standards. Under this condition, customers' uncertainty increases, so that customers become hesitant about trusting service providers. The closer interpersonal interactions between customers and providers are involved in service delivery, the more important the trustworthiness of service providers is in predicting intentions to adopt service innovations.

Trustworthiness is an interpersonal determinant of behavior that deals with beliefs about the ability (competence), willingness (benevolence), and reliability (integrity) of other people (Gefen & Straub, 2004; Wünderlich, Wangenheim & Bitner,

2012). These three beliefs are common across many settings in organizational behavior (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995), marketing (Wünderlich, Wangenheim & Bitner, 2012), and e-commerce (Gefen & Straub, 2004). In the tourism field, various dimensions of trustworthiness have been intensively studied in areas of shopping tourism (Choi, Law, & Heo, 2016), online hotel booking (Sparks & Browning, 2011), and purchasing online tickets (Ponte, Carvajal-Trujillo, & Escobar-Rodriguez, 2015). These studies suggest that the cognitive aspects of trust deal with beliefs. In other words, trustworthiness represents the belief that the trusted party would behave ethically and carry out expected commitments under conditions of vulnerability and dependence (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, Camerer, 1998; Schurr & Ozanne, 1985).

The conceptualization of trustworthiness in the first study on social dining services (Chapter 3) is drawn from the definitions of Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995). Trust is defined as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of the trustor (customer) based on the expectation that the trustee (service provider) will perform a particular action important to the trustor (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). In other words, trust can be regarded as a belief or expectation that consumers build to alleviate the uncertainty emerging in social relations (Guseva & Rona-tas, 2001). The criteria related to trustworthiness include ability (competence), benevolence (willingness), and integrity (reliability).

First, a dimension of *ability* (competence) is the assessment that the trustee (service provider) has expertise and knowledge. According to Mayer et al. (1995), a trustee (service provider) in transaction exchanges is assessed by a trustor (customer) to be trustworthy when trustees have the required skills or abilities. An ability to perform

the task properly may influence the expected outcome (Gefen & Straub, 2004). In the context of smart interactive services, the expertise of the service provider is considered one of the essential reasons for positive attitudinal and behavioral responses (Wünderlich, Wangenheim & Bitner, 2012).

Second, *willingness* (benevolence) refers to the trustor's belief or positive orientation that the trustee is willing to care about the trustor. It is the extent to which a trustee (provider) is believed to want to be good to a trustor (customer), aside from taking advantage of a trustor (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Benevolence is in line with empathy, one of the elements of service quality, in that caring increases customer satisfaction and retention (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). Benevolence reduces uncertainty by allowing the trustor to rule out undesirable behavior, namely the possibility that the trustee might act with a short-term opportunistic motive (Gefen & Straub, 2004; Kumar, Scheer, Steeenkam, 1995). In the context of e-commerce, benevolence has been a significant predictor of adoption and purchase intentions (Gefen, Karahanna, & Straub, 2003; McKnight, Choudhury, & Kacmar, 2002).

Lastly, *reliability* (integrity) refers to a trustor's perceptions that a trustee adheres to a set of principles and keep promises to a trustor (Beldad, de Jong, & Steehouder, 2010). The belief in the integrity of a provider convinces customers that expected outcomes could be fulfilled; in part, by reducing the uncertainty involved in breaking promises. It also helps to decrease uncertainty by mitigating the range of unacceptable social behaviors and assuring customers of their expected outcomes when purchasing from a given provider (Gefen & Straub, 2004; Kumar, Scheer, Steenkam, 1995). A lack of reliability is a critical reason against adopting an innovation (Hazée et al., 2017). The

reliability barriers may cause customers to become concerned about the consistent and accurate performance of the product and service (Hazée et al., 2017).

The key challenge to alleviate the uncertainty in technology-mediated transaction is to evaluate the extent to which service providers are trustworthy. The issue of trustworthiness is particularly significant in the sharing economy in which providers are mostly heterogeneous and idiosyncratic. In the case of social dining services, there is a high degree of service offerings in terms of a service provider's cooking skills and cleaning standards. Moreover, the relationship between service providers and customers usually result in one-time transaction, which could inhibit a possibility of building credible reputation of providers (Abrahao, Parigi, Gupta, & Cook, 2017). Thus, trustworthiness of service providers greatly influences the adoption or resistance of service innovations, because ultimately, customers' need to trust providers to buy product and services.

Attitude Confidence Affecting Repurchase Intentions (Study 2)

In formulating of a theoretical explanation for studying individuals' intentions to repurchase service innovations in the second study on ride-sharing services (Chapter 4), attitude confidence provides a useful construct. Attitude confidence is the distinguishable construct from attitude. Attitudes reflect the extent of satisfaction with a particular object or behavior (Oliver, 1980; Teo et al., 2003). However, attitude confidence represents individuals' level of confidence that their evaluation of an object and attitude is correct and clear to them. Attitude confidence measures the extent to which an attitude is important and certain in shaping thinking, and action across situations (Howe & Krosnick, 2017). Attitudes held with much more conviction tend to persist although

people encounter new contexts and new information. In contrast, attitudes with a low level of certainty tend to be unstable and volatile in nature, which makes people easily change their behaviors when they face shifting contexts and conflicting information.

Strong attitudes have four features: They are resistant to change, stable over time, influential on cognition, and influential on the action (Petty & Krosnick, 1995). Attitude confidence is related to an approach to the attitudinal structure (Eagly & Chaiken, 1995). The structural approach to the attitude-behavioral relation helps explain why strong attitudes influence information-processing more remarkably than weaker attitudes do.

In social psychology, attitude confidence has been studied in controversial topics. According to Abelson (1988), attitude confidence is salient in controversial social issues, such as belief in God, desirability of nuclear power, disinvestment from companies doing business in South Africa, legalization of abortion, and mandatory AIDS testing. Several scholars have suggested that people often have the conflicting reasons relevant to their attitudes on any given topic (Krosnick, Boninger, Chuang, Berent, & Carnot, 1993; Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997). Those attitudes people have at any given time depend on the subset of these reasons with which they deal. If so, attitudes vary in a volatile fashion, depending on the information about the attitude object (service innovations for this study) that happens to come to mind.

Attitude confidence is particularly relevant to the second study on ride-sharing services (Chapter 4) in the post-adoption stage, wherein an individual may reinforce or discontinue the innovation decision that they already have made. It means that attitudes, once formed, are more or less enduring even after the adoption decision. In terms of innovation decision-making, people analyze their reasons toward repurchasing services.

This is consistent with a growing body of research in social psychology, indicating that attitudes are constructed from individual reasonings that happen to be currently accessible (Gross, Holtz, & Miller, 1995; Wilson, Dunn, Kraft, & Lisle, 1989). Erber, Hodges, and Wilson (1995) found that when people are asked to think about the reasons for an object or attitude, they often change their minds about how they feel, no matter how they have favorable or unfavorable attitudes. Even if they develop favorable attitudes over service innovations, individuals may change their repurchasing intentions and behaviors, depending on changing contexts and available information. In other words, the consolidation of attitudes is highly context specific. Therefore, this study postulates that attitude confidence is formed by context-specific reasons for and against adoption as well as attitudes towards adoption in the post-adoption stage in Study 2 (Chapter 4).

CHAPTER 3: SERVICE INNOVATIONS IN THE PRE-ADOPTION STAGE: EVIDENCE FROM SOCIAL DINING SERVICES (STUDY 1)

Introduction

The sharing economy is increasingly popular as an alternative to the traditional economy (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Botsman & Rogers, 2010; Sundararajan, 2016). Many consumers, however, remain unconvinced about adopting these services. This is especially true for emerging service innovations in social dining services.[3] Social dining platforms (e.g., EatWith, Feastly) have attempted to tap into the sharing economy. Appendix A shows examples of social dining platforms. Many of the social dining sites and mobile apps began around 2012, spurred by the success of business models like Airbnb (Clifford, 2017). Despite this seemingly optimistic trend, social dining services have yet to catch on the same way as Airbnb. Some of social dining apps have already shut down (Täuscher & Kietzmann, 2017). This poses a dilemma. While social dining services presumably provide travelers with an opportunity to immerse themselves in a destination's culinary experiences, in reality they face a significant challenge to find guests willing to try the service innovations (Clifford, 2017).

Innovation resistance, which represents context-specific reasons against innovation adoption, is one of the major barriers that make consumers reluctant to perform adoption decisions in the pre-adoption stage (Heidenreich, Kraemer, &

[3] In this study, social dining services refer to temporary eateries that offer communal dining experiences, including pop-up and underground restaurants. The definitions and characteristics of social dining services are discussed in the following section, "social dining as a service innovation" of this chapter.

Handrich, 2016). Any new service entails uncertainty, so that resistance to adoption is likely to arise (Ram & Sheth, 1989). An innovation may impose changes, endanger the status quo, and provoke initial resistance that potentially reduces new service adoption. Adopting social dining services is qualitatively different from choosing traditional restaurants, because of the various issues associated with the nature of temporary eateries. In general, consumers tend to maintain the status quo, by choosing widely available and familiar food (Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2012; Zurek, 2016). Other issues, particular to local social dining services, would be related to the public safety, security, and hygiene (Federal Trade Commission, 2016; Schindler, 2015; Sundararajan, 2016). These concerns may serve as reasons against wide acceptance of service innovations among potential customers. Hence, research on the early adoption of innovation should identify the salient factors that underlie reasons for and against innovations, contextualize the reasons for and against adopting social dining services, and employ consumers' reasonings to predict the likelihood of adopting new services.

In addition to the issues of resistance, consumers' desire to adopt service innovations could be forestalled by the lack of trustworthiness of service providers of social dining services. According to the recent survey conducted by PwC (2015), 89 percent of respondents agree that the sharing economy is based on trustworthiness in service providers. Academic literature shows that trustworthiness is regarded as a main driver of customers' attitudinal and behavioral responses to the sharing economy (Abrahao, Parigi, Gupta, & Cook, 2017; Ert et al., 2016; Hartl, Hofmann, & Kirchler, 2016). Despite the centrality of consumer trust to the sharing economy, with a few exceptions (e.g., Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a), there is a paucity of empirical work that

clearly establishes a systematic pattern about the trust relationship between service providers and customers. Theoretically, a fundamental problem remains in formulating a concrete mechanism under which trustworthiness is shaped and strengthened (or weakened) in the relationship between the service providers and the customers. The present study fills this theoretical gap, by identifying what kind of elements customers deem most trustworthy and by exploring which elements are more likely to lead to adopting service innovations in the pre-adoption stage.

The purpose of the study includes: (1) identifying categories of reasons for and against adopting social dining services in the pre-adoption stage and (2) examining the influences of reasoning and trustworthiness on the likelihood of adopting social dining, predicated upon behavioral reasoning theory (BRT) (Westaby, 2005). This study contributes to theory and practice in four ways. First, this is one of a few studies that relate social dining to the phenomenon of the sharing economy. Second, the study sheds new light on how consumers accept service innovations in the food service industry, given that social dining introduces temporary eateries in contrast to brick and mortar restaurants. In doing so, the current study seeks to make a connection between social dining and travelers' food consumption literature (Choe & Kim, 2018; Kim & Eves, 2012). Third, the study identifies salient reasons that affect the likelihood of adopting service innovations in the food service industry. Fourth, it extends BRT, by incorporating the trustworthiness about service providers and demonstrating the conditions under which interpersonal trust affects subsequent customer evaluations in the pre-adoption stage.

Social Dining as a Service Innovation

Social dining is based on the idea that guests are connected to hosts via the internet or mobile devices. It refers to temporary eateries that offer communal dining experiences, including supper clubs, pop-up or underground restaurants.[4] By leveraging technology, hosts open up private boundaries to the public, invite guests to private homes, and cater with home-cooked meals (CNBC, 2015). For example, EatWith, one of the largest social dining platforms, claims more than 25,000 hosts across 130 countries (O'hear, 2017). Social dining services are currently available on the platforms in some metropolitan cities, such as San Francisco, New York, and Chicago in the United States, but most services still have the strong presence in Europe. The social dining services aspire to be "Airbnb for Food," but have not yet made great strides in the food service industry (Danovich, 2016).

Social dining has been classified as a notable phenomenon under the banner of the sharing economy (Ketter, 2017; Schindler, 2015; Sundrarajan, 2016; UNWTO, 2017). There are four main characteristics that make social dining unique with respect to service innovations, compared with other services in the food industry. (1) Social dining services require a high level of customer engagement. Unlike traditional restaurant services, guests using social dining participate substantively in the service production and delivery.

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[4] *Secret suppers* are typically held in an individual's home or some other non-restaurant space. The food is generally prepared in a non-commercial kitchen, and the facility presumably has not received any formal inspections from city health or code-enforcement officials. *Pop-up or underground restaurants*, by contrast, often operate in underused existing restaurant space, which has been inspected and contains a licensed kitchen. However, they may also operate in non-commercial restaurant or industrial space, such as warehouses, functioning breweries, shuttered retail spaces or farms (Schindler, 2015).

In social dining, for example, guests do an extensive search, make reservation, and explore culinary offerings at destinations. (2) Social dining services offer temporary eateries. They are small, disparate, and short-term establishments that last for only a limited time and appeal to foodie minded guests by offering intimate consumption events, especially in contrast to brick and mortar restaurants (Demetry, 2015). (3) Social dining services feature substantial social interactions between chefs and guests. Compared to other short-term rental services, such as Airbnb or Zipcar, guests are provided with the opportunity to immerse themselves in a cultural exchange with chefs and other guests (CNBC, 2015). And, (4) social dining services leverage platform technology or social media, which connects amateur and professional chefs to guests on an extensive network. The technology infusion that matches customers with service providers makes social dining unique and different from existing services. While it is similar to pop-up restaurants or secret supper held in private settings, social dining services are different from these services in terms of the use of technological platforms on the internet or mobile devices. Social dining opens to the public and promotes an inclusive atmosphere.

Despite the emergence of social dining, there is a paucity of academic literature and a lack of consumer awareness about this service innovation (Danovich, 2016; Pitts, 2015). Empirical research on consumers' acceptance of service innovations in social dining is limited, in terms of the number of studies and the examination of the factors that may influence the ultimate adoption of this service innovation. The work of Ketter (2017) was one of the first efforts to discuss social dining under the banner of the sharing economy. Although the article examined generic motivations of EatWith users, the author did not specifically integrate the appropriate contextual factors that could affect the

adoption of the new service. To address this research gap, this study first contextualizes the core reasons for and against innovation adoption to the chosen domain (i.e., social dining services), by incorporating the innovation adoption literature and studies on travelers' food consumption.

Innovation Adoption and Resistance in the Pre-Adoption Stage

The pre-adoption stage represents a part of the multi-phase innovation decision process wherein consumers become aware of and are attracted to an innovation prior to adopting it (Campbell, Wells, & Valacinch, 2013; Rogers, 2003). In the pre-adoption stage, innovations carry some degree of uncertainty for individuals, who are typically unsure of trying new ideas. Therefore, individuals evaluate information that helps to reduce uncertainty about unexpected consequences or performance. When facing uncertainty, consumers bear the burden of performance risk, which represents the possibility of the service not performing as it was designed, therefore failing to deliver the desired benefits (Grewal, Gotlieb, & Marmorstein, 1994; Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2013). In the tourism industry, performance risk is prevalent in that tourism services are generally intangible, providing travelers with limited cues or information for assessing the product or service quality before the actual experiences (Chen, Lee, & Wang, 2012; Eggert, 2006). Since travelers are unable to examine tourism services prior to their purchase, their experiences with innovative services can only be evaluated during the consumption process.

In the presence of uncertainty, one way to alleviate uncertainty could be the cultivation of trustworthiness. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) define

trustworthiness as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party. In other words, trustworthiness plays a role in reducing uncertainty and ambiguity inherent in transactions and interactions (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). It is the construct that sustains both economic and interpersonal relationships in adopting innovations (McKnight et al., 2002). The current study examines how the trustworthiness of hosts affects the early adopter's decision to try new services.

The other way to mitigate uncertainty in the pre-adoption phase is to ensure that adopting the innovation is better than existing practices. In the innovation literature, a set of innovation characteristics (e.g., relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, observability, and trialability) are examined as crucial determinants to adoption intentions (Gatignon & Robertson, 1985; Ordanini, Parasuraman, Rubera, 2014; Rogers, 2003). These innovation characteristics, however, have largely focused on adoption factors, which dominate the innovation literature (Chau & Hui, 1998; Menon & Kahn, 1995; Roehrich, 2004). This paradigm, which emphasizes stimulation or uniqueness of an innovation, still reveals weak evidence of innovation failures, as illustrated by the shutdown of some sharing economy models (Täuscher & Kietzmann, 2017). The vast majority of people may have little desire to experience novelty food and change how or what they eat. Only a small number of early adopters have chosen novelty dining (Getz, Robinison, Anderson, & Vujici, 2014).

In this sense, the research on the pre-adoption stage should acknowledge resistance factors as well as adoption factors, which underlie consumers' reasonings of adopting service innovations in the domain of social dining. Resistance in the pre-adoption phase is regarded to be passive (Heidenreich, Kraemer, & Handrich, 2016). In

other words, passive innovation resistance is driven by initial resistance to change disposition or satisfaction with the status quo, evolving in the pre-adoption stage (Heidenreich, Kraemer, & Handrich, 2016). Passive innovation resistance is different from active innovation resistance, which comes from resistance in the post-adoption stage, and follows a deliberate evaluation of a new service (Talke & Heidenreich, 2014). This present study defines passive resistance to be context-specific and delineates the conditions under which consumers maintain status quo and preserving their eating habits while traveling.

Travelers' Food Consumption

Although there is still a limited number of studies that have focused on social dining, some of them have investigated factors influencing traveler food consumption more broadly (Choe & Kim, Fields, 2002; Kim & Eves, 2012; Mak et al., 2012). Recent years have witnessed a surge of research interests in food consumption in tourism (Choe & Kim, 2018; Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016; Kim & Eves, 2012). This growing interest is fueled by an increasing number of destinations utilizing their culinary resources in promoting destination images and differentiating themselves from others (Choe & Kim, 2018). Food expenditure constitutes up to one-third of the total tourist expenditure (Telfer & Wall, 2000). The expenditure brought by tourist food consumption may have positive economic impacts on a destination and the local businesses.

In the tourism field, the factors that influence travelers' food consumption behavior have been identified. Fields (2002) suggests four categories of motivation: physical, cultural, interpersonal, and prestige motivators. In a similar vein, Kim and Eves

(2012) identify five underlying motivational dimensions of travelers' local food consumption: cultural experience, interpersonal relations, excitement, sensory appeal, and health concerns. Choe and Kim (2018) delineate travelers' local food consumption value, which consists of emotional, epistemic, health, prestige, taste/quality, price, and interaction value. Although the existing studies present the salient factors influencing travelers' local food consumption, their findings cannot be directly applied to the innovation adoption context. Given that travelers usually stick to the tried and true, they may resist service innovations of social dining services.

The current study could offer new insights into food consumption in tourism by explicitly underscoring the emerging innovation in the food service industry. Social dining services emerged from broader changes in both supply (hosts) and demand (guests) sides in the food service industry. Conventionally, the training of chefs has largely operated through an apprenticeship model. Fine dining remains dominated by the logic of craft production and taught through internships (Lane, 2014), but innovation changes this supply aspect. One of the peculiarities of social dining services is to allow anyone to become a chef for temporary eateries. Social dining services may attract a mix of skilled culinary professionals and self-taught amateur hobbyists who pursue their passion for food and beverage on a part-time basis. Another characteristic of social dining services is to provide new start-ups with the opportunity to overcome barriers to entry. While brick and mortar restaurants pay for initial investments and operating expenses, social dining services take an advantage of reducing the necessary finances. The temporary establishment has an additional benefit: helping build a chef's reputation as a member of the food community and providing the chef with a place to market their brand

and identity. The emergence of social dining as a unique innovation has the potential to disrupt the culinary landscape of conventional businesses.

There is also a change in demand. The social dining services are driven by rising "foodies" who have ardent and refined interests in gastronomy and play a role as early adopters in the food service industry (Getz et al., 2014; Johnston & Baumann, 2012). Foodies are used to describe a category of people who love good and authentic food and want to learn more about what they consume in support of organic, local, and artisanal markets (Johnston & Baumann, 2012). The patrons of the foodies that Johnston and Baumann (2012) interviewed mirror the early adopters of innovation (Rogers, 2003) in terms of socio-demographic characteristics: highly educated, urban, young to middle-aged professionals, middle-class or higher. The rise of foodies has driven the patronage of social dining services as appealing alternatives (Demetry, 2015). Thus, the emergence of social dining services may open the door to understanding changing needs and desires of early adopters in the culinary industry.

Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

This study builds on BRT (Westaby, 2004) as an overarching theoretical framework to derive a conceptual model that predicts the likelihood of adopting service innovations in social dining services. First, the major findings drawn from the literature on innovation adoption and travelers' food consumption are incorporated into the construct of *reasons* in BRT. The conceptual framework specifies the direct influences of consumer reasonings on the adoption likelihood.

Reasons and Adoption Likelihood

Past research on traveler's food consumption examined to identify the appropriate contextual factors in the pre-adoption stage. The identified categories of social dining services include: physical settings, cultural benefits, health concerns, and relational barriers. These categories were identified by reviewing the tourism literature on the sharing economy and travelers' food consumption. Importantly, reasons for and against innovation adoption is context-specific and formed with consideration of a particular context encountered by individuals. Table 5 summarizes a variety of reasons for and against adopting service innovations drawn from the literature.

Table 5

Psychological Factors Affecting Travelers' Food Consumption

Factors	Definitions	Relevant Literature
Physical environment	A warm and inviting atmosphere and surroundings; household amenities, or home-like feel	Fields (2002), Guttentag et al. (2017); So et al. (2018)
Cultural benefits	Searching for authenticity, expanding knowledge, or learning about new ways of cooking and eating	Choe & Kim (2018); Kim & Eves (2012)
Health concerns	Hygiene and safety risks during food preparation and production	Behnke (2016), Schindler (2015)
Relational barriers	Discomfort derived from social interactions with other guests at a communal table	Choe & Kim (2018); So et al. (2018)

Social dining has obvious benefits in that it creates an environment where travelers may experience culinary traditions at destinations and engage in cultural exchanges with hosts and other guests (CNBC, 2015). There are concerns over uncertified kitchens or food safety, which have been barriers to adopting the service

innovation (Pitts, 2015; Zurek, 2016). To further understand the benefits and concerns about social dining services, some of the important concepts should be defined. The following concepts are directly related to the reasons for the adoption, particularly in the context of social dining services.

Physical environment (Fields, 2002) refer to the beneficial outcomes that consumers may obtain from physical surroundings through social dining services. In the food service industry, dining places have been expanded into pop-up spaces and staged in unconventional settings, including parks, breweries, farms, galleries, or warehouses. The physical environment is associated with its unique servicescape (Bitner, 1992) that could not be fulfilled in commercial restaurants. The physical environment is similar to home benefits supported by research on Airbnb (Guttentag et al., 2017; So et al., 2018). Guttentag et al. (2017) suggest that the home benefits are obtained from household amenities and the home-like feel that Airbnb accommodations can provide. In social dining services, travelers may feel comfortable and relaxed with a cozy atmosphere. They tend to have an opportunity to sample new food in a different climate at a destination (Guttentag et al., 2017; Kim & Eves, 2012).

Cultural benefits represent unique and authentic cultural experiences (Kim & Eves, 2012). They are consistent with epistemic value that travelers gain by expanding the knowledge of food and learning about a destination's food culture (Choe & Kim, 2018). Social dining allows to learn about new ways of preparation, cooking and eating, the origin of local cuisines, or the narratives of particular dishes. Along with knowledge-seeking, cultural benefits are also related to curiosity and *novelty-seeking* (Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016). The concept of novelty-seeking is in line with escaping from

tourists' daily routine by exploring new food (Kim & Eves, 2012; Mak et al., 2012; Quan & Wang, 2004). In tourism studies, novelty-seeking has been reported as a key of the tourist motivations in general (Lee & Crompton, 1992) and for food choices in particular (Mak et al., 2012). Tourists who fulfill their curiosity and desire for novelty are more likely to try new services (Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016).

Along with the aforementioned reasons for adopting social dining services, travelers also have reasons against adopting this new service innovation. Scholars argue that travelers have ambivalent tendencies that they seek novelty, but at the same time keep up with everyday routines and preferences in their food consumption (Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles; Quan & Wang, 2004). While travelers pursue enjoyable experiences offered by social dining, they are also concerned with practical matters about preserving core eating behavior (Quan & Wang, 2004). The following concepts highlight reasons against adopting innovations.

Health concerns represent potential health and safety risks in social dining services (Choe & Kim, 2018; Kim & Eves, 2012; Zurek, 2016). Secret suppers, pop-up or underground restaurants may circumvent regulations on consumer protections that the incumbent restaurants must comply with. Social dining services have faced the issues of legality such as health and safety controls, licensing and operating[5] (Lobel, 2015; Schindler, 2015). The health concerns in food preparation, sanitary issues, and chef's

[5] Some states in U.S. have begun permissive regulations to allow social dining services. For example, San Francisco allows temporary restaurants with payment of a reduced licensing fee (San Francisco Department of Public Health, 2018). Oregon provides low-cost licenses for intermittent, seasonal, and single-event restaurants, which reduce the overhead that might otherwise be required for a traditional restaurant (Schindler, 2015).

personal cleanliness standard are likely to cause resistance to adopting innovations of social dining (Clifford, 2017).

Relational barriers refer to discomfort derived from social interactions with strangers (hosts and other guests) in the communal dining setting. There are sufficient studies on host-guest relationships in the sharing economy in general, but their empirical findings are mixed at best. For example, Guttentag et al. (2017) and So et al. (2018) examined interactions with one's host or other locals, and they found that the social interaction is an insignificant motivator. In contrast, Tussyadiah (2015) and Botsman and Rogers (2010) highlight guests' desire to get to know others and interact with local communities in the context of Airbnb. Moreover, there is no study in the domain of social dining that investigates how the guest-host relationship restricts or encourages the adoption of service innovations.

The main premise of BRT is that reasons have a direct effect on intentions and behaviors by serving as a cognitive shortcut (Westaby, 2005). Consumers use cognitive short cuts or heuristics in the mental processing of particular behaviors, thereby simplifying their decision-making (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). Westaby (2005) argues that people's reasoning directly influences their behavioral intentions. For example, travelers might see numerous benefits of adopting innovation, but decide against adoption, for critical reasons. More specifically, health concerns, due to concerns over safety and controls, may inhibit travelers from adopting social dining services. Based on the conceptualizations of reasons for and against innovation adoption in the context of social dining, this study proposes the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Reasons for innovation adoption have a positive influence on the likelihood of adopting social dining services.

Hypothesis 2: Reasons against innovation adoption have a negative influence on the likelihood of adopting social dining services.

The Trustworthiness of Service Providers and the Adoption Likelihood

In the pre-adoption stage, trustworthiness represents the beliefs to accept uncertainty based upon positive expectations of the intentions and behaviors of the trusted party (Gefen & Straub, 2004; McKnight, Cummings, Chervany, 1998). In social dining services, trustworthiness encompasses beliefs that service providers (i.e., hosts or chefs) will behave ethically and carry out expected outcomes under the condition that they are uncertain about performance of new services. The conceptualization of the trustworthiness of hosts in social dining is drawn from Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995), which include ability, willingness, and reliability:

- Ability (competence) represents the assessment that chefs have expertise, knowledge, and required skills to perform properly.
- Willingness (benevolence) refers to the belief that the chefs are willing to care about diners.
- Reliability (integrity) represent the belief that the chefs fulfill promises to diners and deliver consistent and accurate services.

Beliefs about trustworthiness of service providers have major roles in accepting innovations of the sharing economy by forming the relationship between service providers and customers in the pre-adoption stage (Gefen, Karahanna, & Straub, 2003;

Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a). The trustworthiness of providers is regarded as the belief construct in the attitude-behavior framework (Gefen & Straub, 2004; Wünderlich, Wangenheim & Bitner, 2012). Empirical evidence shows that trust matters for exchanges in the sharing economy (Ert, Fleischer, & Magen, 2011). Recent studies on Airbnb, for example, reveal that distrust towards the hosts, including concerns about privacy and safety, deters travelers from using Airbnb (Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018a; So, Oh, & Min, 2018; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018). While researchers highlighted the importance of reputation system in the sharing economy, a paucity of research examines how trustworthiness of service providers influences intentions to adopt sharing economy products and services in the pre-adoption stage. Even in a handful of the existing studies, the relationship between trustworthiness and adoption intentions is not firmly established. Möhlmann (2015) found that trust has a positive effect on the satisfaction, but not on the likelihood of using Airbnb. Liang, Choi, and Joppe (2018a), by contrast, found that trust in hosts have direct effects on both switching and repurchase intentions. The findings of So, Oh and Min (2018) indicate that distrust in Airbnb does not have a direct effect on repurchase intentions, but the relationship between distrust in Airbnb and repurchase intentions are mediated by attitudes. These mixed findings call for more research on the relationship between trustworthiness and behavioral intentions in the context of social dining. Thus, the following hypothesis is postulated:

Hypothesis 3: Beliefs about trustworthiness in service providers have a positive influence on the likelihood of adopting social dining services.

