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**CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN COLLABORATIVE CONSUMPTION:
An empirical study regarding motivations and experiences in car sharing.**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis tackles the issue of consumer behaviour within the collaborative economy. The aim of this study is to both clearly define the new collaborative economic phenomenon and depict consumer behaviour within this new trend especially regarding car-sharing service.

Collaborative economy appears in many marketplaces over the past few years. It is no longer a niche and it embeds a wide range of users' motivations. Therefore Scholars have struggled with defining collaborative economy. Likewise, is tough to define consumer behaviour within this economy. As a matter of fact, consumer behaviour embodies many realities, since different marketplaces, wherein collaborative service occurred, appeal various motivations. Firstly, the theoretical part of this study precisely defines concepts tied to collaborative economy. Secondly, the thesis introduces the notions of consumer behaviour, experience and confidence within the collaborative economy lens. Thirdly, interactions between these terms are compared with empirical findings.

Data are collected through 5 semi-structural interviews. Respondents consist of car-sharing users. More precisely, the studies focused on BlaBlaCar platform's use in 5 different countries. Findings show that word-of-mouths, price and convenience are decisive when it comes to starting using car-sharing service. Comments and experiences keep users using car-sharing services since they increase the users' level of confidence. Eventually, this study speculates culture has an impact on car-sharing use.

KEYWORDS: collaborative consumption, collaborative economy, sharing, car sharing, consumer behaviour, confidence, trust, experience.

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will provide a snapshot of collaborative phenomenon as well as an overview regarding concepts tied to collaborative economy. Then theoretical gaps will be highlighted. Eventually the research question and limitations will be determined.

1.1. Background

Collaborative economy is nowadays a trendy word. Concepts such as swapping, sharing, and bartering have appeared, over the past few years, fuelled by the Web 2.0. All these terms refer to new practices based on interactions between individuals. As a matter of fact, community building is essential for these new trends. (Albinsson and Perera 2012). Likewise, this new economy embeds the notion of sharing. (Botsman 2010, Belk 2010, Bauwens 2006).

Collaborative economy is since very recently, a positive term within the economical field. For a long time this concept seemed old fashion especially in western countries. For instance, European commission (Balcer 2009) wrote about Poland and Czech Republic that the end of barter trade enables the modernisation of these countries.

Many “collectivist” countries are used to see in sharing a huge opportunity to skip the drawbacks of systems. Michailova and Worm (2003) emphasize the importance of sharing in Russia and China with the “Blat system” for Russia and “Guanxi system” for China. These networks are seen as barriers for the development of an open market economy (Michailova and Worm 2003).

Yet, in western countries the rises of the Internet, the crisis, the global mind-set and the change in consumer behaviour lead people to find other solutions than owning when it comes to consuming. (Botsman and Rogers 2010).

The astonishing development of collaborative economy over the past few years is shown by the following quotation:

“Two billion dollars worth of goods and services were exchange through Bartercard, the world’s largest business-to-business bartering network in 2009, up by 20 per cent from 2008”. (Botsman 2010)

Many others examples can be taken in order to measure this new phenomenon. For instance, there are 400 crowd-founding platforms in the world (Thanh Nghiem 2013). The principle is to allow monetary exchanges between individuals. Some people lend money, most of the time to start a project. The most popular crowd-founding platforms are Kickstarter with 1 Billion dollars pledged for 66 730 new projects (Kickstarter 2014) an Indiegogo wherein 44 000 campaigns have been carried out. (Indiegogo 2014). Another striking example which underpins the redistribution market's growth (Botsman 2010), is Freecycle which provides solutions for reuse or recycling goods, has more than 5,7 million members across more than eighty-five countries. In collaborative lifestyle perspective (Botsman 2012) Couchsurfing whom its principle is to offer peer-to-peer solution in term of accommodation got a community composed of 7 million people in more than 100 000 cities.

Likewise, David Hantman (2013), Airbnb’s head of global policy, said in a statement. “Last year, an independent economist found that Airbnb contributed \$56 million to the San Francisco economy.” Furthermore, Airbnb’s survey (2013) estimates that “Airbnb rentals contributed roughly \$240 million to the local economy in Paris over a one-year span”. In North America, car-sharing service is used by 640 000 people, and the forecasts are about 4 million by 2016, according to Frost & Sullivan’s survey (2010 in Firnkorn and Muller 2011).

Collaborative consumption embeds many realities, in France; Ipsos’ findings (2013) support the idea that each category of collaborative consumption attracts specific customers. Indeed, the collaborative consumption regarding vegetables (AMAP) is more about people living in towns of more than 200 000 inhabitants (44%), and female (55%). The car sharing is more about male (54%) and people who lives in towns of less than 20 000 inhabitants (47%).

In a business perspective, Obsoco (2012) highlights that even though, collaborative economy attracts many start-up in France, sometimes these new companies do not

have reliable business model yet. Companies are often looking for funds. For instance Lyft-off, a car-sharing strat-up has raised \$60 million in 2013. (Sam Gustin 2013). Collaborative consumption fuelled 2 million projects for 5 billion dollars. In 2020 this market will worth 120 billion dollars according to forecasts. (Botsman 2010).

Forecasts are even more relevant in order to understand the interest of this field. Indeed, in France, L'Obsoco (2012) enhances the idea of a potential groundswell. Findings shade the light of the potential of the collaborative consumption. 52% of French people want to consume in a better way. More precisely, it is shown that, 60% of French people have already bought second-handed items and 49% of respondents have sold their goods in a second-handed marketplace over the past year. Moreover, 14% of respondents have bought products with other people, and 83% of responders prefer use product rather than own one. These figures do not hide that collaborative consumption is still a niche, since only 19% of responders have rented an item through collaborative market place over the past year. Obsoco (2012) concludes that maybe there is a lack of offer. 3 million of French people were a part of the collaborative consumption in 2013. (Obsoco 2012)

1.1. Research gap

This subpart will tackle the lack of theoretical as well as empirical knowledge regarding collaborative economy and related notion such as sharing, trust, and confidence.

Over the past five years, many researchers have dealt with sharing practices. However this new fields fails when it comes to providing a clear definition of concepts involved on it. Rachel Botsman (2010) is the pioneer in that field which embeds sharing and swapping. She provides framework of the collaborative economy and so collaborative consumption's one. According to Botsman (2010), collaborative economy can be divided in 4 subsets. This thesis will focus on collaborative consumption subset. But many scholars disagree with the fact collaborative economy embeds the whole new practices based on community building and sharing. Many scholars study sharing practices (Belk 2010, Albinson and Perera 2012) whether in firm or consumer perspective. However, Albinson and Perara (2012) argue that

collaborative economy and sharing are two different things while John (2013) acknowledges that sharing in the perspective of Web 2.0. has a fuzzy definition. Indeed, the concept of sharing has changed with the rising of Web 2.0. (John 2013). As a matter of fact, sharing in this perspective is a broad word, which needs to be used with caution. (John 2013).

Within the collaborative economy, entrepreneurial perspective has been studied. In that perspective the notion of “mesh economy” (Gansky 2010) refers to a system wherein community and trust within this community through sharing are essential. Some empirical studies have been carried out whether to measure the collaborative consumer behaviour in Finland (Hamari et al. 2013) and Netherland (Van De Glind 2013) or to reveal ethical issues tied to collaborative consumption. (Edelman and Luca 2014). However consumer behaviour within the collaborative consumption requires further studies.

Tackling the consumer behaviour within collaborative economy embeds the central notion of trust and confidence between people (Botsman 2010; Mazzella 2012; Edelman and Luca 2014). Although the notions of trust and confidence are essential, they are hard to master for collaborative platforms (Botsman 2010; Gansky 2010; Mazzella 2012). Even the concept of confidence does not have a clear conceptualisation yet. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). Estimating the impact of confidence within this new economy must provide a precious insight to understand this new phenomenon.

Furthermore, this new area needs to be more tackled, in order to establish what is really relevant to attract people from different cultures into collaborative consumption platforms. Indeed, Belk (2010) shades light on cultural aspects. According to him, cultural differences have an impact on the willingness to share whether the nature of the product attachment is high or not. Highlighting the differences between cultures will allow firms to reach critical mass (Botsman 2010) quickly by adapting their offer to the cultures.

Moreover, regarding norms, researchers emphasise the diffusion of them within the community through a period of time (Fishbein M., Ajzen I. 1975) and stress that when

norms become obligations, personal gain seeking should be minimised. (Lindenberg 2001). Which means more trustworthy behaviours from users. Likewise, the lack of norms in the current collaborative consumption platforms prevent more people from using platforms since ties between peers are sometimes not enough to build a sustainable platform. (Hamari et al. 2013). This notion of norms within a community needs further studies.

To sum up, collaborative economy is a reality but it has started from scratch and involves many changes in consumer's side as well as firm's side. Understanding the conceptualisation of collaborative economy especially collaborative consumption its components and the consumer behaviour adopts by collaborative users will provide a relevant insight through this new phenomenon. This study aims at both providing a clear definition of collaborative economy, consumer behaviours within this economy, as well as linking notions of confidence with collaborative experiences.

1.2. Research question and objectives of the study

What are the users' motivations within the car-sharing economy and how shared experiences impact them?

Purpose:

This study aims at exploring the role of users' motivations and users' experiences in car-sharing platforms.

Objectives:

- Understand the principles, the components, the drivers and the new challenges of collaborative economy.
- Define the notions of motivations and experiences within the consumer behaviour.
- Explore the experiences of millennial generation in car-sharing platforms.

In this thesis, researcher adopts the Consumer perspective of collaborative consumption platforms.

Define collaborative economy will be achieved thanks to the literature review. Indeed, Belk (2010) describes the principles of sharing economy while R.Botsman and R.Rogers (2010) explain the components of collaborative economy by focusing on collaborative consumption. Many other sources will be used in order to provide a clear conceptualisation of collaborative economy, especially collaborative consumption. This thesis will also tackle the actual and future challenges of collaborative economy.

Then, this study will introduce notions of motivations and experiences within the collaborative economy. When depicting the notion of experiences, concepts of trust and confidence will be considered. Links between these terms will be based on previous researches' findings as well as interviews' findings.

1.3. Delimitations

Researcher in this thesis focuses on users of collaborative consumption platforms, especially car-sharing platforms.

Focusing on collaborative platform users might be explained by the fact that collaborative economy is not yet a mainstream economy, as a matter of fact, its components could be totally unknown by non-users. Moreover, Van de Glind's survey (2013), which measured the consumer behaviour of both users and non-users of collaborative platforms, estimates that non-users' answers could embed bias. Indeed, social and environmental matters could lead to socially desirable answers. In other words, responders could express a fake willingness to participate to collaborative economy because it is a trendy topic. Therefore include non-users in the study will not lead to relevant findings. Likewise, in this study, barriers regarding car-sharing use can be only estimated and cannot be considered as consistent findings.

Moreover, this study will analyse consumer behaviour of a particular generation within a single car-sharing platform in different countries in order to imply cultural differences. Although interviews carried out depict precisely the consumer behaviour of millennial generation, they cannot be considered as consistent findings regarding cultural differences of use within the car sharing.

Furthermore as Van de Glind's survey (2013) measured, there is a wide range of motivations regarding collaborative economy. For instance, power drill and accommodation does not have the same degree of ownership feelings. Likewise, different positions in these platforms could apply different mind-sets. Indeed, Van de Glind (2013) and Hamari et al. (2013) show that provider and users have not the same motivations. In order to solve this issue, research will focus on users of only one of the three collaborative consumption subsets described by Rachel Botsman (2010). (e.g. redistributed market, collaborative lifestyle and product-as-a-service). This means respondents in the empirical part are all car-sharing users. Car-sharing, which could be considered as a product-as-a-service system, is a one of the most popular

collaborative practice and is becoming a huge market. For instance in Europe, BlaBlaCar has raised 100 million dollars in 2014. Its community is composed of 9 millions members. Blablacar is also present in 12 countries. (BlaBlaCar 2014). Therefore investigate consumer behaviour of BlaBlaCar users can be done in various countries and provide a clear insight of collaborative consumer behaviour.

Eventually, qualitative approaches will be chosen since this thesis aims at providing an in depth analysis regarding consumer behaviour. Even though researcher focuses on the reliability and validity of this study, findings cannot be generalized and can only report consumer behaviour components within car-sharing platforms.

1.4. Structure of the study:

This study is composed of 6 main chapters. The first one introduces the main components of collaborative economy and provides information regarding the interest of the topic alongside with the research question and objectives.

The Chapter two will provide an in-depth analysis of collaborative economy with an emphasis on the notion of sharing, collaborative economy components, drivers, key success factors and challenges of this new field.

Chapter 3 will present different theories regarding consumers' motivations. Notions of trust, confidence and experiences will be depicted.

Chapter 4 underpins the methodology regarding the empirical part of this thesis. Notions of data gathering, reliability as well as validity will be exposed.

Chapter 5 highlights the empirical findings and discusses them. This analysis will be based on secondary data regarding the studied platform and primary data from the semi-structural interviews.

Eventually chapter 6 will underline and discuss the research results.

Conclusion will be made embedded limitation and need for further researches.

2. COLLABORATIVE ECONOMY

In this chapter, researcher depicts the collaborative economy phenomenon. Then the central notion of sharing will be clarified. These two analyses will lead to a classification of collaborative realities. Afterwards, researcher will determine the drivers, key success factors and challenges tied to this new economy.

2.1. Definition of collaborative economy and notion of sharing

Collaborative economy is no longer viewed as a niche market (Botsman 2010) but rather than a groundswell (Van de Glind 2013). It is not a new mechanism (Benkler 2006) but it is the first time that “it is having major economic impact”. (Benkler 2006). Although not every item can be shared easily (Gansky 2010), collaborative economy, which is called collaborative consumption when considering customers’ side, can appear in every regular market. Sharing is the pillar of collaborative economy and some scholars use both sharing and collaborative mechanisms to describe the same reality.

So, when it comes to defining the collaborative economy, there is a lack of strong definitions. (Botsman 2013, John 2013). Sharing practices embedded in collaborative economy occur in different ways (Botsman 2013) in respond to different motivations (Belk 2010). Sharing can occur in both production side (Gansky 2010) and consumption side (Botsman 2010, Benkler 2006). Even the word “sharing” through Web 2.0, which is the main marketplace of collaborative consumption, has changed in meaning. (John 2013).

In order to study a particular topic, researchers need to have a clear definition on measured concept. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). In collaborative perspective, definition is not as clear as some researchers claim, but still, there is common things, which help for a better conceptualisation. For instance the notion of sharing is common at all definitions regarding collaborative practices.

Sharing:

As a matter of fact, sharing appears at every stage in collaborative consumption. Sharing is a regular consumer research topic. “Sharing transcends the perspective posed by materialism and possession attachment” (Belk 2010). Therefore, some trade-offs occur between sharing and regular economy. The usual definition of commodity exchange can be seen as the opposite of sharing in some contexts (Gell’s 1992). Likewise, sharing and commodity exchanges have different definition regarding feelings toward objects and interpersonal dependence of stakeholders. (Gregory 1982). Sharing might be the result of several causes, appear in several contexts and deliver several outcomes (Albinson and Perera 2012). This shows the complexity when having a clear definition of sharing. (John 2013).