Status Quo Satisfaction and the Adoption Likelihood

Status quo satisfaction refers to the dimension related to continuing the travelers' daily routine by keeping up with core eating behavior (Mak et al., 2012). When facing diversity in food choices, for example, some travelers prefer to stick with their food habits and preferences (Chang et al., 2010). Travelers' food consumption is an extension of everyday routines and preferences (Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016). Travelers may have status-quo bias when it comes to food. Even for backpackers who have a cosmopolitan mindset, their actual food consumption is still limited by the possible negative consequences of foodborne illness at the cost of exploring cultural experiences (Cohen & Avieli, 2004).

Situational passive resistance suggests an individual's preference for the current status quo hinders the consideration and adoption of new products (Heidenreich & Kramer, 2015a). Status quo satisfaction encourages repetition in buying behavior and increases the resistance to alternatives (Ellet et al. 1991). As a result, situational passive resistance inhibits new product adoption in the pre-adoption stage (Heidenreich et al., 2016). Based on these major findings from the literature, thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Status-quo satisfaction has a negative influence on the likelihood of adopting social dining services.

In hypothesis 3, the trustworthiness of hosts is postulated to be at play to a significant extent when travelers adopt social dining services. A question then arises

whether competent, courteous, and reliable hosts strengthen the reasons for adoption. Because the reasons for adoption and the trustworthiness factor both have positive effects (the hypotheses 1 and 3), it is easy to expect that the joint effect of these two variables generates a positive synergy on the adoption likelihood, which increases the magnitude of the effect. Another hypothesis is whether trustworthy hosts counterbalance the reasons against adoption or not. A guest may experience uncertainty as to whether service operations are incomplete, but interpersonal trust could mitigate a level of uncertainty, which in turn could increase the adoption likelihood. If travelers believe that the trusted party (host) would carry out expected outcomes, this belief about trustworthiness could mitigate the negative influence of their reasons against adoption. In other words, the reasons against adoption could be ameliorated in conjunction with the trustworthiness of hosts. Thus, the following hypothesis has two sets of the combined effects between the reasoning and trustworthiness factors:

Hypothesis 5a: The reasons for innovation adoption combined with the trustworthiness of hosts have a stronger positive influence on the likelihood of adopting social dining services.

Hypothesis 5b: The reasons against innovation adoption combined with the trustworthiness of hosts have a smaller negative or possibly positive influence on the likelihood of adopting social dining services.

Overall, the likelihood of adopting service innovations of social dining is largely determined by reasons for adoption, reasons against adoption, status-quo satisfaction, and

combined effect of trustworthiness and consumer reasoning. Figure 2 visualizes how the specific variables drawn from Westaby's (2005) BRT are connected the five testable hypotheses.

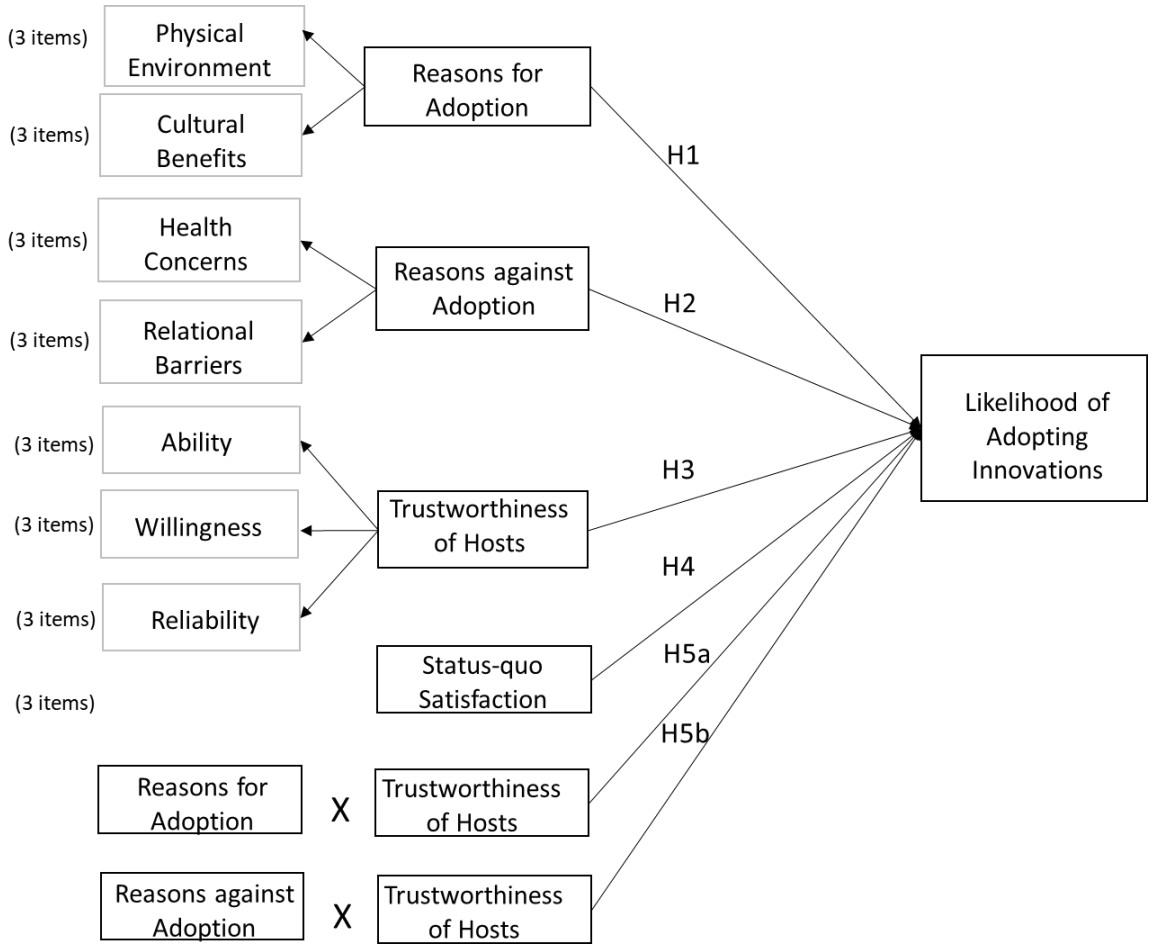

Figure 2. [Study 1] Conceptual Model: Service Innovations of Social Dining

Methods

In testing hypotheses, both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed. The procedure of empirical analysis as follows. The first step was to contextualize the core constructs of reasons for and against adoption to the chosen domain (travelers' adoption

of social dining services). To do so, a focus group interview was conducted, involving food professionals (Empirical Analysis 1). Second, based on the qualitative method and the examination of extant relevant research, appropriate context-specific factors were identified. Then, a contextualized research model was validated in a survey study (Empirical Analysis 2).

Research Design

Survey research along with a preliminary focus group interview was conducted. The research was designed to contextualize reasons for and against adopting service innovations in social dining services, improve questionnaire measures, and determine whether the preliminary findings are generalizable to a large sample. The focus group interview was chosen for the preliminary phase, because focus group data can substantiate the actual content of the survey questionnaire (Krueger & Casey, 2015; O'Brien, 1993). The survey design is a preferred type of data collection because it enables to identify and estimate salient factors that affect the likelihood of adopting social dining (Creswell, 2014; Fowler, 2014).

Procedures and Data Collection

The key informants of the focus group interview and survey research were food professionals who have knowledge about social dining services. The decision to focus on food professionals was derived from careful consideration of the difficulties with studying non-users. Non-users, those who never used social dining before, could say nothing but "do not know" or "not applicable" due to their lack of experiences, rendering research of adoption behaviors rather meaningless. The food professional group, thus, was selected as participants, because they have a broad knowledge about service

innovations and consumer trends in the food service industry. As such this selected group with experiences and knowledge could provide rich information and substantial contextualization about social dining.

The study was conducted in the following procedures. First, the focus group interview was conducted with food professionals. The selection of food professionals was to refine the survey and to bolster validity and reliability of the measures. The group of food professionals selected in this interview have membership in food industry associations in Las Vegas. In this phase, the participants were asked about the general context of knowledge and perceptions about social dining services, Second, after the focus group interview, a survey instrument was created and evaluated for the content and wording of individual items. A pretest version of the instrument was piloted with a separate sample from the main survey study. Then, based on data analysis, a shortened and refined instrument was administered to the main survey research. There was no overlap between subjects in the pretest and the main survey.

Preliminary Focus Group Interview. A focus group was used to identify which features of reasons for and against innovation adoption influence the likelihood of adopting service innovations in social dining services. The purpose of the focus group was to hear the richly contrasting viewpoints that become evident, as participants react to each other's comments (O'Brien, 1993). More specifically, the focus group interview was conducted to (1) learn the language that food professionals use when discussing service innovations in the food service industry, (2) gather information about participant's industry experiences that would illustrate the concepts of consumers' reasons for and

against innovation adoption in the domain of travelers' food consumption, and (3) consult with food professionals about recruitment procedures for the eventual survey study. Snowball sampling was used to recruit focus group participants. Snowball sampling was initiated by a few food professionals in Las Vegas, who have different socio-demographic backgrounds. The recruitment process follows a theoretical sample (Glaser & Strauss, 2017; MacNaghten & Myers, 2004), aiming for recruiting interviewees that could generate a conversation in relation to adoption and resistance of service innovations in social dining services. The focus group consisted of five individuals (Table 6). A focus group was conducted at an academic institution in Las Vegas. It lasted for about an hour. All the participants for the focus group received a $20 gift card.

Table 6

[Study 1] Profiles of the Focus Group

ID	Job title	Gender	Ethnicity	Age	Industry experience
1	Restaurant owner	Male	Hispanic	30-39	15 years
2	Chef	Male	White	30-39	20 years
3	General Manager	Male	White	30-39	17 years
4	Chef/Instructor	Male	Hispanic	40-49	25 years
5	Researcher	Female	Asian	40-49	20 years

The focus group discussion was moderated by the researcher. The participants were asked to agree to consent (Appendix B), then the discussion began with a friendly welcome, followed by various tasks to generate permissive and non-judgmental environments (Krueger & Casey, 2015). The moderator began by explaining the concept of social dining services. The participants were asked to explain a situation where they learned about social dining services, which could be used as a starting point for the rest of

the discussion. Then, the focus group discussed reasons for and against adopting social dining services from a consumer's viewpoint. The moderator used a discussion guideline, which mainly structures the topics to cover (Appendix C). A list of questions included the issues on the reasons for and against adopting social dining, as well as beliefs about trustworthiness of service providers in social dining services, as identified in the literature review. In this way, the structure of the discussion was kept fluid, and participants were able to direct their conversations along their own lines. Data were collected through written notes and audio tape recordings.

Main Survey Study. After the focus group interview, the instrument was created and evaluated for the content and wording of individual items. A pretest version of the instrument was piloted with three graduate students. Then, based on data analysis, shortened and refined instrument was administered to the main survey research. The sampling approach with mixed-mode surveys (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014) were employed. Mixed-mode surveys were considered, given that it is difficult to reach the desired results using a single approach alone. The survey was collected from the two modes: (1) the on-site panel recruited from the Las Vegas Food Expo and (2) the online panel enlisted in Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). First, the on-site survey was conducted during the Las Vegas Food Expo from April 15 to 16, 2018. Three trained graduate students handed out the self-administered questionnaires to visitors in randomly selected groups at about 10 to 15-minute intervals to minimize response bias and ensure the representativeness of the sample population. As an incentive to participate, participants were entered into a raffle to receive a $30 gift card. Three winners were

drawn at random among the survey participants. In total, 96 individuals participated in the survey. Second, participants were recruited via MTurk, which allows to recruit participants by specifying criteria. By adding the qualification to the survey, the employees who have worked in the food industry in the United States were eligible to participate in the survey. A total of 107 responses were collected through MTurk. The participants received $5 per completed 10-minute survey[6]. The quality of responses was monitored by asking additional information in the survey. The panel in this survey should provide their job titles in the food service industry. The mixed-mode surveys were useful to improve coverage when a single mode cannot adequately cover the population of interest (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014, p. 401). Although the sampling approach was non-random, the combination of different survey modes was intended to reduce the overall sample bias (Orcher, 2014). In total, 202 responses were obtained by using mixed-mode surveys.

Measures

The measures for reasons for and against adopting social dining services were derived partly from existing studies (Choe & Kim, 2018; Kim & Eves, 2012; Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016) as well as the findings from the focus group interview, with minor wording modifications to fit into the context of this study. The measures for trustworthiness of service providers were adapted from Gefen and Straub (2004). The

[6] On MTurk, typical fees in 2016 are $2 per completed 15-minute study. The researcher estimated the reward (i.e., cost per respondent) higher than the typical fees, given that the survey population is rare and hard to reach. The reward, however, is still lower than the commercial companies, such as Qualtrics and SSI, which tend to charge $20 per completed survey (Wessling et al., 2017).

measures for the likelihood of adopting innovations were developed, in line with previous studies (Claudy, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2015; Taylor & Todd, 1995; Westaby, 2005; Westaby, Probst, & Lee, 2010). All items were measured on seven-point Likert scales, ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree." The items that were used in the main survey study can be found in Appendix D. Appendix E includes questionnaire administered to the participants.

Data Analysis

Structural coding procedure, as described by Saldaña (2013), were employed to identify emergent categories from the first cycle of coding. Then, the subcategories were specified during the second cycle of coding. Within the category identification process, words, phrases, sentences or paragraphs were associated with the same classification of the category (Saldaña, 2013).

To analyze the survey data, principle component analysis (PCA) was used first to extract the factors, and then the ordinary least squares (OLS) regression was employed. PCA is widely known method for creating uncorrelated psychological measures. Multiple OLS regression was employed to test the five hypotheses (Hair et al., 2010). After screening data to detect outliers and check normality, the OLS estimates were chosen because dataset meets statistical assumptions, which allow for unbiased parameter estimates. The OLS regression analysis was used to estimate the four models considered in this study.

Results

Empirical Analysis 1: Understanding the Reasons for and against Adoption

The overarching research question that guides the focus group was: "What are the reasons for and against adopting social dining services?" Even though the participants had never tried social dining services before, they recognized various types of temporary food establishments in general. They suggested diversified informal food economy, ranging from hosting a pop-up, supper club, or foodie club, operating a food truck, holding a soft opening, to prepping meals for athletes at private homes. From the focus group discussion, the five categories of travelers' reasoning emerged: physical environment, cultural benefits, health concerns, relational benefits, and status-quo satisfaction.

Physical Environment. In social dining, the home serves as the stage of travelers' food consumption. The physical surrounding of social dining not only comes from physical amenities such as a private kitchen or dining table, but also does it allow travelers to have a glimpse into the private life of a host and personal secrets of recipes. One of the participants spoke about staging a private place, as illustrated by the excerpt below.

> I am just trying to think of an outsider. As somebody who's an outsider, would they be comfortable going over to a stranger's house to get a meal? It's all about illusion. It just could be that illusion of you're going to somebody's house. People want to see you have gloves on. (ID 2)

The participant touched on the issue of physical environment indirectly through the emphases on an illusion. The above comment "illusion" suggests how household settings help blur the lines between the private backstage and public front stage. Indeed,

the home is a strong symbol of the private and intimate sphere. The kitchen of social dining services could lure guests, by staging a totally immersive behind-the-scenes experience of kitchen life.

As the focus group claimed, guests may crave access to see their chef at work ("People want to see you have gloves on"). The personal home sharply contrasts with the standardized nature of mass consumption. In commercial restaurants, feeling 'at home' has become an important decorative ingredient, so home décor has been merely displayed with decorative candles, vases, artificial plants, or furnishings. The household settings of social dining services, however, promote a feeling of intimacy between hosts and guests. For example, chefs invite guests into their kitchens, interact directly with patrons, telling stories and educating diners in an effort to dismantle the traditional division between backstage and front-stage activities. Thus, the hosts of social dining may capitalize on the budding chance of staging a totally immersive behind-the-scenes experience of kitchen life. This would be especially salient to the tourism industry, where travelers seek for glimpses of local live and the backstage area of residents (MacCannell, 1973).

The participant's perception of physical surroundings is aligned to the concept of *pseudo-backstage* (Daugstad & Kirchengast, 2013). *Pseudo-backstage* represents a temporal, situational frontstage which is presented as an actual backstage. Through a pseudo-backstage, virtues such as intimacy, rareness, and privacy are transmitted. Daugstad and Kirchengast (2013) illustrate this concept with a living room, cheese cellar, and dairy of a farmer's house in the context of agri-tourism. The pseudo-back stage could be an informal and a vital part of guest-host interactions and thus potentially contribute to the future success and attractiveness of social dining services. Travelers may feel

intimate, warm, and welcomed, and they could also learn what the hosts do in their everyday lives as chefs.

Cultural Benefits. The participants indicated that the authenticity of social dining services could be perceived when the service has links to ethnic connections or geographic specificity. From the focus group interview, ethnicity connections were found as one important dimension of cultural benefits. An overt signal of the ethnicity of a host came to the surface as an indicator of cultural benefits. One chef in the focus group contended that ethnic food of a particular cuisine could be eaten and consumed by travelers:

> People go to other countries and they want ethnic food. There is some ethnic food that you can't just get it at a restaurant. I see the chef in me is curious to that side of it." (ID 2)

Geographical specificity is another dimension of cultural benefits that turned up in the focus group discussion. A restaurant owner aptly articulated how authenticity could be connected to a high degree of geographical specificity in describing a temporary eatery.

> If you go to New Orleans, they're known for that specific food. Once I was at a bar in New Orleans, some guy was cooking in the back out of a truck. That was the best food I had. In the areas that have specific food, I think this would be great. (ID 1)

The above comment reveals that the connection between a food and a specific place would be central to determining cultural benefits of social dining services. The participants agreed that foodies may value foods prepared and consumed in specific cities or towns, such as New Orleans and San Francisco. Place-specific food is different from

versions available elsewhere, and also true to the traditions that are best known in the place. The association between food and geographic specificity has also been found in the food literature. Johnston and Baumann (2014) argued that the connection between food and geographic specificity is so common that it comes to be built into the names of certain foods. For example, Parmigiano-Reggiano (Parmesan) cheese, which comes from a particular dairy of Parmesan, Italy, could be perceived as sophisticated, nuanced, and unlike any other cheese commercially available, while the mass-produced Parmesan cheese is difficult for foodies to construe as authentic. Hence, a connection to a particular destination is the central feature in evaluating authenticity. A plenty of discussions about such connects came out during the focus group interview.

Furthermore, the participants revealed that the success of social dining services may depend on a host community that operates a home-made kitchen.

> "It (social dining) might be a little bit harder to work in Texas. If you're pulling off a pop-up Texas barbecue in Los Angeles or San Francisco, you could kill it all day without a doubt." (ID 2)

> "In a rural area, where there are not many restaurants, people can create some dining experience with tourists in their home." (ID 5)

The participants argued that social dining may begin as ways to offer food or flavors unavailable in a locality. The focus group noted that as social dining services attract devoted fans, it may create underground dining communities. The importance of cultural benefits guests may encounter is not only limited to a dining place itself, but also involves the broader culinary culture of the neighborhood.

Health Concerns. The participants suggested that temporary food establishments pose a unique health challenge to service operations. They raised the concerns ranging from food preparation, production, and protection to food temperature control. They questioned whether food could be properly prepared and served to the large number of guests at the same time, and whether food could be protected at every stage of production to maintain appropriate temperatures. A relevant and ultimate question into which one participant brought was: "How are social dining services regulated?" The participants showed their concerns about potential foodborne illness outbreaks and liability issues.

> "I think responsibility dives into a bigger conversation of "what kind of insurance do you carry if I am sick?" A restaurant is required to have a certain amount of insurance… I think there would have to be some sort of another extracurricular liability" (ID 2)

> "As long as they're safe certified, something to prove that they've read a book and know how to sanitize, I would be more comfortable with that." (ID 3)

Given the temporary and somewhat fluid nature of these operations, hosts may or may not be trained in safe food production. The participants questioned how this new business model might address the health issues as promptly and effectively as a permanent operation as a restaurant does. The participants cast doubts on facilities or equipment for accomplishing functions, such as handwashing, food preparation and protection, ware washing, food temperature control, waste retention and disposal, and insect or rodent control. Social dining services fall under the purview of local health departments, as other temporary foodservice establishments do. The participants contemplated that the answer to health concerns is complicated, in that the food and health regulations vary from states to states.

Relational Barriers. The interview highlighted that some relational barriers stem from social interactions between a focal guest and fellow guests at a communal table. The participants argued that the focal guest potentially enters an unexpected, perhaps unwanted involvement with fellow guests that can affect his or her service experience. The focus group mentioned the presence of such reactance to social interactions, as illustrated by the following quotes:

> "You have a lot of people that are introverts, and a lot of people that are very much not about those social setting. I would love to figure out some sort of a social dining experience, where you could bring these people who may not be as adept to wanting to sit down at a communal table with a bunch of strangers." (ID 2)

> "It takes different people to be able to sit down around a table, and be able to accept the fact you're going to be sitting with a complete stranger, or not a complete stranger. You have to be mentally prepared for that." (ID 3)

These comments reveal that the production of a dining community rests largely on guests' ability to engage with one another. In the adoption stage, it is difficult for the focal customer to get familiar with exchanges and to engage with fellow customers. It is a collective effort, occurring between a focal customer and fellow customers, who collaborate with one another to create valuable and meaningful interactions. Given that social dining services encourage communal relationships, social interactions in social dining services need to be expanded into broader relationships in the service encounter beyond the normal circle of a focal guest's acquaintance, which require them to be socially "adept" or mentally prepared for sitting with complete strangers.

As the travelers' food consumption literature indicates, a meal during a trip is regarded as a means of reproducing social relations (Fields, 2002). It creates rapport building, enhancing enjoyable interactions (eye contact, language, and nonverbal gestures) and personal connections. The positive affect derived from social interactions have been discussed in the literature as the conception of interpersonal value (Choe & Kim, 2018) or togetherness (Kim & Eves, 2012). In the existing literature, however, social interactions are limited to a desire to spend time with family and friends. The traveler's food consumption literature emphasizes the relational value only obtained from travel companions, not advancing the interactions, wherein a focal traveler interacts with fellow travelers.

Status Quo Satisfaction. The participants were skeptical of the likelihood of adopting social dining services in a travel destination. The participants revealed that they are unreceptive to a new way of eating by sticking to the commercial restaurants in a travel destination ("If I travel, I look for top restaurants in the city, and then start a list and try to figure out where I'm going to go"). To a greater or lesser extent, they argued that social dining service cannot compete with commercial restaurants.

Although social dining services are not approachable to all the diners, the service innovations may appeal to a certain type of early adopters. The terms such as "young generation" or "foodies" were frequently deployed in their description of those who are likely to adopt this new service. The below comments illustrate that social dining services may appeal to niche markets, such as young generation or foodies.

> "Think about when they first started founding Uber. Who's going to get in the car with someone? Airbnb – Who is going to stay in someone else's bed in their home? Now, look at it. I think it has a lot to do with the generation." (ID 3)
>
> "I think it's for foodies. For me and my wife, we want to experience as much things as possible… we're trying different things, different concepts, without having the kids there, throughout the night." (ID 4)
>
> "It could create its own little niche market." (ID 2)

The participants showed their eating preferences are an important reference point, such that they tend to preserve their core eating habits and preferences already in place, irrespective of whether social dining services have a greater utility. They acknowledged that the disadvantage of leaving the status quo loom larger than the advantages ("A sustainable business model for future all the time? I don't know. Wait till a first person gets sick from going over to somebody's house"). The participant's comment supports the literature on passive resistance. Individuals are especially biased toward the adoption if they are highly satisfied with their status quo and unreceptive to alternatives (Hess, 2009; Szmigin & Foxall, 1998). Satisfaction with a currently available solution increases innovation resistance and reduces the likelihood of adopting a new product (Ellet et al., 1991; Falk et al., 2007). Thus, status quo satisfaction is central to explaining innovation resistance (Ellen et al., 1991; Szmigan & Foxall, 1998).

The Trustworthiness of Hosts. Another area of inquiry focuses on the trustworthiness of hosts and its influences on adopting new services. The service providers of social dining services deal with a double role as a chef and a host. The roles of the cook and host are generally seen as mutually associated and mixed. Mastering the two roles needs a skill,

which can be demanding. One of the chefs in the focus group took an example of a colleague who had developed a supper club in Philadelphia:

> He goes to the market every single day. He's dealing with bad products with vendors. He's constantly changing his menu all the time. He gets to play chef, all day long. He's developed his supper club experience to also do catering, as well. They're not hugely profitable, so you need to be able to build outside business in order to expand upon, and build. (ID 2)

The focus group showed an interest in non-commercialized production processes of social dining services. Their discourse provided a wealth of details about food production and preparation, related to small-scale and non-industrial production techniques that go along with integrity and honest intentions. The food production and preparation of social dining services were often described by a devotion that insulates them from the negative association of commercialized processes. One participant of the focus group offered a portrait of a cook's self-taught, unschooled, and intuitive cooking technique of a temporary foodservice establishment.

> "There was a soft opening. This guy has no culinary training, but he is one of the best incredible chefs I've ever met. The stuff he does is mind-blowing. He takes leaves from lemon trees, and then he makes one of his burger patties, he wraps it in the lemon tree leaf, and then roasts it. The flavor is incredible. He grew up cooking for his mom's kitchen. He has more knowledge and education, in my belief, than most of the chefs that I've worked with." (ID 4)

The self-taught, unschooled cook seemingly lacking in commercial motivations may produce quality dining experiences. The focus group argued that that "as long as you have good food and somewhat of an okay location, you will be successful."

Empirical Analysis 2: Validating the Contextualized Research Model

Having established the detailed contextualization of social dining services based on the focus group interview, this section presents the second part of empirical analysis. Principle Component Analysis (PCA) and the OLS regression analysis were employed to test the hypotheses.

Sample Profile. Of the 205 respondents, 51.7 % of them were female and 48.3% were male. Over 33% of respondents were 30 to 39 years old, while 27% were 20 to 29 years old and 25% were 40 to 49 years old. In terms of income, 25% had an annual household income before taxes higher than $100,000, while 23% had an annual house hold income between $25,000 and $50,000, 19.1% had an annual household income between $50,001 and $75,000, and 16% had an annual household income between $75,001 and $100,000. A greatest portion of respondents had some college or culinary school (45%) or earned a bachelor's degree or higher (44%), while 11% indicated they had a high school diploma. The average year of the respondents' work experiences in the food service industry was 9.6 years. About half of the respondents (48%) indicated that they had heard about social dining services before. About 13% responded that they had ever used social dining services.

The survey data was collected from the two modes, thus a group effect between the two modes was examined. The sample profiles and main variables were compared using chi-square and independent-sample *t*-tests between on-site panel recruited from the Las Vegas Food Expo and the online panel enlisted in Amazon's MTurk. No significant differences were found between the two groups.

Principal Component Analysis. First, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to extract the factors. PCA was chosen in accordance with an argument that common factor methods such as PCA are preferable to PAF (Principal Axis Factoring) for yielding a set of uncorrelated predictors that can be used in the multiple regression analysis (Stevens, 1996). As a result, five factors were explored and extracted. The scree plot, parallel analysis (O'Connor, 2000; Turner, 1998), and interpretability of the extracted factors supported a five-factor solution, accounting for 67.2% of the variability in the measures.

Initially, a nine-factor solution was explored in accordance with the nine domains in which scale items were written. This solution yielded a dominant first factor and inconsistent interpretation of factors. However, the scree plot, eigenvalues greater than 1, and interpretability of the extracted factors over five- through nine-factor solutions supported strongly a five-factor solution. The items were retained if they loaded primarily on one factor (generally >.50), did not have loadings on any other factor exceeding .30, and enhanced the reliability of the subscale. The resulting item set was also checked for conceptual consistency and content coverage. PCAs and reliability estimates were computed using the final set of items.

As shown in

Table 7, factor loadings were over .50. The five extracted factors were conceptually interpretable. The extracted five domains of social dining adoption are consistent with "reasons for adoption," "reasons against adoption," "trustworthiness of hosts," "status-quo maintenance," and the "likelihood to adopt."

Table 7

[Study 1] Factor Loadings Based on Principle Component Analysis with Promax Rotation

Item and item description	Factor loading 1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1: Reasons for social dining					
Social dining provides an authentic local experience.	**.79**	-.05	.33	-.13	.27
Social dining offers a unique opportunity to understand local culinary culture.	**.76**	-.03	.19	-.09	.19
Social dining offers a warm and inviting environment.	**.69**	-.12	.43	.06	.54
Social dining provides comfort.	**.68**	-.12	.34	.10	.52
Social dining provides guests with a homelike atmosphere.	**.68**	.02	.45	.02	.24
Social dining provides hands-on experiences with food.	**.67**	.11	.18	.05	.22
Factor 2: Reasons against social dining					
The interactions with strangers in social dining make diners feel uncomfortable.	-.08	**.82**	-.06	.17	-.20
The presence of strangers in social dining makes diners feel interrupted.	-.16	**.80**	-.12	.27	-.16
Social dining is unlikely to have clean food contact surfaces.	.15	**.79**	-.37	.01	-.40
Social dining is unlikely to comply with quality and safety regulations.	.24	**.78**	-.30	-.07	-.36
Social dining is unlikely to have sanitary conditions for hygiene.	.14	**.76**	-.38	-.03	-.43
The anxiety about eating with strangers makes diners unsure of social dining.	-.01	**.74**	-.04	.24	-.20
Factor 3: The trustworthiness of hosts					
Hosts of social dining are likely to keep promises they make.	.17	-.19	**.81**	.01	.35

Hosts of social dining are likely to provide courteous and friendly services.	.31	-.14	**.81**	-.31	.16
Hosts of social dining are likely to be reliable.	.17	-.27	**.80**	.07	.40
Hosts of social dining are likely to be considerate of guests' needs.	.23	-.13	**.78**	-.18	.21
Hosts of social dining are likely to treat guests with respect.	.29	-.07	**.77**	-.39	.18
Hosts of social dining are likely to know how to provide excellent services.	.32	-.18	**.76**	-.03	.38
Hosts of social dining are likely to deliver consistent services.	.25	-.26	**.76**	.13	.41
Hosts of social dining are likely to be capable of doing their jobs.	.27	-.14	**.70**	-.20	.30
Hosts of social dining are likely to have cooking skills.	.37	-.12	**.67**	-.25	.19
Factor 4: Status-quo satisfaction					
While traveling, I am likely to resist eating new food.	-.09	.19	-.22	**.88**	-.19
While traveling, I am likely to dislike new ways of dining.	-.09	.24	-.25	**.87**	-.17
While traveling, I am likely to stick to food I am familiar with.	.01	.19	-.12	**.85**	-.15
Factor 5: Likelihood to adopt					
I would try social dining.	.35	-.26	.36	-.24	**.89**
I am likely to use social dining in the future.	.31	-.30	.38	-.24	**.86**
I would prefer social dining as an alternative to eating at a restaurant.	.28	-.28	.22	-.04	**.80**

Note. Factor loadings > .50 are in boldface.

For convergent validity,

Table 8 summarizes the psychological properties of the measures. Cronbach's alphas, composite reliabilities, and average variance extracted (AVE) for all measurement scales indicate acceptable reliability and convergent validity of our operationalization. In addition, discriminant validity was tested, using the criterion proposed by Fornell and

Larcker (1981), which suggests that discriminant validity is established in the AVE exceeds the squared correlations between all pairs of constructs. The dimensions are constructed by averaging variables.

Table 8

[Study 1] Correlation and Properties of Variables

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. Reasons for adoption	-				
2. Reasons against adoption	–.04	-			
3. Trustworthiness of hosts	.57	–.25	-		
4. Status-quo satisfaction	–.03	.25	–.23	-	
5. Likelihood of adoption	.43	–.31	.36	–.27	-
Mean	5.74	3.88	5.53	2.81	5.09
Standard deviation	.79	1.34	0.88	1.51	1.35
Cronbach's alpha	.84	.88	.91	.90	.88
Composite reliability	.68	.80	.83	.92	.90
Average variance extracted	.51	.61	.58	.75	.72

Hypotheses Testing. The estimation model is a cross-sectional model that takes the *likelihood of adopting social dining* as the dependent variable. Four sets of the model are used.

Table 9 presents the OLS estimates of the four regression models. The results remain largely intact for the Hubert-White robust standard errors and iteratively reweighted least squares. Model I tests the hypotheses 1 and 2, estimating the influences of the reasons for adoption (*RF*) and reasons against adoption (*RA*). Model II includes the trustworthiness

of hosts (*ToH*) to test the hypotheses 3, and Model III *status quo satisfaction* to test the hypothesis 4. Model IV includes two multiplicative terms between *RF* and *ToH* and between *RA* and *ToH* to test the combined effects postulated in the hypothesis 5.

Table 9

[Study 1] Regression Model Results

N=202	Model I	Model II	Model III	Model IV
Reasons for adoption (RF)	.711***	.607***	.627***	.740***
	(.103)	(.113)	(.112)	(.102)
Reasons against adoption (RA)	–.297***	–.265***	–.230***	–.285***
	(.061)	(.063)	(.063)	(.065)
Trustworthiness of hosts (ToH)		.221*	.167	
		(.106)	(.106)	
Status-quo satisfaction			–.156**	–.168**
			(.055)	(.054)
RF × *ToH*				.054
				(.081)
RA × *ToH*				.163*
				(.084)
Intercepts	2.152**	1.398	1.887*	2.421***
	(.649)	(.737)	(.746)	(.662)
Adjusted R^2	.264	.287	.301	.303

Note. Dependent variable = Likelihood of adopting social dining. Estimates show unstandardized coefficients. Standard errors are in parentheses. **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p*< .001

First, the results of Model I indicate that the coefficients of *RF* and *RA* are highly significant at the 0.1% level. The estimates of these variables show the expected signs. The coefficient of *RF* (i.e., physical environment, cultural benefits) is positive, and the coefficient of *RA* (i.e., health concerns, relational barriers) is negative. In other words, the

benefits (*RF*) are most likely to generate the adoption likelihood, while the drawbacks (*RA*) are less likely to generate the adoption likelihood, Moreover, these findings are consistent and remain intact even in the presence of other covariates across all other models, signifying that the effects of *RF* and *RA* on the adoption likelihood are robust.

The influences of *ToH* are positive and statistically significant at the conventional level, shown in Model II. The participants are more likely to adopt social dining services when a host is perceived to be trustworthy, supporting the hypothesis 3. However, the statistically significant effect of *ToH* disappears once *Satus-quo satisfaction* is included. The negative and highly significant estimate of *Status-quo satisfaction* in Model III indicates that the diners who resist eating new food and stick to familiar food are less likely to adopt social dining services. The impact of *Status-quo satisfaction* is great enough to make the effect of *ToH* on the adoption likelihood insignificant. This suggests that the influence of *ToH* is overwhelmed by the explanatory powers of *RF*, *RA*, and especially *Status-quo satisfaction*. Hence, the overall results of Model II and III show that the hypothesis 3 is weakly corroborated, but the hypothesis 4 is strongly confirmed.

The hypothesis 5 addresses the question about the role of the trustworthiness of hosts in impacting the reasons *for* adoption. Model IV captures the essence of hypothesis 5, by incorporating two multiplicative terms, $RF \times ToH$, and $RA \times ToH$. The positive coefficient of $RF \times ToH$ along with the positive estimates of *RF* demonstrates that the combined effect of the reasons for adoption and the trustworthiness may generate a synergy influence on the likelihood of adopting social dining. The trustworthiness factor appears to augment the already strong effect of the reasons for adoption. But, the

coefficient of this multiplicative term is not statistically significant at the convention level, which makes difficult to fully confirm the first part of the hypothesis 5.

The hypothesis 5 also includes another question about the role of the trustworthiness of hosts in impacting the reasons *against* adoption. The second part of the hypothesis 5 includes the reduced negative effect or possibly positive effect of the reasons against adoption when it is combined with the trustworthiness. The coefficient of the multiplicative term, *RA* × *ToH*, in Model IV is positive and statistically significant at the conventional level. This means that the positive effect of the trustworthiness of hosts offsets the magnitude of the sole negative effects of the reasons against adoption. Specifically, the interpretation of the multiplicative term suggests that the impact of RA is conditional upon the joint effect in the term, *RA* × *ToH.* As such, the magnitude of the negative coefficient of *RA* (-.285) is reduced by the positive coefficient of *RA* × *ToH* (.163).[7] For example, if the value of *ToH* is 1, the size of the effect of *RA* becomes smaller (-.285 + .163 × 1 = -.122). The main value of *ToH* in the sample is 5.53, so the average effect of *RA* conditional upon *ToH* is now positive (-.285 + .163 × 5.53 = .616). The findings indicate that the influence of the *RA* factor, such as health concerns and relational barriers, is diminished significantly when it is combined together with *ToH*. Moreover, if the trustworthiness of hosts is sufficiently high, the joint effect between *RA* and *ToH* exerts a positive impact on the likelihood of adopting social dining. The trustworthiness factor is strong enough to counterbalance the reasons against adoption.

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[7] The marginal effect of *RA* in the estimated equation in Model IV is:
$\partial Adoption\ Likelihood/\partial RA = -.285 + .163ToH.$
Hence, the effect of *RA* is conditional upon the coefficient of the multiplicative term (.163) and the value of *ToH*.

This is consistent with theoretical explanation that trustworthy hosts reduce consumers' uncertainty, by mitigating concerns about food safety and relations with fellow guests. Thus, the results support the second part of hypothesis 5.

To show that the estimates were not driven by high multicollinearity, a multicollinearity test was conducted for all the variables in Model IV. In the sample, tolerance values in the equation ranged from .74 to .91. The variance inflation factors (VIF) ranged from 1.11 to 1.36. All the tolerance values were greater than .40, and all the variance inflation factors were less than 2.5, which are the thresholds recommended by Allison (1999). Overall, multicollinearity is not a major issue, and discriminant validity has been met for the data sample.

Discussion

In this chapter, the study makes important contributions. First, it leverages behavioral reasoning theory as well as the extant literature on the travelers' food consumption and service innovations to develop a contextualized general research framework for understanding consumer reasons for and against adoption. Second, this study demonstates the utility of this contextualized framework to understand consumer acceptance of a particular type of the sharing economy (social dining services). Previous empirical research has predominantly shown that the business models of the sharing economy, like Airbnb or Uber, yield benefits to travelers. These studies, however, have neglected the potential consumer resistance to innovations when consumers try new products or services. Moreover, little is known about how early adopters evaluate the service innovations in the pre-adoption stage.

To address these research questions, a survey with a preliminary focus group interview was conducted to investigate food professionals' reactions to service innovations in the pre-adoption stage. In particular, the relationships between consumers reasonings (i.e., reasons for and against adoption) and the adoption likelihood were examined. The findings support that the reasons for adoption have positive influences on the adoption likelihood, while the reasons against adoption negatively affect the adoption likelihood. Thus, the study provides a deeper understanding of the role of consumer reasoning in the pre-adoption process and sheds light on its direct influence on the adoption likelihood.

The study also highlights the importance of the trustworthiness of hosts as a way to mitigate consumer resistance. Specifically, the study focuses on the role of trustworthiness that enhances customers' reasons for adoption and decreases their reasons against adoption. The statistical results generally support this theoretical argumentation. Especially, the trustworthiness of hosts is significant in mitigating the reasons against adoption. Thus, an effective strategy reducing consumer resistance is to ensure that host are able, eager, and willing to provide quality services when adopters experience difficulties in trying new services.

Theoretical Implications

The goal of this research endeavor is to study various aspects of innovation-decision making in the rising phenomenon of the sharing economy. The current study entails at least four important theoretical implications. First, the current study sheds new light on consumer resistance in the innovation adoption literature. This research delves into consumer resistance to service innovations in two ways: the innovation-specific factor of

social dining services (i.e., health concerns, relational barriers) and situation-specific factor in the pre-adoption stage (i.e., status-quo satisfaction). The innovation-specific factor involves a deliberate evaluation of innovations, while the situation-specific factor takes the form of tendency to prefer a tried and proven service. The conceptualization and empirical validation of consumer resistance is an important contribution to the literature on service innovations.

Second, the conceptual framework demonstrates the explanatory power of consumer "reasons" in predicting the likelihood of adopting new services. The conceptual framework indicates that the reasons for and against adoption directly influence the likelihood of adopting social dining services. In the previous studies, the adoption intentions in the post-adoption stage are driven by attitudes toward the innovation (e.g., Nabih et al., 1997). The findings of the current study, however, show that the reasons for and against adoption in the pre-adoption stage directly affect the adoption intentions. The findings are also in line with the theoretical tenet of behavioral reasoning theory in that individual reasons serve as the underlying determinants of consumer behavior.

Third, consumer resistance and consumer belief about hosts are complimentary. The focus group discussions reveal that the hosts of social dining services are characterized by self-taught cooks with integrity and honest motivations. In the survey analysis, the estimates of the multiplicative terms between trustworthiness and consumer reasonings (Model IV in

Table 9) demonstrate that the trustworthiness of hosts creates the synergy effect when combined with the reasons against adoption. In other words, a host who is able and willing to deliver excellent services would reduce health concerns and relational barriers with fellow guests in a communal dining table.

Fourth, the current study makes a relevant contribution to the travelers' food consumption literature, by calling for the inclusion of various factors of consumer acceptance (physical environment, cultural benefits) and consumer resistance (heath concerns, relational barriers, status-quo resistance). In particular, the major findings strongly suggest that more scholarly attention should be paid to the role of individual benefits or constraints (the reasons for and against adoption in the present study) in travelers' food consumption. As such, the empirics established in this study could broaden the scope of the literature on temporary food establishment (Behnke, 2016) or informal food economy (Demetry, 2016; Schindler, 2015). The traditional framework of travelers' food consumption indicates that travelers have ambivalent but concurrent traits represented by neophobic and neophiliac tendencies. A neophobic tendency is the propensity to dislike or to be suspicious of new and unfamiliar food, whereas a neophiliac tendency is the inclination to seek out unusual and unfamiliar foods (Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016). The findings suggest that consumer resistance comes from not only individual tendencies but also situational and innovation-specific factors. The empirical analyses in this study could expand on this perspective, by delineating various consumer reasonings in which each of them might affect the customer's service experience and ultimately the likelihood of adopt new services.

Managerial Implications

From a practitioner's perspective, there are some managerial implications inferred from this study. The conceptual framework advanced in this study points to the importance of consumers' tradeoffs between costs and benefits when they actually contemplate the adoption of services in the sharing economy. Identifying consumers' specific reasons for and against adoption is critical for tourism entrepreneurs, as they plan to start home kitchen operations.

This context-specific model with focus on the adoption of social dining services provides entrepreneurs in the food service industry with specific strategies for enhancing a possibility of consumers' adoption of social dining services. The results of the empirical analysis show the negative influences of health concerns about temporary eateries, relational barriers to socialize with fellow customers, and status-quo satisfaction with eating preferences, and they are all relevant to potential guests. In contrast, the perceptions of physical environment and cultural benefits may increase the likelihood to adopting service innovations.

Additionally, the trustworthiness of hosts was found to attenuate the reasons against adoption, suggesting that enhancing guests' level of trust in hosts could mitigate their resistance to service innovations. Hence, entrepreneurs who consider operating social dining services can effectively enhance their ability, willingness, and reliability to help lessen the reasons against adoption, and thereby create a more likelihood of adoption social dining services.

The findings of health concerns offer local and state governments a specific starting point for establishing regulations for temporary foodservice or home kitchen

operations. For example, local governments could establish regulations to improve public safeguards around social dining services. Recently, the Homemade Food Operations Act has gone into effect in California on January 1, 2019. California permits the sale of all types of prepared foods and meals. Accordingly, California has become the first state in the United States to permit the sale of prepared foods and meals from home kitchen operations. This is the first law of its kind that allows home cooks to sell prepared meals to the public in the United States. This law permits the small-scale sale of meals from home kitchens and improves public safeguards around the existing informal food economy. The findings on relational barriers pose the question as to what actions entrepreneurs could take to make guests feel comfortable with the presence of other guests. The answer is not straightforward. Social dining services may need techniques for encouraging a dinner party atmosphere among strangers. The hosts must stage the experience of "community" if they expect guests to take an active role.

Furthermore, this study emphasizes the importance of service innovations in the food service industry. The findings suggest that the early adopters, also called foodies, appreciate physical environments and cultural benefits of social dining services. The findings on the physical environment of social dining services are consistent with the home benefits highlighted by Guttentag et al. (2017), Nowak et al. (2015), and Quinby and Gasdia (2014) on Airbnb. The physical environment underscores a key distinction between social dining services and traditional restaurants, thereby highlighting a unique value proposition that social dining may introduce to early adopters. To stimulate travelers' interests, small and medium-sized entrepreneurs may provide them with the secret recipes and sample flavors, which would not be available from elsewhere. The

present research also shows that foodies tend to emphasize cultural benefits. The interviewees acknowledged that the search for ‘real’ or ‘authentic experience’ motivates travelers to move away from commodified and branded areas for typical consumption. By emphasizing the ‘real’ food in a local area, social dining services may offer service innovations off the beaten track. Finally, there is one last lesson from the study for introducing service innovations in the food service industry. Entrepreneurs should note that early adopters want novel offerings that are distinctive, hard to reproduce, rooted in the city or town’s history and culture, as reflected in its culinary traditions.

CHAPTER 4: SERVICE INNOVATION IN THE POST-ADOPTION STAGE: EVIDENCE FROM RIDE-SHARING SERVICES (STUDY 2)

Introduction

Ride-sharing[8] (e.g., Uber, Lyft) has recently become a rising ground transportation mode for travelers. The innovation of ride-sharing services has gone beyond the adoption stage and diffused over many cities rapidly. As of February 2019, Uber services are available in 65 countries and over 600 cities worldwide (Uber, 2019). However, not all cities embrace this innovation. Resistance remains in place, and in the United Kingdom, for example, the London Transit Authority has decided not to renew Uber's operating license[9] (Adam & Booth, 2017). The Authority said that Uber failed to report serious criminal issues allegedly committed by its drivers (Adam & Booth, 2017). In response to the passenger protection issue, the Public Utility Commission in California has required criminal background checks on drivers and mandatory insurance coverage (Geron, 2013). With stringent regulations on ride-sharing, passenger safety is increasingly secured, yet concerns still exist. Little is known about the potential market for ride-sharing as an alternative ground transport mode in the post-adoption phase.

Due to the rapid growth of ride-sharing services, the ground transportation industry has undergone significant changes in recent years. Ride-sharing services pose a

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[8] The ride-sharing refers to temporary access to a vehicle driven by its owner in exchange for a fee arranged by platforms on the internet or mobile devices. The characteristics of the ride-sharing services are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

[9] The ban on Uber has been controversial, given that the stark clash and tension between Uber drivers and taxi drivers in most cities, including London. Some scholars questioned whether the controversy puts the interests of passengers before established industry players (Einav, Farronato & Levin, 2016; Lobel, 2015).

serious threat to incumbents in the tourism and transportation industry. Among the business trips that involved ground transportation, ride-sharing has increased market share, while taxi rides have continued to plummet (Jones, 2016). The increasing ride-sharing's share of the ground transportation sector calls more research on travelers' perceptions of ride-sharing services or what could influence their decisions to repurchase ride-sharing services in destinations.

Recent academic research has focused on consumers' satisfaction and intentions to use car sharing (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Hazée et al., 2017; Schaefers, 2013; Schaefers et al., 2016). A variety of business models have been formulated and developed as the sharing economy model evolves over time. They span from carpooling programs, rideshares, short-term vehicle rentals, and access-based services to ride-sharing services. However, the literature on ride-sharing from a tourism perspective is rather scarce. Furthermore, the findings of some business models cannot be directly applied to the context of ride-sharing services. For example, the studies on access-based services, such as ZipCar, illuminate the new phenomena wherein people prefer accessing to vehicles temporarily to owning them (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Hazée et al., 2017; Schaefers et al., 2016). However, the service encounter of access-based services cannot be readily pertinent to that of ride-sharing services, such as Uber and Lyft. While access-based services do not require the presence of employees or contacts with them, ride-sharing services directly involve the actual labor of drivers, which makes this type of services

very context-sensitive.[10] Hence, this problem in service encounter calls for more research on the context-specific reasons for and against repurchase decision that are applicable to ride-sharing services.

Another theoretical problem is that the innovation literature largely ignores a possibility of consumers' resistance that can affect their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services. The prominent adoption models tend to concentrate on the factors only for adoption behaviors to explain ride-sharing adoption (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Schaefers, 2013), and as such, reasons against using ride-sharing have been widely neglected. But, Westaby's research (2005) shows that consumers' reasons for and against their particular behaviors entail qualitatively different behavioral patterns, stemming from fundamentally distinct underlying cognitions. In the case of ride-sharing services, this means that some travelers may have obvious reasons not to actually repuchase service innovations, even if they have positive attitudes towards innovations. This is possible because consumers' perceived risks concerning security and safety may undermine their repurchase intentions. By distinguishing between reasons for and against behaviors, therefore, this study sheds new light on the attitude-behavior model in the context of ride-sharing services.

Furthermore, there is a paucity of research that could explain why consumers' attitudes often fail to take their actual adoptions and usage behaviors in service innovations in the post-adoption phase. Previous research in the tourism field has

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[10] Recently, the technology companies, such as Uber, Waymo (autonomous car project of Google) and General Motors, have invested in self-driving cars that could replace actual drivers, but self-driving cars are not a focus of innovation in the current study.

emphasized that attitudes have an important variable that have an explanatory power in predicting consumers' engagement in actual behaviors (Morosan, 2012; So, Oh, & Min, 2018). However, a positive attitude does not automatically generate an observed behavior; consumers might have positive attitudes towards an innovation, but could fail to actually engage in transactions. But, there is little research that addresses the gap between attitudes and behaviors, perhaps because of a difficulty of clarifying the nature of the relationship between verbal attitudes and overt behaviors (Ajzen, 2012). The study seeks to tackle this gap explicitly, by constructing an intervening variable 'attitude confidence,' that mediates the relationship between attitudes and behavioral intentions.

The purpose of the study in this chapter is to explore travelers' reasons for and against adoption of ride-sharing and to examine the factors affecting travelers' intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip in the post-adoption stage. The research design of this chapter is predicated upon behavioral reasoning theory (BRT; Westaby, 2005). BRT postulates that individuals' reasons for and against a specific behavior predict intentions to engage in that behavior. As such, the first phase of the study focuses on a qualitative exploration of reasons for and against adoption, by collecting and analyzing interview data. Because the specific sub-dimensions of reasons for and against the behaviors vary in different contexts (Westaby, 2005), an instrument needs to be developed and refined, based on the qualitative views of participants. The statements and/or quotes from the preliminary interviews are then developed into an instrument, so that a series of hypotheses can be tested.

To recapitulate, the study on ride-sharing services seeks to address theoretical gaps in two ways. First, an important variable, 'attitude confidence,' is added to

Westaby's original BRT (2005) so as to examine how individuals strengthen their repurchase decisions in the post-adoption phase. 'Attitude confidence' plays a crucial role in mediating the relationship between attitudes and behavioral intentions. Second, travelers' reasons for and against their adoption that influence intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip are explored and contextualized based on innovation literature and existing studies on tourist ground transportation choice. Combining travelers' distinct types of reasonings into one formulation is a novel approach that properly explores context-specific factors affecting travelers' repurchase behaviors. Specifically, reasons against adoption, such as legality concerns, are delineated in detail in the context of ride-sharing services.

The organization of this chapter is as follows. The next section briefly examines the characteristics of ride-sharing as a unique service innovation. The following section includes the theoretical discussions related to the post-adoption stage. Then, by incorporating travelers' ground transport choice in the tourism field, the reasons for and against innovation adoption are contextualized to ride-sharing services. Based on the contextualization, the research hypotheses and estimation model are developed.

Ride-sharing as a Service Innovation

Ride-sharing is selected as an empirical test in the post-adoption stage, given that these service innovations have been diffused across the world and becomes the global phenomenon (*The Economist*, 2016). The ride-sharing market is more developed in countries in North America and Western Europe where ride-sharing platforms have been operating for several years. Ride-sharing is rapidly expanding at significant rates around

the world, notably in Asia and the Pacific region (OECD, 2016). Thus, ride-sharing services are investigated to examine consumer behaviors and decision-making processes in the post-adoption stage of service innovations[11].

There are main characteristics that make ride-sharing unique service innovations compared with other transport modes. Ride-sharing services change the customer roles of users, buyers, and payers. According to Michel, Brown, and Gallan's (2008) propositions on discontinuous innovation, an innovation can arise by changing any of the customers' roles of users, buyers, and payers. When it comes to ride-sharing (e.g., Uber, Lyft), consumers open up the mobile application and provide their location information on the platform. Either a consumer or a service provider can view ratings, evaluate each other as a partner, and even reject the partner with a low rating. Furthermore, it is an innovation that alters the customers' roles in the buying and paying process. To access service, a consumer downloads the mobile app, creates an account, and enters his or her credit card information. At the end of services, no cash exchanges hands between a provider and a consumer. Instead, the fare is automatically deducted from the consumer's account. An email receipt is sent to the customer when the trip is completed. The advent of ride-sharing has changed the nature in which transport suppliers offer their servcies. Furthermore, the innovation has transfromed the relationship with customers who have access to services to much more information than ever before. GPS tracks progress of a vehicle en route so that travelers have up-to-date travel information on their smartphone.

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[11] In terms of the sharing economy, there are a variety of transport services, including access-based services (short term car rentals), short distance ride-sharing, long distance ride-sharing, private car sharing, and institutional car sharing (UNWTO, 2017)

As ride-sharing services emerge as an alternative transport mode, academic research has highlighted the factors influencing intentions to use or repurchase ride-sharing services. Greater convenience, affordable prices, more transportation options, and better accessibility have been highlighted as benefits by researchers (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Hazée et al., 2017; Schaefers, 2013). On the other hand, researchers found that concerns over consumer protection and safety regulations (e.g., driver's background checks or insurance coverage) are barriers that inhibit travelers from continuing to use ride-sharing services (Einav, Farronato & Levin, 2016; UNWTO, 2017). Other reasons against adopting service innovations encompass a high degree of heterogeneity regarding driving skills or vehicle qualities. Little research in tourism, however, has examined travelers' intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services.

Innovation Adoption and Resistance in the Post-Adoption Stage

The post-adoption stage represents the phase where the individuals may reinforce the innovation-decision already made or reverse this decision if they are exposed to conflicting reasons to continue to use the service (Rogers, 2003). Empirical evidence demonstrates that a decision to adopt or reject a new idea is not the terminal stage in the innovation-decision process (Hjalager, 2010; Randhawa, Kim, Voorhees, Cichy, Koenigsfeld, & Perdue, 2016; Shih & Venkatesh, 2004). That is, individuals recognize the benefits or barriers of using the innovation based on their direct experiences with the innovation.

The focus of the study on ride-sharing is to examine the factors influencing intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip in the post-adoption stage.

The main point which differentiates the post-adoption stage from pre-adoption stage is that individuals may develop their attitudes towards an innovation based on their direct experiences and then decide on repurchasing innovative products or services. The direct experiences with innovations are crucial in the post-adoption stage (Shih & Venkatesh, 2004), whereas innovation characteristics (i.e., observability, compatibility, triability) are unique to the pre-adoption process (Moore & Benbasat, 1991; Rogers, 2003). In the post-adoption stage, customers integrate the innovation into one's ongoing routines and develop attitudes towards the innovation and adoption behavior.

Researchers have shown that the explanatory power of attitudes might decline in situations where individuals are faced with strong external variables such as safety and performance risks (Claudy, Peterson, & O'Driscoll, 2013; So, Oh, & Min, 2018) or low confidence in forming their attitudes (Petty & Krosnick, 1992). Consequently, in the context of innovation adoption, the relationship between attitudes and behavioral intentions often seems to be missing or weak (Claudy et al., 2013). A public opinion poll shows that consumers are reporting positive attitudes towards cultural shift away from car ownership toward ridesharing (PwC, 2015), but it may be argued that their positive attitudes are not necessarily translated into actual behaviors. The traditional models like the theory of planned behavior (TPB) have so far failed to account for the attitude-behavior gap, raising questions about the usefulness of traditional behavioral intention theories (Westaby, 2005).