An interesting insight when it comes to depicting sharing practices is brought by the notion of reciprocal expectations. Belk (2010) suggests 3 prototypes regarding interactions, with very different outcomes. (See table 1 *Different interactions prototypes*). Firstly, there is pure sharing with non-reciprocal expectations. Secondly, gift giving, which implies non-reciprocal apparently but reciprocal expectations in practice. This can be illustrated by Guanxi or Blat mechanisms. (Michailova and Worm 2003). Eventually, commodity exchanges involves reciprocal expectations.

Pure Sharing	Gift giving	Commodity exchanges
Non reciprocal expectations.	Non reciprocal expectations in apparently but reciprocal expectations in practice	Involves reciprocal expectations.

table 1. Different interactions prototypes. –according to Belk (2010)-

Price (1975) summed up the idea of pure sharing when he wrote “The allocation of economic goods and services without calculating returns” to describe that kind of sharing. This phenomenon appears mainly within the family or friends circles. (Albinson and Perera 2012). Even if the Internet has increased this circle (Belk 2010; Bardhi and Eckhardt 2010; Ozanne and Ballantine 2010; Ozanne and Ozanne 2011). 2 main logics occur when it comes to purely sharing (John 2013) (see table 2

classification of collaborative economy notions). Sharing can be distinguished between distributive logic and communicative logic. In a distributive perspective, sharing has the same meaning as dividing. When sharing, people have less than before. This is called ‘zero-sum game’. (John 2013, Belk 2010). However distributive logic might not always entails a “zero-sum game”. (Belk 2010) Some common things whether they are tangible or not, can be shared without prevent someone from having the same benefit as before. (John 2013). This is called the comedy of commons (Belk 2010) and means that benefits grow when sharing. This could be for instance, sharing skills.

Communicative logic embeds emotional sharing and might be sum up by “sharing is telling”. (John 2013). Sharing our emotions or feelings are the roots of western society relations (Cameron 2000, Carbaugh 1988, Rifkin 2009) and enables societies based on empathy with strong ties between members. (Rifkin 2009; John 2013). This distinction can be completed by the notion of sharing in and sharing out (Belk 2010). Sharing in implies an “aggregate sense of extended self” (Belk 2010), which means that when sharing people consider other as themselves. Sharing out involved more self-interest consideration and could be sum up by sharing based on survival tactic (Belk 2010)

So sharing involves many realities it is even truer within the “Web 2.0.” wherein sharing is promoted more than any other marketplaces.

Sharing through the Web 2.0.:

Web 2.0 is intensively defined. Beer and Burrows (2007) write Web 2.0. can be seen as ‘a cluster of applications and related online cultures’ that connect people together. Web 2.0. is strongly tied to Peer-to-Peer marketplace. (See *table 2 classification of collaborative economy notion*). Web 2.0. enables sharing practices. Web 2.0.’s actors such as SNSs (Social Network Sites) promote sharing practices. (John 2013). This leads John (2013) to define SNSs as “Internet services based on user-generated content” whether it is in a profitable or a non-profitable network.

Although sharing studies are numerous, sharing practices through Web 2.0., which are an element of collaborative economy, are not so well documented. (John 2013). Indeed, sharing through the Internet has different meanings, which leads to misunderstandings. (John 2013). For instance, over the past few years, a same platform, which urged its users to “letting the world knows”, changed its motto to “sharing”. This sharing involves nothing but allowing others knowing your personality. In short, sharing has now the same meaning as “participation in Web 2.0.” (John 2013). As a matter of fact, sharing is a positive word linked with positive social relations (John 2013). This is highlighted by mottos like “sharing and caring” (Belk 2010) or “the common is the right thing” (Thanh Nghiem 2010).

But the use of sharing is maybe too wide now. John (2013) reveals that Facebook, for instance, mentions in its policy that they do not share information they receive about customers without users’ permission. The example of Facebook is even more interesting since Facebook appears as a milestone for the collaborative economy. Indeed 30% web pages viewed are due to Facebook recommendations. (Thanh Nghiem 2013). Here notion of sharing hides a purely mercantile mechanism (John 2013) and has nothing to do with the definition of sharing given by Belk (2010).

Collaborative practices classifications:

Rachel Botsman and Roo Rogers in their book *what’s mine is yours* (2010) underpin the basis of the collaborative economy when focusing on collaborative consumption. Collaborative consumption is defined as:

“A social and economic system driven by network technologies that enable the sharing and exchange of assets from spaces, to skills, to cars, in ways and on a scale never possible before.”(Botsman 2010).

Rachel Botsman (2010) depicts collaborative economy through 4 main models, which are: collaborative production, collaborative consumption, collaborative finance, and collaborative education.

Collaborative education is the extent to which skills are spread without any boundaries. Coursera for example, enables people to be a part of lectures provided by the best universities around the world. (Botsman 2010)

Collaborative finance is the extent to which people help other people to fund their needs. Zopa, for example, permits peer-to-peer lending. This is often called crowd funding.

In Collaborative production perspective, goods are built and spread through collaborative network. For example, Quirky is a platform used by inventors in order to submit product ideas. Afterwards, users chose the best one. Eventually, the company launches the new product on the market. (Botsman 2010). For a better understanding, the next table provides a summary of the 4 main models in collaborative economy, according to Rachel Botsman's classification (2010).

This thesis focuses on the last subset, the collaborative consumption model. Collaborative consumption is the extent to which utilisation of assets is maximised. It embeds 3 areas, which are: Redistribution markets, collaborative lifestyles, and product service systems. According to Botsman (2010) PSS (Product Service Systems) refers to the process whereby people are looking for the usage of a product rather than the ownership. This new set of mind embeds new relationship between companies and their products. For example, within a product service system, the product life cycle lasts longer than in regular market. Redistribution market refers to second handed marketplaces whether it occurs on line or off line. Reusing items or reselling items fuels this marketplace. (Botsman 2010).The collaborative lifestyle dimension of the collaborative consumption can be considered as a step forward the two previous ones. Actually, C.C. cross the boundaries of goods market. It also happens in the intangible market. Skills, time and travel might be shared. (Botsman 2010)

All these definitions distinguish the main principles of collaborative economy but Botsman (2014) acknowledges that distinctions are weak.

Collaborative economy					
Marketplaces	Peer-to-peer related notion: web 2.0.		Business to business	Business to consumers	
Level of sharing	Pure sharing related notion: distributive / communicative logic		Reciprocity expectations related notion: Gift-giving	Payment mechanisms related notion: commodity exchanges	
Consumer behaviour	Only users		Occasional Providers	Regular Providers related notion: mini-entrepreneurs	
Interconnections	Firms' side related notion: mesh economy		Clients' side		
Collaborative economy subsets	Collaborative consumption		Collaborative production	Collaborative education	Collaborative finance
Subsets of collaborative consumption	Product as service	Redistributive market	Collaborative lifestyle.		

table 2. Classification of collaborative economy's notion

The definition of collaborative consumption used in this thesis according to scholars is: a marketplace without a centralised authority wherein individuals can share, swap everything for monetary or non-monetary benefits, preferring accessing than owning.

2.2. Drivers:

This part focuses on drivers, which fuel the collaborative economy. 3 main drivers will be introduced: economical pressures, new technologies and change of consumers' mind.

The economical crisis pushed consumers searching for alternative marketplaces. (Bauwens 2006, Belk 2010, Botsman 2010, Gansky 2010). This shift is easier since

some of their items are underused. (Gansky 2010). This “idling capacity” (Botsman 2010) is used to solve monetary issues. However, this shift does not only occur in collaborative consumption side, but also in collaborative production side. As a matter of fact, a community of individuals can lead to a P2P production (Bauwens 2006). P2P can produce use-value through mostly immaterial production, in short “P2P creates a surplus value through services”. This is called “cognitive capitalism”. (Bauwens 2006). Benkler (2006) illustrates the power commons (Botsman 2012) with the example of seti@home project. This platform enables people to put together their idling capacity of their computers in order to create a super-computer, more powerful than every other super-computer. Therefore, there is an advantage of the common for Benkler (2006) instead of the “tragedy of the commons” (Elinor Ostrom 1990). Benkler (2006) goes further, for him, new breakthrough discovery will come from “the open-source economy”. In fact, the value creation is no longer confined to the enterprise and this production can be sold at the end. The redistribution chain will change compare to “traditional” capitalism. Since, there are much more stakeholders, Bauwens (2006) warns “participants cannot live from peer production” but Botsman (2010) and Gansky (2010) notice the apparition of mini-entrepreneur behaviours, which means that some people earn money from peer-to-peer marketplaces.

This change is allowed by new network technologies, which impact dramatically the collaborative consumption in many ways. (Botsman 2010). Information is now more shared (Benkler 2006). Sharing has become a habit. (John 2013). Millennials, which are the generation of the Internet, are keener to share. (Albinson and Perera 2012) even if sometimes they do not know what they share as mentioned in the previous chapter. (John 2013). SNSs which has increased sharply over the past few years (Gansky 2010, John 2013) argue that “while sharing people become more open-minded” (John 2013) this is called “value shift” by Rachel Botsman (2012). This “open source economy” (Benkler 2006) or “mesh economy” (Gansky 2010) allow interactions between individuals mainly in peer-to-peer marketplaces. (Benkler 2006). As a matter of fact, technology enables interactions between people at a scale never reached before and so sharing and exchange mechanism increase. (Benkler 2006, Botsman 2010). People are used to “share” through Web 2.0. (John 2013). The growth of interactions between individuals has another outcome, indeed that lead to convenient situation. Sharing marketplaces can reach the point wherein

goods/services/skills offered can fulfil users' expectations. (Botsman 2010). According to Botsman (2010) this is called critical mass point and leads to more tailored services.

Moreover the increase of information shared allowed on-line community to be trustworthy. In that perspective, technology facilitates reputation and recommendation systems between peers, in other words transparency (Benkler 2002, Botsman 2010). Trust is possible thanks to reputation systems (Gansky 2010). Reputation might be seen as a new currency. (Botsman 2012). It insures the attractiveness of a platform (Gansky 2010). Indeed, reputation allows communities to identify the "high-risk" users and charge them more. (Gansky 2010). Reputation system leads to the raise of community spirit, which prevents members from acting in the wrong way. Indeed, reputation improves trust within the community, and trust is essential in peer-to-peer marketplaces. (Keetels 2012, Pick 2012) but could appear in B to C as social enterprises shows (Allen 2005). The reputation and recommendation systems are adaptation on the Internet of word-of-mouth mechanism. Word-of-mouth has a huge impact on the adoption of new marketplaces. (Bauwens 2006, Bughin et al. 2008, Gansky 2010) Indeed, word-of-mouth is trustworthy and trust perceived by consumers will impact their willingness to use collaborative services. (Botsman 2010)

The technology changes the rules of a marketplace, as Schiller (1999) predicted; the Internet capabilities will change future economic relationships. Indeed P2P market place has its proper rules "new intermediation may occur around user-generated media" (Bauwens 2006). In other words, these P2P areas erase intermediaries. (Bauwens 2006). In a peer-to-peer marketplace, the community runs by itself without a central owner. (Hamari et al. 2013). Benkler (2006) names this phenomenon a "decentralised authority" (Benkler 2006), which refers to horizontal networks with distributed power within communities (Arthur de Grave 2014). The community governs the P2P marketplace. Peer-to-peer processes can be viewed as a network wherein autonomous agents determine freely their behaviour and linkage. In short, intermediary does not exist. These networks without central power (Botsman 2010) move economy from capital to distributive capital (Benkler 2006).

Eventually, consumers have changed their mind when it comes to consuming. They believe in the common (Botsman 2012) they are less individualistic and simplify their lifestyle (Etzioni 2004). This phenomenon is illustrated by the global warming movement, which might explain the raise of alternative marketplaces. (Botsman 2010, Gansky 2010). This phenomenon seems to be definitive for those who have made the shift (Sheth et al. 2011) since it is also a reaction against the over-consuming mind-set. (Albinson and Perera 2012) people see the psychic and physical damages of capitalism (Bauwens 2006) and look for meaningful experiences (Gansky 2010).

Definitions provided above reveal that technology has changed the way information is spread as well as the consumer behaviour of users. These changes allow more trust between individuals and must have an impact not only in a consumption side but also in a production side. In this economy access is more important than ownership (Botsman 2010) therefore ownership paradigm is no longer the only way of both consuming and producing. (Walsh 2011). Likewise, this shift is an answer to the economical crisis and fulfils the new mind-set's aspirations. All these information are summed up in the following table.

Drivers	Outcomes	Authors
Technology	<p>More sharing practices</p> <p>Critical mass reached thus service appear convenient</p> <p>Enables more trust between strangers</p> <p>Disintermediation</p>	Gansky 2010; Botsman 2010; John 2013; Bauwens 2006; Benkler 2006
New set-of-mind	<p>Global warming, search for sustainable consumption</p> <p>Meaningful experience,</p> <p>Resurgence of community</p>	John 2013, Gansky 2010, Albinson and Perera 2012, Botsman 2012, Bauwens 2006, Botsman 2006
Economic crisis	<p>Use of idling capacity.</p> <p>Mini-entrepreneur behaviour.</p>	Gansky 2010, Botsman 2010 Gansky 2010

table 3. Main collaborative economy's drivers

2.3. Key success factors for collaborative platforms.

This chapter tackles the issue of key success factors regarding collaborative platforms. 6 key success factors such as Perceived usefulness, Perceived core service quality, perceived supplementary service quality, trust, networking, interface and subjective norms (Chen and Corkindale 2008) are designated when it comes to depicting online platforms success. These terms will be explained through 3 main points, which must be taken into account by the collaborative platforms to succeed. They are collaborative design, recommendation and reputation system, and value delivered.

Collaborative design:

Collaborative design or interface (Chen et al. 2008) refers to all mechanisms, which entail collaborative consumption. This subset will tackle the very challenging issue of collaborative design since motivations in collaborative consumption can vary a lot from users (Van de Glind 2013, Hamari et al. 2013). Collaborative design aims at offering enough possibilities to reach customers' requirements. It embeds both platform design and object design. (*See table: Basics of success*)

Collaborative design needs to take into account the spread of information within its platform. Firstly, having a track of the transaction enables reaching customers' requirements more easily. Furthermore, users need to perceive the core and supplement service quality (Chen and Corkindale 2008) as they are often seeking alternative sources of needs' fulfilment. (Botsman 2010). This points out the importance of transparency, which occurs within the information companies' wave. (Gansky 2010). It means providing the right information at the right time in order to make the sharing easier. (Gansky 2010, Botsman 2010).

This transparency leads to 2 central elements regarding collaborative platform success, which are both connecting people and making exchanges easy. (Gansky 2010) The ability to connect people refers to networking (Chen and Corkindale 2008) which means more interactions between stakeholders in online services (Alves et al.

2007). It is also called “fluidity of use” (Botsman 2010) and results from divers access for same need and replication. Designers have to ‘evolve from being the individual authors of objects on building, to being facilitators of exchange in large group of people’. (Botsman 2010).

The main purpose here is to enable the first experience. Thus the interface is essential (Chen et al. 2008). As a matter of fact, Fiske (1982) and Sujan (1985) measure in their respective studies that past experiences have a dramatic effect on trust building.

Moreover, collaborative companies need to think about their products design. They have to draw their attention on the ability to reuse products, which is one of the collaborative consumption drivers (Botsman 2010). It means longevity dimension is central. (Botsman 2010). It implies that companies are not driven by the number of units sold anymore but by the unit of usage. So companies have to adopt a “user-driven design” when it comes to modelling their business. (Manzini 2011).

Recommendation and Reputation system:

This subset will discuss about recommendation and reputation mechanisms, which stress the central issue of trust within an online community. (Chen and Corkindale 2008).