Recent advances of behavioral intention models offer new perspectives and possible explanations for the attitude-behavior gap (Westaby, 2005). Specifically, BRT offers a useful extension of TPB by including context-specific reasons, which have an

influence on attitude formation and decision making (Westaby, 2005). According to the theory, individuals secure further reasons that persuade them that they should adopt or reject ride-sharing services. For example, ride-sharing services are perceived to be controversial over safety and security issues, and the repurchase decision is likely to require travelers to rationally evaluate reasons for and against adoption. Furthermore, to address the attitude-behavior gap, attitude confidence is chosen as the variable that mediates the relationship between attitude and intentions in the current study. In consumer decision-making context, attitude confidence has been highlighted in brand attitude strength (Kim & Ross, 2015; Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010). The attitude strength construct predicts purchase behavior, with the direction of the behavior (being inclined or disinclined toward purchase) varying as a function of whether attitude value is strongly positive or strongly negative (Fazio, 1995; Petty, Haugtvedt, & Smith, 1995). Park et al. (2010) argued that attitude strength offers value in capturing a brand's mind share of consumers. Increasing research shows that attitude and attitude confidence are particularly relevant to controversial information technologies, for example, biometric systems in air travel security (Morosan, 2012) or biometric identify authentication for banking transactions (Breward, Hassanein, & Head, 2017) that have been recently introduced and employed.

In the post-adoption stage, attitudes towards ride-sharing services are formed by contextualized reasons for and against innovation adoption. In this vein, tourism researchers have argued that travel, as a context of innovation adoption, should be taken into consideration (Mackay & Vogt, 2012; Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2016). Travelers relate to various technologies and negotiate their use while on vacations (Gretzel, 2011).

At the same time, technological innovations change the way travelers plan, experience, and perceive vacations (MacKay & Vogt, 2012; Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2016; White & White, 2007). Thus, tourism is understood as a special context for innovations, but one that is not independent from other settings.

Travelers' Ground Transport Mode Choice

Ride-sharing services have the potential to become an important transportation mode at destinations since they can match passengers to independent drivers for a high demand in tourist destinations. In general, the role of transport in tourism destinations has been overlooked in tourism development models and conceptual frameworks (Hall, 1999; Page, 2005). In addition to the deficiency of research on transport in the tourism field, the literature on ride-sharing services from a tourism perspective is scarce. Empirical research has been less active in discussing ride-sharing within the conversation of travelers' transport modes choice in a destination, without explaining further how ride-sharing impacts travelers' mobility options.

In the tourism field, the factors that influence travelers' ground transport mode choice have been identified (Anable & Gatersleben, 2005; Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018). Tourism researchers take two perspectives on a traveler's choice of transport mode at destinations: From a practical view, the type and number of modes available are relevant, but a traveler's perception of mode qualities such as costs and benefits also matter (Le-Klähn et al., 2015; Lew and McKercher, 2006). Travelers consider a number of criteria, such as costs, travel time, or flexibility (ability to adapt to changes in schedule). Convenience is also important in that travelers may want to find the location

of the pick-up and drop-off points easily. The perception of safety, security, and reliability are also critical factors that influence tourist's attitudes and intentions to use transport modes.

The present study on ride-sharing services may add value to scholarship on travelers' ground transport choice. This study provides an avenue to investigate the impacts of technological advances on tourism and transport. With the advent of mobile devices and apps, travelers have access to much more information and transportation options than ever before. In ride-sharing services, GPS tracks progress of a vehicle en route so that travelers could have up-to-date travel information on their smartphone. The use of information technology to improve real time travel information may enhance travel experiences.

Furthermore, the current study highlights ride-sharing services have the potential to become a means of transport for the purpose of leisure or business travel. Researchers in the transportation field suggest that ride-sharing services may provide a feasible and attractive way for travelers to satisfy their mobility needs at a destination, particularly in urban cities (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Furuhata, Dessouky, Ordóñez, Brunet, Wang, & Koening, 2013; Schaefers, 2013). At the destination level, ride-sharing services could play a vital role in providing access and mobility within a destination (Albalate & Bel, 2010). Compared to rented cars, ride-sharing can be summoned or stopped by travelers on the street or dispatched to pick-up places. Ride-sharing services can provide travelers with an additional mobility option to the existing public transit services.

Another dimension that links ride-sharing with the tourism industry goes beyond the mere transport activity. Lew and McKercher (2006) indicate that some travelers may

avoid a time-efficient route from their accommodation to a major stop, in favor of a more indirect, scenic, or roundabout route that offers more opportunities for exploration and discovery. In that sense, the driver's knowledge, friendliness, and interaction between drivers and travelers could be major elements that may affect attitudes and intentions to use ride-sharing services during the trip. Thus, ride-sharing services, like other transport options at the destination, has the potential to satisfy a traveler's mobility needs and increase the quality of the overall tourism experience (Page, 2005).

Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

The main premise of BRT is that context-specific reasons serve a critical role in the mental processing of the behavior. In developing the research model, the contextual factors influencing travelers' ground transport mode choice were incorporated in consumers' reasonings of repurchasing ride-sharing services. By drawing on BRT, the research model and hypotheses are developed. It is important to note that the conceptual framework specifies the mediating effects of attitude and attitude confidence, which explain how the reasons for and against innovation adoption are turned into the intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services. In this way, the research model seeks to expand BRT.

Reasons for and against Adopting Ride-sharing Services

Travelers may have the reasons for repurchasing ride-sharing services in that they save costs and enjoy convenience and flexibility (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Schaefers, 2013). At the same time, concerns over driver's reliability, insurance coverage, or passenger safety are the reasons against continuing to use ride-sharing

services (FTC, 2016; Hazée et al., 2017). Table 10 summarizes a variety of the reasons for and against repurchasing ride-sharing services in the post-adoption stage. These benefits and barriers are based on the post-adoption literature in general and tourism studies on travelers' transport modes choice.

Table 10

Psychological Factors Affecting Travelers' Transportation Choices

Factors	Description	Relevant Literature
Reasons for adoption		
Financial benefits	Perceived benefits obtained from reduction of costs	Möhlmann (2015), Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos (2018)
Convenience in saving time	Perceived benefits derived from saving time and increasing time efficiency	Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos (2018)
Convenience in reducing effort	Perceived benefits derived from reducing effort or stress	Nielsen et al. (2015); Schaefers (2013)
Convenience in managing trips	Perceived benefits obtained from arranging for a travel route and managing travels	Nielsen et al. (2015); Thompson & Schofield (2007)
Relational benefits	Perceived benefits caused by the relationship with service providers	Nielsen et al. (2015); Yoo, Arnold, & Frankwick (2012)
Reasons against adoption		
Perceived risks in driving skills	Risk perception that a driver may be unsafe or inexperienced.	Claudy et al. (2015); Nielsen et al. (2015)
Perceived risks in technology failure	Risk perception for potential loss caused or intercepted by unreliable technology	Kim et al. (2013); Park & Tussyadiah (2017)
Legal concerns	Concerns over legality and liability issues	Einav, Farronato & Levin (2016); Helmer (2017); Lobel (2015)
Relational barriers	Discomfort caused by the interactions with service providers	Nielsen et al. (2015)

The following describes the definitions of reasons for innovation adoption in the context of ride-sharing services:

- ***Financial benefits*** represent travelers' perceived benefits obtained from cost savings. Several studies indicate that the main reasons for utilizing ride-sharing services are to save money (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen; 2016; Möhlmann, 2015). It is also related to the availability of money that would be saved for other tourist activities (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016).
- ***Convenience*** is conceptualized as consumers' time and effort perceptions related to buying or using a service. Time and effort saving are the two aspects of convenience most often cited in the service literature (Berry, Seiders, & Grewal, 2002; Brown, 2000; O'Shaughnessy, 1987). Several researchers labeled the convenience-related costs of time and effort as important dimensions. Brown (1990) proposed five types of convenience: time, place, acquisition, use, and execution. Similar to Brown (1990), Anderson and Shugan (1991) showed that consumers prefer the products with the highest levels of time- and effort-reducing attributes. Berry and his colleagues (2002) proposed five types of service convenience based on the stage of consumers' activities related to buying or using a service: decision convenience, access convenience, transaction convenience, benefit convenience, and post-benefit convenience. Service convenience was measured by Seiders and colleagues (2007), who developed scales (SERVCON) related to consumer shopping speed and ease. Others have defined distinct types or categories of convenience as dimensions. In the transportation literature, convenience has been operationalized as the belief that the

transportation would make the task of moving one place to another quick and easy (Le-Klähn & Hall, 2015). In the context of ride-sharing, convenience is hypothesized to consist of three dimensions.

- *Convenience in saving time* refer to travelers' perceived benefits derived from saving time (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Claudy et al., 2015). It expands to psychological consequences of saving time, making life easier through flexible use of transport modes (Schaefers, 2013). Ride-sharing is a faster way of transport than the public transportation system, especially when the public transports require several transfers or stops (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Nielsen et al., 2015).
- *Convenience in reducing effort* comes from minimizing the degree of physical, mental, or financial resources expended to obtain a service (Sweeney, Danaher, & McColl-Kennedy, 2015). In the transportation use context, convenience in reducing effort represents access convenience to initiate service delivery (e.g., walking to a subway station, visiting a rental car center, or requesting a ride on a smartphone) or benefit convenience to experience the benefits of service (e.g., exploring the neighborhood of a tourist destination). The effort costs also may involve passengers' required actions to search for available options for local public transportation or to navigate unfamiliar places in a tourist destination. Ride-sharing helps to mitigate stress by avoiding the hassle of parking, congestion, and driving in unfamiliar places (Le-Klähn, Hall, & Gerike, 2014; Nielsen et al., 2015).

- *Convenience in managing trips* involves mitigating perceived time and effort expenditures to plan, effect, and complete trips. This dimension focuses on the actions that consumers must take to use the transport service in a transaction (Berry et al., 2002). The literature on the travelers' use of transportation have focused on the ease of use and efficiency in planning trips (Le-Klähn & Hall, 2015; Nielsen et al., 2015; Thompson & Schofield, 2007). In the context of ride-sharing, technology is a key adjunct to service system design, which could give passengers more control and more options. For example, passengers utilize the GPS technology to get informed of the travel route. The app of ride-sharing enables them to locate pick-up and drop-off locations and estimate the driver's arrival time. Technology is instrumental in managing the time and effort costs required for consumers to use a service.

- ***Relational benefits*** represent travelers' perceived benefits derived from building relationships and exchanging information with service providers (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000; Yoo, Arnold, & Frankwick, 2012). It is related to confidence benefits (Gwinner, Gremler, & Bitner, 1998), which refer to benefits obtained from a feeling of confidence in a service provider. Ride-sharing offers passengers a chance to socialize with drivers (Nielsen et al., 2015). By building relationships with drivers, passengers may get the sense of a driver's reliability or acquire useful travel information.

Along with the aforementioned reasons for adopting ride-sharing services, travelers also may have reasons *against* adopting service innovations. The following

describes the categories of reasons against adopting innovation adoption in the context of ride-sharing services:

- ***Perceived risks*** represent consumers' beliefs about the potential uncertainty associated with negative outcomes in a purchase decision (Featherman & Pavlou, 2003; Kim, Ferrin, & Rao, 2008). Perceived risks have been examined in the context of mobile travel booking (Park & Tussyadiah, 2017), mobile payments (Morosan & DeFranco, 2016; Oliviera, Thomas, Baptista, & Campos, 2016), or e-services (Featherman & Pavlou, 2003). The relationship between risk attitudes and behavior have been operationalized and tested under the circumstance pleasure travel (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992) or repurchase intention of Airbnb consumers (Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018b). Risk perceptions are situation-specific and therefore should be evaluated using measures appropriate to the context of interest (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Thus, perceived risks are postulated to have the following dimensions in the context of ride-sharing:
  - *Perceived risks in driving skills* represent consumer belief about a driver's inability and unwillingness to protect passenger safety. In the ride-sharing context, it means a passenger's risk perception that a driver may be unsafe, inexperienced, or merely unknown to the passenger. In the ground travel mode choices at regional destinations, drivers' language skills or driving knowledge were found to be important (García-Almeida & Klassen, 2018; Koo, Woo, & Dwyer, 2010).
  - *Perceived risks in technology failure* refer to risk perception for potential loss caused or intercepted by unreliable technology. Given the important of platform

technology in matching passengers to drivers, perceived risks in technology failure cannot be only limited to device failure, but also negatively influence service performance and consequences. Under the circumstance the technology fails to deliver services, mobile services may not perform as designed and therefore fail to deliver desired benefits (Park & Tussyadiah, 2017).

- ***Legal concerns*** indicate a traveler's concerns regarding potential losses or negative consequences of legal issues, such as passenger liability or drivers' background checks to protect passenger from potential harms or injuries (Einav et al., 2016; Helmer, 2017; Lobel, 2015). Legal concerns represent the degree to which travelers perceive that ride-sharing services comply with the passenger safety regulations to enhance consumer protection (Zhu, So, & Hudson, 2017).
- ***Relational barriers*** represent the discomfort caused by unpleasant interactions or inappropriate conversations between drivers and passengers. The relational barriers derive from anxiety or concerns that a passenger takes rides with strangers in a personal vehicle. Nielsen et al. (2015) noted that passengers may feel socially awkward with sharing a car with someone that they do not know or get tired of interacting with drivers.

Reasons Influence Attitudes

*Attitude*s are defined as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1992). In the adoption of the innovation context, attitudes can be operationalized as an individual's positive or negative evaluative affect about performing the adoption behavior (Taylor &

Todd, 1995). The following hypothesis is considered to account for the relationship between reasons and attitudes:

Hypothesis 1. Travelers' reasons for innovation adoption positively influence attitudes toward ride-sharing services.

Hypothesis 2. Travelers' reasons against innovation adoption negatively influence attitudes towards ride-sharing services.

Reasons Influence Attitude Confidence

In the post-adoption stage, customers secure further reasons that they should adopt or reject the innovation. As reasons become clear and certain in mind, customers are more likely to repurchase ride-sharing services. For example, when travelers think about why they use ride-sharing in a destination, the reasons might be cost saving, time efficiency, or convenience in organizing trips. After they analyze the reasons for adoption, travelers may strengthen or weaken attitude confidence. That is, customers often form the attitude implied by their reasons (Petty & Krosnick, 1992). Therefore, it is hypothesized that attitude confidence mediates the relationship between reasons and purchase intentions:

Hypothesis 3. Travelers' reasons for innovation adoption positively influence their attitude confidence.

Hypothesis 4. Travelers' reasons against innovation adoption negatively influence their attitude confidence.

Reasons Influence Behavioral Intentions

In the formulation of BRT, *reasons* are defined as "the specific subjective factors people use to explain their anticipated behavior" (Westaby, 2005, p. 100). Reasons are further theorized to have two broad sub-dimensions: "reasons for" and "reasons against" performing a behavior, as explained in the theoretical framework in Chapter 2. Reasons can be powerful drivers of intentions because people feel more comfortable with themselves when reasons justify and defend their actions, even if attitudes toward adoption are not perfectly aligned with their intentions (Westaby, 2005; Westaby, Probst, & Lee, 2010). For example, travelers may have justifiable reasons against adopting ride-sharing, regardless of their positive attitudes, feel economic pressures to use it or find it convenient to use. Based on the theoretical discussion on the relationship between reasons and behavioral intentions, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5. Travelers' reasons for innovation adoption positively influence their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services.

Hypothesis 6. Travelers' reasons against innovation adoption negatively influence their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services.

Attitudes Influence Attitude Confidence

Attitude confidence represents a subjective judgment of the confidence that people attach to their attitudes (Howe & Krosnick, 2016; Krosnick, Boninger, Chuang, Berent, & Carnot, 1993). Individuals attach confidence to an attitude, then confirm their action (Petty & Krosnick, 1992). In the post-adoption stage, attitude confidence represents how

certain or convinced people are about adopting an innovation. It is hypothesized that attitude confidence mediates the effects of reasons on repurchase intentions. The attitudes toward innovation, held with confidence, may positively influence behavioral intentions (Petty & Krosnick, 1992), leading to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Travelers' attitudes toward innovation adoption positively influences their attitude confidence.

Attitudes Influence Behavioral Intentions

In line with related theories, such as theory of reasoned action or theory of planned behavior, BRT postulates that consumers' behavior (i.e., repurchase) can be predicted by their attitudes. According to Eagly and Chaiken, attitudes are "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity (e.g., innovation) with some degree of favor or disfavor" (p. 1). Attitudes are defined as global motives as they constitute broad substantive factors, which influence behaviors across different domains (Westaby, 2005). In the travel literature, attitudes have been regarded as key determinants of consumers' purchase decisions, for example travelers' intentions to stay at green hotel choice (Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010), to repurchase Airbnb accommodations (So, Oh, & Min, 2018) or to visit a destination (Jordan, Boley, Knollenberg, & Caroline, 2017). Research suggests that people who hold more positive attitudes toward innovation are more likely to adopt new services (Blut, Wang, & Schoefer, 2016). Thus, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 8: Travelers' attitude toward innovation adoption positively influences their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services.

Attitude Confidence Influence Behavioral Intentions

Attitude confidence explains consistency in the relationship between attitude and intention (Howe & Krosnick, 2016). In other words, attitude confidence mediates the relationship between attitudes and repurchase intentions. Attitude confidence also mediates the relationship between reasons and repurchase intentions because attitude confidence allows for analyzing reasons (Petty & Krosnick, 1992). In this way, attitude confidence plays roles in forming and strengthening attitudes and reasons. Furthermore, attitudes held with confidence convince individuals to make substantial commitment to ride-sharing. The relationship between attitude confidence and behavior intentions lead to the last hypothesis:

***Hypothesis 9*:** Travelers' attitude confidence positively influences their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services.

With the specific variables in the BRT, the formula for behavior developed by Westaby (2005) can be adapted to explain behavioral intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services. Figure 2 visualizes the conceptual model that links the variables and shows how the hypotheses are connected. The potential for the post-adoption behavior to occur is largely determined by intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. The intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip are the function of a

positive evaluative affect toward adopting ride-sharing (attitudes). Reasons for and against adopting ride-sharing are hypothesized to predict attitudes, attitudes confidence, and repurchase intentions.

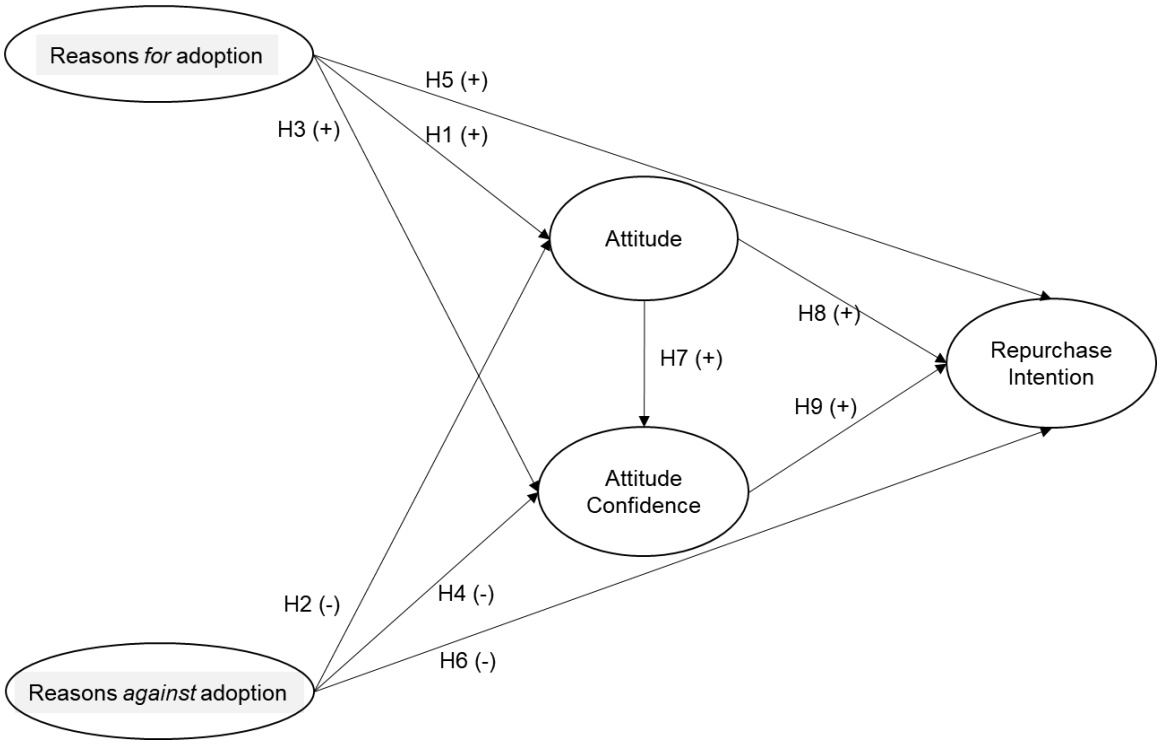


Figure 3. [Study 2] Conceptual Model: Service Innovations of Ride-Sharing

Notes. The dependent variable, *Repurchase intention*, is measured by intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services on a next trip.

The BRT offers a complete understanding by including reasons for and against adoption, which influence behavior directly and indirectly via attitudes. In the post-adoption stage, further question arises as to how customers form attitudes towards adoption and confirm their decision for the next purchases. Customers may strengthen or weaken their attitudes after they decide the adoption or resistance. Thus, the post-adoption model requires an additional construct to support this attitude formation.

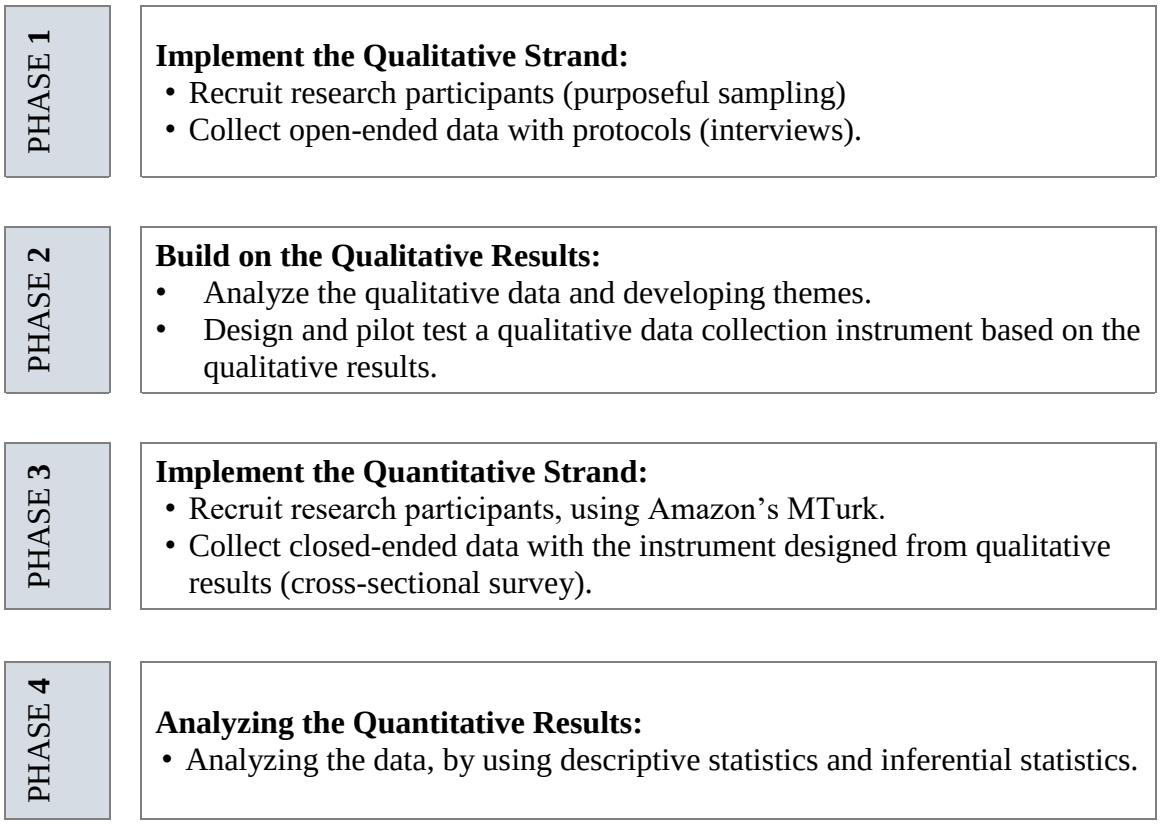
Attitude confidence is the construct that explains how customers reinforce or diminish their attitudes and reasons. Attitude confidence also accounts for consistency in the relationship between attitudes and behavioral intentions. Therefore, BRT allows for distinct psychological paths in behavioral decision-making, which may vary depending on the decision context such as the type of innovation (Westaby, 2005, p. 103). In this way, a deeper understanding emerges about factors that lead to both adoption and resistance of innovations (Claudy et al., 2015).

Methods

Research Design

The purpose of the study on ride-sharing is to first qualitatively explore with a small sample, and then to determine if the qualitative findings can be generalizable to a large sample. The research design was first formulated with the collection and analysis of preliminary interview data to explore travelers' context-specific reasons for and against adopting ride-sharing services. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect data. From this initial exploration, the qualitative findings were used to refine measures that can be administered to a large sample. A cross-sectional survey was conducted to test the outlined hypotheses. The target population was travelers who had made a conscious decision to adopt, resist, or continue to use ride-sharing services in a destination. In addition, the research population will have the following two characteristics. First, participants traveled for leisure, business or personal purposes within six months. Travel refers to business, leisure (vacation) or personal travels (visiting family and friends) that included at least one overnight stay. This criterion is to ensure that the participant could

recall the details of the trip and provide descriptions of their decision-making on ride-sharing services.



Note. Adapted from Creswell & Clark (2011, p. 88)

Figure 4. [Study 2] Research Procedures of a Mixed Methods Approach

Procedures and Data Collection

Preliminary Interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore travelers' reasons for and against adopting service innovations in ride-sharing services. During the data collection, a theoretical saturation principle was followed. Data collection stopped when additional interviews revealed no additional information (Charmaz, 2006). The

research participants were recruited mainly through the purposeful sampling. Table 11 shows for the profiles of interview participants.

Table 11

[Study 2] Profiles of Interview Participants

No.	Gender	Age Group	Travel Purpose	Destination	Use Frequency (times)
1	M	20-29	Leisure	New York City	2 / 5
2	F	60-69	Leisure	New York City	2 / 2
3	F	50-59	Leisure	San Francisco, New Orleans	10 / 8
4	M	30-39	Business	San Luis Obispo	15 / 40
5	F	20-29	Business	Salt Lake City	5 / 24
6	F	50-59	Personal	Golden, CO	1 / 1
7	F	20-29	Leisure	Nashville, San Francisco	15 / 20
8	M	30-39	Business	San Jose	20 / 20
9	M	50-59	Business	Oklahoma City	3 / 1
10	M	20-29	Personal	Las Vegas	2 / 2
11	F	30-39	Leisure	New Orleans, Los Angeles	8 / 0
12	M	20-29	Leisure	Chicago, San Diego	9 / 15
13	F	30-39	Business	Miami	3 / 5
14	M	20-29	Business	Boston, Los Angeles	8 / 0
15	F	60-69	Personal	San Francisco, Minneapolis	3 / 3
16	F	20-29	Personal	Anaheim	3 / 14
17	M	50-59	Business	Salt Lake City	1 / 3
18	F	20-29	Leisure	D.C., Las Vegas	5 / 120
19	F	40-49	Leisure	Chicago, Detroit	4 / 10
20	M	70-79	Leisure	Boston	2 / 2
21	M	60-69	Leisure	Huntsville, AL	3 / 4

Note. The use frequency denotes the number of times that the participants use ride-sharing in the travel destination (left) and in their town (right) in the past six months.

The participants should use ride-sharing services for leisure, business, or personal travel purposes in the past six months. The trip refers to business, pleasure, vacation, or personal trips that included at least an overnight stay. The criteria are consistent with the

participant selection criteria in the tourism literature (e.g., Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2016). In line with recent research (Hazée et al., 2017), participants were also recruited through multiple channels, including malls, public libraries, learning institutes, and online forums dedicated to ride-sharing, such as uberforum.com. Appendix F includes the recruitment notice. For this opt-in recruitment process, interested persons are expected to contact the researcher and take part in the study. The research participants were selected to represent diverse customer segments of ride-sharing services. They differ in their demographic characteristics. The demographic variables include gender, age group, the use frequency, use purposes (e,g., business travel, leisure travel, personal travel), The recruitment process resulted in twenty-one complete interviews.

In line with BRT, semi-structured interviews were selected for two reasons. The primary intent was to refine new categories that could be assessed in the subsequent survey study (Small, 2011; Westaby et al., 2010). Another intent of the exploratory interview was to validate categories derived from prior studies. The interview protocol included the questions about participants' experiences related to intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services, along with prompts and follow-up questions (Appendix G). The first section began with general questions (e.g., "Please tell me where you used Uber or Lyft on your recent trip"), designed to prompt a first-person narrative of the participant's experience. All participants were given the definition and examples of ride-sharing services (e.g., Uber, Lyft), to be used as a common point of reference for the remainder of the interview. In the second section, participants were then encouraged to identify benefits and barriers that arose when engaging with ride-sharing services, along with contextual details and examples during their recent trips. Also, participants were asked to

reflect upon and describe what sort of experiences the ride-sharing provided them with, how they responded to particular incidents, what thoughts or feelings came to mind, and why those experiences were important to their decision to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. The contextual details helped to avoid misrepresentations of the data (Wallendorf & Belk, 1989). If a participant's adoption or rejection experiences were related to a particular situation, this part of the interview was more closely described. In addition, the participants were asked to evaluate the categorizations with the adoption and resistance in the sharing economy gleaned from the prior studies. The interviewees were encouraged to speak freely about their experiences.

Pretests. After the preliminary interviews, useful quotes or sentences were identified. Data were classified according to codes and grouped into more broad themes (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The subsequent survey phase was built on the results of the preliminary qualitative interviews. Based on the reason elicitation study, the categories of the context-specific reasons for and against adopting ride-sharing were developed. This allowed an instrument for the main survey study to be developed.

Main Survey. After pretests, a cross-sectional main survey was conducted. Research participants were recruited using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), the online subject pool. Existing studies have examined MTurk in terms of population characteristics and data quality (Berinsky, Hubber, & Lenz, 2012; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). The consensus is that MTurk represents a viable source of high-quality data.

During the survey, participants were recruited, using a three-stage process as recommended by Cunningham et al. (2017). Figure 5 summarizes the recruitment process. As shown in Stage 1, an online panel on MTurk was asked to complete a baseline survey. The potential participants clicked the link and visited a webpage providing a brief description on the survey. Potential participants were then asked to answer a few screening questions after they acknowledged that they are 18 years or older and have traveled within six months. The consent form in the baseline survey contains information that some participants would be invited to take part in another survey. In total, 1,000 responses were obtained from the baseline survey.

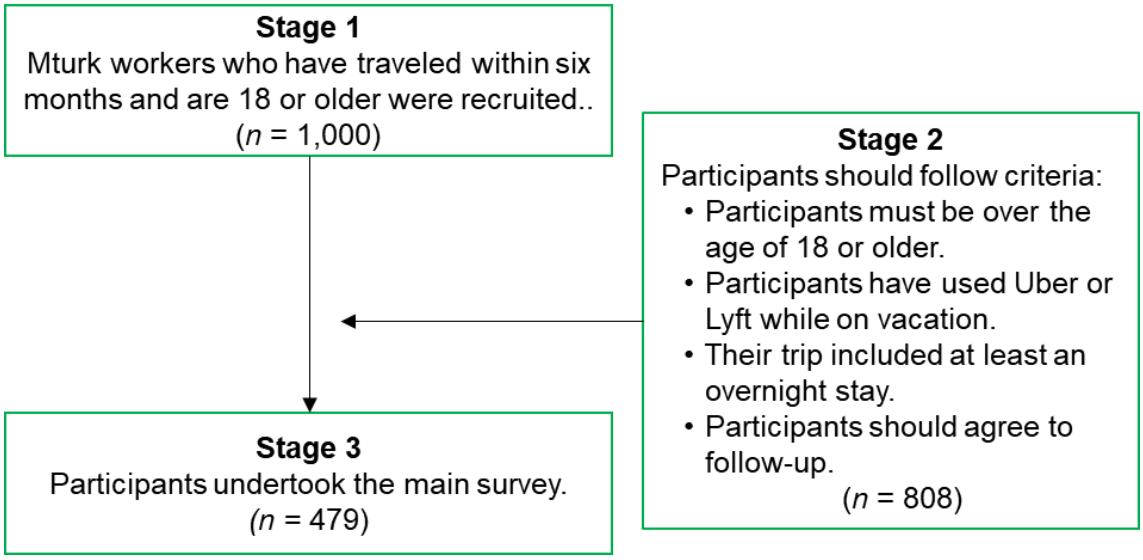


Figure 5. [Study 2] Participant Recruitment for the Survey

In Stage 2 in Figure 5, the researcher accessed demographics and trip characteristics from survey responses. This procedure is important to avoid misrepresentation of the sample (Wessling, Huber, & Netzer, 2017). The participants

who provided accurate answers and endorsed screening questions correctly were invited to take part in the main survey. The participants who had used ride-sharing within the last six months and stayed overnight at travel destinations were eligible to participate in the main survey. The screening questions are important to select qualified participants and avoid misrepresentation of the sample. In total, 808 participants met the criteria to undertake the main survey. In Stage 3, a focal research study was conducted. The main survey questionnaire was developed on the Qualtrics software and sent to prescreened participants. The MTurk allows for sending the follow-up survey to the specific participants who agreed to take part. As a result, 479 responses were obtained in total.

Measures

The survey was administered to obtain participants' trip characteristics and socio-demographic information. Their trip purposes (e.g., leisure, business, or visit friends and relatives), their sites of visit (e.g., in-state or out-of-state visit), the length of the stay, and the use frequency of ride-sharing services were asked.

All items were measured on seven-point Likert scales, ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree." The measures for attitudes, attitude confidence, and repurchase intentions were developed, in line with previous studies (Claudy, Garcia, & O'Driscoll, 2015; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Malhotra, 2005; Taylor & Todd, 1995; Westaby, 2005; Westaby, Probst, & Lee, 2010). Following BRT guidelines (Westaby, 2005; Westaby, Probst, & Lee, 2010), the measurement items primarily came from the previous research, with minor wording modifications to fit the context of this study. The preliminary version of the survey instrument was piloted with a separate sample of customers from ride-sharing, then shortened and refined, based upon the results. The

items that were used in the main survey can be found in Appendix H. Appendix I includes questionnaire administered to the participants.

Data Analysis

In analyzing the data from the interviews, the researcher coded the key themes and explored them. Data analysis followed the three stages described by Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014). The first stage involved listening to each interview at least once and undertaking a reiterated reading of every transcript. Most relevant quotations and comments were highlighted and noted. In the second stage, these data were organized and coded, by clustering data units (e.g., statements, sentences) into common, recurrent, first-order themes to identify any patterns or regularities. In the third stage, the process was repeated with the first-order themes to try to categorize them into second-order themes.

The research approach includes multiple triangulations to facilitate verification and validation of the preliminary qualitative study. First, throughout the analysis, the transferability of the identified concepts was carefully checked across the different types of passengers (i.e., first-time or repeated users). All concepts were transferable, although some differences of magnitude arose for passengers across the different adoption stages. For example, repeated and lost users of ride-sharing reported more practices than first-time users. The second type of triangulation entails thick descriptions. This study used direct participant quotes to help validate the data generated from the informants and deep descriptions.

A structural equation modeling (SEM) technique was employed, using a maximum likelihood estimation approach (ML estimation). Mplus 7.2 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2005) was used to analyze the data. A two-step approach was adopted to

examine the antecedents of the adoption behavior. This process involves the following steps: (1) an examination of a measurement model to validate the factor structure of the hypothesized model using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and (2) a test for a structural equation model (SEM) to examine the causal relationships among the latent variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Assessment of model fit was based on multiple criteria that reflect theoretical, statistical, and practical consideration; there was chi-square statistic, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA $\leq .06$ for good fit and $< .10$ for adequate fit; Steiger, 1990) with accompanying 90% confidence interval (90% CI; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996), the comparative fit index (CFI > .90-.95; Bentler, 1990), and standardized root mean residual (SRMR < .08; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The common method variance was also examined. Bartels and Reinders (2011) acknowledge that one of the shortcomings of the cross-sectional survey studies on consumer innovativeness is common method variance. The common method variance was found to inflate correlations between constructs in the measurement model (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). One of the most widely used techniques to address the issue of common method variance is Harman's one-factor (or single-factor) test (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, common method variance was tested by comparing the measurement model to the one-factor model. The basic assumption of this technique is that if a negligible amount of common method variance is present, a single factor does not emerge from the factor analysis.

Results

This chapter on ride-sharing unfolds in two empirical analyses. The purpose of the first empirical analysis was to answer the research question about the reasons for and against adopting ride-sharing services. This task was accomplished by asking individual passengers to describe their travel experiences. The second empirical analysis involves validating a questionnaire that could be used to measure the constructs and test the causal relationships. The next section describes the first empirical analysis and results.

Empirical Analysis 1: Understanding the Reasons for and against Adoption

The overarching research question that guided the interviews was: "What are the reasons for and against adopting ride-sharing services while on your travels?" From the interviews, five categories of travelers' reasoning emerged as the reasons for adopting ride-sharing services for their trips: financial benefits, convenience in saving time, convenience in reducing effort, convenience in managing trips, and relational benefits.

Financial benefit was the first dimension of the reasons for adopting ride-sharing services. The interviewees saved costs when they used ride-sharing compared to other transportation choices, such as taxis and rental cars, as an interviewee aptly summarized, "It worked within three minutes at any point in time in Boston we were able to have ride-sharing" (ID 14). As opposed to a ticking meter in a taxi, the ride-sharing app estimates and sets a price already when passengers schedule a ride. A participant suggested that taxi companies have bad reputations, as far as being dishonest and or charging more than they should (ID 13). Compared to renting a car, ride-sharing services help to save the relevant costs, including gas and toll fees (ID 14). ID 3 talked about parking costs:

"Parking is really expensive in San Francisco. It was cheaper actually to take Uber or Lyft." The interviewees also described the aspects of transaction convenience that the ride-sharing apps generate. For example, the app helps to split the costs when traveling with a group (ID 18) or get fees converted as far as currency in foreign countries, such as Canada or France (ID 20). Other financial benefits come from the ease of expensing. A business traveler noted the expense report procedure got much easier after he had his corporate card set up within the Uber app. He remarked:

> It (Uber app) makes expensing it a lot easier. Previously, if you had a taxi, you'd have to keep track of all your receipts. When you would get back to the office, you would then have to fill out an expense report, submit it. It would get approved, then you would get reimbursed. Now, with Uber partnered with my company, they have integrated part of it with our expense report software. All Uber receipts go directly to the expense report software. All they have to do is click submit. It's already done. (ID 8)

Along with financial benefits, *convenience* was frequently mentioned by the interviewees. Convenience is an important concept that underlies the reasons for adopting ride-sharing services, therefore initial coding was first conducted, then focused coding was applied during the second cycle of coding. Data similarly coded were clustered together and reviewed to create category names (Saldaña, 2013). The categories were constructed by reorganizing data.

The second category emerging from the interviews was ***convenience in saving time.*** The dimension represents time efficiency to save the time to get to a destination, ranging from scheduling a ride, arriving at the destination on time, to paying for the service set up within the app (ID 10). Time saving was prominent, particularly when interviewees choose ride-sharing over public transports. ID 18 thought that ride-sharing

helps her to manage time better, as she commented, “I use ride-sharing, if I’m rushing, I don’t have time to take the bus to the Metro, or don’t have time to wait for the bus or the Metro.” ID 7 said ride-sharing is available at any time, noting that “I have taken it if it was very late at night and I needed to go somewhere, where it would be just too long to go there otherwise.” Other interviewees supported that ride-sharing offers the ease of access to a destination by providing door-to-door services. Ride-sharing is a faster way of transportation mode than the public transports, especially when the public transports require several transfers or stops:

> To walk to the bus station is a couple of blocks. You have to take a couple of lines to get where you want to go or the route isn’t as straight from one to one. I know people appreciate that they can just get picked up at the door (when they use ride-sharing). (ID 12)

Convenience in reducing effort was the third category as the reason for adopting ride-sharing services. It included the convenience derived from maximizing simplicity, minimizing psychological costs, or making less effort to carry out tasks (ID 14 and ID 17). In comparison to taxis, public transports, and rental cars, the interviewees noted that ride-sharing relatively eliminates customer effort. For instance, ID 17 contended that ride-sharing helps to avoid stress incurred from finding available taxi services: “I don’t have to look up any phone numbers. I don’t have to know the name of a taxi company. I don’t need to know if there is one nearby.” Comparing ride-sharing to renting a car, one participant noted that ride-sharing eliminates stress caused by navigating unfamiliar areas. He revealed that ride-sharing attenuates stress to learn local knowledge or information at travel destinations.

> It's so nice to not have to learn neighborhoods: learn how to park, learn the traffic flow, and learn where to turn, and fight over the navigation, and find parking." (ID 14)

When compared to public transits, ride-sharing reduces effort into information search. Travelers may continue to use the app already in place on their smartphone, whereas public transports make it cumbersome to search for local public transport options before the journey. This is what ID 13 said as follows: "Sometimes when you are not in a place very long, it almost feels like it's not worth learning a whole new transit system just to make a quick trip."

Convenience in managing trips was reportedly another important aspect of convenience. The literature on service convenience highlighted time and effort saving (Berry et al., 2002; Farquhar & Rowley, 2009; Sweeney et al., 2015), but little is known about the aspect of service convenience in facilitating mobility in the travel context. The advance in platform technology enhances a traveler's ability to plan and manage trips. The interviewees noted that the app shows the driver's progress and gives passengers an estimate of how long it will take from one place to another. Various participants noted that the technological advances enable them to know what to expect in the service delivery:

> It has an advantage of you know what you're getting ahead of time, you know how much it's going to cost, and it's a service that you use at home. You just have a higher or a more accurate expectation of what you're going to get with it. (ID 18)

> The fact that when you're on this app, you can see how far away your car, is so helpful. And I think It'd be great in public transportation if there was an app, and you could see when your bus is next coming. (ID 14)

> The app estimates the arrival time at the meeting point, so I did not have to be out there earlier, especially if there was bad weather. (ID 6)

One interviewee suggested that the platforms were available across the country. He acknowledged that ride-sharing is a viable ground transportation mode in the foreign countries that his family visited:

> The Uber app works when you are out of the country, and you don't have to worry about trying to find the number for the local cab company or a separate app for that company. One Uber app covers not only the United States, but also foreign countries. We used it in Canada, the UK, and Paris. (ID 20)

Relational benefit was labelled as the fifth dimension that comprises the reason for adopting ride-sharing services. Many interviewees indicated that ride-sharing allows to engage in enjoyable conversation with drivers, as one of them remarked as follows:

> One of the conversations in San Francisco I had was about how he was a first gen immigrant. We were talking about his kids and how he got his visa… A lot of times too I think when drivers are first gen immigrants and they have kids, they are pretty easy to talk to about what they want for their kids, why they moved here, how that process has been for them at that point in time. (ID 7)

The majority of the interviewees also said that they get insider tips on local restaurants or attractions from drivers. Some interviewees acknowledged that drivers provided useful travel information from the local perspective. They commented as:

> "If you go to all the tourist attractions, you will not able to really talk to local people. You are surrounded by other tourists, but if you take Uber, drivers are really New Yorkers. They know where local people go. They know more personal, more localized areas that most tourists don't know about, but local people know. That was kind of the best thing" (ID 1)
>
> "In Nashville, we had this one driver who was just really fun. We really enjoyed her. She was giving us both a lot of tips on Nashville, but was also talking to us about the history of Nashville and how the city has changed." (ID 7)
>
> "Obviously a lot of the stuff in the airport comes from the tourist department of the city. They're going to be pushing revenue towards one particular thing.

> They're going to send you to the tourist traps that they make money from. I find that sometimes when you're talking to the people that actually live there, that know the area too, you get different recommendations. They don't go to the tourist traps, they give you the little lowdown place… That's quintessential Chicago, or quintessential San Diego when I go down there." (ID 12)

As shown in the above comments, some interviewees considered that the drivers' recommendations were honest, genuine, or representative of what locals actually like to do, given that most of drivers do not have affiliations with companies. On the other hand, others were not open to conversations with drivers that much, depending on travelers' personality or their travel purposes (ID 5, ID 8, ID 14, and ID 17). If they stayed in a destination for a short period or they took a business or conference trip, travelers were less interested in building rapports with drivers. They tend to find better information on other online sources rather than talk to local people. They regarded the conversation as the common courtesy (ID 16) or general rule (ID 21).

Another research question was "what are travelers' reasons *against* adopting ride-sharing services for your trips?" The interviewees were asked about the conditions under which they did not use ride-sharing or they encountered service failures. If they ever experienced service failures, the interviewees were asked to provide more details about the circumstances and explain how they coped with them. From the interviews, perceived risks in driving skills, perceived risks in technology failure, legal concerns, and relational barriers emerged as the salient categories.

Perceived risks in driving skills were the first category that constitutes the reason against adopting ride-sharing services. Some interviewees were concerned that drivers were inept to using an app. They indicated that drivers got easily distracted by their phone with the GPS and navigation or missed a lot of the directions. ID 18 said "It's not a comforting feeling when your driver is missing multiple turns. She (the driver) did seem also a little bit distracted, like she was singing." ID 7 talked about the driver who forgot to mark the passenger as out of the car on the app and then drove into another city. When using the shared route, one interviewee said drivers went off the course to pick someone up at the dispensary area and deviated from a direct route:

> "I know that the app tells them which route to take and which person to drop off in the order. One of the times we drove past the airport to drop someone off and then back to the airport to drop me off. Sometimes I think the driver should use more common sense rather than follow the app." (ID 10)

Some participants responded that it was frustrating to have a bad driver, but it was more an annoyance rather than a barrier to use (ID 11). While there was a whole mix of driver types and their driving skills, the interviewees indicated that the variations did not change their patterns of use with the ride-sharing service.

The second category emerging from the interviews was ***perceived risks in technology failure***. The technical problems, such as route planning, navigation, path finding, mapping, and matching customers to available drivers, were mentioned frequently during the interviews. For example, the interviewees recalled some incidents of the GPS malfunction in navigation and path finding. ID 21 said, "The malfunction sent a driver to the wrong side of the pick-up place. I've wasted a lot of time just waiting for drivers to pick me up." ID 18 acknowledged that the map on GPS did not show exactly

where the car was or did not show the passenger in the exact or proper place sometime. In terms of route planning, ID 10 suggested that the app was not telling the right way or the quickest way to get to a destination. In response to technology failure, the interviewees indicated that they coped with problems, by sending text messages, making phone call to drivers, or assisting the drivers to find the right way to go:

> We know the destination better than the app does, we give all the hints about the right way to, where to turn. We always try to help the driver because the navigation application will send them the wrong way. (ID 21)

The interviewees discussed some incidents that platform technology failed to match passengers to available drivers. For instance, ID 5 and ID 17 remarked that ride-sharing services were not available in certain areas or countries where they traveled. ID 3 talked about the similar experience when she traveled to the suburb of the metropolitan city on vacation. She requested ride-sharing services to take a 35-mile trip one way to go to a concert in downtown, but ended up not getting available cars, stating the following comment:

> Nobody showed up, because it was so far and nobody just wanted to pick us up. You (drivers) wouldn't get as much money because you got to come back without a ride. We just did not go to the venue, we just stayed at the hotel. (ID 3)

Some interviewees showed concerns about the circumstances under which they did not have control over the consequences of technology failure. ID 10 and ID 11 were anxious about the lack of control over the route where the driver can go. They were concerned that passengers cannot avoid the neighborhood or the street at a particular time of the day that they do not feel comfortable with.

Legal concerns were reportedly another important aspect of the reasons against adopting ride-sharing services for a next trip. The legal issues include drivers'

background checks, passenger liability insurance against physical harms, injuries, or death of passengers being transported in a vehicle, or quality controls over vehicle hygiene and inspections. Most of interviewees claimed that drivers' background checks (e.g., driving and criminal records) should be mandatory. As for the passenger liability issue, a hypothetical question was posed, "Suppose that you are involved in a car accident. Do you mind if the business is not liable for your injury? Who would be responsible for your injuries, Uber/Lyft companies or independent drivers?" The interviewees answered that the responsibility should rest upon both, depending on the context:

> The drivers are subcontracted out to make money, and I think theoretically should have the insurance that's required to cover both me (passenger) and the driver. I fully expect that is on the driver at that point. I think that Uber should have types of insurance because they're a company, but I don't think that they should be required to have insurance for single one of their subcontracted drivers. (ID 14)

> As far as liability goes, my assumption is that for somebody to become a driver with Uber or Lyft, the company would be requiring them to have some kind of insurance to cover injuries to passengers. As a company, Uber or Lyft, I think should as far as their drivers, at least, make available some kind of a blanket coverage that would cover those eventualities where there is an accident. (ID 20)

The interviewees responded that the platform providers (i.e., Uber, Lyft) have grown too big to ignore for most cities, therefore the companies should take practical measures to improve public safety and take into consideration their impacts to local municipality and public transportation system. For example, ID 19 said, "Certainly, Uber needs to be willing to work with the cities. They can't just come into a city and destroy, for example, a public transportation system, because they're undercutting it, because the bottom line is the city still has to be able to pay their bills. They've got to be able to make the money that they need to support the municipality."

The last category of the reason against adopting ride-sharing for a next trip was ***relational barriers***. Ride-sharing allows to get into a stranger's car, so some interviewees talked about unpleasant situations wherein they felt uncomfortable with conversation with drivers. The interviewees talked about conversations over inappropriate topics, particularly when passengers were female and traveled alone (ID 5, ID 7, ID 11, and ID 13). The conversations over private or personal matters also felt undesirable to interviewees.

> Once in DC I had a driver who was overtly flirty and talking about dating and I was the only rider in the car. That was an uncomfortable ride, so I filed a complaint with Lyft after that ride (ID 7)

> Most drivers that I've interacted with really like talking. I am not sure I really like the drivers who tell me their life story and vent to me for 25 minutes. When it's a conversation like that, I do get quite frustrated when it's overly chatty. (ID 14)

The presence of other fellow travelers as well as the rapport between passengers and drivers was regarded as relational barriers when a focal traveler shared a route. ID 7 said, "I won't usually take a pooled ride because it makes me nervous about who else is going to get in that car at 1:00 in the morning and what mental state they'll be in at that point in their evening." ID 21 argued that the relationship between service providers and customers is mutual and reciprocal, noting that "I am always going to be polite and respectful and I expect to be treated with respect and politeness in return."

Empirical Analysis 2: Validating the Contextualized Research Model

Having established the detailed contextualization of ride-sharing services based on the interviews, this section presents the second part of empirical analysis. After an

examination of descriptive statistics, a two-step approach was adapted: (1) an examination of a measurement model to validate the factor structure of the hypothesized model using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and (2) test for a full structural equation model (SEM) to examine the causal relationships among the latent variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Sample Profile

The respondents were those who had used ride-sharing services while traveling in the past six months. Their travel must include at least one overnight stay away from home. Of the 479 respondents sampled, 46% were female and 54% were male. Most of respondents (41%) were 30 to 39 years old, while 36% were 20 to 29 years old, and 14% were 40 to 49 years old. In terms of income, the greatest portion of respondents (30%) had an annual household income before taxes between $50,001 to $75,000, while 26% had a household income between $25,001 to $50,000 and 19% had a household income between $75,001 to $100,000. Half of respondents (50%) had earned a bachelor's degree, while 20% indicated they earned master's degree and higher, and 24% responded they had some college.

In terms of their recent travel, out-of-state travelers (60%) accounted for the highest percentage. Just over one-third of the respondents (34%) traveled within the state; 6% had traveled abroad. A majority of respondents (76%) took 2 and 5 overnight trips. In terms of the primary purpose of travel, leisure travel accounted for just over half of respondents (51%). About 20% reported they traveled for business purposes, and another 30% traveled for personal reasons, such as visiting friends and family (VFR). About two-

thirds of respondents (66%) indicated their main ground transportation, while other respondents reported they walked (11%) or used their own car (7%) along with ride-sharing. A half of respondents (50%) used ride-sharing exclusively during their recent travel. The average use frequency of ride-sharing in a travel destination was 4.8 times.

Testing the Measurement Model

The dataset was screened to detect outliers and to meet underlying assumptions of multivariate normality (Kline, 2015). Given that SEM is based on the analysis of covariance structures evidence of kurtosis was carefully examined (Byrne, 2012; DeCarlo, 1997). There appear to be no clear consensus regarding the threshold, but the univariate kurtosis values above 7.0 have been proposed as possible points of non-normality (Byrne, 2012). In the dataset, the absolute standardized kurtosis values ranged from 0.02 to 4.38. Although none of individual scores were considered extreme, the sample showed evidence of non-normality. Therefore, a robust estimation method, such as MLM, was used to address non-normality of the dataset.

As an important preliminary step in the analysis of full latent variable models, CFA was used to test the validity of the measurement model. A CFA was performed to assess reliability and validity of latent constructs and to assess the model fit. This procedure determines the extent to which all items properly represent the respective latent construct (Kline, 2015). The goodness-of-fit indices of the initially hypothesized model indicate a moderate fit to the data, S-B χ^2 (713) = 1371.61, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .04 with 90% CI [.04 - .05], CFI = .92, SRMR = .05. Most factor loadings were statistically significant and relatively strong. Modification indices and Wald tests were examined to

identify poorly performing items. For example, items CST2 (*ride-sharing helped me manage my time better*) and CRS1 (*ride-sharing reduces stress incurred from dealing with traffic*) were excluded because each content was very similar to other scale items within the factor. RBN2 (*conversations with drivers assure me that I am safe*) and RBR4 (*big silence between drivers and me would make me feel awkward*) were eliminated due to conceptual inconsistencies with remaining scale items.

Table 12 shows statistically significant parameter estimates in the final CFA model. Fit indexes for the final CFA model indicated an acceptable fit to the data, S-B χ^2 (563) = 874.45, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .03 with 90% CI [.03 - .04], CFI = .96, SRMR = .04.