As mention before, although trust is essential in collaborative consumption it is very hard to build and maintain. Botsman (2010) adopts three perspectives when it comes to talking about trust in collaborative consumption. The first dimension is the “trust in the concept” the second one is the “trust in firm” and the last one the “trust between users”. The two first aspects occur in every market for every firm whereas the last one “trust between users” is specific to collaborative consumption.

“Trust between users” is central in a buying process (Bughin et al. 2008). Usually it is empowered by the word-of-mouth phenomenon. Word-of-mouth appears to be determinant for 30% to 50% of purchases. The impact of word-of-mouth is even stronger for a first purchase in a new market. Venkatesh and Davis (2000) also estimate friends influence the consumer behaviour of online services. People act

following friends or family advices. Likewise, online friends enable people to start using an online platform. Indeed, the success of networks, such as collaborative consumption network, is based on “the strength of weak ties”. This means peer-to-peer relationship also called “peripheral relationship” can powerfully bring members together. (Gramovetter 1973).

In order to strength the weak ties, trust is needed and implies reputation system (Dasgupta 1988), which occurs on online services (Grazioli and Jarvenpaa 2002, Nah and Davis 2002; Kim and Galliers 2004). The example of AirBnB can illustrate this mechanism. Actually, Brian Chesky (Kessler 2014) describes how hard was the beginning. They missed to enhance the trust on their platform. This situation changed as soon as they decided to post some pictures of rooms on their website. But it is not only a matter of pictures; AirBnB enables the trust thanks to a rating system and comments given by users about their hosts. The reputation mechanism leads the good behaviour of users. Indeed, the more famous someone is, the better is his possibilities to make a deal. (Botsman 2010). Douglas Rushkoff (2003) enhances this idea ‘what people want is the ability to transact’. (*See table: Basics of success*). In this perspective, users are looking for reputation. Having a good fame is the goal of each user. Rachel Botsman (2010) goes further when she claims that “reputation is the new currency”. In fact her idea is to put reputation from different platforms together. This system will enable strangers to know “reliability, consistency, and responsiveness” (Botsman 2010) of a one particular person.

As explained before reputation system is relevant when it comes to enhancing trust within a community. However, in order to build it, people have to share more than only the product involved. This means sharing everything with strangers, which can create ethical issues. (Edelman and Luca 2014) For instance, discrimination can appear. (Edelman, Luca 2014). Therefore, a reputation system needs to be though carefully as a good reputation system can reduce racial discriminations. Indeed, Scott Morton et al (2003) measured that discriminations are skipped within automobile online market place. So platforms have to balance tools to improve trust and without any ethical issues. Furthermore, reputation mechanism can have drawbacks. For example, if someone has a bad experience with a collaborative consumption platform,

reputation system can banished one particular provider. (Crain 2010). There is a need for improvements regarding reputation systems. (Dai et al. 2013).

Value delivered

Collaborative platform success also depends on the value delivered within its community. Regarding to collaborative platforms, people need to perceive the usefulness, the core service quality and the difference with competitors called differentiation in the (*table 4 basics of success*). (Chen and Corkindale 2008). This innovative approach refers to a blue ocean strategy (Chan Kim and Mauborgne 2004), which means building a new universe without any competitors.

First-of-all, profitability of a collaborative consumption platform might depend on the value embedded in the offering product which is both the extent to which users can earn money from it and the extent to which there is no intermediary (Gansky 2010)

Second-of-all, to enhance the service quality perception, the “critical mass” (Botsman 2010) needs to be reached out. In this perspective, the notion of critical mass refers to the extent to which a collaborative platform must gather enough members to guarantee the availability of product or service delivered. This leads to a convenient feeling from users. According to James Surowiecki (2013) critical mass is obtained since idling capacity can be used thanks to technological evolution. Before this evolution, the transaction cost was too high to switch from traditional market towards sharing practices. However, the most difficult thing to master is the cognitive barrier. Indeed, the fame of the platform increases dramatically its success. The more users platforms have, the more profitable and attractive the platform is. Bauwins (2006) and Cline (2005) enhance this idea. They use the term of “comedy of the common”. The amount of sharing increases the amount of possibilities and users find more and more solutions.

Eventually, not every object can be shared. Abeywickrema, the CEO of Rentalic, which is a collaborative platform, claims that some components are very important to make a product sharable. (Sacks 2011) Firstly, it has to cost between 100\$ and 500\$, transportation needs to be as easy as possible. Finally goods must be use not so

frequently. Botsman (2010) enhance this idea when writing that the best goods are underused products, which composed the 'idling capacity' of people's products. These criteria lead Punsri Abeywickrema (Sacks 2011) to the selection of easy-to-share-goods on his platform. He focused on "sporting goods and outdoor gear". So not all products can fit with redistribution market (Botsman 2010). According to Botsman, a product for redistribution market is stuff we buy to fulfil a short-term need or products that diminish is appeal after usage. Bohn (2004) reinforces this idea and calls it temporary ownership. Nemeroff and Rozin (1994) add another dimension regarding second handed items with their concept of positive and negative contagion effects. It underlines that the contagion effect depends on the idea from new owner toward the former owner. For instance, if the former owner is a star, the good will have more 'value' in new owner's mind. That explains some exchanges in the collaborative consumption platforms.

table 4. Basics of success

Key issues for success	Notion	Authors
Collaborative design	Platform design related notions: Fluidity of use Transparency Interface	Botsman 2010; Gansky 2010; Chen et al. 2008
	Object design related notion: longevity; User-driven design	Botsman 2010; Gansky 2010; Manzini 2011
Recommendation and Reputation mechanisms	Importance of ties	Gramovetter 1973
	Ability to transact	Bauwens 2006 Rushkoff 2003
	Ethical perspective	Edelman and Luca 2014; Crain 2010
Value delivered	Earning money	Gansky 2010
	No intermediation	Gansky 2010
	Blue ocean strategy related notion: core service quality and differentiation.	Chan Kim and Mauborgne 2004
	Perceived usefulness	Chen and Corkindale 2008
	Critical mass	Botsman 2010
	Specific object related notion easy to share object, Temporary ownership Positive contagion	Abeywickrema (Sacks 2011); Bohn (2004) Nemeroff and Rozin (1994)

2.4. Challenges

This subset will discuss about the challenges faces by collaborative economy regarding regulation, competitors and ethical issues.

Collaborative consumption seems to be efficient without needs of regulations (Morozov 2014). Indeed, thanks to reputation system the quality of transaction is insured. (Botsman 2010, Morozov 2014). Economical interactions within the collaborative consumption platform follow rules stated by Hayek (1989), which are that a marketplace is enough to guarantee the fair trade. According to Hayek, there is no need for regulations from governments. However, Surowiecki (2013) argues that “mini-entrepreneur” phenomenon, which occurs within the collaborative economy, leads to more regulations. For instance, “Uber is just a broker” wherein providers act like free agents. (Surowiecki 2013). Indeed, Uber or AirBnB change the intermediaries involved in their marketplaces. (Morozov 2014) These new economical agents will not lead to the end of intermediaries but only to the shift of intermediaries. Therefore, some scholars do not see collaborative consumption as a radical shift in economy but rather as a change of intermediaries. (Morozov 2014, Brynjolsson et al. 2014). In that perspective, collaborative consumption enabled by the evolution of Internet leads to the phenomenon described by the creative destruction (Schumpeter 1976). This term states that a technological progress changes the nature of works in a society. In that perspective, collaborative platforms will prevent regular companies from selling their products and so unemployment rate will increase (Brynjolsson et al. 2014). So regulation needs to be redefined and moves to a Common-based political economy. (Bauwens 2006). Indeed, the issue of reciprocity in a P2P marketplace is central. P2P exchange is unique, very hard to define, and impossible to define with the lens of the normal capitalism (Bauwens 2006) since exchanges are no longer externalised.

Therefore, scholars have to play a role (Bauwens 2006) since there is a gap in the scientific fields about sustainable consumption of that kind (Thøgersen and Schrader 2012). Kirsch (2007) acknowledges that there is a fuzzy definition of the sharing economy. Its scope needs a better “legally inflected lens”. Other scholars share this idea. (Botsman 2013, Gansky 2010, Bauwens 2006). Kirsch (2007) acknowledges,

“These initiatives challenge well-worn dichotomies between public and private spheres, state and market forms of governance, and economic and social objectives”. Indeed without a clear definition, this new way of making business can be seen as unfair trade. (Tuttle 2013, Bauwens 2006).

As long as collaborative economy has not been mainstream, neither traditional economical agents nor governments needed to regulate these marketplaces. (Morozov 2014). However, as soon as C.C. begins mainstream, government try to regulate it since “These are new models, and they don’t fit into the old boxes” (Yang 2014; retrieved from Sundararajan 2010). For instance, San Francisco and New York want to tax the rentals of AirBnB. San Francisco could earn 191\$ with tax over the AirBnB’s rentals. (Tuttle 2013). There is a need of a fair arbiter between commons, the market and the collaborative economy. Bauwens (2006).

Therefore, governments want to make it legal even if there is a kind of trade-offs between sharing economy and “for profit economy”. (Bauwens 2006). Although governments do not know how to regulate P2P practices since the universal common property shifts public/ private belongings whereas regulations are based on private belongings (Bauwens 2006) some initiative have been done. For instance, EU has decided to be more involved in the collaborative consumption in the legislative perspective. The rapporteur of EU and EESC member Bernardo Hernández Bataller (2014) emphasizes that collaborative consumption is a huge economic opportunity for both changing the consumer approach and creating new jobs. However there are some needs in order to make this groundswell sustainable as this new sector can have negative impact through their original market in terms of safety and liability of delivered service. (Surowiecki 2013)

At the same time, traditional economic agents try to make “outlaw P2P production and sharing practices”. (Bauwens 2006). They defend their vested interests (Surowiecki 2013) to keep their business working on. Collaborative consumption platforms are not protected against the lobbying from the different markets they compete indirectly as illustrates the lobbying of the hostel in New York or the airports in North America. (Tuttle 2013). Another example, when focusing on car sharing, many usual competitors are against this new business. Business models of

collaborative platforms are criticised since platforms can be seen as an area wherein users are exploited as a “free labor” (Terranova 2000). Van Dijck and Nieborg’s (2009) enhance this idea by the phrase “crowd sourcing of a certain tasks”. The same idea is embedded when it comes to sharing the knowledge. Hemetsberger (2006) emphasises that IPR frustration leads to the development of the open source software. Indeed, many organisations are deeply involved in open knowledge, however numerous firms “scramble for intellectual property rights” (IPR). (Angell and Relman 2002, Eisenberg and Nelson 2002). As a result many actions have been undertaken against open source knowledge.

Eventually, collaborative consumption is blamed also regarding the ethical point of view. As a matter of fact, the main motivations to use collaborative platforms is earning or saving money. In that perspective economic crisis and collaborative consumption are complementary rather than opposite as claimed by collaborative platforms. In sum, economic crisis means more potential users of collaborative platforms (Morozov 2014). Likewise sharing raises the issue of the lack of freedom. Arthur de Grave (2014) illustrates it by writing “if it is not mine, then who owns it?”. Evgeny Morozov (2010) enhances this idea about the power of the Internet. Indeed, something one cannot own can be available for another person. Maybe one does not want others can have access to it. Eventually, as seen in the previous subset, sharing information to enable trustworthiness can lead to racial discrimination. (Edelman and Luca 2014)

To sum up challenges of collaborative consumption this new market entails disintermediation, which does not fit with traditional economic agents as well as traditional regulations. Government wonders whether this economy could be legal while traditional agents urge regulation to save their vested interests. Furthermore, ethical issues such as benefit from economic crisis, lack of ownership and racial discrimination have appeared within this marketplace.

3. MOTIVES AND EXPERIENCES IN MARKETPLACES

3.1. Motivations in collaborative consumption.

This subset will clarify the main categorization of motivations, then motivations within the collaborative consumption will be described eventually a table will sum up all theoretical findings.

Consumer behaviour is a well-studied term, its definition might be sum up by this quotation: “*Consumer behaviour reflects a set of dynamics, transient, and goal-directed actions that contribute to a realm of learned experiences, attitudes, and beliefs*” (Simintiras, Yeniaras, 2014). This quotation needs to be completed with the notion of motivation, which both impacts actions and results from beliefs.

Scholars have identified 2 main categories in order to understand customers' motivations. A.Eccles and A.Wigfield (2002) distinguish intrinsic and extrinsic motivations when it comes to describe decision-making process of individual. According to them, decisions could be understood by looking through beliefs, values and goals using during his decision making process. (A.Eccles and A. Wigfield 2002). An Intrinsically motivated person wants to perform the activity because he likes it. (Lindenberg 2001) An extrinsically motivated person acts following external reasons such as receiving tangible or intangible rewards. (Sansone & harackiewicz 2010). (*see table basic framework for assessing motivation*).

Concept	Motivation			
Categories	Intrinsic	Extrinsic		
		Tangible rewards	Intangible rewards	Self-determination
Examples	Enjoyment, Interest, Pleasure	Money, privileges	Praise	

table 5. Basic framework for assessing motivation based on social psychology literature (Deci et al. 1999, Deci and Ryan 1985, Eccles and Wigfield 2002, Guay et al.2010). (see in Van de Glind p17 2013)

This table focus on motivation arisen from cognitive and rational processes while an affective process might occur (Eccles et al. 2002) this part will focus on motivation within a rational process.

When distinguishing extrinsic and intrinsic motivations some overlaps can be identified. Usually, external factors such as incentives or pressures might undermine intrinsic motivation. (Deci & Ryan 1985). In intrinsic motivation perspective, people want to perform an activity without any external factors (deCharms 1968) since people both search an accurate level of stimulation (Hebb 1955) and fulfil their “basic needs for competence” (White 1959). In that perspective, people needs to “feel competent and self determined” (Deci & Ryan 1985) to intrinsically enjoy their activities. Interestingly, extrinsic motivated behaviour can be tied to self-determination. (Deci & Ryan 1985). An individual can start an activity without any external pressure by forecasting the value derived from his behaviour. (Linderberg 2001) Likewise, extrinsic motivations can become intrinsic motivations through the internalization process (Ryan & Deci 2000). Internalization can be described through 4 stages which are: *External*, also called external regulation, *introjected* which is an internal regulation drown on must-be behaviour, *identified* which is internal regulation taking into account the behaviour utility, *integrated* which is the behaviour according to which an individual will enhance his self. The opposite is true, indeed the “Crowding-out phenomenon” (Frey and Jegen 2001) describe an overcoming extrinsic motivation toward initial intrinsic motivation.

To sum up, there are some overlaps between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. Although intrinsic motivations are fuelled by self-determination, intrinsic motivations can be enhanced by external factors through an internalization process (Eccles et al. 2002) while extrinsic motivations can overcome initial intrinsic motivations. (Frey and Jegen 2001). Determine whether intrinsic or extrinsic motivation prevail within the collaborative economy is decisive. As a matter of fact, an intrinsically motivated person must use collaborative services without any reward while an extrinsically motivated person needs it. As Extrinsic and intrinsic motivations could occur for the same initial motivation, in the table (*Classification of motivation within the*

collaborative consumption) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are depicted for every category of motivation found by previous studies.