Table 12

[Study 2] Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Item Description

	Description	λ	M	SD
Financial benefits				
PBR1	Ride-sharing is reasonably priced.	.82	5.63	.96
PBR2	Ride-sharing offers me good value for the money.	.85	5.74	1.01
PBR3	Ride-sharing brings me good service for the price.	.84	5.80	.92
Convenience in saving time				
CST1	Ride-sharing saves me time.	.68	5.78	1.19
CST2	Ride-sharing helps me manage my time better. (deleted)	-	5.62	1.23
CST3	Ride-sharing provides me with door-to-door service.	.79	6.01	1.02
CST4	Ride-sharing offers ease of access to a place.	.83	6.14	.90
Convenience in reducing effort				
CRS1	Ride-sharing reduces stress incurred from dealing with traffic. (deleted)	-	5.73	1.22
CRS2	Ride-sharing mitigated stress caused by navigating unfamiliar areas in a tourist destination.	.65	5.91	1.23
CRS3	Ride-sharing reduced the effort in searching for local public transportation options.	.79	6.05	1.05
CRS4	Ride-sharing made me avoid the hassle of finding parking spaces.	.75	6.25	1.00
Convenience in managing trips				
CPT1	A ride-sharing app prepared me for price and travel time estimates.	.79	5.92	1.06
CPT2	The driver's estimated time to a pick-up location on the app enabled me to know what to expect.	.79	6.02	.97
CPT3	The driver's progress on GPS kept me informed of the travel route.	.77	6.09	.95
Relational benefits				
RBN1	Ride-sharing allows me to engage in enjoyable conversations with drivers.	.65	4.96	1.25
RBN2	Conversations with drivers assure me that I am safe. (deleted)	-	4.81	1.39
RBN3	Conversations with drivers allow me to learn about the local neighborhoods of a travel destination.	.90	5.30	1.21
RBN4	Ride-sharing helps me to get insider tips on local attractions or restaurants.	.82	5.33	1.22
Perceived risk in driving safety				
DRV1	Drivers who deviate from a route and delay my trip cause me concern.	.72	5.14	1.48
DRV2	Drives who are distracted by being on the phone or focused on their GPS display make me nervous.	.81	5.41	1.51

DRV3	Drivers who speed make me feel unsafe.	.72	5.22	1.54
Perceived risk in technology				
DEV1	An app that has problems with finding the best route and delay my trip would cause me concern.	.78	5.27	1.34
DEV2	A GPS map that is inaccurate in showing my location would make me uncomfortable.	.80	5.46	1.23
DEV3	An app that fails to match me to available drivers in certain areas would make me feel frustrated.	.76	5.66	1.27
Legal concerns				
LGC1	I am concerned about the safety policies of ride-sharing services.	.74	4.01	1.64
LGC2	I am unsure if ride-sharing services are liable for passenger and pedestrian injuries.	.72	4.46	1.61
LGC3	I am unsure if ride-sharing services check drivers' backgrounds and criminal records.	.80	4.05	1.76
LGC4	I am concerned about the business policies regarding quality controls for ride-sharing services.	.89	4.19	1.60
Relational barriers				
RBR1	Inappropriate conversation topics would make me uncomfortable.	.79	5.33	1.54
RBR2	Conversations about my personal and private affairs would make me embarrassed.	.83	4.92	1.61
RBR3	Overly chatty drivers would make me frustrated.	.66	4.63	1.65
RBR4	Big silence between drivers and me would make me feel awkward. (deleted)	-	3.77	1.78
Attitude				
ATT1	I like the idea of using ride-sharing on a trip.	.86	6.06	.92
ATT2	I think using ride-sharing is a good idea for ground transportation.	.83	6.06	1.02
ATT3	I have positive feelings about using ride-sharing on a trip.	.81	6.05	.92
Attitude confidence				
AC1	How certain are you about your attitude toward using ride-sharing?	.81	6.03	.95
AC2	How certain are you about your reasons for using ride-sharing on your next trip?	.80	6.05	.97
AC3	How confident are you that ride-sharing will be a satisfactory mode of transportation on your next trip?	.79	5.91	.98
Repurchase intention				
INT1	I will use ride-sharing services in upcoming trips.	.88	6.11	1.01
INT2	I will continue to use ride-sharing in the future.	.61	5.60	1.26
INT3	Ride-sharing would be my first choice of transportation options for future trips.	.85	6.22	.95

Construct validity was assessed to examine the extent to which measurement items reflected the theoretical latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Accordingly, convergent and discriminant validity were examined. Convergent validity was tested using factor loadings, composite reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct. Convergent validity was considered acceptable if standardized factor loadings were significant and above 0.5, values of composite reliability exceeded 0.7, and values of AVE exceeded 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The values presented in Table 13 indicate all tests of convergent validity meet the requirements. Discriminant validity was tested by comparing the AVE of constructs to the squared correlation between construct pairs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All constructs meet the requirement that the square correlation between constructs did not exceed the AVE.

Table 13

[Study 2] Correlations and Convergent Validity

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**
1. Financial benefits	-											
2. Convenience in saving time	.64	-										
3. Convenience in reducing effort	.58	.83	-									
4. Convenience in managing trips	.64	.80	.76	-								
5. Relational benefits	.40	.39	.41	.46	-							
6. Perceived risk in driving skills	.19	.25	.32	.23	.20	-						
7. Perceived risk in technology failure	.28	.39	.36	.34	.16	.60	-					
8. Legal concerns	-.18	-.08	-.05	-.14	-.09	.36	.33	-				
9. Relational barriers	.08	.23	.20	.13	-.01	.47	.61	.46	-			
10. Attitude	.61	.67	.66	.70	.34	.18	.36	-.16	.17	-		
11. Attitude confidence	.65	.76	.74	.77	.38	.18	.40	-.20	.16	.86	-	
12. Repurchase intention	.62	.68	.65	.72	.38	.19	.38	-.17	.14	.87	.92	-
Cronbach's alpha	.88	.79	.77	.82	.83	.79	.82	.87	.80	.87	.84	.80
Composite reliability	.89	.77	.71	.80	.82	.74	.80	.81	.77	.88	.83	.81
Average variance extracted	.70	.59	.53	.61	.56	.61	.62	.62	.59	.69	.64	.62

Note. The off-diagonal values are the correlations between construct.

Hypothesis Testing Using the Full Structural Equation Model

Following the establishment of a valid measurement model, the implied causal relationships between constructs were examined. The hypotheses advanced in the theory section above were tested through the full structural equation model. The goodness-of-fit indices for the hypothesized model indicates a reasonable fit to the sample data: S-B χ^2 (563) = 855.62 RMSEA= .03 with CI [.03-.04], CFI= .96, SRMR= .4. The hypothesized main effects of reasoning were examined. The intentions to repurchase ride-sharing for a next trip was regressed on the reasons for adoption (five factors) as well as the reasons against adoption (four factors). None of the nine standardized coefficients are not statistically significant at the conventional level, rejecting Hypotheses 5 and 6. This means that the travelers' reasonings in itself do not have direct effects on their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. However, as explained below in detail, the influences of the reasons for and against adoption are overwhelmed by the explanatory power of attitude and attitude confidence in the full structural equation model. In other words, the effects of the reasons for and against adoption are mediated crucially by the factors of attitude and attitude confidence. For parsimony, the model was re-specified with the non-significant nine paths deleted. The Sattora-Bentler (S-B) χ^2 difference between the hypothesized and re-estimated models was tested. The result shows that the re-estimated full structural equation model is not significantly different from the hypothesized model. The final full structural equation model was also considered to be an adequate fit to the data, resulting in S-B χ^2 (572) = 881.03, RMSEA= .03 with CI [.03-.04], CFI= .96, SRMR= .04.

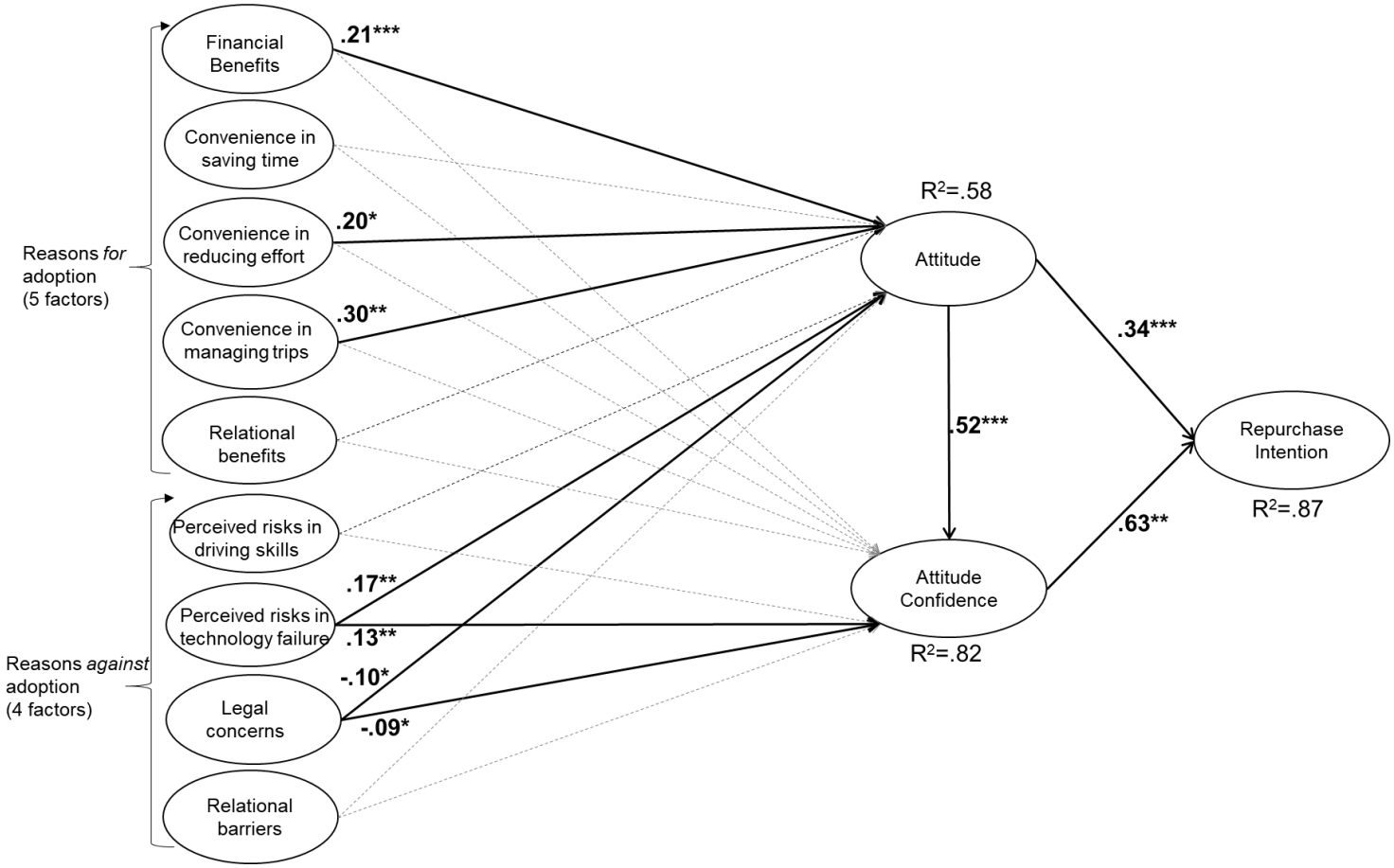


Figure 6. [Study 2] A Structural Model with Standardized Regression Coefficients

Note. The solid lines denote significant paths. The dotted lines denote non-significant paths. ***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

Table 14

[Study 2] Direct Paths of the Final Full Structural Equation Model

Hypothesis and path	β	*SE*	*p* value	Support for Hypothesis
H1a: Financial benefits → Attitude	.21	.06	.00	**Y**
H1b: Convenience in saving time → Attitude	.05	.13	.69	N
H1c: Convenience in reducing effort → Attitude	.20	.11	.05	**Y**
H1d: Convenience in managing trips → Attitude	.30	.09	.01	**Y**
H1e: Relational benefits → Attitude	-.01	.04	.87	N
H2a: Perceived risks in driving safety → Attitude	-.09	.06	.01	N
H2b: Perceived risks in technology failure → Attitude	.17	.07	.01	N
H2c: Legal concerns → Attitude	-.10	.04	.01	**Y**
H2d: Relational barriers → Attitude	.04	.06	.50	N
H3a: Financial benefits → Attitude confidence	.05	.06	.39	N
H3b: Convenience in saving time → Attitude confidence	.14	.10	.18	N
H3c: Convenience in reducing stress → Attitude confidence	.09	.09	.31	N
H3d: Convenience in managing trips → Attitude confidence	.16	.08	.06	N
H3f: Relational benefits → Attitude confidence	.01	.04	.69	N
H4a: Perceived risks in driving safety → Attitude confidence	-.05	.04	.22	N
H4b: Perceived risks in device failure → Attitude confidence	.13	.05	.01	N
H4c: Legal concerns → Attitude confidence	-.09	.04	.02	**Y**
H4d: Relational barriers → Attitude confidence	-.02	.04	.65	N
H7: Attitude → Attitude confidence	.52	.07	.00	**Y**
H8: Attitude → Repurchase intention	.34	.09	.00	**Y**
H9: Attitude confidence → Repurchase intention	.63	.09	.00	**Y**

Note. β=standardized regression coefficients; SE=standard errors. The goodness-of-fit of the final structural model: S-B χ^2 (572)=881.03, RMSEA= .03 with CI [.03-.04], CFI= .96, SRMR= .04. Hypotheses 5 and 6 were tested and rejected in the initial model.

Figure 6 provides the results of the hypothesis testing. Figure 6 visualizes the estimated causal paths in which the reason and attitude variables are associated with the dependent variable. The bold lines in Figure 6 highlight the statistically significant effects, clearly showing that if the reasons for and against adoption affect the intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. Table 14 indicates that the dimensions of the reasons for and against adoption are significant determinants of attitudes and attitude confidence. Attitudes toward ride-sharing is positively influenced by financial benefits ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$), convenience in saving time ($\beta = .20$, $p < .05$) and convenience in managing trips ($\beta = .30$, $p < .01$), partially supporting Hypothesis 1. Respondents had positive attitudes toward ride-sharing when ride-sharing helped to save their costs and time and facilitates in managing trips effectively. Attitudes are also negatively affected by legal concerns ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .01$), partially supporting Hypothesis 2. The concerns about the legal issues, such as passenger liability and quality controls over ride-sharing, negatively influence attitudes towards ride-sharing. In total, the reasons for and against adoption account for a modest proportion of the variance in the attitudes construct at 58% ($R^2 = .58$).

Along with attitudes, attitude confidence was regressed on the reasons and against adoption to test Hypotheses 3 and 4. The construct of attitude confidence is explained by 82% of total variance ($R^2 = .82$). The results show that none of the reasons for adoption is significantly associated with attitude confidence, rejecting Hypothesis 3. However, some dimensions of the reasons against adoption significantly affect attitude confidence, partially supporting Hypothesis 4. The coefficient of legal concerns has a direct and negative relationship with attitude confidence at the conventional level ($\beta = -.09$, $p < .05$).

It means that when the respondents were more concerned or knowledgeable about the legal issues, they were less likely to hold stable and confident attitudes towards ride-sharing.

The results suggest the coefficient of perceived risks in technology failure has a positive and signification relationship with attitudes ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$) and attitude confidence ($\beta = .13$, $p < .05$) which are opposite directions from the hypotheses. A possible conjecture on this seemingly counterintuitive result may stem from the scope of the sample of survey. Namely, the participants of the current study were those who had used ride-sharing within the past six months, so they already formed strong and stable attitudes towards ride-sharing based on their previous experiences, even though they encountered technology failure many times. The confirmation evidence trap comes into play, so they may seek out evidence that reaffirms their past choices and discount evidence that contradicts their pre-existing attitudes. This unexpected finding was substantiated by the interviewees' detailed responses obtained from the in-depth interviews. When they experienced technology failures, the interviewees reported that they developed various barrier-attenuating practices to cope with technical problems rather than switched to other transportation modes. These practices included making phone calls, sending text messages to drivers, contacting customer services or even trying other similar ride-sharing apps. Such coping practices to technology failure need to be explored more for future research. As hypothesized, attitudes towards ride-sharing positively influence attitude confidence ($\beta = .52$, $p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 7. Intentions to repurchase ride-sharing for a next trip are significantly associated with attitudes toward ride-sharing ($\beta = .37$, $p < .001$) and attitude confidence ($\beta = .63$, p

< .001), supporting Hypotheses 8 and 9. All together, these determinants explain more than half of the variance in the intentions to repurchase ride-sharing for a next trip (R^2 = .87).

Further analysis included testing the indirect effects of the reasons for and against adoption in order to examine if attitudes and attitude confidence are significant mediators of the relationship between travelers' reasons and their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. To derive the estimates of the mediated effect and its confidence intervals, parameter estimates and *p*-values were calculated based on bootstrapping with 2000 subsamples. Implied in the hypothesized model was a process whereby travelers' reasons for and against adoption influence their attitudes toward ride-sharing and attitude confidence. These attitudes and attitude confidence then shape their subsequent intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. The analysis on the indirect effects included testing the presence of these causal processes. The results empirically demonstrate that intentions to repurchase ride-sharing for a next trip are positively and indirectly influenced by financial benefits (total indirect effect = .07, p < .05), convenience in managing trips (total indirect effect = .21, p < .01) through attitudes and attitude confidence. Legal concerns have a negative indirect effect on intentions to ride-sharing services for a next trip (total indirect effect = -.07, p < .01), but the indirect relationship between perceived risks in technology failure and intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services is positive (total indirect effect = .12, p < .01) via attitudes and attitude confidence.

Discussion

In this chapter, the study sought to examine how travelers embrace service innovations of the sharing economy in the post-adoption stage. Ride-sharing service was selected as a case of an innovation in the post-adoption stage. The platform technology, such as Uber and Lyft, has gone beyond the adoption stage and diffused across the countries. The platform technology started in the United States, but the countries in Europe, Asia or Africa have reinvented platform technology and made it suitable to their transport system and destination environment. As ride-sharing becomes a major transportation mode, it plays a key role in transport infrastructure and destination development. Ride-sharing service becomes a vital component of the tourism system, hence, the tourism industry will need to understand how travelers accept these service innovations.

In understanding travelers' perceptions of service innovations of ride-sharing services, this study sought (1) to develop a contextualized framework for understanding travelers' reasons for and against using ride-sharing while on leisure, business or personal travels, and (2) to validate the contextualized framework to understand travelers' intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for their next trip. Built on the literature on adoption and travelers' transportation choice, this chapter incorporated the findings of previous research.

The major finding is that reasoning matters only if it is associated with attitudes in the post-adoption stage. A closer examination of the standardized regression coefficients shows that convenience in managing trips is the strongest determinant of attitudes toward ride-sharing. This could be a result of technological advances that enhance travelers' ability to plan and manage trips. Travelers would be more informed of their travel routes

and estimated time to a destination. Financial benefits positively affect attitudes towards ride-sharing services. This result is consistent with previous research that cost saving is the significant factor that leads to customer satisfaction and purchase behavior in the transportation choice (Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos, 2018; Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen; 2016; Möhlmann, 2015). The path coefficient of convenience in reducing effort is also positively associated with attitudes towards ride-sharing. This finding corroborates that travelers may continue to use the ride-sharing app already in place on their smartphone, without searching for ground transportation information before their journey.

Theoretical Implications

This chapter extends the body of literature on the BRT and service innovations. This is one of a few studies in tourism research that highlight the importance of attitude confidence in the post-adoption stage. In the post-adoption stage, people form their attitudes and reinforce the innovation decision they have already made. Attitude confidence represents the degree to which people are confident about their attitudes towards ride-sharing services. Conceptually, attitude confidence encapsulates the innovation decision process in the post-adoption stage. Attitudes held with much more conviction persist even though travelers encounter new contexts and new information.

The findings empirically show that attitude confidence mediates the relationship between legal concerns and intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. In other words, travelers' attitudes towards an innovation are more certain and stable when they are less concerned about legal issues, and then this attitude confidence is associated with intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for a next trip. By contrast,

financial benefits, convenience in reducing effort and managing trips are directly associated with attitudes, not attitude confidence. The relationships between these factors and repurchase intentions are not necessarily mediated by attitude confidence.

This chapter contributes to the literature on travelers' ground transport choice literature by delving into the concept of convenience. The findings show that convenience was a major psychological factor affecting travelers' ground transportation choice. The results of the in-depth interviews generate novel insights into the concept of convenience in the context of ride-sharing. Travelers favor transportation options that not only facilitate convenience in saving costs, time, and effort, but also enhancing mobility. With technological advances, GPS platform technology matches available cars and informs travelers of driver's profiles, ratings, progress, the estimated arrival time at the meeting point, and pick-up location. The service innovations in the ride-sharing opens the door to greater accessibility and flexibility in the ground transportation choice. This may have implications for the existing industry players, such as taxis, rental cars, and public transports, who should respond to the new entry of ride-sharing services.

This chapter also extends the body of literature on perceived risks. The current study advances this research stream of resistance factors, by shedding new lights on the legal concerns about service innovations. This chapter supports previous tourism research, indicating that perceived risks are major resistance factors (i.e., reasons against adopting new services). The various aspects of perceived risks have been discussed in the adoption literature, ranging from device risks and performance risks to privacy risks. The study of this chapter takes a novel approach to the context-specific reasons for against adoption, corresponding to the argument that risk perceptions are situation-specific and

therefore should be evaluated using measures appropriate to the context of interest (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). In the context of ride-sharing services, this study advances tourism research on perceived risks, by exploring the three sources of perceived risks: drivers, technology, and legal environment. Particularly, this study highlights travelers' concerns about legal environment, which has been overlooked in the tourism and innovation literature. While new services of ride-sharing have made it easier to use ground transportation at destinations, the perception that passenger safety and welfare need to be improved may persist among potential travelers. This may have implications for managers involved in tourism development and planning, who need to recognize the potential barriers that may exist for using ground transportation at destinations. Additional future research is necessary to determine whether the legal concerns are unique to this study context of service innovations, or whether it hold true across other transportation ground transportation options.

Managerial Implications

In the post-adoption stage, ride-sharing services, such as Uber and Lyft, have become significant enough that they need to accept the fact they are greatly influencing local economies, transportation systems, and tourism planning. The platform companies need to take into consideration that they are major players in the tourism and transportation system. The existing literature has emphasized that the ride-sharing largely impacted the taxi industry (Kim, Baek, & Lee, 2018). The results of the current study reveal that the service innovations have expanded travelers' ground transportation options, extending the taxi industry and transforming the destination's public transportation system and tourism planning.

The platform companies should find this information useful. The interviewees suggested the various legal issues about licensing, permitting, passenger liability, and insurance. The results of the survey indicate that the legal concerns about passenger safety and welfare protection matter to intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip. The statistical analyses suggest that legal issues could be detrimental to attitude confidence, which affects intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip. In other words, when people think about the reasons that they repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip, what comes to their mind would be legal issues. After considering the reason against adoption, individuals form unfavorable attitudes, which in turn, influence intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services. These legal concerns correspond with controversies that ride-sharing services have expanded, taking advantage of technology and possibly evading existing regulatory requirements. The finding from this study provide baseline data for policy makers and managers who regulates the transportation and tourism industry.

In response to these concerns, the platform providers have established safeguards into their systems in various ways. For example, the app is built with technology to help passengers share their trip details with family and friends and stay connected to emergency authorities. The platform providers also require drivers to go through screening checks for their driving and criminal history before they are authorized. In the Phoenix area, Uber provides insurance coverage including a driver's liability for damages to a third party, such as another driver, pedestrian, or property if the driver gets involved with accidents at her own fault (Uber, 2019).

The findings of this study would be also useful to the incumbents in the tourism and transportation industry. The results show that ride-sharing services have the competitive advantages such as reasonable prices and conveniences in reducing effort and managing trips. The findings of this study are in line with other studies' results that ride-sharing services have disrupted the competitive landscape particularly in relation to the taxi industry (Kim, Baek, & Lee, 2018; Wallsten, 2015). The taxi services had been heavily regulated and dominated by a few large operators. This lack of competition had led to a degradation in service (Badger, 2016). With the new entrant of ride-sharing services, however, the taxi industry has just started to enhance customer service experiences. For example, in New York, the number of complaints per taxi trip has declined, as Uber has expanded in the city (Wallsten, 2015). Furthermore, the taxis defend themselves against the entry of ride-sharing services, by serving passengers outside of the central area of Manhattan (Kim et al., 2018). Thus, ride-sharing creates new opportunities for the incumbents to improve their service offerings. The service innovations of ride-sharing services have positive spill-over effects on other transportation services and transform the existing transportation market.

As ride-sharing services become a first choice of ground transportation at destinations, the incumbents, such as taxis, public transits, and rental car companies, need new strategies to compete with ride-sharing services. The findings reveal that travelers prefer transportation services that make their travels easier through a greater flexibility than public transits or less responsibility than rental cars. The technology development, such as reservation, payment system, and GPS tracking through the apps on smartphones, could be introduced to the taxi industry. As for the public transportation, the apps could

provide the bus schedule or give passengers an estimate of how far the bus is or how long it takes to get from one place to another. Thus, the existing industry players have a high pressure to provide travelers with efficient and convenient transports to deal with service innovation of ride-sharing services.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

The purpose of this dissertation was to understand travelers' adoption and resistance of service innovations in the sharing economy. To properly address the research question, the dissertation followed a format of a two-case design. Drawn on the diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 2014), the decision-making of service innovation was postulated to consist of the two different stages: the pre-adoption and post-adoption stages. The diffusion of innovations theory provides the rationale for a two-case research design, for it advances that the innovation decision-making is a complex process, wherein travelers try new services, reinforce their attitudes towards services, and repurchase them. Hence, the diffusion of innovation theory guides the research design. Each stage of travelers' innovation decision-making was deemed as the topic of Study 1 (Chapter 3) and Study 2 (Chapter 4).

The behavioral reasoning theory (Westaby, 2005) was used as a theoretical framework to explain the causal relationship between travelers' reasonings and behavioral intentions. The behavioral reasoning theory highlights that the concepts of reasons must be contextualized to the specific behavior under investigation, often through qualitative elicitation research. Therefore, the dissertation study contextualizes reasons for and against adoption, by incorporating appropriate constructs relevant to service innovations in social dining services (Study 1) and ride-sharing services (Study 2). For both studies, an exploratory mixed methods approach (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Small 2011) was taken. The survey data were used along with the interviews to identify how the context-specific reasons for and against adopting service innovations (i.e., adoption and resistance of service innovations).

The organization of this chapter is as follows. First, a recapitulation of the major findings is presented, along with a brief discussion on contribution to the tourism literature. Second, important implications of the dissertation research are elucidated. The implications are discussed in four areas: (1) the implications for the literature on the innovation decision process (pre-adoption and post-adoption), (2) the implications for the literature on adoption and resistance of service innovations, (3) the implications for the sharing economy literature, and (4) the significance of the findings to the tourism industry. Finally, limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Summary and Contribution to the Tourism Literature

This dissertation contributes to the diffusion of innovation literature by applying behavioral reasoning theory to test the influence of reasoning constructs in travelers' cognitive processing of innovation adoption and repurchase decisions. The dissertation focused on reasons against adoption, which have rarely been addressed in empirical adoption of innovation studies in the tourism literature. As previously discussed in Chapter 2, reasons for and against adoption are not qualitatively distinct constructs, which influence travelers' adoption and repurchase decisions in different ways in each study. Behavioral reasoning theory allows identifying the salient factors and assessing their relative influence on travelers' innovation decision-making.

In the first study of Chapter 3, the reasons for and against adopting social dining services were explored. The tourism literature has emphasized how travelers' food consumption promotes a destination's images and offerings (Choe & Kim, 2018; Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016; Kim & Eves, 2012). In line with this research stream,

social dining could provide travelers with a new form of eating out and experiencing travel destinations. It could offer a unique physical environment wherein a host stages the scenes of food preparation and production in a kitchen. It could also engender an authentic opportunity for travelers to learn a local culinary tradition and culture. On the other hand, travelers have concerns about health and hygiene issues and barriers to socialize with fellow guests.

In the second study of Chapter 4, the factors that influence intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip were explored. In the tourism literature, the psychological factors affecting ground transportation choice have been discussed, including cost savings, flexibility, accessibility, and reliability. Adding to this research stream, the current study explored that service innovations has been initiated by technology companies, such as Uber and Lyft, but they have transformed the tourism and transportation sectors. The evidence from this research suggests that ride-sharing services provide reasonable prices, leveraging platform technologies with GPS to inform travelers of drivers' providers and progress, and estimated departure and arrival time. On the other hand, travelers' concerns about the legality issues negatively affect their intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip. This study advances tourism research, by illuminating the safety regulations to enhance consumer protection, which has been largely overlooked in the tourism literature.

By employing statistical analysis, the dissertation validated that the causal relationships between consumer reasonings and behavioral intentions differ between the two stages. In Study 1 on social dining services, the research model shows that the reasons for and against adoption directly influence the likelihood of adopting social

dining services. These direct effects of the reasons for and against adoption provide a plausible explanation for the slow diffusion of social dining services in the travel industry. In order to increase traveler intention to adopt social dining services into main stream markets, managers should thus focus on overcoming barriers to adoption.

In Study 2, the findings of the study on ride-sharing services suggest that the reasons for and against adoption influence travelers' decisions only indirectly via attitudes. Attitudes towards ride-sharing services play a significant role in explaining intentions to ride-sharing services for the next trip. That is, attitudes and attitude confidence mediate the relationships between consumer reasonings and intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip. While travelers evaluate both reasons for and against adoption, path coefficients show that the reasons for adoption have stronger influences on the adoption decisions than the reasons against adoption. This finding reflects consumers' behavior in the current marketplace. Indeed, ride-sharing services have been adopted by a large traveler base in some regions and are rapidly diffusing across many cities around the globe. While many travelers clearly see the benefits of ride-sharing services and choose to adopt this service innovation, the results also indicate that service development and marketing efforts can further improve ride-sharing services by addressing legal concerns.

Interpretations of the Findings

Implications for the Innovation Decision Process

The stages of innovation decision-making vary, depending upon the contexts in which travelers consume service innovations. Behavioral reasoning theory argues that reasons

need to be elicited in regard to a specific behavior and context. While social dining service is situated in travelers' food consumption, ride-sharing service is related to travelers' ground transportation choice. Thus, the different contexts of social dining and ride-sharing are expected to entail different sets of travelers' reasonings. The dissertation contributes to the innovation decision process by testing the influence of context-specific reasons, instead of more broadly construed beliefs.

The two studies reveal the different findings in terms of economic motives, social motives, and hedonic (or functional) motives. First, previous research on the sharing economy largely indicated that economic motives (sharing or reducing costs) play a significant role in deciding to adopt or repurchase services. The results of ride-sharing services supported this finding, but financial benefits did not emerge from social dining services. Second, depending on the study contexts, social benefits or barriers comes into play. In the context of social dining services, the relational barrier to socialize with fellow guests was found to be significant. In the case of ride-sharing services, relational benefits or barriers emerged from the interviews, but the interviewees acknowledged that these social motives did not change travelers' use patterns. The statistical analysis supported that neither benefits nor barriers caused by the relationship with drivers are a significant factor that affects travelers' intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip.

A possible conjecture of the differences is that travelers' reasons for and against adoption may be grounded in different value propositions of the two services. In other words, social dining services are more centered towards hedonic value, while the reasons for and against adopting ride-sharing is oriented to functional or utilitarian value. For

example, in the case of social dining services, foodies tend to emphasize hedonic value, seeking out unique atmosphere of homes and culinary experiences that are hard to be reproduced in the commercial restaurants. The interviewees acknowledged that the search for 'real' experience motivates travelers to move away from commodified and branded areas for typical consumption. In contrast, adopters of ride-sharing services are more likely to focus on functional value. The interviewees prominently featured that ride-sharing services allow them to be free from operating hours of public transports, parking availability for private cars, or traffic congestion in unfamiliar places. The barriers to repurchase ride-sharing services are also functional, in that adopters tend to perceive risks in technology failure.

The study shows different psychological paths in travelers' adoption and repurchase decisions, which may or may not be activated. The unique contribution of the research model in the pre-adoption stage is the addition of the construct, trustworthiness of service providers. Consist with behavioral reasoning theory, the finding suggests that the reasons against adoption function as an important precursor, which influences the likelihood of adopting social dining services. When including the trustworthiness of service providers, however, a different picture emerges. The result reveals that the trustworthiness of service providers attenuates the negative impacts of health concerns and relational barriers to socialize with fellow guests. It becomes apparent that travelers, despite their reasons against adoption, are likely to adopt social dining services because the service providers are capable, reliable, and willing to help guests. The local government officials should ensure that the control of home kitchen operations largely remain in the hands of hosts and cooks to improve public safeguards.

In the post-adoption stage, attitude confidence offers a viable explanation as to how travelers reinforce their repurchase decisions, as it allows testing additional cognitive routes in travelers' intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip. In line with the traditional attitude-behavior framework, the results suggest that attitude strength functions as an important construct, which mediates travelers' attitudes and ultimately behavioral intentions. The findings, at the same time, indicate that the reasons against adoption act as a direct precursor influencing attitude confidence. This activation and processing of the reasons against adoption suggest that travelers have deeper cognitive processing to justify and to support their repurchase decisions for the next trip. Therefore, marketing communications need to effectively address travelers' concerns about the legality issues, while providing sufficiently detailed information about their contribution to local communities. A good example is the Lyft's advertising campaigns, "Lyft Community Solutions," which depict how the company devotes to passenger safety, while informing how ride-sharing services contribute to the underserved communities, who have difficulty in assessing existing transportation options. In this way, Lyft allows travelers to effectively alleviate their reasons against adoption and enhance their attitude confidence.

Implications for the Innovation Adoption and Resistance Literature

The dissertation sought to answer the overarching question: why do some services succeed, while others fail in the sharing economy? The dissertation seeks to find answers to this ultimate question by illuminating the concept of innovation resistance. In the field of information systems or consumer behavior, innovation resistance is assumed to result from negative evaluation formed in the post-adoption stage or beyond (Ram & Sheth,

1989). Rogers et al. (2003), however, did not consider a scenario in which consumers halt the adoption process prior to service innovation. Innovation resistance that occurs prior to the pre-adoption stage has been overlooked. Therefore, the dissertation elaborates two kinds of innovation resistance suggested by Talke and Heidenreich (2014). One is passive innovation resistance as a situation-specific factor to resist innovations prior to pre-adoption; another is active innovation resistance as a negative outcome from service evaluation.

The empirical finding of Study 1 extends our knowledge of passive innovation resistance. It offers insights concerning how status quo satisfaction negatively influences the likelihood of adopting social dining services. The results indicate that travelers tend to maintain food consumption practices while traveling. Their tendency to maintain core dining habits prevents them from adopting service innovations. Travelers are highly satisfied with local commercial restaurants and unlikely to seek out information about potential substitutes. When exposed to an innovation, travelers tend to prefer tried and proven service because switching to a new service may increase potential losses that likely appear to outweigh potential gains. A high level of their situational passive innovation resistance likely halts the innovation decision-making in the pre-adoption stage. The finding is in line with prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), which claims that an individual has a tendency to avoid changes by favoring the current situation.

The empirical results from Study 1 and Study 2 also point to the active innovation resistance. The results demonstrate that active innovation resistance is an outcome that follows an unfavorable evaluation of a new service. While passive innovation resistance

is specific to a certain situation as mentioned above, active innovation resistance is a deliberate process, which evolves from travelers' reasons against adoption. In other words, as soon as travelers start to process information about the new service, the reasons against adoption become relevant. In Study 1, the empirical findings show that the reasons against adoption directly influence the likelihood of adopting social dining services at the pre-adoption stage wherein a general perception of the innovation formed. In Study 2, the reasons against adoption also have impacts in the post-adoption stages, as travelers continue to reflect on their decision and actions. The reasons against adoption prompt negative attitudes toward the innovation, which, in turn, influence intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip.

The current study suggests that innovation resistance is a normal response of an individual when confronted with innovations (Ram, 1987; Szmigan & Foxall, 1998). Innovation resistance results not only from some adverse elements built in the new service itself but also from the changes that it can bring about. Novelty is inherent to innovations, which means individuals must impose change, endanger the status quo, and thus provoke resistance. Non-adopters or late adopters have legitimate concerns or constraints, which make them resist new changes. The dissertation reveals that innovation resistance is a part of innovation decision-making process that we could not readily suppress but should manage adeptly.

Implications for the Sharing Economy Literature

The dissertation extends the body of literature on the sharing economy. First, the dissertation expands the scope of the sharing economy and covers the two different types of service innovations in the sharing economy. The existing literature on the sharing

economy has been either heavily conceptual in nature or narrowly focused on one particular case. For example, scholars in the fields of marketing (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Larivière et al., 2017) and applied economics (Horton & Zeckhauswer, 2016) examine how consumer owned-goods, which used to be shared only among family and friends, are accessed and marketed in exchange of payment in the sharing economy. Their conceptual models properly elucidate the phenomenon of the sharing economy. However, these models are confined to consumer goods, such as rental vehicles, vacation homes, and pleasure boats, which do not necessarily involve service providers. Previous empirical research in the tourism field tends to emphasize the success of Airbnb, investigating how Airbnb greatly undermines the established market of the hotel industries (Zervas & Byers, 2017) or provides novel offerings compared to incumbents (Guttentag et al., 2018). But, the scope of the sharing economy applied to the tourism industry is much larger. Hence, this dissertation enlarges the scope of research, by incorporating the two cases of service innovations, focusing on services rather than goods, and examining empirically how new services in the sharing economy are adopted and repurchased.

Second, the dissertation highlights the importance of platform technology. Technological advances, such as the massive adoption of smartphones and rising capabilities of the internet, provide the important opportunities for service innovations in the sharing economy. One participant in the focus group discussion in Chapter 3 acknowledged that "the success of this whole concept is really based on the amount of investment and IT people that can drive it into the hands of the end user." As shown in Chapter 4, technologies make it easier and convenient to monitor available cars and to

manage trips, which significantly influence travelers' intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip. The exchange of the unused goods and services is hardly new, but the sharing economy utilizes the design and management of online marketplaces. In particular, reputation systems, which emerged during the early days of electronic commerce on Amazon, eBay or TripAdvisor, are central to the function of the sharing economy. The service innovations in the sharing economy, at first, started from the IT industry, and then have moved forward to the traditional markets in various areas, including the food service and transportation development.

Third, the dissertation reveals that the quality of service providers matters in the context of the sharing economy. Service innovations in the sharing economy raises questions about the relationship between service providers (e.g., drivers, chefs, hosts) and the platform providers. The "gig economy" encounters quality issues, because independent service providers have different levels of qualifications so that they could deliver inconsistent service standards. The quality issues are particularly relevant to social dining services, which require substantial service operations. As shown in the findings of Chapter 3, service providers have a significant role in staging the physical environment and generating cultural benefits, which, in turn, positively affects the likelihood of adopting social dining services. The service provider's knowledge on hygiene from food preparation and production matters to maintaining hygiene standards of kitchens. The responsibility to encourage interactions among guests would rest solely upon the service provider, in the absence of a set of conventions or protocols that prescribe how a focal guest could interact with other fellow guests. In the case of ride-sharing services of Chapter 4, background checks on driving records or quality controls

over vehicle hygiene, and safety inspections influence travelers' intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip. Therefore, platform companies need to choose between remaining a matchmaker of customers and service providers or providing a higher service quality through formal training and procedures at much higher costs.

Fourth, this study explicitly underlines that travelers' perceptions on the legal environment negatively affect their intentions to adopt social dining services (Chapter 3) and to repurchase ride-sharing services for the next trip (Chapter 4). For example, the results of Chapter 3 show that individuals cast doubts on the regulations on health inspection and hygiene issues concerning food preparation, sanitation, and a chef's cleanliness standard. In Chapter 4, the findings support that individuals question that ride-sharing services comply with the passenger safety regulations to enhance consumer protection. Specifically, the competitive advantage of the sharing economy often stems from that it operates outside the formal regulatory system by circumventing permitting/licensing and reducing operation costs. As its services become increasingly widespread, however, public perceptions on legality of the business model shift. The findings of both studies corroborate that legal environment matters to travelers' innovation decision-making. Indeed, the ongoing lawsuits brought against Uber and Lyft in some cities around the world demonstrate the degree to which the success of this business model depends on the legal environment. It signals the pressing need that platform companies pay attention to public opinion, as adopters become more aware of the hygiene conditions of the social dining businesses and legality issues of the ride-sharing businesses.

Significance to the Tourism Industry

In the tourism industry, small and medium-sized entrepreneurs (SMEs) can find this information useful to understand travelers' perspectives on service innovations in the sharing economy. Tourism SMEs may capitalize on offering services at a home kitchen (social dining) or in a personal vehicle (ride-sharing) in exchange for payment through platforms. The emergence of social dining and ride-sharing services opens the door to the *gig economy* in which entrepreneurs engage with temporary works with a flexible schedule (Rosenblat & Stark, 2016). Social dining services particularly appeal to new chefs or operators because they can take advantage of underused kitchens to introduce new menu without great expense and to transform it into dining possibilities. Ride-sharing gives independent drivers an opportunity for working flexibly and earning extra incomes. This dissertation could provide entrepreneurs with useful insights on a mechanism under which service providers could increase travelers' benefits and attenuate their barriers to adopt service innovations in the sharing economy. Overall, tourism SMEs could leverage the empirical findings of the dissertation to identify context-specific benefits and barriers that travelers associate with the sharing economy services.

A context-specific model provides platform companies with specific and practical strategies for encouraging the adoption, implementation, and use of this platform technology. The significant and negative influences of health concerns about social dining and legal concerns about ride-sharing suggest that the threat of diners' health issues or passengers' safety being compromised, either inadvertently or intentionally, is an important issue for travelers. The platform companies therefore target their marketing campaigns at promoting how they take actions to address these concerns. In addition,

they should have clear provisions in place for safeguarding travelers' welfare and ensure that travelers are aware of such provisions.

The findings may could also offer local and state governments a specific starting point for establishing regulations for the sharing economy. The evidence demonstrates that travelers are concerned about consumer protection. From a consumer's perspective, regulations should exist largely to protect consumers, especially vulnerable ones, from unscrupulous service providers and adverse market forces. Rather than serving only narrow interests of industry players, government officials should consider interests of travelers and a broader public interest as well.

Limitations

The research was designed to study individuals who intend to potentially adopt or repurchase service innovations in the sharing economy. In the study on social dining services (Chapter 3), the participants were limited to food professionals who might have a broad knowledge about service innovations in the food service industry. The valuable information about what factors contributes to the likelihood of adopting social dining services could have been gleaned from by participation of individuals who actually use social dining platforms. However, the empirical analysis of only food professionals may inhibit the generalizability of the results due to the scope and selectivity of the sample of study. While efforts were made to ask questions from a consumer's standpoint, participants may have responded in the perspective of service providers, so their responses could reflect their own views as incumbent industry players rather than early adopters.

In the study on ride-sharing services, the participants were those who had used ride-sharing services in the past six months. The semi-structured interviews and survey were designed to report their perceptions about ride-sharing services in their recent trip, but individuals may have used their perceptions in general as a template. This study needs to be replicated by using a study design that avoids the problem inherent in *ex post facto* (after-the-fact) research. Hence, the results should be read cautiously.

This study focused on the pre-adoption and post-stages by selecting the two different services situated in different stages. Data could have been gathered from several points in time during an entire diffusion process including both pre- and post-adoption stages in a particular service. As such, a future study may include measurements of the longitudinal nature of the innovation process, as a group of participants navigate innovations ranging from awareness to confirmation. In this dissertation, the trustworthiness of service providers was included solely in Study 1, while attitude was incorporated into Study 2 only. Another avenue for future research is to apply both constructs to the pre-adoption and post-adoption stages, and compare which one is a better predictor than another, depending on the stages in the innovation decision process.

Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of this dissertation research provide a solid foundation for future research in this area of inquiry that should help researchers and practitioners understand a previously undocumented phenomenon of the sharing economy. This dissertation examines service innovations of the sharing economy in the perspective of travelers. But, the role and perspective of platform providers should be examined as well, for technology matters

greatly in service innovations, as emphasized frequently in the dissertation. Future research, thus, may investigate how service providers (e.g., hosts, chefs, drivers) embrace the service innovations in the sharing economy, by stressing the relationship between platform providers and independent contractors. In doing so, an overall picture of service innovations in tourism could be obtained.

Another avenue to future research is to explore how the service innovations in the sharing economy could be expanded to target niche markets that serve a broad public interest and strengthen local communities. For example, in the case of ride-sharing, several interviewees suggested how ride-sharing services may provide inclusive services to vulnerable population that the existing transport services have overlooked. The interviewees argued that ride-sharing could provide a means for older adults, older children, high school or college students, who cannot own or drive a car, but need a greater accessibility. In terms of social dining services, this research could be extended to service innovations in the food service industry. Future research may explore how the sales of prepared meals from home kitchens appeal to foodies who are passionate about food and want to engage with host communities. These emerging themes gleaned from the interviews point to a new area for future research.

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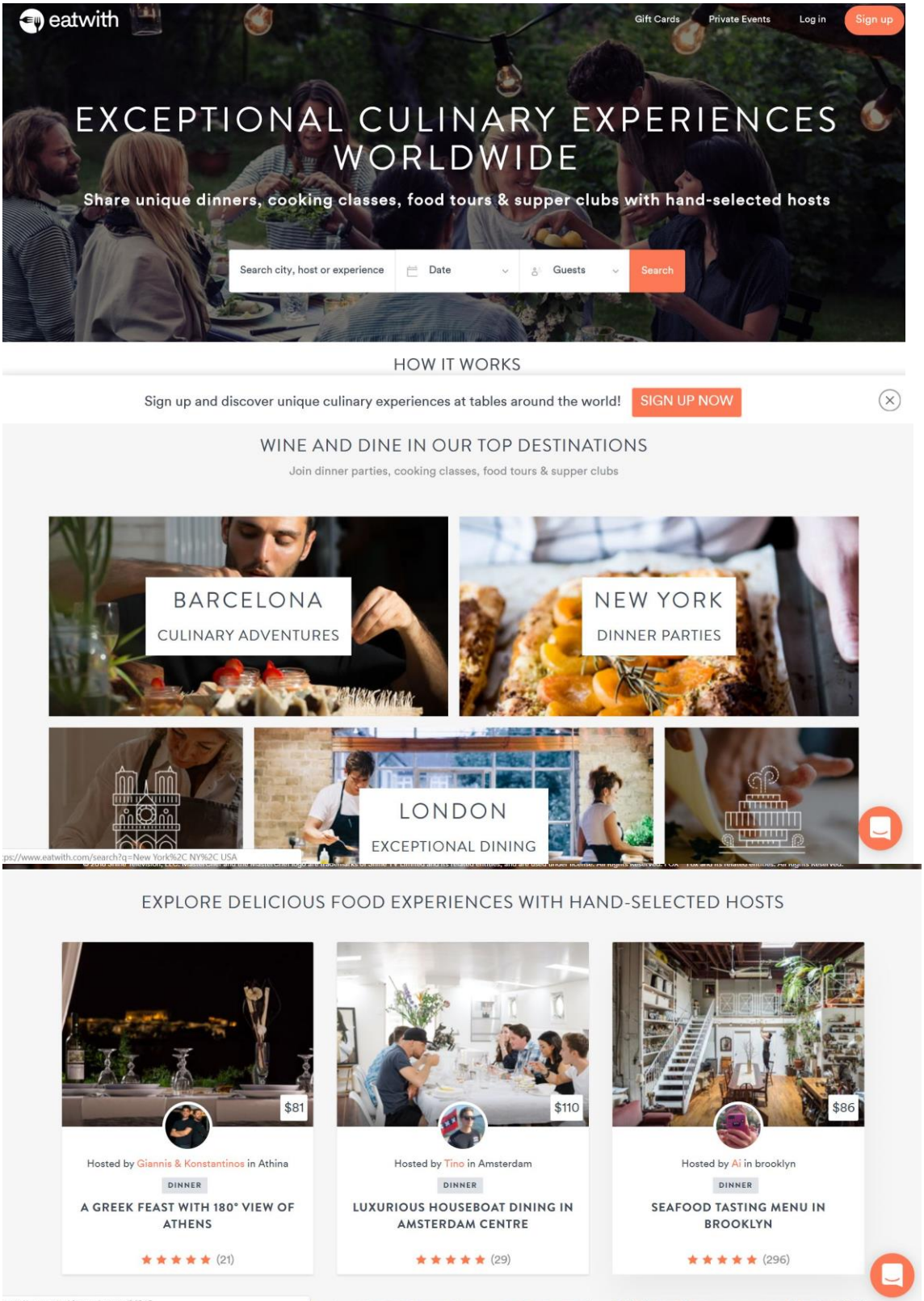
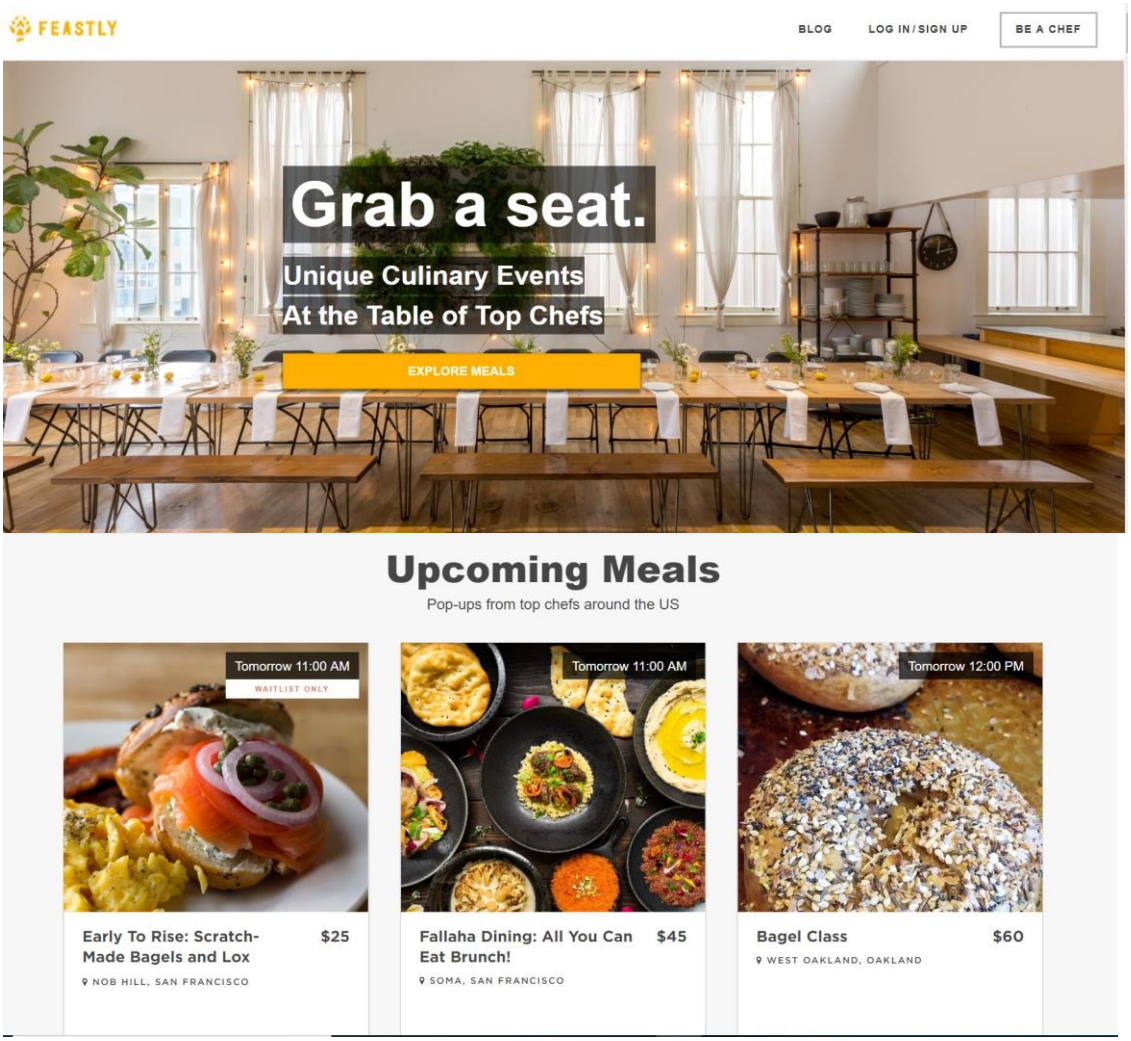
APPENDIX A

SOCIAL DINING WEBSITES


eatwith
Gift Cards
Private Events
Log in
Sign up
EXCEPTIONAL CULINARY EXPERIENCES WORLDWIDE
Share unique dinners, cooking classes, food tours & supper clubs with hand-selected hosts
Search city, host or experience
Date
Guests
Search
HOW IT WORKS
Sign up and discover unique culinary experiences at tables around the world!
SIGN UP NOW
WINE AND DINE IN OUR TOP DESTINATIONS
Join dinner parties, cooking classes, food tours & supper clubs
BARCELONA
CULINARY ADVENTURES
NEW YORK
DINNER PARTIES
LONDON
EXCEPTIONAL DINING
EXPLORE DELICIOUS FOOD EXPERIENCES WITH HAND-SELECTED HOSTS
$81
Hosted by Giannis & Konstantinos in Athina
DINNER
A GREEK FEAST WITH 180° VIEW OF ATHENS
(21)
$110
Hosted by Tino in Amsterdam
DINNER
LUXURIOUS HOUSEBOAT DINING IN AMSTERDAM CENTRE
(29)
$86
Hosted by Ai in brooklyn
DINNER
SEAFOOD TASTING MENU IN BROOKLYN
(296)



Source: EatWith: www.eatwith.com, Feastly: www.eatfeastly.com.

APPENDIX B

SOCIAL DINING: FOCUS GROUP CONSENT FORM

Arizona State University
411 N. Central Ave. Suite 550
Phoenix, AZ 85004

Adoption and Resistance of Service Innovations by Travelers in the Sharing Economy

Information on the Focus Group Discussions

What is the Research?

You have been asked to take part in a research study on social dining. The purpose of this study is to find out consumers' reasons for and against adopting social dining services. This study will benefit service innovations in the culinary industry by identifying salient dimensions that influence intentions to adopt new services. It also helps better understand the current and future trends of the sharing economy in the domain of travelers' food consumption.

Why have I been asked to take part?

You have been invited to participate because you have experiences with the food service industry and important insights about the current and future trends of service innovations, particularly in the context of social dining services.

Voluntary Participation

This discussion is voluntary – you do not have to take part if you do not want to. If any questions make you feel uncomfortable, you do not have to answer them. You may leave the group at any time for any reason.

Risks and Benefits

We do not think any risks are involved in taking part in this study. There is no personal benefits for taking part in this research. Your insights and that of others may be helpful to researchers as they seek insights on this topic.

Audio Recording

The discussion will be audio recorded to ensure that we have accurately captured the comments of each individual. Your privacy will be protected. No names will be used in any report. The discussion will be kept strictly confidential. The audio recording will only be available to the research team. The recordings will be stored in a secure location and will be erased when the analysis completed.

Rewards

For participating in the discussion, you will receive a $20 gift card.

Questions

Do you have any questions regarding this study? If you have any additional questions about the study, you may send an email to slee347@asu.edu.

APPENDIX C

SOCIAL DINING: FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS

Focus Group Questions
Service Innovations in Social Dining

Main Research Question: What are reasons for and against adopting social dining services? What is the role of trustworthiness of service providers in social dining services?

Introduction

"Good afternoon and welcome. Thanks for taking the time to join our discussion of social dining services. I am a doctoral student working on my dissertation at Arizona State University. We are interested in social dining services. My research study focuses on consumer adoption and resistance of service innovations in social dining services."
"You are invited because you have worked in the food service industry and have a great deal of knowledge about service innovations in the area. We want to tap into those experiences and your opinions about social dining services."

"Is there anyone who have ever heard about social dining? If not, it is totally fine. We are interested in your general perceptions and opinions about social dining.
Let me explain social dining briefly. Social dining services provide food services that operate temporarily at homes, pop-up spaces, or underground restaurants. A host serves home-cooked meals directly to paying guests. The guests enjoy the food experience along with other guests in a communal table. They take many different forms: pop-up restaurants, underground restaurants, or supper clubs. The services are offered through the platforms on internet websites or mobile applications.

Ground rules

"When we discuss the topic, there are no wrong answers. All answers are considered important. We expect that you will have differing point of view. Please share your point of view, even if it differs from what others have said."
"We are recording the session because we don't want to miss any of your comments. No names will be included in any reports. Your comments are confidential. Your participation is voluntary. You may stop at any time. There is no penalty or negative consequences. You will still have a gift card if you decided to withdraw from the discussion."

"I have planned this focus group to last no longer than 60 minutes. Unless you have any further questions, please sign the consent form, indicating your approval to be interviewed and audio-recorded. Thank you so much."

"We have name tents here in front of us today. They help me remember names, but they can also help you. Don't feel like you have to respond to me all the time. If you want to follow up on something that someone has said, you want to agree, or disagree, or give an example, please feel free to do that. Feel free to have a conversation with one another about these questions. I am here to ask questions, listen, and make sure everyone has a chance to share. I am interested in hearing from each of you."

Opening questions

"Let's get started. Let's find out more about each other by going around the table. Please tell us your name, what you are working for, and what you most enjoy doing when you are not working."

A. General questions

1. What comes to your mind when you hear "social dining"?
2. Have you ever heard about social dining before?
    - If you heard about social dining services, when and where did you first hear about social dining services?
    - How did you hear about social dining services? Is it through the media channels or interpersonal channels like your family, friends, or colleagues?

B. What might be the reasons to try social dining?

What are benefits might guests get from social dining?

1. What would be a unique atmosphere of social dining services?
2. In what ways might guests experience local culinary culture?
3. Do you feel that social dining services are more authentic than commercial restaurants in some way?
4. In what ways do social dining services offer an opportunity to experience local culinary culture?

What other benefits could guests get from social dining compare to commercial restaurants?

C. What might be the reasons NOT to try social dining?

What might inhibit guests from trying social dining?

1. When it comes to health risks, what might guests be concerned about?
2. How might guests feel unsure of eating together with strangers?
3. How likely are consumers to disagree with the new way of dining while on vacation?

What could make it difficult or impossible for consumers to use social dining services, compared to commercial restaurants?

D. The role of the service providers (e.g., hosts, chefs) in social dining services

Now we will turn our attention into hosts. In this study, "hosts" refer to service providers who organize an event, cook meals, and serve guests. My question is, how are hosts trustworthy?