Indeed, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations occur in collaborative consumption. Within this marketplace the intrinsic motivations embeds enjoyment, meeting people and sustainable attitude while extrinsic motivations embeds economic benefits (Saving/earning money) and reputation such as social attitude towards neighbourhood, general social attitude and environmental behaviour. (Hamari et al. 2013; Van de Glind 2013). Notions of sharing in and sharing out (Belk 2010) can enhance the intrinsic/extrinsic motivations distinction. Indeed while sharing out embeds only the act of sharing usually with someone outside the family or friends circle, sharing in implies more commitment from stakeholders. Therefore sharing out might refer to extrinsic motivations whereas sharing in might refer to intrinsic motivation. (See table: *Classification of motivation within the collaborative consumption.*)

Belk (2010) adds more dimensions when speaking about sharing economy. Indeed, possessiveness, independence, privacy, and utilitarianism are fundamental aspects in order to understand the differences between users and nonusers of C.C. Platforms. Indeed a culture wherein the possessiveness feeling towards goods and privacy is high will have more difficulties to share. If dependence between members of a society is high people are keener to share things. Utilitarianism seems to be the opposite of sharing, however in collaborative economy perspective it has a fewer impact on the willingness to use or not collaborative platforms.

Edelman et al. (2014) write consumers' expectations vary a lot according to the risk forecasted of sharing a particular thing or service. For instance AirBnB is about sharing accommodations. This is a very important belonging in users' mind therefore it will be harder to share it. Likewise Van de Glind (2013) claims that role such as providers or takers within a collaborative platform can have an impact on consumers' motivations. Money retribution can also have an impact on consumers' motivations. (Van de Glind 2013).

table 6. Items, role and Money use are elements which impact collaborative motivations (Van de Glind 2013, Belk 2010, Edelman and Luca 2014)

Items		Role		Money use	
High level of possessiveness and Privacy as well as Risk forecasted	Low Level of possessiveness and Privacy as well as Risk forecasted	Providers	Takers	Money retribution	No Money retribution

Empirically, Ipsos (2013) undertakes a study, which involves more than 4500 French people in order to understand the consumer behaviour in France. In 2013 they focused on the collaborative consumption. Ipsos’ findings (2013) are that individual motivations are more important for peer-to-peer business (sales and buying), while collective motivations are mainly for car sharing and being a part of an AMAP (association for promoting sustainability for food). There are 4 main motivations regarding collaborative consumption, which are: willingness from Users to meet new people, following a global mind-set, willingness to experience new things sometimes with high-risk taking, and reusing items (Ipsos 2013).

Likewise, Ademe and Credoc undertook surveys about consumer behaviour within alternative marketplaces. (Bigot et al. 2014). Findings provide an insight about the emergence of this new economy. According to Bigot et al. (2014) 88% French people want to change their way of life due to crisis. 98% of French people have already reused goods. 89 % of responders consider second handed product could provide satisfaction. 92% of responders look at second handed products as a way to buy cheaper.

The following subsets will depict main motivations regarding collaborative consumption. These motivations are summed up within a table at the end of this part. (See table: *Classification of motivation within the collaborative consumption*)

Environmental motivations:

One of the main outputs of collaborative consumption is the sustainability of the practice, as it enables a better use of raw material. Indeed, new goods are not produced if people reuse the items. Likewise, goods are not thrown away due to their reuse.

Resource depletion and climate change, basically, the global mind-set rising explains the increase of collaborative economy. (IPSOS 2013; Bigot et al. 2014). So Environmental pressures lead people to use more efficiently the finite resources. (Botsman 2010). Obsoco's survey (2012) underlines the link between global awareness and collaborative consumption, indeed, 61% of people who rent; say sharing or renting is a good way to adopt a more sustainable consumption. This motivation can attract new users since sustainable movement is now rewarded in every market (Crompton et al. 2010). Firstly, taking into account the community leads people to think in a different way. Secondly, the society as the whole plays a role in the spreading the new mind-set.

Social motivations:

Users of sharing practices focus on making a “real interaction, deeper than normal transaction”. (Belk 2010) They are looking for meaningful experience. (Gansky 2010; Botsman 2010; Belk 2010). Users want to feel the unity and “aggregate sense of self”. (Sharing in). So interactions between individuals are essential regarding the willingness to be a part of sharing practices. (Albinsson and perera 2009, Botsman and Rogers 2010, Nelson et al. 2007). Gregson and Crewe (2003) go further with the notion of “leaky self”. Indeed, when people are deeply involved in sharing, it as if the provider and the user were a one single person. Belk (2010) illustrates this with “sharing is caring”. This is the highest level of sharing in. Experience in collaborative economy leads to enhance sense of psychological well-being. (Albinson and Perera 2012, Sheth et al. 2011).

Although Belk (2010) highlights that “sharing in” exists within the collaborative consumption, not all the collaborative consumption businesses are a “sharing in” process. Sharing a sofa or a house is more likely to be felt as an extended self by users rather than swapping clothes. “Sharing in” is a face-to-face process. Virtual

communities have some difficulties to let people act through “sharing in”. (Belk 2010).

The search of meaningful experiences reveals the willingness to belong to a community. Users want to meet new people. (Botsman 2010). Sense of community is both driver and outcome of alternative marketplaces. (Albinson and perera 2012). The community is based on interdependence and reciprocity among members. (Selznick 1992). Reciprocity means that one wants to be repaid by the receiver later (Putnam, 2000).

Geographical and relational aspects can be used to define a community. (Gusfield 1975). Moreover, network within a community can be described (Lee and Newby 1983). There are different levels of community based on familiarities of members. Putnam (2000) emphasises that family and friends are one particular community with strong ties while other social groups are based on weak ties. Clark and Mills (1979,1993) enhance this idea since interactions within a community can be communal sharing (Fiske et Al. 1991) or exchange relationship. Family and friends community embeds communal relationship while other social groups will be based on exchange relationships. However, by enabling more connections the Internet is changing this reality. (Botsman 2010). Indeed, community spirit of members depends on the quality of interactions within a network. (Etzioni 2004, Albinsson and Perera 2009, Botsman and Rogers 2010, Nelson et al. 2007). This quality appears when the degree of connectedness is high (Coleman 1990, Putnam 1993, Walzer 1997) and values, norms and meanings are shared. (Etzioni 2004). With a high level of both connectedness and sharing the Internet allows the communal relationship between community members. In that perspective, recommendations are fundamental. Erik Qualman (2012) claims that “78% of consumers trust peer recommendations”. Bughin et al. (2008) highlight the importance of word-of-mouth especially for a first purchase in a new market. Indeed every innovation follows the same logic (Everett M.Rogers 2003) early adopters act like brand evangelists.

So connections among individuals shape the social capital of collaborative economy (Putnam 2000). This reach the point risen by Janes Surowiecki (2013) with the notion

of “Wisdom of crowds” This concept address the issue of how people can voluntarily make their actions fit together in an efficient and orderly way.

Brand communities illustrate community phenomenon within the b to c marketplace and match ownership and sharing. (Mathwick, et al. 2008) This might be the first step toward the increase of sharing economy in the western countries. In this case, ownership is kept, but members increase the enjoyment by sharing their interest about particular brand. Same phenomenon can be found with sport clubs and stars. (Belk 2010). In sharing practices, consumers often consider themselves as being members of multiple communities. (Wood and Judikis, 2002).

Community building illustrates the notion of the “comedy of the commons” (Bauwens 2006, Cline 2005). One example in order to explain this concept would be the learned language. Indeed, if one learns how to speak a particular language the more people speak this language, the more useful it is. Belk (2010) highlights this idea, “the benefits grow exponentially as more people share”. Botsman (2010) calls it “the critical mass”. Belk (2010) adds that thanks to new technology, sharing something does not mean loosing it anymore. This communicative aspect of sharing (John 2013) reveals a change in the western mind-set and leads for collaborative platform users to get a comparative advantage over users from regular markets. Having this comparative advantage makes people around collaborative users keener to be collaborative as well. (Axerold 2000). So interests from users as well as skills from providers are also drivers of community (Durkheim 1964), which is even truer in an Internet based-community. (Albinsson and Perera 2009).

Financial motivations:

Some motivations regarding consumer behaviour within the collaborative consumption can be seen as financial motivations. Hamari et al. (2013) underpin situation when writing, “some users in sharing economy might be altruistic while the other users may be mostly just enjoying benefits from other’s sharing”. As a matter of fact some collaborative platform users want to earn money (Botsman 2010) or save money. (Ipsos 2013). These utilitarianism motivations (Belk 2010) could be a survival

tactic to enhance their situation (Belk 2010) or a search of comparative advantage compare to normal market users. (Botsman 2010)

Survival tactics might be illustrated by the fact that collaborative platform users have more often monetary restriction than the others. (Gansky 2010). Redistribution market consists for them both to sell items, which have no longer utility for them (Botsman 2010) and buy less expensive items. This process does not lead to an extended self but at least oblige people to interact each other. This is sharing by necessity. (Belk 2010).

On the other side, the notion of comparative advantage is allowed by the emergence of the Internet. Indeed, by making it more convenient, the Internet has reduced the transactional cost, which embeds price, time spending and logistic aspect, within second alternative marketplaces. (Botsman 2010).

To understand phenomenon empowered Utilitarianism motivations notions of providers and users can be distinguished. Providers within the collaborative consumption are described as “mini entrepreneurs” (Botsman 2010). Through this phenomenon consumers become actors (Gansky 2010) and generate revenue as well as value, which leads Bauwens (2006) to considerate P2P marketplace as an entrepreneurship field able to change the society. This behaviour is not basically a ‘sharing in’ behaviour (Belk 2010). Providers are more dealing with users than giving or sharing, which could be seen as a “commodity exchange”. (Belk 2010).

However, within the collaborative consumption providers and users might be a same person who acts as a provider during one interaction and user during another. In that perspective the term “Prosumption” seem to be accurate. (Ritzer and Jugenson 2010, Benkler 2006).

So the relationship between buyers and sellers is dramatically changing within the collaborative consumption. (Botsman 2010).

Practical motivations

Practical motivations have been mentioned in the previous subsets with the notion of convenience (Botsman 2010). This phenomenon could be enhanced by a former negative experience in a traditional market. (Sandikci and Ekici 2009). These practical motivations are enabled by reciprocity expectations, which occur in sharing practices (Belk 2010). Reciprocity expectations allow to distinguish gift giving and economic exchange. The different between these two concepts is the time delay between the gift and the reciprocity. (Bourdieu 1972/1979). In a collaborative consumption could be seen as gift economy (Belk 2010). This could explain the ‘good behaviour’ of users toward each other. Godbout and Caillé (1998) support this idea of debt and repayment, which explain why users of Collaborative consumption behave in a good way without any control. The rule for reciprocation allows one individual to “give something to another with confidence that it is not being lost” (Cialdini 2003), which involves, continuing relationship, transactions, and exchanges. In collaborative consumption perspective, reciprocity is indirect, in other word, “I will help you, and someone else helps me” (Botsman 2010). This coincidence of wants is a main motivation of users since user must want what the other is offering. (Botsman 2010)

Cultural perspectives:

Cultural perspective is interesting when it comes to understand alternative marketplaces (Albinson et al. 2010) such as collaborative consumption.

Indeed, culture fuels numerous norms and values, which can impact the consumer behaviour when sharing in a distributive logic (John 2013). As a matter of fact, there is a trade-off between sharing and owning and some cultures are highly tied to the feeling of possessiveness. (Belk 2010) A culture with a high feeling of control and possession will be reluctant to share. (Kleine et al. 2004). This kind of culture whether is called materialism (Belk 2010) or individualism (Hofstede 1980) can prevent its members from sharing. Indeed, in materialist perspective, belongings are more important than people’ help. (Richins and Dawson 1992). Moreover, the possessiveness and individualism within western countries (Tuan 1982) undermine sharing processes (Deetz 1980).

Other thing that inhibits people from western countries to get involved in the collaborative consumption is the avoidance to be dependent toward others. (Belk 2010). Dependence, which is appreciate in Asian and avoided in USA impact the willingness to share (Markus and Kitayama 1991).

However, collaborative economy, which is fuelled by sharing practices, has appeared in western countries. The phenomenon might be explained by 2 elements. First-of-all, during the childhood, children of the western countries are used to share their stuffs but when they grow up, sharing outside the family scope is unusual. (Belk 2010). Second-of-all, intercultural approach is not enough to understand people's motivations since psychological perspective occurs when sharing and this is not influenced by culture. (Belk 2010)

Curiousness motivations:

Eventually another category of motivations can be distinguished. Indeed users of sharing practice seek high-risk experience to learn something new. (Bauwens 2006) They are curious (Van de Glind 2013) and by adopting an “antifragile” attitude (Taleb 2012), which means not being afraid of an unknown situation, want to fulfil their “basic needs for competence” (White 1959). This phenomenon leads to recommendations made by these “early adopters” (Everett et al. 2003), which allows collaborative consumption to attract more users. This category of motivation could be seen as an affect process regarding motivation (Eccles et al. 2002). Users feel the need to try something new without an important reflective process.

table 7. Classification of motivation within the collaborative consumption.

	Motives	Intrinsic / sharing in	Extrinsic / sharing out	Outcomes
Individual motivations (Ipsos 2013)	Practical		<p>Negative experience in traditional market (Sandikci et al. 2009)</p> <p>Utilitarianism (Belk 2010)</p> <p>Reciprocity expectations (Belk 2010 Cialdini 2003)</p> <p>Debt and repayment (Godhout et al. 1998)</p>	<p>Convenience (Botsman 2010)</p> <p>Comparative advantages (Botsman 2010)</p> <p>Gift economy (Belk 2010)</p>
	Financial		<p>Crisis, buying cheaper, saving money (Bigot et al. 2104, Van de Glind 2013, Botsman 2011, Hamari et al. 20013, Ipsos 2013)</p> <p>Earning money (Botsman 2010),</p> <p>Utilitarianism (Belk 2010)</p>	<p>Survival tactics (Belk 2010),</p> <p>Sharing by necessity (Belk 2010),</p> <p>Comparative advantage (Botsman 2010),</p> <p>Commodity exchange (Belk 2010)</p> <p>Mini-entrepreneurs (Botsman 2010, Gandsky 2010, Bauwens 2006)</p> <p>Prosumption (Ritzer and Jugenson 2010, Benkler 2006).</p>
	Curiousness	<p>Enjoyment of finding (Van De Glind 2013)</p> <p>Antifragile attitude (Taled 2012)</p> <p>Basic needs of competences (White 1959); try something new (Bauwens 2006)</p>		<p>Consumer behavior based of feelings more than reflection. (Eccles et al. 2002)</p> <p>Recommendation by early adopters (Everett M.Rogers 2003)</p>
Collective motivations (Ipsos 2013)	Social	<p>Believe in common (Botsman 2010)</p> <p>helping and being help (Van De Glind 2013)</p> <p>meaningful experience (Belk 2010, Gansky 2010, Botsman 2010)</p> <p>leaky self (Gregson et al. 2003)</p> <p>improvement of well being (Albinson and Perera 2009, Botsman 2010, Sheth et al.2011)</p>	<p>Online communities keener to “share out” than “share in” (Belk 2010).</p> <p>Word-of-mouth (Bughin et al.2008)</p> <p>Trust in peer recommendations (Qualman 2012)</p>	<p>Reciprocity (Putnam 2000), interdependence (Selznick 1992)</p> <p>Community (Gusfield 1975, Lee et al. 1983, Putnam 2000)</p> <p>Communal sharing (Fiske et al. 1991, exchange relationship (Clark et al. 1979, 1993)</p> <p>Social capital (Putnam 2000) commodity of common (Bauwens 2006, Cline 2005) Member of several communities (Wood and Judikis 2002)</p>
	Environmental	<p>Use of idling capacity (Botsman 2010, Van de Glind 2013)</p> <p>Sustainable consumption (Obsoco 2012; IPSOS 2013).</p>	<p>Global warming rewarded in many domain (Crompton et al. 2010)</p>	<p>Arise of Global mind-set. (Botsman 2010, Van de Glind 2013, Kurch)</p>
	Cultural	<p>Psychological perspective (Belk 2010)</p>	<p>Sharing lead by cultural norms (John 2013) low level of possessiveness (Kleine and Baker 2004)</p>	<p>Some cultures are keener to share than other (Kleine et al. 2004)</p> <p>Dependence acceptance (Markus et al. 1991)</p>

This classification allows researchers to understand consumer behaviour within the collaborative economy by proposing a useful framework when it comes to depicting users' motivations. However, a perfect understanding of consumer behaviour within these alternative marketplaces needs to focus on notions such as Trust, experiences and confidences. The following subset will present these concepts and will offer a framework to measure them in the empirical part of the study.

3.2. Experience and confidence in collaborative economy:

Trust is one of the most important things in collaborative economy. (Botsman 2010). This concept is tied to relationship and network concepts. Therefore concepts of relationship and network will be considered, then the notion of trust within a network will be introduced.

Trust building:

Trust is an element of a good relationship. Relationship between economical agents can be described as process including 3 dimensions (Häkanson 1987), which are actors, activities and resources. The following table sums up the ARA model.

table 8. 3 dimensions of business relationship

Actors	Activities	Resources
Actors perform activities	Activities link resources	Actors control resources

According to this model, agents have specific goals when it comes to building relationship. (Häkanson 1987). Actors want to perform activities and need resources to make that. When resources are lacking within the organisation, economic actors have to find these resources within their network. This phenomenon is called social capital approach, which is “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through and derived from the network of relationships”. (Coleman 1988). Field about the building of strategic network is very well documented

(Partanen and Moller 2012) since firms need this network to be efficient (Partanen and Moller 2012). 4 models of relationship within a network can be used; they are: communal sharing, authority ranking, equality matching or market pricing. (Fiske 1991).

However, trust within a network, regardless the kind of network, is not easy to master, some tensions can occur. According to Jarillo (1988), the explanatory factors of relationship within a network can be divided into 3 categories: Relationship qualities, relationship tensions, and relationship functions.

table 9. Tension based view on business relationship:

Relationship qualities	Relationship tensions	Relationship functions
Trust, commitment	Behavioural, structural, psychological tensions	Direct, indirect functions.

According to this table agents are keener to interact if commitment and trust have a high level. Tensions can occur between organisations and decrease commitment and trust. Behavioural and psychological tensions are more useful to describe collaborative consumer behaviour than structural tensions. These tensions are called the dark side of relationships (Fang et al. 2008)

To avoid these tensions trust is required, scholars underline 3 types of trust within a network, affect-based trust, cognitive based trust (Johnson et al. 2005), and calculus based trust (Lewicki et al. 1996). According to Jeffries and Reed (2000) an affect-based trust is based on emotional attachment, care, and concern for the other party's welfare. So emotional approach triggers this kind of trust, which enhances bonds between individuals. In another perspective, Kanawattanachai and yoo (2002) support the existence of cognitive-based trust. This is linked with expectations of technical competency and is based on predictability, past behaviour and reliability. More communication enhances this kind of trust. This subset of trust needs trustworthy

behaviour from stakeholders. As a matter of fact, trust is only an answer to trustworthiness. (O'neil 2013). A rational person trusts a particular person for a particular task. For instance, a teacher will be trusted for a teaching task not for driving a bus. (O'neil 2013). Trustworthy is obtained by assessing competency, honesty and reliability of a person, and then trust can occur. Therefore the challenge in collaborative consumption seems to be enhancing trustworthy attitudes. Calculus based trust can also occur in a relationship between two agents in a network and it appears from "calculative reasoning" about pros and cons. (Nielsen 2011). In that context, transaction costs theory is helpful to understand the reason of calculus based trust emergence. Transaction costs is composed of the cost of information's availability, negotiation costs, policing and implementation costs. (Coase 1960, Williamson 2002). An individual can choose to trust someone since his collaboration can decrease the transaction costs.

This subset shows that trust between individuals can be numerous. The next chapter will study the concept of confidence, which is strongly related to trust notion.

Confidence conceptualisation

Confidence can be seen, as a belief however is more relevant to consider belief as a part of the confidence building process. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). Confidence is based on belief tied to past experiences. As a result, certainty in the future rises in consumer's mind. (Earle 2009). Confidence can be observed through self-confidence perspective, which is, according to White (2009) the extent to which an individual believe in positive achievement of a given situation.

In consumer behaviour perspective, understanding consumer decision-making and actions are essential. The first step regarding consumer behaviour is comparison. When it comes to comparing alternatives, consumers follow many stages. Firstly, what alternatives exist? Secondly, which criteria will be useful for comparison? Thirdly, how performance can be rated? Fourthly, what decision pattern to apply? (Engel, Blackwell and miniard, 1993). As a matter of fact, decision process is composed of several steps interrelated (O'brien 1971). Each factor influences each other, and confidence occurs in every factor. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia

2014). (See table: *Confidence regarding consumer behaviour*). In that perspective, confidence acts as a “conviction-prediction state” which determines consumer-behaviour. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). So studying confidence helps to understand how consumer behaviour born and changed.

table 10. Confidence regarding consumer behaviour

Normal aspects of consumer behaviour
Attitudes and behaviour,
Satisfaction and loyalty,
Purchase and cognitive dissonance
Opinion leadership and word of mouth communication
Advertising and persuasion
Environmental concern and environmentally conscious behaviour
Product use and choice behaviour
Congruity effects and product image perceptions
Organisations and the public
Perceived risk and buying intentions
Information characteristics and product evaluation

As this table shows, confidence occurs in every category so confidence is a useful aspect in order to understand consumer behaviour. For example, in might be interesting to understand the degree of confidence involves in satisfaction and loyalty. Likewise, in every market interactions, confidence occurs (Martinez and Santiso,

2003). Confidence is seen as an influential factor of purchasing process (Bennett and Harrell, 1975) since confidence permits behaviours rooted by beliefs to become real. (Gill, Swann, and Silvera, 1998). Locander and Hermann (1979) enhance this idea when it comes to considering confidence as a search of information in order to decrease purchasing uncertainty. This certainty increases consumer satisfaction. (Spreng and Page, 2001). In that perspective, understanding confidence and its antecedents might provide a useful insight in collaborative experiences from users.

However, scholars have found many difficulties to conceptualise confidence. (Simintiras, et al. 2014). As reported by Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia (2014) theoretical development is lacking when it comes to defining confidence. One of the most issues in confidence's conceptualisation is that trust and confidence are not exactly the same. Although both are based on expectations processes, some elements are different. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014).

Rousseau et al. (1998, p.395) define trust as following “*a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another*”. Some scholars define confidence in terms of trust (de Jonge et al. 2004) and trust in terms of confidence (Moorman, Zaltman, and Desphande 1992; Morgan and Hunt 1994). Actually, processes are not based on the same mind-set (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). In order to be clear, a summary is provided in the following table.

table 11. Difference between confidence and trust in consumer behaviour research

	Trust	Confidence
Definition	"A psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another" Rousseau et al. (1998, p.395)	"Refers to recognised patterns in abilities and/or self efficacy beliefs that are ascertained at present and become anticipatory. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014)
Common points	Expectations, anticipatory	Expectations, anticipatory
Anticipating points	Rely on others (Bart, Shankar, Sultan, & Urban, 2005; Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998; Moorman, Zaltman, & Desphande, 1992; Scheer, 2012)	Rely on patterns (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014)
Situation	High vulnerability, low familiarity (Luhmann, 2000; Seligman, 1998)	High certainty, high familiarity
Conditioning	Projective conditioning (i.e. expectation of others' reactions, behaviour)	Reflective conditioning (i.e. the invariance of past patterns concerning outcomes of accepting vulnerability).
Mind set	Certainty that someone will behave as expected	Conviction that one's behaviour will predictably follow pre-established patterns

Findings of this table show that confidence mind-set is tied to certainty in a particular situation based on former-patterns whereas trust refers to expectation of other's behaviour. Therefore Confidence is a more comfortable mind-set than trust.

As seen, confidence is needed for any market exchange and trade. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). In order to study confidence in marketing perspective scholars need to get a clear definition of this concept. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney,

K.Bahia 2014). Confidence is based on “pattern invariance recognition” (i.e. reflective conditioning) and anticipatory reflection (i.e. in foresight). Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia (2014) consider “*confidence as recognised patterns generated through recurrent episodes, thoughts and/or feelings, along with the conviction that pattern invariance can be anticipated*”. In short, confidence is about keeping the sureness in pattern repetition in every situation.

table 12. Summary of confidence’s conceptualisation (According to Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014)

Terms	Confidence	Reflective conditioning	Foresight
Frame		The past in the present (i.e. patterns recognition), and immediate present (i.e. certainty propensities)	Future in present.
Definition	Recognised patterns generated through recurrent episodes, thoughts and/or feelings, along with the conviction that pattern invariance can be anticipated	Pattern invariance recognition: result of a thoughtful consideration, which embeds memory.	Anticipatory reflection

As table shows, confidence is a feeling of certainty in pattern recurrence in present time. It is the result of a reflective conditioning. (Simintiras et al. 2014), Confidence starts to be meaningful for consumer behaviour when conviction in recurrence becomes anticipatory. (Simintiras et al. 2014). This foresight acquired by consumers embeds past experiences, hindsight, and ability to learn from past events. In short, reflective conditioning is a remembering of experiences, knowledge, beliefs, and behaviour for pattern recognition. (Conway 2001).

All these arguments lead Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia (2014) to a first conceptualization of confidence with 3 defining components: “*constancy in patterns, certainty propensities and anticipatory reflection*”. More precisely confidence is a reflexion about stability of patterns tied to a high rate of certainties due to events of one’s experiences, objects, or others. Anticipatory, which builds confidence, might

take place when invariance is found in patterns. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014)

Definition of confidence is not enough for a consumer behaviour research use. Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia (2014) stress that confidence is a conviction in anticipation of past patterns. In that perspective, studying how past patterns are built is useful. Scholars have alleged many antecedents.

For instance, Interactions with agents enhance confidence in doing business together. (Harter 1978). Confidence has got also its roots from the amount of information available for an individual. This information could come from many sources such as “vicarious experiences, social influences, and physiological feedback” (Bandura 1977). So interpretation of this information with perception of one’s ability and proven record in a particular field reinforce confidence. (Stajkovic, 2006).

Antecedents of confidence depend on the context studied. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). Consumer behaviour context focuses on the former market experience and knowledge as main antecedents whereas in partner relationship perspective, trust and perceived control are prevailing. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). For a better understanding antecedents of confidence can be split into 3 categories, cognisance factors, idiosyncratic factors and situational factors.

table 13. Antecedents of confidence (from Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014 table).

Category	Antecedents	Studies
Cognisance factors	Past experience	Bearden, Hardesty, and rose (2001); Stajkovic (2006); white (2009)
	Knowledge	Biswas and Sherrell (1993); O'cass (2004)
	Familiarity	Flanagan, Johnston, and Talbot (2005); Iaroche, Kim, and Zhou (1996); Siegrist, Gutscher, and Earle (2005)
Idiosyncratic factors	Perceived control	Das and Teng (1998); Hanton and Connaughton (2002); Cofta (2007)
	Self-efficacy	Tafarodi, Mehranvar, Pantan, and Milne (2002); Bekkers (2006); Glidewell and Livert (1992)
	Self-esteem	Langer (1983); Obermiller and Spangerberg (1998)
	Dominance	Lorr (1991)
	Responsibility	Radomsky, Rachman, and Hammond (2001)
	Trust	Das and Teng (1998); Bekkers (2006); de Jonge, van trijp, Renes, and Frewer (2007); Cofta (2007)
	Ease of retrieval effects	Tormala, Petty, and Brinol (2002)
	Outcome expectancies	Feldman (2000); Tafarodi et al. (2002)
Situational factors	Evidence	Koriat, Lichtenstein, and Fischhoff (1980); Giffin and Tversky (1992)
	Information	Peterson and Pitz (1988); Berger (1992); Smith and Swinyard (1988) Feldman (2002).
	Repetition	Foster, Hutwaite, Yesberg, Garry, and Loftus (2012); Stajkovic (2006)
	Influence of others	Bekkers (2006)

Cognisance factors refer to “one’s background”, idiosyncratic factors refer to “psychological aspects”, and situational factors refer to “external factors”.

Confidence reach in some extent definition of mental travel lay down by Suddendorf and Corbalis (2007) indeed confidence is not necessarily lie in a reality. (Metcalf 1998) Suddendorf and Corbalis, (2007, p.299) use noetic travelling concept in order to explain antecedent of confidence based on past experiences. Noetic travelling can

be described as a memory recollection which summons patterns while reconstructing past events.

To sum up this chapter, trust is essential for interactions in a network especially in a P2P marketplace, however trust and confidence has to be differentiated, as trust does not involve the same characteristics as confidence. Based on that differentiation researcher aims at finding what antecedences occur when it comes to building confidence within a collaborative platform.

3.3. Summary of theoretical part and final outcomes

The theoretical part indicates that although collaborative consumption has a fuzzy definition it embeds alternative marketplaces fuelled by trust feeling and mostly based on the emergence of the Internet, which allows connections among individuals.

Motivations to use collaborative platform are numerous from Intrinsic to extrinsic motivations. Furthermore these motivations can evolve while experience and confidence is enhanced. Confidence matter raises many issues, which can suggest research orientations.

Indeed to determine in which extent confidence occur in collaborative consumption, the decision making within this marketplace needs to be estimated. If users follow an affect-driven decision making wherein feelings experienced prevailed (Schiffman and Kanuk 2007) confidence and experience can be highly tied. On the other side, if users base their choice on reflective-driven decision making information and confidence are likely to be more tied than confidence and experience. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014)

Furthermore this study might aim at estimating whether collaborative consumption platforms users belong to self-confidence consumers or not as this can influence the level of needed information regarding purchasing process. Indeed “confidence reflects what we think we know.” (Alba and Hutchinson 2000, p.123). As this is subjective information (Park and Lessig 1981) the perception of information (Stajkovic 2006) might be strong for a self-confident consumer and weak for a non-confident one for

the same level of information. Likewise, a self-confident has the conviction of mastering everything which leads to confidence (Siegrist, Gutscher, and Earle, 2005)

Another interesting reflexion would be regarding the characteristic of collaborative service purchase. Indeed, estimating whether collaborative service purchase is a fully, partially or unplanned purchase might impact the level of confidence required to use the service. (Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia 2014). Also, determining whether collaborative consumption users belong to the early adopter category might impact the level of confidence required since other components such as innovativeness could occur when buying. (kamp, Hofstede, and Wedel 1999) This antifragile attitude (Nassim Nicholas Taleb 2012) which implies uncertainty acceptance seem to be the opposite of confidence and worth to be investigated. As illustrated in the following table, confidence measurement/conceptualisation needs to both rely on specific context and invariable defining components.

table 14. Theoretical framework of collaborative consumption experience.