1. I would like to ask about the ability of the host. Do consumers care, if the host is culinary school trained versus self-taught?
2. Do consumers care if the host does not consider guests' needs?
   For example, do you mind if a host does not consider any dietary concerns or does not care how guests feel comfortable with other guests?
3. Do consumers care if the host is not reliable?
   For example, do you mind if a host cancel the event, due to the host has not reached the minimum of reservations needed to host the meal? How would you react if a host does not make a promise in terms of menu or time?

Ending questions

1. Social dining services have a strong presence in Europe, or San Francisco or New York in the U.S. How do you think social dining services will be successful in your city?
2. Do you think the market is increasing or declining?
3. Do you think there will be more travelers to attend social dining?
4. Before I wrap up the discussion, let me ask the final question – Of all the reasons for trying social dining, which one is most important to you?

"I would ask a favor of you. If I have more questions about today's discussion, would you mind if I contact you and follow up?

"Do you think there is anything we should have talked about but didn't'? Do you have any remaining comments or thoughts?

Thank you so much for the wonderful discussion. I appreciate your participation!

APPENDIX D

SOCIAL DINING: MEASURES

Reasons for Adopting Social Dining

Physical Environments
Three items adapted from Kim & Eves (2012), Choe & Kim (2018), So, Oh, and Kim (2018)

1. Social dining may offer a warm and inviting environment.
2. Social dining may provide comfort.
3. Social dining may provide guests with a homelike atmosphere.

Cultural Benefits
Three items adapted from Kim & Eves (2012), Choe & Kim (2018)

1. Social dining may provide an authentic local experience.
2. Social dining may offer a unique opportunity to understand local culinary culture.
3. Social dining may provide hands-on experiences with food.

Reasons against Adopting Social Dining

Health Concerns
Three items adapted from Liu & Lee (2018)

1. Social dining is unlikely to comply with sanitary conditions for hygiene.
2. Social dining is unlikely to have clean food contact surfaces.
3. Social dining is unlikely to comply with quality and safety regulations.

Relational Barriers
Three items created for the context of interest

1. The presence of strangers in social dining makes guests feel interrupted.
2. The interactions with strangers in social dining make guests feel uncomfortable.
3. The anxiety about eating with strangers makes guests unsure of using social dining.

Status-quo Satisfaction
Three items created for the context of interest

1. While traveling, I am likely to stick to familiar food.
2. While traveling, I am likely to resist eating new food.
3. While traveling, I am likely to dislike new ways of dining.

Trustworthiness of Service Providers
Adapted from Gefen & Straub (2004), Wünderlich, Wangenheim & Bitner (2012)

Ability

1. Hosts of social dining are likely to be capable of doing their jobs.
2. Hosts of social dining are likely to have good cooking skills.
3. Hosts of social dining are likely to know how to provide excellent services.

Willingness

1. Hosts of social dining are likely to treat guests with respect.
2. Hosts of social dining are likely to provide courteous and friendly service.
3. Hosts of social dining are likely to be considerate of guests' needs.

Reliability

1. Hosts of social dining are likely to be reliable.
2. Hosts of social dining are likely to keep promises they make.
3. Hosts of social dining are likely to deliver consistent services.

Likelihood of Adopting Social Dining Services

Three items created for the context of interest

1. I am likely to try social dining services.
2. I am likely to use social dining services in the future.
3. I would prefer social dining services.

APPENDIX E

SOCIAL DINING: QUESTIONNAIRE

(1) Las Vegas Food Expo Survey (introduction)

Welcome to the survey on social dining services!

Enter to Win a $30 Gift Card. Complete a Brief Research Study.

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. ASU researchers are conducting a survey on social dining services (IRB ID: STUDY00008143). In this study, social dining services take different forms: pop-up restaurants, underground restaurants, or supper clubs. You will be asked to answer several questions about benefits and drawbacks of social dining services, attitudes towards social dining services, and the likelihood of adopting social dining services on your vacation.

To participate in the survey, you must be 18 years or older. The survey will take about 10-12 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary; Return of this questionnaire will be considered your consent to participate. All your answers are completely anonymous. All the information that you provide will be grouped together and used for statistical purposes only. The researchers have no potential conflicts of interests with any food service industry players and receive no financial support for this research.

If you have questions about this research study, please contact Seojin Lee at slee347@asu.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, you can contact the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board through the Arizona State University Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at research.integrity@asu.edu.

(2) Amazon Mechanical Turk Survey (introduction)

Welcome to the survey on social dining services!

Are you over the age of 18? Do you work in the food service industry?

If you answer "yes" to the questions, you may qualify to participate in the study on social dining services. ASU researchers are conducting a survey on social dining services (IRB ID: STUDY00008143). In this study, social dining services take different forms: pop-up restaurants, underground restaurants, or supper clubs. You will be asked to answer several questions about benefits and drawbacks of social dining services, attitudes towards social dining services, and the likelihood of adopting social dining services on your vacation.

The survey should take about 10-12 minutes to complete, and you will receive $5 for your participation. Your responses will be anonymous. The survey responses will be grouped together and analyzed for the statistical purpose only. Your participation voluntary. You may quit the study at any time by closing your browser. To respect your desire to quit the study, we will delete all of your data.
At the end of the survey, you will receive a unique survey completion code. Please enter this code into your HIT to receive credit for taking our survey.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Seojin Lee at slee347@asu.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, you can contact the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board through the Arizona State University Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at research.integrity@asu.edu.

By clicking the button below, you agree to participate in the study.

☐ I consent, begin the study.

The guests are enjoying communal dining experiences of social dining. Photo courtesy of EatWith

Do you work in the food service industry? ☐ No ☐ Yes

Please read descriptions below carefully and answer the questions in the following pages.

Social dining services provide food services that operate temporarily at homes, pop-up spaces, or underground restaurants. A host serves home-cooked meals directly to paying guests. The guests enjoy the food experience along with other guests in a communal table. They take many different forms: pop-up restaurants, underground restaurants, or supper clubs.

The services are offered through the platforms on internet websites or mobile applications. The examples are EatWith (www.eatwith.com) and Feastly (www.gofeastly.com). The platforms act as an intermediary in the sale of homemade foods. The platforms advertise and provide a way for reservations and payments to be made.

Social dining services provide travelers with the opportunity to enjoy local food and learn about food culture at travel destinations. It provides a social eating place, where a host serves between eight to fifty guests. It offers communal dining experiences, for example, enjoying a wine tasting dinner in a home or learning to make homemade pasta with locals.

The chef cooks and hosts dinner at her home.

1. Have you ever heard about social dining services? ☐ No ☐ Yes

2. Have you ever used social dining services? ☐ No ☐ Yes, ____ times within the last six months

3. Why might you try social dining services? Please answer the degree which you agree with the following statements:

Social dining may offer warm and inviting spaces.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social dining may provide a home-like feel during dining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social dining may provide guests with homelike atmosphere, such as kitchen and dining tables.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social dining may provide an authentic local experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social dining may offer a unique opportunity to understand local culinary culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social dining may provide hands-on experiences with food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. Why might you NOT try or use social dining services? Please answer the degree which you agree with the following statements:

Social dining is likely to have sanitary and hygiene issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social dining is likely to have food contact surfaces unclean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Social dining is likely to comply with quality and safety regulations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The presence of strangers in social dining makes guests feel interrupted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The interactions with strangers in social dining make guests feel uncomfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The anxiety about eating with strangers makes guests unsure of using social dining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I am likely to stick to food similar to that of their own environment on vacation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am likely to oppose changes in eating food on vacation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am likely to disagree with the new way of dining at destinations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. How do you feel about service providers of social dining services? Please answer the degree which you agree with the following statements:

Hosts of social dining are likely to be capable of doing their jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to have good cooking skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to know how to provide excellent service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to treat guests with respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to provide courteous and friendly service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to be considerate of guests' needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to be reliable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to keep promises they make.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hosts of social dining are likely to deliver consistent services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. How likely are you to try social dining services? Please answer the degree which you agree with the following statements:

I am likely to adopt social dining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am likely to use social dining in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I would prefer social dining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. This section asks for some descriptive information about you. Remember that this information is completely confidential. We use it only to see if we have adequately represented our participants.

What is your gender? ☐ Female ☐ Male ☐ Other

What is your age?

☐ Below 20 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60 or more

What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

☐ Less than high school ☐ Some college/tech school ☐ Master's degree
☐ High school graduate ☐ Bachelor's degree ☐ Doctoral degree

What was your annual household income before taxes.

☐ $25,000 or less ☐ $50,001 – 75,000 ☐ $100,001 – 125,000
☐ $25,001 – 50,000 ☐ $75,001 – 100,000 ☐ above $125,000

What is your current occupation?

Thank you for your participation!

APPENDIX F

RIDE-SHARING: RECRUITMENT NOTICE AND INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

(1) Participants Recruitment Notice

PARTICIPATE IN ASU RESEARCH STUDY
RECEIVE A $20 AMAZON GIFT CARD!

Researchers at ASU are recruiting participants for a study on a traveler's use of ride-sharing services (Uber or Lyft). Participants will be invited to an interview on their trip characteristics and general perception of Uber or Lyft as a new transportation mode. The participation is expected to take about 30 minutes.

TO BE AN ELIGIBLE PARTICIPANT:

- You must be over the age of 18.
- You have used Uber or Lyft on your trip.
- Your trip included at least an overnight stay.

You will receive a $20 Amazon Gift Certificate for your participation! Participation is voluntary!

CONTACT OUR RESEARCH TEAM TODAY!
Visit http://bit.ly/2nPl3HR

ASU Arizona State University

(2) Interview Consent Form

Arizona State University
411 N. Central Ave. Suite 550
Phoenix, AZ 85004

Adoption and Resistance of Service Innovations by Travelers in the Sharing Economy

Interview Consent Form:

I am a doctoral candidate in the School of Community Resources and Development at Arizona State University (ASU). I am conducting a research study to examine a traveler's adoption and resistance of ride-hailing services (for example, Uber and Lyft).

I expect research participants will spend approximately 30 minutes in interviews. During the study, participants will be asked about their trip characteristics, general knowledge and perceptions of ride-hailing services in the travel context.

For the interview, there will be a $20 Amazon gift card provided for your participation in the study. For all participants, there are no foreseeable risks or discomforts associated with your participation. Your responses will be confidential if you are a part of an individual interview. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be used.

You have the right not to answer any question, and to stop participation at any time. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty, (for example, you may still keep your gift card).

I would like to audio record this interview to capture your comments accurately. The interview will be kept strictly confidential. The recordings will be erased when the analysis is completed. However, the interview will not be recorded without your permission. Please let me know if you do not want the interview to be recorded. You also can change your mind after the interview starts without penalty.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact the researcher: Seojin Lee at slee347@asu.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at research.integrity@asu.edu.

Let me know if you would like to participate in this research project. Your verbal agreement indicates your consent to participate.

APPENDIX G

RIDE-SHARING: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Main Research Question: What are reasons for and against adopting ride-sharing services?

Introductory Protocol:

Your participation is voluntary, and you may stop at any time. There is no penalty or negative consequences if you decided to withdraw from the study. Ideally, I would have 30 minutes for this interview. I will ask several questions using recording devices to capture your comments accurately. The recording will be deleted when the analysis is completed. The interview will be kept confidential. The results of the study may be used in reports, but at no time will your name be released or associated with your responses. Please read the consent form and let me know if you would like to participate in this research project. Your verbal agreement indicates your consent to participate.

Please fill out the form (below) and provide information about their personal demographic information.

I would like to ask for some descriptive information about you. Remember that this information is completely confidential. We use it only to see if we have adequately represented our participants.

What is your gender? ☐ Female ☐ Male ☐ Other

What year were you born?

What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

☐ Less than high school	☐ Some college	☐ Master's degree
☐ High school graduate	☐ Bachelor's degree	☐ Doctoral degree

What was your annual household income before taxes.

☐ $25,000 or less	☐ $50,001 – 75,000	☐ $100,001 – 125,000
☐ $25,001 – 50,000	☐ $75,001 – 100,000	☐ above $125,000

How many times did you use Uber/Lyft <u>in your city</u> within the last six months?

How many times did you use Uber/Lyft <u>while on your travels</u> within the last six months?

What was your purpose of travels (business, leisure, or personal travels)?

Where did you use ride-sharing services while on your trips? Please name destinations (city, state).

Introduction

Throughout the conversation, “ride-sharing” means ride services provided by mobile platforms, such as Uber and Lyft.
I am studying what are travelers' benefits or barriers to using ride-sharing services as a new transportation mode. You will be asked about your trip characteristics and how you used ride-sharing as a transportation mode while on your business, leisure or personal travels. Do you have any questions before we start the interview?

A. General Questions

Let me start with asking about how you use ride-sharing in your city.

1. Do you own a car? What is your main transportation mode at home? If yes, in what circumstances do you usually use ride-sharing?
2. When did you start using Uber (or Lyft)? Did you face challenges in using it for the first time? If any, what were the challenges that you experienced?
3. What transportation modes are available in your city? How often do you use public transportation at home?
4. Did you consider choosing public transportation over ride-sharing?

B. Travel Characteristics

I’d like to ask about your recent travels.

1. Tell me about your destination on your recent trip. Where did you visit?
2. How long did you stay at the destination?
3. Whom did you travel with? If it was a leisure trip, was it a family trip or solo travel?
4. What tourist activities did you mainly participate in?
5. What kind of transportation modes did you use other than Uber or Lyft? What was the main transportation mode at the destination?
6. What transportation modes were available at your destination? Did you consider using transportation modes other than ride-sharing?
7. How are ride-sharing services unique, compared with existing transportation modes? What would make ride-sharing different from existing transportation modes, such as own vehicle, rental cars, or taxi rides?
8. You used ride-sharing in different cities. How was ride-sharing different city by city (for example, small towns vs. metropolitan cities; cities in the east coast vs. the west coast)?
   Did you find any differences, for example, in terms of drivers’ profiles, characteristics, personality, or pick-up time, navigation, or car availability? Otherwise, do you feel the services are standardized across the geographic region?
9. How would you compare the experience of using Uber or Lyft while on your vacation to using it at home?

Please tell me about how you think about Uber or Lyft. For the next questions, please think back to your recent travel, provide details, and describe more.

C. Travelers' reasons *for* adopting ride-sharing services

1. What do you see as the advantage of ride-sharing services?
2. What makes it easier for you to continue to use ride-sharing services?
   - Financial benefits
     - Compared to other transportation modes, do you think ride-sharing provides value for money?
   - Convenience
     - In what ways do you think ride-sharing services are convenient to your trip?
     - What do you mean by "convenience" in your trips?
   - Relational benefits
     - How often did you engage in conversation with drivers on your trip?
     - What was the topic of your conversation with drivers? What travel information did you get from drivers?
     - What kind of conversation might "cross the borderline"?
     - How did you feel when you met drivers with different backgrounds from yours? (in terms of gender, ethnicity/race, or education)
3. What could be other benefits of using ride-sharing services, compared to other transportation modes?

D. Travelers' reasons *against* adopting ride-sharing services

1. What do you see as the disadvantage of ride-sharing services?
2. What would make it difficult or impossible for you to use ride-sharing services?
3. Have you ever experienced service failure? If you were unhappy with the service, have you complained to the customer service? Have you ever experienced that your drivers delivered unsatisfactory services? If any, how did drivers or platform companies respond to your complaint(s)?
   - Perceived risks
     - What kind of services are most important to you? (for example, vehicle hygiene, driving skills, navigation skills, fun conversation)
     - What could be the most important safety issue? (for example, background checks with drivers, passenger liability insurance, consumer protection laws, safety and quality controls)
     - What do you mean by "safety" in your trips?
   - Legal concerns

    - Do you mind if the business would not be liable for the injury of passengers?
    - Between a driver and a platform company (Uber or Lyft), which one would be responsible for passenger or pedestrian injuries?
- Relational barriers
    - Have you been uncomfortable with conversation with drivers? If any, can you describe the circumstances more?

4. What would be other barriers for ride-sharing services, compared to other transportation modes?

APPENDIX H

RIDE-SHARING: MEASURES

Reasons for Adopting Ride-sharing
(1 = "strongly disagree," and 7 = "strongly agree")

Financial benefits
Three items adapted from Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos (2018), Claudy et al. (2015), Möhlmann (2015)

1. Ride-sharing was reasonably priced.
2. Ride-sharing brings me value for the money.
3. Ride-sharing brings me good service for the price.

Convenience in saving time
Four items adapted from Amirkiaee & Evangelopoulos (2018)

1. Ride-sharing saved me time. (deleted)
2. Ride-sharing helped me manage my time better.
3. Ride-sharing provided me with door-to-door service.
4. Ride-sharing offered ease of access to a place.

Convenience in reducing effort
Four items adapted from Schaefers (2013)

1. Ride-sharing reduced stress incurred from dealing with traffic. (deleted)
2. Ride-sharing mitigated stress caused by navigating unfamiliar areas in a tourist destination.
3. Ride-sharing reduced the effort in searching for local public transportation options.
4. Ride-sharing made me avoid the hassle of finding parking spaces.

Convenience in managing trips
Three items created for the context

1. A ride-sharing app prepared me for price and travel time estimates.
2. The driver's estimated time to a pick-up location on the app enabled me to know what to expect.
3. The driver's progress on GPS kept me informed of the travel route.

Relational benefits
Four items adapted from Gwinner, Gremler, & Bitner (1998), Nielsen et al. (2015)

1. Ride-sharing allowed me to engage in enjoyable conversations with drivers.
2. Conversations with drivers assured me that I am safe. (deleted)
3. Conversations with drivers allowed me to learn about the local neighborhoods of a travel destination.
4. Ride-sharing helped me to get insider tips on local attractions or restaurants.

Reasons against Adopting Ride-sharing
(1 = "strongly disagree," and 7 = "strongly agree")

Perceived risks in driving skills
Three items adapted from Claudy et al. (2015), Nielsen et al. (2015)

1. Drivers who deviated from a route and delayed my trip caused me concern.
2. Drivers who were distracted by being on the phone or focused on their GPS display made me nervous.
3. Drivers who speed made me feel unsafe

Perceived risks in technology failure
Three items created for the context

1. An app that has problems with finding the best route and delay my trip caused me concern.
2. A GPS map that is inaccurate in showing my location made me uncomfortable.
3. An app that fails to match me to available drivers in certain areas made me feel frustrated.

Legal concerns
Four items created for the context

1. I am concerned about the safety policies of ride-sharing services
2. I am unsure if ride-sharing services are liable for passenger injuries.
3. I am unsure if ride-sharing services check drivers' backgrounds and criminal records.
4. I am concerned about the business policies regarding quality controls for ride-sharing services.

Relational barriers
Four items Adapted from Nielsen et al. (2015)

1. Inappropriate conversation topics would make me uncomfortable.
2. Conversations about my personal and private affairs would make me embarrassed.
3. Overly chatty drivers would make me frustrated. (deleted)
4. Big silence between drivers and me would make me feel award.

Attitude toward Innovation Adoption
(1 = "strongly disagree," and 7 = "strongly agree")
Adapted from Claudy, Garcia, & O'Driscoll (2014), Fishbein & Ajzen (1975), Taylor & Todd (1995), Westaby, Probst, & Lee (2010)

1. I like idea of using ride-sharing
2. I think using ride-sharing would be a good idea for ground transportation.
3. I have positive feelings about using ride-sharing on a trip.

Attitude Confidence
Adapted from Fazio & Zanna (1978), Krosnick, Boninger, Chuang, Berent, & Carnot (1993).

1. How certain are you that your attitude toward using ride-sharing? (1 = "not confident at all," and 7 = "extremely confident")

2. How certain are you that your reasoning for using ride-sharing on your next trip? (1 = "not confident at all," and 7 = "extremely confident")
3. How certain are you that ride-sharing will be a satisfactory mode of transportation on your next trip? (1 = "not confident at all," and 7 = "extremely confident")

Behavioral Intentions (Intentions to repurchase ride-sharing services)
(1 = "strongly disagree," and 7 = "strongly agree")
Adapted from Fishbein & Ajzen (1975), Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Malhotra (2005), Westaby et al. (2010)

1. I will use ride-sharing in upcoming trips.
2. I will continue to use ride-sharing in the future.
3. I would consider ride-sharing to be my first choice for a future ground transportation mode.

APPENDIX I

RIDE-SHARING: QUESTIONNAIRE

Baseline Survey

Participate in a short survey on Uber/Lyft!

Are you over the age of 18? Have you used Uber or Lyft in the past 6 months?

If you answer "yes" to the questions above, you may qualify to participate in short survey on Uber/Lyft. ASU researchers are conducting a survey on ride-sharing services, such as Uber and Lyft. (IRB ID: STUDY00008527). You will be asked to answer brief questions about your use of Uber/Lyft and demographics.

The survey will take about 1-2 minutes to complete, and you will receive $0.2 for your participation. Your participation in this research is voluntary. After this survey, participants may be selected and invited to the follow-up survey.

At the end of the survey, you will receive a unique survey completion code. Please enter the completion code into your HIT to receive credit for taking our survey.

If you have questions about this research study, please contact Seojin Lee at slee347@asu.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, you can contact the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board through the Arizona State University Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at research.integrity@asu.edu.

By clicking the button below, you acknowledge that you are over the age of 18, you have used Uber/Lyft in the last six months, and you agree to participate in the follow-up survey.

☐ **I consent, begin the study**

1. What cities are you living in? Name the city and state.

2. Please enter your zip code:

3. How many times do you use ride-sharing in your city in the past 6 months?

Demographics

4. What is your gender? ☐ Female ☐ Male

5. What is your age?

☐ Below 20	☐ 20-29	☐ 30-39	☐ 40-49
☐ 50-59	☐ 60-69	☐ 70-80	☐ Above 80

6. What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

☐ Less than high school	☐ Some college	☐ Master's degree
☐ High school graduate	☐ 4-year degree	☐ Doctoral degree

7. What was your annual household income before taxes.

☐ $25,000 or less	☐ $50,001 – 75,000	☐ $100,001 – 125,000
☐ $25,001 – 50,000	☐ $75,001 – 100,000	☐ Above $125,000

Travel Characteristics

8. Did you travel in the past six months? (The "travel includes at least one overnight stay away from home)

☐ Yes ☐ No

9. How many nights did you travel during your most recent trip? (number of nights)

10. Did you ever use Uber or Lyft during your recent travel in the past 6 months? (The "travel includes at least one overnight stay away from home)

☐ Yes ☐ No

11. How many times did you use Uber or Lyft during your recent travel? (number of times)

12. If you answer yes to the question #7, what was the purpose of your trip?

☐ Business travel ☐ Leisure travel ☐ Personal travel

Main Survey

Participate in the ASU research study on ride-sharing!

We appreciate your participation in a brief survey on Uber and Lyft. You are invited to also participate in the follow-up survey on ride-sharing. In this study, ride-sharing means the ride services offered by platforms, such as Uber and Lyft. ASU researchers are conducting a survey on ride-sharing services, such as Uber and Lyft. (IRB ID: STUDY00008527). You will be asked questions about your travel characteristics, benefits and drawbacks of using ride-sharing, your attitudes towards ride-sharing services, and your intentions to use ride-sharing services when you travel.

The survey should take you about 10 to 15 minutes to complete, and you will receive $3 for your participation. Your participation is voluntary. The survey responses will be grouped together and analyzed for the statistical purpose only.

At the end of the survey, you will receive a unique survey completion code to enter your HIT on Amazon's Mechanical Turk to receive credit for taking our survey. Please note that this survey will be best displayed on a laptop or desktop computer. Some features may be less compatible for use on a mobile device.

If you have questions about this research study, please contact Seojin Lee at slee347@asu.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research, you can contact the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board through the Arizona State University Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at research.integrity@asu.edu.

By clicking the button below, you acknowledge that your participation is voluntary, you are over the age of 18, and you have used Uber and/or Lyft when you have traveled.

☐ **I consent, begin the study**

PART A

This part asks about your travel characteristics. Your travel must include at least one overnight stay away from home.

Have you ever used ride-sharing services when you traveled within the last 6 months?

☐ Yes ☐ No

How many times did you use ride-sharing at your travel destination? (times)

Where was your destination for your most recent trip? (check one)

☐ In-state

☐ Out-of-state(Please name the city and state that you visited: _____)

☐ Abroad (Please name the city and country that you visited: _____)

What was your primary purpose of this trip?

☐ Business travel

☐ Leisure travel (vacation)

☐ Personal travel (visiting family and friends)

After arriving at the destination, what was your main **ground transportation mode** during this trip**?** (check one)

☐ Own vehicle	☐ Rental vehicle	☐ Ride-sharing (Uber or Lyft)
☐ Bus or motor coach	☐ Train	☐ Walking
☐ Taxi	☐ Others, describe:	

After arriving the destination, did you only use ride-sharing during this trip?

☐ Yes, I used ride-sharing only.

☐ No, I used ride-sharing in combination with other transportation modes.

Did you only visit the destination city during this trip?

☐ Yes, I stayed only within the destination city.

☐ No, I visited the destination city and neighboring areas.

Who accompanied you on this trip? (check one)

☐ Friends only ☐ Family only ☐ Family and friends

☐ Traveling alone ☐ Organized group tour ☐ Work associates

In what **tourist activities** did you participate when you are travelling? (open-ended question)

_____

PART B

This part asks you about how you used ride-sharing when you traveled. Please think back on how you used ride-sharing in the past six months.

What were the reasons why you used ride-sharing when you traveled? Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

Ride-sharing was reasonably priced.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing offered me good value for the money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing brought me good service for the price.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing saved me time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing helped me manage my time better.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing provided me with door-to-door service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing offered ease of access to a place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing reduced stress incurred from dealing with traffic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing mitigated stress caused by navigating unfamiliar areas in a tourist destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing reduced the effort in searching for local public transportation options.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing made me avoid the hassle of finding parking spaces.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A ride-sharing app prepared me for price and travel time estimates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The driver's estimated time to a pick-up location on the app enabled me to know what to expect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The driver's progress on GPS kept me informed of the travel route.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing allowed me to engage in enjoyable conversations with drivers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conversations with drivers assured me that I am safe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conversations with drivers allowed me to learn about the local neighborhoods of a travel destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ride-sharing helped me to get insider tips on local attractions or restaurants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What were the drawbacks to using ride-sharing that you observed or considered when you traveled? Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

Drivers who deviated from a route and delayed my trip caused me concern.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Drives who were distracted by being on the phone or focused on their GPS display made me nervous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Drivers who speed made me feel unsafe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
An app that has problems with finding the best route and delay my trip would cause me concern.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A GPS map that is inaccurate in showing my location would make me uncomfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
An app that fails to match me to available drivers in certain areas would make me feel frustrated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am concerned about the safety policies of ride-sharing services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am unsure if ride-sharing services are liable for passenger and pedestrian injuries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am concerned about the business policies regarding quality controls for ride-sharing services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Inappropriate conversation topics would make me uncomfortable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conversations about my personal and private affairs would make me embarrassed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overly chatty drivers would make me frustrated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Big silence between drivers and me would make me feel awkward.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How do you feel about ride-sharing? Please answer the degree which you agree with the following statements:

I like the idea of using ride-sharing on a trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think using ride-sharing is a good idea for ground transportation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have positive feelings about using ride-sharing on a trip.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Reflecting upon your previous answers, how confident do you feel about your perceptions of using ride-sharing? Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

How certain are you about your attitude toward using ride-sharing?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How certain are you about your reasons for using ride-sharing on your next trip?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How certain are you about your reasons for *not* using ride-sharing on your next trip?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How confident are you that ride-sharing will be a satisfactory mode of transportation on your next trip?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How likely are you to use ride-sharing services again on your next trip? Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

I will use ride-sharing services in upcoming trips.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will continue to use ride-sharing in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ride-sharing would be my first choice of transportation options for future trips.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART C

This section asks for some descriptive information about you. Remember that this information is completely confidential. We use it only to see if we have adequately represented our participants.

What is your gender? ☐ Female☐ Male☐ Other

What is your age?

☐ Below 20 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49

☐ 50-59 ☐ 60-69 ☐ 70-80 ☐ Above 80

What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

☐ Less than high school ☐ Some college ☐ Master's degree

☐ High school graduate ☐ 4-year degree ☐ Doctoral degree

What was your annual household income before taxes.

☐ $25,000 or less ☐ $50,001 – 75,000 ☐ $100,001 – 125,000

☐ $25,001 – 50,000 ☐ $75,001 – 100,000 ☐ Above $125,000

What is the postal code (zip) at your primary residence?

_____ postal code (zip).

How often did you use ride-sharing services in your town in the past six months?

_____

Thank you for your participation!