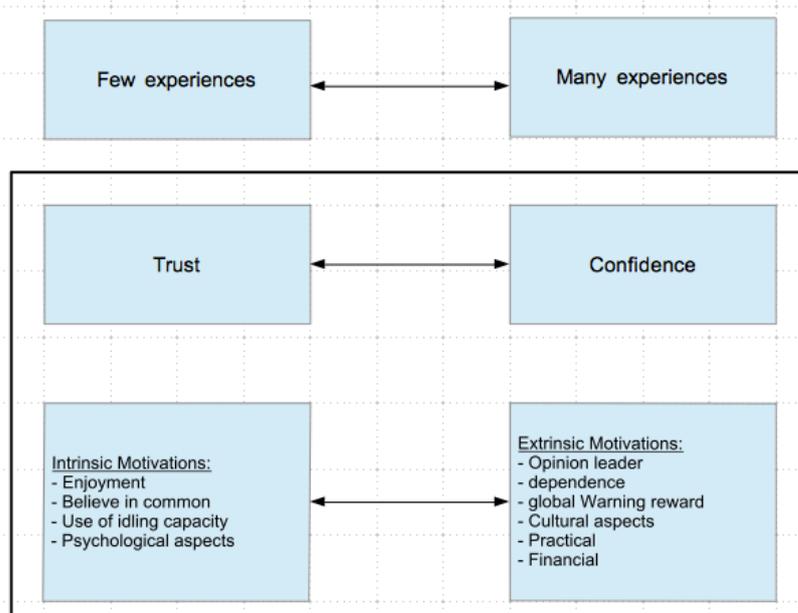


table 15. Confidence within different areas:

	Doctor context	Consumer behaviour	Collaborative consumer behaviour
Pattern recognition	Based on knowledge, past experienced.	Based on information, social influence, feeling	Define thanks to empirical study
Pattern invariance	Judgment based on responsibility, evidences.	Message relevancy, repetition	Define thanks to empirical study
Anticipatory pattern recurrence	No difference expects the importance of matters regarding the context.		Define thanks to empirical study

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter will insist on the methodology followed by this study according to the research question and objectives. The choice of this methodology will be explain as well as the gathering of data. Then, sample will be analysed. Eventually, the issues of reliability and validity will be introduced.

4.1. Methodological approaches

In this thesis qualitative approach has been chosen because researcher wants to find and reveal facts (Saunders et al. 2007). Consumer behaviour is a real life field and analysis is based on assumptions stating that reality embeds many factors and situations are linked to each other. (Saunders et al. 2007).

As qualitative approach is very demanding in terms of scientific reliability as well as validity, every steps of scientific building perspective has been followed. Theoretical background has been built, in order to guide the data gathering. (Saunders et al. 2007). This conceptual understanding will provide a clear description of situations in real life, by having a comprehensive view, and revealing facts. Phenomenon will be described thanks to interpretation and meaning giving, which is composed of theoretically decent interpretations and collected data. (Saunders et al.2007).

4.2. Data collection

Secondary as well as primary data have been gathered in this study. Secondary data regarding the empirical part describe the collaborative platform studied, which is called BlaBlaCar. The choice of this particular platform will be explained in the next section. BlaBlaCar website has been depicted and data from owner's interview have been used in order to understand processes of BlaBlaCar platform. Eventually, findings from previous surveys carry out by BlaBlaCar have described.

Primary Data has been collected from 5 semi-structural interviews carried out towards car-sharing consumers from different countries. Semi-structural interviews are

relevant in that situation since “questions are either complex or open-ended” (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill 2009). The other advantage of the semi-structural interview is to think out of the box which makes possible exploring topics no mentioned in the heuristic framework. (Saunders et al.2007:312).

Themes were listed in order to make semi-structured interviews more flexible. By this way questions can vary from on to another interview. To gather the data researcher has used audio recording as well as notes written during the interview.

The interviews lasted from 23:04 to 34:07. Two interviews have been made twice in order to have an in-depth analysis about consumer behaviour. Respondents are sum up in the following table:

table 16. Respondents list

Nationality	Age	Gender	Frequency of car-sharing use	Media	Using platform
French	23	Male	Twice a month	Face-to-face	BlaBlaCar
French	24	Female	Twice	Face-to-face	BlaBlaCar
Italian	24	Female	Once a month	Skype	BlaBlaCar
Polish	22	Female	About 20 times	Face-to-face	BlaBlaCar
German	23	Female	Regularly	Skype	BlaBlaCar

4.3. Data analysis

Theoretical propositions led to interviews since no divergence has been found between notions mentioned in the theoretical part and empirical part, which is the preferred strategy for this kind of research. (Yin 2009: 130). In order to figure out what are the motivations of collaborative consumption users, motivations were categorised based on literature findings. So the intrinsic or extrinsic perspectives of collaborative users’ motivation have been used. Therefore practical, financial, curiousness, social, environmental, and cultural aspects of motivations have been the roots of this analysis. Then, a text search through interviews' transcriptions has been done. This process allows researcher to figure out the recurrence of a particular term

using within the different interview as well as the most representative quotations to illustrate the idea.

In order to understand antecedents of confidence in collaborative consumption perspective same process as collaborative consumption motivations has been followed. Antecedents of confidence has been categorised in three main factors, which are cognisance, idiosyncratic, and situational factors. In addition according to Simintiras, Yeniaras, Oney, K.Bahia (2014) differentiation between trust and confidence data coding was used in order to name the phenomenon, which occurs in collaborative consumption as whether confidence or trust.

Tackling the issue of experience's impact embeds recognition related notion with experience within interviews. This step has been done by a text search. Then reference findings have been used in order to highlight the most relevant quotations from interviews.

As collaborative consumption appears in many market researcher needed to focus on one of them. Indeed in a correspondence with Benjamin Edelman who writes about discrimination on AirBnB (2014), it has been stated the motivation as well as confidence are different according to contexts. For instance consumers want in a various way whether it is for a short-term apartment rental or sharing a ride. Therefore, researcher focus on car-sharing since is one of the most using collaborative services. Furthermore motivations within this collaborative service have been well documented by empirical survey carried out by main actors of the sector. Researcher has focused his analysis on secondary data gathered from BlaBlaCar's survey.

Moreover, researcher focused on people born between 1982 and 2000. Therefore they all belong to the Millennial generation. Millennials are more mixed so they are more open-minded. This trend is enhanced by the technological development. They have positive social habits. They work well and they want to build communities. (Howe and Strauss 2000). Research decided to interview only this generation to highlight potential cultural differences, all other factors being equal, when it comes to using car-sharing platform. Robinson (2008) claims that Millennials have their proper values fuelled by the raise of new technologies and a racially mixed component.

Millennials “interact each other across national boundaries”. However some cultural differences still remain. (Robinson 2008). Scholars assign some main characteristics to Millennials. Although, they are open-minded, they are narcissist. This personality trait prevents Millennials from have close relationships whereas “they strongly desire social contact” (Campbell, Rudich and Sedikides 2002). This character trait has to be taken into account when interviewing Millennials. Following these characteristics Millennials might be less afraid of using services provided by strangers as far as these services enable them to have more social contacts.

Respondents have been chosen regarding their nationality, age, BlaBlaCar use and availabilities. They all belong to the researcher’s social network.

4.4. Validity of this study:

The validity of this study was guarantee through many aspects such as triangulation and process validity. According to Simintiras and al. (2014), “selecting items without carefully specifying the conceptual domain of the construct under investigation is problematic”. Therefore, triangulation including data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and method triangulation has been applied.

Data triangulation has been reached thanks to numerous sources of evidence regarding motivations, notion of confidences and trust with the consumer behaviour lenses and especially within the collaborative consumption marketplace. Sources used were mainly scientific reviews and empirical surveys.

Empirical surveys allowed the researcher to enhance the validity of this study. As a matter of fact, several findings from different empirical surveys regarding collaborative platform users’ motivations have been gathered. Therefore data gathered thanks to interviews have been compared with previous qualitative and quantitative studies tackling the same topic.

Theories regarding both motivations within collaborative consumption and notions of confidence and trust within the consumer behaviour have been confronted to allow

the theory triangulation. Indeed every item is related to each other in social sciences (Locke 2012) only a theory triangulation allows to clarify components of concepts.

Likewise, researcher aimed at using different methods to permit method triangulation through secondary data gathering regarding the specific car-sharing platform studied while primary data were drawn on interviewees' answers. A particular attention was paid on clarification of question, and variety of angles taken regarding responses and topics. (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill 2009)

Moreover the validity of process has been taken into account through a "chain of evidence" which means that interviews were recorded and followed an interview guide.

4.5. Reliability of the study:

Reliability refers to the extent to which consistent findings will be obtained due to data collection and analysis following established rules. (Easterby-smith et al 2008). It also refers to the fact that alternative research could lead to the same result. (Easterby-smith et al 2008, Silverman 2007). Bias needs to be avoided such as interviewer bias due to his non-verbal behaviour or misinterpretations of the findings. (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). All these concerns will be discuss in the following subset.

These semi-structural interviews are not so standardised, therefore there is concern about the reliability. (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill 2009). Moreover, this qualitative based interview study cannot be generalised since small and unrepresentative number of cases are used. (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill 2009). However interview is a purposeful interaction between two or more people (Kahn and Cannell 1957), which can provide consistent results in an in explanatory way (Cooper and Schindler 2008) as followed in that study. A particular emphasis was made regarding trustworthiness of findings (Kovalainen & Eriksson 2008)

Interviewee bias could happen. Sometimes subjects are sensitive so interviewees do not want to tell all the truth. (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill 2009). In collaborative

consumption perspective, interviewees' bias can rise responders are keen to provide "socially desirable" answers. (Van de Glind 2013). This issue was overcome since only car-sharing platform users were interviewed.

In order to manage the reliability of this study, research design was explained, the reason of this choice was mentioned, method was discussed and data obtained were described and explained according to Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill (2009) requirements. This ensures the trustworthiness (Kovalainen et al. 2008) of the findings.

The preparation of the interviews followed the "five Ps" rule provided by Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill (2009), which is "Prior planning prevents poor performance". Credibility and confidence were taken into account during that process.

In order to raise credibility towards responders some steps have been made. Firstly, researcher explains in a clear way the new concept of collaborative consumption at the beginning of the interview. Making concepts clearer have an impact on reliability of findings because it avoids interviewee bias. Furthermore researcher seems to be an expert in responders' mind, which raises the credibility. Likewise, Each interviewee was aware of the subject studied so that credibility rose (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill 2009). E-mail was sent in order to let them enough time to be prepared for interview. The logic and the language used in the guide were previously checked by a pre-interview.

Interviews were carried out for most of them on Skype. Responders were often at home. So data collection can be influenced by the location according to Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill (2009). This choice was based on convenient criteria as well as confidence criteria. Responders belong to the millennial generation as the interviewer; therefore appropriateness of the researcher's appearance (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill 2009) was not an issue.

Gestures rules have been followed during interview according to Robson (2002) and (Torrington 1991). Researcher listened to responders very carefully and rephrased question if necessary. Explanations and meanings were assessed according to Easterby-Smith et al. (2008); Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005); Robson (2002).

Interviewer rephrased explanations given by responders in order to avoid bias. This mechanism reaches the idea provided by Healey and Rawlinson (1994).

Observer bias (Robson 2002) could occur due to the lack of strong definition of notions studied as well as methodology used to analyse data. Researcher drew his attention on depict clearly each notion studied and based interviews' finding interpretation on theory assumptions. Quotations have been mentioned to reflect precisely the reality.

5 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This the empirical part focuses on BlaBlaCar website. BlaBlacar is a car-sharing platform wherein people can find or offer a ride. By comparing data collected from BlaBlaCar website with data gathered from interviews, this study is able to depict consumer behaviour within the car-sharing economy.

5.1. Overview of BlaBlaCar's platform.

BlaBlaCar has been chosen because it has the most important users in Europe with a community of 9 million members. This large-scale car-sharing organisation can be seen as a marketplace wherein sharing out (Belk 2010) occurs, which means that members share due to utilitarianism considerations (Belk 2010).

Likewise BlaBlaCar has been launched in many markets over the past few years which enable interviewing users from different countries. The following figures are based on information available on BlaBlaCar website. In addition, Frédéric Mazzella, the founder of BlaBlaCar, has given many interviews available online regarding his company.

As mentioned above, BlaBlaCar has the most important community regarding car sharing in Europe. Its platform has been launched in 11 countries. (Germany, UK, Spain, France, Italy, Netherland, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Ukraine and Turquie). As Frédéric Mazzella acknowledges, the BlaBlaCar web site has changed its ergonomics several times in order to deal with members' expectations and economical needs. BlaBlaCar earns money for every seat booked. The success of the web site highlights pillars given by Botsman (2010). First-of-all, BlaBlaCar was looking for the critical mass during its first years. (Mazzella 2012). As a matter of fact, the priority was to provide a wide range of trips to fulfil customers' requirements. Second-of-all, trust within the community was essential. Building this trust within the online community was Mazzella's main challenge. (Frédéric Mazzella 2012). The issue at this stage was to make consumers understand that a stranger could be a trustworthy man and they

succeed on it. (Mazzella and Marzloff 2012). Trustworthiness is indeed necessary to build trust. (O'neil 2014). Trustworthiness is seriously taking into account by BlaBlaCar since the front page of its web site mentions the element provided by the company to fuel trustworthy feeling. BlaBlaCar manages to build it by comments, rates given by users as well as verified profiles by the company. (BlaBlaCar front page 2014)

In a survey carried out in 2012 from 631 responders with 72% below 35 years and 54 of male, the issue of trust was stressed. (Mazzella and Marzloff 2012). In a general context people trust friend and family member more than neighbours and even more strangers. However, within the BlaBlaCar community a complete profile is almost as trusted as a family member or a friends. In a scale of trust from 0 to 5. Strangers with a complete profile is trusted at 4,2 family member at 4,6 and friends 4,7. These findings highlight the power of the shared information within the platform. A complete profile means that there is a positive rating, with verified number and photo. "BlaBlaCar has effectively recreated the conditions of trust" (BlaBlaCar and Chronos 2012 p 5). This need of a large scale of information available was acknowledged by Edelman and Luca (2014) and can conduct to discrimination behaviour. Neither BlaBlaCar website nor Mazzella's interview tackle this issue however BlaBlaCar takes into consideration the necessity of having a middleman able to regulate the community. (BlaBlaCar and Chronos 2012).

Besides, BlaBlaCar and Chronos' survey (2012) stresses the point of motivation when it comes to sharing. In the motivations perspective, survey shows the notion of saving represents 84% of responses while friendliness is the second motivation at 52%. The starting point regarding collaborative services use has been also studied. (BlaBlaCar and Chronos 2012). Findings reveals that 2nd handed platform is the gateway to use collaborative services while about 6% of BlaBlaCar users have started to use other collaborative platforms after using BlaBlaCar.

In order to measure the ability of BlaBlaCar to handle the cultural differences, screenshot of BlaBlaCar's website are presented further. BlaBlaCar offers its service over countries, which are studied in this thesis. Version of the web site of UK, Italy,

Germany, Poland and France are exactly the same as illustrate the following screenshots.

Screen shot BlaBlaCar France



Screen shot BlaBlaCar Germany:



Screenshot of BlaBlaCar for Italy



Screenshot of BlaBlaCar for Poland:



These platforms have been shown during the interviews. Findings of this presentation will be discussed in the following section. Following part will describe more precisely the front page of BlaBlaCar's website.

These screenshots highlight that BlaBlaCar does not take into account cultural difference since its web site underpins same selling points which are: the high amount of travels provided by the community, e.g. notion of critical mass (Botsman 2010), which aims at making as easy as possible the use of its service. Moreover, the principle of car-sharing is explained which reveals that car-sharing is still an emerging market which moves from early adopters to early majority (Everett et al. 2003). This early majority represents a bigger scale, which is not aware of the process. This willingness to make car sharing understood by new users is enhanced by a YouTube video, which explains the principle of sharing a ride.

Besides explanations regarding car sharing, providers and takers are distinguished. They have a room in the front page dedicated to explanations and selling points for each of them. Convenience seems to be the main selling point since the BlaBlaCar's front page suggests the most popular trips in for each country. Likewise the application is shown as a facilitator of using the service. This focus illustrate Rachel Botsman' theory (2010) regarding the importance of convenient aspect within the collaborative consumption.

Prices are mentioned and highlighted which states that users are looking for bargains when it comes to sharing a ride.

5.2. Motivations within car sharing:

In this subpart, data gathered from interviews will be presented. To manage the quality of the findings theoretical and practical part will be confronted as well as primary and secondary data. The categorisation follows the distinction made by (Eccles et al. 2002) regarding extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. Extrinsic motivations are presented firstly since they were the first motivations evoked by respondents.

5.2.1. Extrinsic motivations

Financial motivations can be seen as of the main element when it comes to sharing. (Bigot et al. 2014, Van de Glind 2013, Hamari et al. 2013, Botsman 2010). In a correspondence with Edelman (2014) safety and lower price appear common within all collaborative services. The following quotations underpinned this claim.

“It is great because it is cheaper than plane and train”. [French girl]

“It is very cheap compare to train”. [Italian Girl]

“I started to use car-sharing because price of train in France is too expensive”.

[]“I don't want to give any money to SNCF because they try to rip off customers”[French boy]

“I think car-sharing is a very good and very cheap idea”. [Polish girl]

“I guess it's a great opportunity of travelling fast and cheap”. [German Girl]

Every respondent mentions financial motivations. This search of bargains is taken into account by BlaBlaCar since many elements on its web site's front page refers to low prices. Interestingly financial aspects in respondents' perspective are regarding saving money not earning money, which could lead to mini-entrepreneur behaviour. (Botsman 2010, Gandsky 2010, Bauwens 2006). This might be explained by the fact

that only the French Boy is sometimes a provider. Others are only users or takers (Hamari et al. 2013). Furthermore the financial benefit is often compared to other transport modes. For 3 of respondents car-sharing is compared to train and appeared cheaper. This finding is reinforced by economical actions. Indeed SNCF is now a shareholder of BlaBlaCar according to BlaBlaCar web site (2014), which underlines the fierce competition between this two transport modes. Plane is mentioned by one of the respondents and is also an alternative of car sharing since BlaBlaCar claims to specialise in long distance ride sharing. (BlaBlaCar web site 2014). Interestingly, the French boy mentions that SNCF “tries to rip off customers”. This allegation reaches the theory wherein negative experience in traditional markets can bring users to alternative marketplaces (Sandikci et al. 2009) such as car-sharing.

Practical motivations have also been stressed during the interviews. For 3 of respondents car sharing appears as a tailored transport mode. Respondents are looking for the flexibility enabled by peer-to-peer interaction within the car sharing they perceived the usefulness of the platform (Chen et al. 2008). Moreover the lack of alternatives for some travels obliged consumers to use car sharing. In this case, car sharing does not appear as a convenient alternative but rather than a necessity. This highlights the utilitarianism vision when it comes to sharing (Belk 2010) even more when alternatives do not exist which can be viewed as a “survival tactic”. (Belk 2010) The following quotations illustrate these findings.

“People are very arranging so it is convenient more than any other way of travelling”. [French Girl]

“The easiest way to go somewhere. For instance, in Spain or in Poland sometimes there is no train between two cities but there is a BlaBlaCar”. [Polish Girl]

“So it's quite realistic to find the perfect match for your planned trip”. [German girl]

So “convenient”, “arranging”, “easiest”, and “realistic” refer to this convenience discussed above. Nevertheless, French girl temper the convenient aspect compare to the money aspect in her decision making process.

Interestingly, for respondents collaborative services seem to be an alternative way of reaching their requirements. For instance the French girl says car-sharing is never her first choice when travelling. Respondents often make comparisons between traditional offers and these new offer. When prices are not so different or if they do not want to meet people, they chose traditional services.

Car sharing's fame also appears as an individual motivation (Ipsos 2013) in opposition to curiousness motivation stated by Van De Glind (2013). As a matter of fact, with more than 9 millions members (BlaBlaCar web site 2014) BlaBlaCar no longer attracts only early adopters but also early majority members, who are more fame sensitive. BlaBlaCar uses multichannel communication to increase its fame. (BlaBlaCar's Website 2014). At this point, recommendations from early adopters are decisive (Everett M.Roger 2003). This extrinsic motivation could be seen whether as curiousness if the social network's pressure is low or extrinsic social motivation if social network's pressure is high. Pressure in this context means recommendations. First-of-all, the following quotations highlight the impact of fame toward respondents.

“BlaBlaCar was the only platform I knew”. [Italian Girl]

“I have never had a look of any other competitors, I think this is the most famous”. [French Boy]

“I chose BlaBlaCar because it is the most popular web site”. [Polish Girl]

For respondents' point of view, fame allows them to choose one particular car-sharing platform. However when speaking about car-sharing in general, the decisive factor for using this service is recommendations from friends. As explained before, social pressure through recommendation has an impact on car sharing use. This is an illustration regarding the power of word-of-mouth (Bandura 1977). In friends' recommendations perspective, the impact is even more powerful. Indeed, respondents value their network especially friends as a trustworthy source as the following quotations show.

“They [friends] advice me to use BlaBlaCar so I trust them”. [Italian Girl]

“I Chose BlaBlaCar just because of advice from my friends”. [French Boy]

“My friends in Spain recommended me this web site and another but I chose this one”. [Polish Girl]

“A friend of mine suggested me to try out car-sharing”. [German Girl]

So friends' recommendations are decisive when it comes to starting car-sharing. This phenomenon is supported by a French survey carried out by TNS (2013), which stipulates French trust at 93% their friends as much as their family. In that case, Friends are influencers. Family and friends act like a catalyst for users of car-sharing. This means respondents have started to use car-sharing since their family or their friend recommend it. However the level of confidence regarding car-sharing, at this step, is not so high.

This extrinsic motivations presentation points out the consumer's mind regarding car sharing. It supports the idea of a marketplace wherein sharing out occurs (Belk 2010). In that context, peer-to-peer interactions can be seen as a commodity exchange rather than a gift giving process (Belk 2010). However respondents took into account intrinsic motivations depicted in the following subpart.

5.2.2. Intrinsic motivations:

Extrinsic motivations are not the only elements playing a role during the decision-making process. Respondents claim that car-sharing is a good thing since sharing increase the enjoyment of the journey. This kind of motivations reaches the definition of intrinsic motivation (Eccles et al. 2002). These intrinsic motivations act as a factor of differentiation, which enables car-sharing companies to implement a blue ocean strategy (Kim and Mauborgne 2004). Indeed, respondents depict car-sharing experience as an offer not otherwise available (Edelman 2014) they perceive the supplement service quality (Chen and Corkindale 2008) as the following quotation shown:

“It is friendly because you can meet people speak with them so the trip appears not so long”. [French girl]

“A good way to meet people” [Italian girl]

“I like the idea of sharing a ride with people”. [French Boy]

“You can meet very nice people”. [Polish Girl]

“I took BlaBlaCar in Spain and I met 2 famous DJ, [...] I sent them an e-mail. They remember me. It is very amazing to meet some people like them during a ride”. [Polish Girl]

As a matter of fact, meeting people appeared as a main motivation in respondents' point of view. This collective motivation (Ipsos 2013) regarding social motivation reaches findings from previous empirical surveys (Van De Glind 2013, Hamari et al. 2013). Sense of community (Albinson and Perera 2012) plays a role here since some people met during a ride sharing have become a friend of respondents as underpinned in the following quotation.

“For instance I keep in touch with some people I have met thanks to BlaBlaCar services”. [Italian Girl]

So sharing a ride might lead to a “sharing in” process (Belk 2010) mechanism wherein a communal sharing occurs (Fiske et al. 1979) which implies more commitment from partners. This finding enhances the difficulty of classifying car-sharing regarding commodity exchange and gift giving perspective. (Belk 2010). Indeed, a real sharing process occurred in car sharing considered as a commodity exchange marketplace. As Belk (2010) acknowledges, classify alternative marketplaces depends on the use of delivered service and motivations behind this consumer behaviour.

During the interviews, another intrinsic motivation has been suggested. Environmental consideration has been taken into account. Environmental motivation is considered as essential regarding consumer behaviour within the collaborative consumption (Botsman 2010, Van de Glind 2013). However only one respondent, as shown in the following quotation, indicates taking into account the sustainability of car-sharing practice.

“Furthermore it helps to protect the environment”. [German Girl]

Interestingly, the German girl minimises the impact of sustainability consideration when it comes to using car sharing. Indeed, cost saving and convenience was mentioned earlier during the interview and prevailed in German Girl’s mind.

table 17. Summarize of motivations evoked.

	Individual motivations	Collective motivations
Extrinsic motivations	Financial motivations Practical motivations Platform’s fame in opposition with curiousness	Social motivation: friends' recommendations
Intrinsic motivations		Environmental motivations Social motivation: sense of community

5.3. Confidence within car-sharing:

During these interviews the confidence building has been studied. Indeed, studying confidence through the collaborative lenses is compelling since collaboration embeds uncertainty while it is empowered by trust between members. In a normal market companies reassure consumers about the trustworthiness of their interactions. In collaborative economy people have to trust strangers (Botsman 2010) so there is no guarantee about the quality of the services deliver. According to findings presented in the theoretical part regarding antecedents of confidence constituted basis of confidence analysis in this subpart.

Respondents depict confidence feeling as a phenomenon, which has increased during the process of using car-sharing service. As a matter of fact, confidence is not high

when respondents starting to use car-sharing. The following quotations highlight the lack of confidence at the beginning of using car-sharing platform.

“I was scared about sharing a ride with someone I did not know. In Poland you do not trust easily unknown people”. [Polish girl]

“The first time I used car-sharing I was not so confident”. [Italian Girl]

At this point, respondents “trust” their social network mainly composed of their friends. This phenomenon could be seen as situational factors based on influence of others (Bekkers 2006) regarding antecedents of confidence. Even if, in that context, confidence is not high it is enough to start using the service. At this stage, trust could be seen as a cognitive-based trust (Johnson et al. 2005) based on friends’ recommendations.

Respondents stress the importance of experience when increasing the confidence regarding car-sharing. This antecedent of confidence, which is based on past experience, is a cognisance factors (Bearden, Hardesty and Rose 2001, Stajkovic 2006, White 2009). The following quotations illustrate this phenomenon.

“The more I use this platform the more confident I am with car-pooling”. [French Girl]

“Now I am using it often so I am more and more confident about car sharing”. [Italian Girl]

“When you decide to use it then you start to trust people”. [French guy]

“After my first ride I was not so scared. [...] Now I trust more people”. [Polish girl]

Interestingly, a deceitful past experience does not impact negatively the respondents’ level of confidence as state in the following quotations.

“This experience was not so good but sometimes it happens when car-sharing.” [French Girl]

“Of course there is a little risk but I trust in the thought behind the service”.
[German Girl]

In that case, the bad experience does not stop user using the service. Respondents' answers suggest some elements to explain the increase of confidence even if a negative experience occurred. Repetition of use, which can be classified as a situation factors regarding antecedent of confidence, (Foster et al. 2012, Stajkovic 2006) appears more powerful than the deceitful experience when feeling confident. Another element is trust. This idiosyncratic factor regarding antecedent of confidence (Das and Teng 1998, Bekkers 2006, De Jonge et al. 2007, Cofta 2007) is tied to experiences as well as information provided by the car-sharing platform as discuss in the next subpart. Likewise, trusting “the thought behind the service” (German girl) appears as high outcomes expectancies, which can be seen as an antecedent of confidence. (Feldman 200, Tafarodi et al. 2002). Eventually, by accepting the risk of deceitful experiences respondents adopt an antifragile attitude (Taleb 2013), which means the acceptance of randomness and lack of perceived control yet considered as an antecedent of confidence. (Cofta 2007), the following quotation brings an interesting insight regarding the antifragile attitude:

“Using collaborative services is for me a question of feelings. I mean it is not such a conscious process.[] I feel that I will try something new which I do not master but I have to try it to have my own idea about it. I don't need so much confidence. I am an impulsive woman who chose with her heart not so much with the brain”. [Italian Girl]

According to this quotation, car sharing appears as an unplanned purchase wherein a low level of confidence is necessary (Simintiras 2014). This affective process (Eccles et al. 2002) making by a self-confident person does not required a high level of confidence. (Seigrist et al. 2005)

These observations need to be balanced by car-sharing companies policy which aim at avoiding negative experience. (BlaBlaCar website 2014). As a matter of fact one respondent, the French girl, states that this uncertainty spurs her to prefer other

transport modes especially when car-sharing is not significantly cheaper than any other possibilities.

Respondents share the importance of comments and profile when it comes to being confidence towards others members. These observations reach findings of BlaBlaCar' survey (2012) which measured that although French trust at only 20% a stranger, comments made by unknown people on the BlaBlaCar platform appear a trustworthy source. The following quotations depict the comments' impacts.

“Comments from other users [] It is trustworthy. ” [French Girl]

“I choose the driver based on comments written on the web side. Prices were the same, so I chose the best”. [French Boy]

“My girlfriend takes a look at the driver first to make her decision”. [French Boy]

“There are references, people can put comments, thanks to that you can trust drivers”. [Polish Girl]

“Often drivers do also have a profile picture and a valuation of their reliability. I like that personalisation”. [German Girl]

These quotations illustrate the influence of other users in collaborative economy. Comments make the driver trustworthy. This search of information decrease the purchasing uncertainty (Locander et al. 1979) which increase the customers' satisfaction (Spreng et al. 2001). Mazzella (2012), founder of BlaBlaCar, confirmed the influence of information available toward users' confidence. As trust only occurs based on trustworthy stakeholders (O'neil 2013) Mazzella suggests a framework called DREAM to increase trustworthiness of spread information. The information has to be “declared, rated, engaged, activity-based, moderate and social”. (Mazzella 2012). Declared information means that profile shows picture, information about the spirit of the driver. Rated information mean that the quality of the delivered service has to be rated by community members. Engaged information means that both stakeholders needs to be engaged into the process, in BlaBlaCar's example, users have to paid some fees before the trip. Activity-based let the user know about the process occurring. Moderated information means that the third party needs to check the trustfulness of information. Social means that the good rating needs to be share

through other social networks. Therefore respondents' answers and BlaBlaCar strategy underpin the importance of trustworthy information to increase confidence.

A respondent adds another antecedent of his confidence. He understands the process of BlaBlaCar therefore he is confident regarding using car-sharing. This cognizance factor based on knowledge (Biswas and Sherell 1993, O'cass 2004) is implied within the following quotation:

“If I were him [provider] I would like to provide good experience. Indeed, If you don't give him the code he will not be paid so I think the website thinks about how to build confidence. The driver has to deliver something good to get paid. Moreover BlaBlaCar is like a big community if you provide a bad service you will have some bad comments so you will not be able to offer your service anymore. The same for users”.[French Boy]

Respondent's knowledge is used here as a prediction tool regarding providers' behaviour. In French Boy's perspective, providers follow pre-established pattern (Simintiras et al. 2014) and this anticipation enables him to be confident when using car sharing. This quotation also highlights that the French boy uses car-sharing in a sharing out process. He is focus on the quality of delivered service. This self-interest thought leads to consider car-sharing as a commodity exchange in French boy's mind. (Belk 2010)

But sharing a ride does not imply the same whether users' side or providers' side is considered. There is a different perception regarding trustworthiness between these two stakeholders. Indeed with the reputation system providers are viewed as trustworthy people whereas other users has a more lukewarm picture. For instance the French girl underpins that during a ride-sharing people are friendly and open minded but the perception of other users slightly differs as she gives on example of an annoying user. She does not consider perception towards other users a powerful regarding her level of confidence, however, Polish girl depicted same negative experience.

“I mean strange because I remember once I met a very strange guy who did not talk a tall during all the journey. It was in Poland and everybody ask him at least once about what was going on but he did not answer us”. [Polish Girl]

The French boy minimizes the difference regarding trustworthiness of users and providers. Users and providers are, in his opinion, same people. He explains this since sometimes he is an user and sometime a provider as the following quotation highlights:

“After several experience as users, I offered a ride. I trust the user since I put comments as my favourite music and the fact that I do not smoke. In that way, users were in the same mood as me.” [French Boy]

An interesting point is stressed in that quotation since trust is also important for providers. It is not only a question of earning money but also a way to spend time with pleasant people. In this case having a profile, which provides many details about what atmosphere providers want during their trips is an efficient tool for the collaborative platform. Moreover, cultural differences can occur during the ride.

To sum up, although there is a slightly difference regarding users and providers in respondents' perception, confidence occurs within the car-sharing marketplace. This confidence is based on several antecedents, which are, influence of others, paste experiences, repetition of use, trust, information, outcomes expectancies and knowledge. Antecedent mentioned occur when using a reflective approach regarding using car-sharing platform. However, respondent also mention a feeling-based decision making which enable using car-sharing service without a high level of confidence. All these findings are summed up in the following table.

table 18. Antecedents of confidence within the car-sharing industry

Category	Factors	Antecedents
Reflective process	Cognisance factors	Paste experience Knowledge
	Idiosyncratic factors	Trust Outcomes expectancies
	Situational factors	Information Repetition of use Influence of others
Emotional process	Feelings	

This list of antecedents leads to a table regarding confidence-building process, which is synthesised in the following table:

table 19. Tables of confidence Building:

Pattern recognition	Based on information (comments), Social influence (Friends' recommendations), past experiences, feelings.
Pattern invariance	Repetition of use and comments.
Anticipatory pattern recurrence	Good service delivered anticipation, due to the DREAM framework. (Mazzella 2012).

5.4. Other collaborative services:

Respondents were car-sharing users, however findings can provide a fresh insight regarding use of other collaborative services since some respondents used also other collaborative platforms to fulfil different needs. The following quotations show the wide range of motivation regarding collaborative consumption (Botsman 2010, Edelman 2014). Firstly respondents specify which other collaborative platforms they use and what kind of needs they fulfil when using them.

“Besides BlaBlaCar I used the German car-sharing website: mitfahrgelegenheit.de. I often used AirBnB, to find a hosted room and the German site: mithewohner gesucht.de, where you can offer your room for rent or find a room to rent in shared apartment for middle and long term accommodations”. [German Girl]

“I also use leboncoin.fr, which is a website to make a good deal in second hand product in Peer-to-peer. P2P website such as AirBnB and Windu”. [French Girl]

“I also tried Couchsurfing in Finland during 4 days because I didn’t have any room. [] I host for AirBnB a couple from Valence. []it was a good way to earn money.[] Flat in that website are good and cheaper than hotel”. [Italian Girl]

“On Ebay I did not have any disappointment. But I think when you have a good experience in this kind of platforms you start to trust people around you”. [French Boy]

These quotations show that besides BlaBlaCar respondents mainly use AirBnB. AirBnB fulfils another respondents’ need since it is a platform, which allows users to rent an accommodation from an individual. Respondents mention AirBnB more than any other collaborative platforms. This enhances the importance of fame regarding consumer motivations. Other collaborative platforms cited are also well known and belong whether to product as a service category (Botsman 2010) such as AirBnB, BlaBlaCar or redistribution market (Botsman 2010) such as Ebay, leboncoin.fr. Even collaborative lifestyle is mentioned with Couchsurfing.

Respondents depict financial motivations when it comes to using collaborative platform [Italian girl] especially when she provided the service, in that case, the accommodation.

Respondents regarding motivations within collaborative consumption report more intrinsic consideration than within car-sharing services as the following quotations highlights:

“For example, AirBnb is more about meeting other people. I remember when I was in Britannia I met a lovely couple and we spoke about the benefits of travelling abroad”. [French Girl]

“I go to second handed shops sometimes. Ho, once I went to a swapping party with my friends. It was a good opportunity to meet people”. [Italian Girl]

In that perspective, social motivations, which belong to collective motivation category (Ipsos 2013) fuel the respondents’ purchasing behaviour. AirBnB as well as swapping party is a way of meeting people easily. Therefore a sharing in process (Belk 2010) is more likely to occur in other collaborative platforms than in car-sharing.

Moreover, reciprocity is taken into consideration when using other collaborative services especially for couchsurfing as the following quotation highlights:

“I also tried Couchsurfing in Finland during 4 days because I didn’t have any room. It was great. The host was very nice, he get me a ride to show around the city. I am register in that website but I have never been the host because I have a roommate and it is complicated to organise that. But I would love it”. [Italian Girl]

This quotation implies that Italian girl feels as if she owed something from the community. This reciprocity overcomes the boundaries between commodity exchange and gift giving (Belk 2010). The sharing in process, which occurred during the shared service, fuels the Italian girl to offer service in return. This reciprocity supports the

idea of Bourdieu (1972/1979) which states that barter and gift giving are only different due to the time of reciprocity expectation. Moreover, the host, by showing around the city acted following an “aggregate sense of extended self” process (Belk 2010) which means the provided service was a chance for the host to share and consider this sharing as a sharing with self. This supports the fact that a virtual collaboration, which becomes an off line one, leads to the same sense of extended self as a face-to-face collaboration. (Belk 2010)

5.5. Cultural differences:

This study allows to suggest cultural impact toward consumer behaviour within the car-sharing economy. Respondents were as homogeneous as possible. They all belong to the same generation (Millennials) and they all use the same platform (BlaBlaCar). The limited number of users could only introduce some cultural differences and must not be consider as measurements.

The cultural analysis is based on Hofstede's (1980) cultural classification. Hofstede’s study is only a “structure reflexion of reality”. (Hofstede 1980). It means that score does not reflects reality but spirit of culture. The table below sum up the main characteristics of the cultures under view.

Country	6 dimensions					
	Power distance	Individualism	Masculinity	Uncertainty Avoidance	Pragmatism	Indulgence
France	68	71	43	86	63	48
Italy	50	76	70	75	61	30
Germany	35	67	66	65	83	40
Poland	68	60	64	93	38	29
Spain	57	51	42	86	48	44

table 20. Hofstede’s culture analysis

When using Hofstede's research findings, researcher is aware of the limitations of this framework. (Hofstede and Minkov 2014) Indeed data are only collected from professional environment since survey was carried on towards IBM employees and took place in 40 countries. However Hofstede's findings help to understand impacts of cultural aspects in consumer behaviour. Hofstede's survey stresses the point of cultural differences. 6 dimensions are used in order to describe a particular culture.

In order to understand the analysis of Hofstede (1980) some insights are needed to define each dimension.

Power distance refers to inequalities within a society. It measures how people can feel comfortable with the idea that some people have more power than others. (Hofstede 1980). Individualism stresses the point of interdependence of people within a country. (Hofstede 1980). Masculinity is the extent to which a society is driven by the willingness to succeeding (masculinity) or enjoying (femininity) in their life. (Hofstede 1980). Uncertainty avoidance focuses on the how people feel towards an ambiguous or unpredictable situation and what they do to avoid stress coming from this situation. (Hofstede 1980). Pragmatism measures the ability of people within a country to change their habits depending on what is more relevant for them. (Hofstede 1980).

Data analysis of the interviews is drowning on the above classification. Some cultural differences appear regarding the way people interact to each other during a lift. A striking example is the comparison between Spain and Poland made by the Polish Girl. In this following quotation the Polish girl describes differences between both cultures.

“I used BlaBlaCar both in Spain and in Poland and I felt some cultural differences. For instance, in Poland people does not want to disturb you so they don't talk during the ride while in Spain people speak all ride long about everything and nothing”. [Polish Girl]

This comparison reveals some cultural differences, which can influence the users' perception regarding the quality of the service. For instance Spain is more collectivist (Hofstede 2980) than Poland, which means, in collaborative consumption context,

Spanish people have more sympathy for strangers than Polish. Therefore the degree of satisfaction regarding the shared service can vary based upon contagion effects (Nemeroff and Rozin 1994), which means in car sharing context, that providers with a favourable cultural background enhance the satisfaction for the same ride.

This cultural difference regarding the perceived quality of car-sharing is taken into account by BlaBlaCar, since providers' profile mention the level of "friendship" they are keen to offer. So BLA or BLABLA or BLABLABLA warn users regarding the spirit of providers. Cultural difference regarding the delivered quality has also been mentioned.

"And also, once I was late for a car-sharing in Spain and the driver waited me and tried to help me to find the right place. I am pretty sure this does not occur in Poland". [Polish Girl]

This quotation points out that not only perceived but also delivered quality can be different according to providers' cultural background.

Surprisingly, experiences made by the Polish did not change her point of view regarding the trustworthiness of Polish providers as the following quotation highlights:

"I use it also in Poland and I still be scared in Poland because people can use it in a bad way, like I don't know raping or something like that" [Polish Girl]

This quotation brings fresh insights regarding the perception of providers in different countries. Experiences have not changed the perception based on cultural assumptions. This points out the drawbacks given by Edelman et al. (2014) when collaborative platform can lead to discriminative behaviours. Information available and repetition of use do not prevent the Polish girl from thinking at the first place that Polish will deliver a lower quality of service. Although comments helped the Polish girl to use BlaBlaCar even inside her country, she felt more comfortable with Spanish people.

To bring some theoretical insights to the Polish girl's quotation 2 dimensions of Hofstede's classification can be used which are uncertainty avoidance and individualism /collectivism aspect. Typically, there is an association between uncertainty avoidance and trust (Hofstede 2001: 159). In a society wherein the uncertainty avoidance rate is high, people think that interaction with others will not provide them useful outcomes. They assume that others will take advantage of them. (Hofstede and Minkov 2014). Therefore there is a low degree of trust in a society with high uncertainty avoidance. (Bond et al. 2004). Poland and Spain have a different level of uncertainty avoidance (Polish: 93; Spain: 86). However this difference is not enough important to imply a higher level of trust within one of these societies. In fact, the individualism/ collectivism dimension presents more differences regarding Poland and Spain. (Poland: 60; Spain 51). Individualism (Hofstede 1980) or exclusionism (Minkov 2011, 2013) cultures prevent people from trusting each other since they are fuelled by concepts of property, ownership, and possession (Belk 2010). With 51, Spain is considered as a collectivism country wherein trust between members is possible. The Hofstede's rating system (1980) supports Polish girl's feelings.

However other respondents from different countries mention the same motivations regarding car-sharing and acknowledge same worries when trusting strangers. Therefore there is not such a huge cultural differences. Respondents use BlaBlaCar in different countries without any worry about the quality of service provided.

table 21. Table of cultural differences:

Cultural differences	Consequences	How solve it?
Value perceived	Discriminative behaviour.	Experiences and comments, design of provided information.
Value delivered	Disappointment, some cultures are less outgoing, less sympathy	BlaBlaCar allows people to express whether they are extravert or introvert.

5.6. Car sharing barriers:

By trying to understand the consumer behaviour in car-sharing information given by respondents also underpin fears of people when taking a part of collaborative consumption. First-of-all, trust in strangers is a barrier as the following quotation mentions:

“The main obstacle in my mind is trust, but when you decide to use it then you start to trust people”. [French Boy]

The French boy synthesises theories revealed by scholars (Botsman 2010, Mazzella 2012) regarding the importance of trust with strangers. This quotation implies trust is very low before starting using collaborative service and increase when starting.

Respondents estimate communication is important to attract more people. Although the fame allow people to use one collaborative platform instead of another, understanding the service is essential. The following quotation describes this phenomenon:

“I think the reason why people don't use collaborative service is that they don't know exactly how it works”. [French Boy]

This barrier occurs since collaborative economy is new and embeds a complete opposite way of thinking than traditional markets. It has to be bear in mind that French do not like changes and unknown situation. They need rules and regulations to deliver the best part of them. Hofstede (1980). These characteristics can influence respondent's point of view.

Besides, a lack of both understanding and trust, a lack of time is also reported. Collaborative services seem to be time consuming as the following quotation sums up:

“For other services it is just because I don't have time to do it” [Italian Girl]

Eventually, the ownership is still a barrier for respondents as the following quotation highlights:

“I do not do it often because I like keeping my stuffs but I really enjoyed it”.
[Italian Girl]

This quotation support the idea advocated by Belk (2010) as well as Gansky (2010) according to which not all products can be shared easily depending on the level of ownership tied to them. Indeed a high degree of possessiveness, as well as, mastery feelings (Kleine et al. 2004) prevents people from sharing (Belk 2010). Even though collaborative consumption could be considered as a commodity exchange (Belk 2010) marketplace, second handed product market is an exception and could be also seen as a gift giving marketplace (Belk 2010) wherein sharing can occur. Therefore, in Italian girl’s perspective the, enjoyment of swapping clothes is high due to social outcomes (meeting people) but materialist considerations (Belk 2010) restrain the use of this kind of services. It can be extrapolated that a zero-sum game occurs (Belk 2010) which means in that context, having less than before by sharing. The zero-sum game prevents the Italian girl from sharing her belongings.

List of barriers suggested in this subpart is presented in the following table.

table 22. Table of barriers:

Barriers	For Car-sharing	For other collaborative services
Trust	X	
Misunderstanding		X
Time consuming		X
Ownership		X

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS:

6.1. Summary of findings:

This study stresses the point of the new economical phenomenon, collaborative economy, and its impacts on the consumer behaviour. It answers the following question: *what are the users' motivations within the car-sharing economy and how shared experiences impact them?* More precisely, this thesis aimed at exploring the role of users' motivations and users' experiences in car-sharing platforms.

To sum up although motivations vary a lot when it comes to starting using car sharing, some of them prevail such as financial, practical and social motivations. When it comes to starting using car-sharing services, users take into account the price, the fame and friend's recommendations.

Shared service Experiences increase the users' confidence toward car sharing. Motivations change through the process to more extrinsic motivations even if the price and convenience are still the main motivations. The sharing out process which occurs at the first place when using car-sharing becomes a sharing in process. It is even truer for other collaborative services than car-sharing.

Trust is allowed due to comments on the website as well as provider's profiles. The providers are seen as trustworthy partners. Experiences also enable trust between strangers since it might balance a deceitful situation.

6.1. Theoretical contributions

The study by compiling collaborative economy theories offers an up-to-date overview of this new economy. Collaborative economy has been divided in 4 subparts, collaborative consumption, collaborative production, collaborative education and collaborative finance. Collaborative consumption has been divided in 3 subparts called, product as a service, redistribution market, and collaborative lifestyle. This categorisation followed the Botsman's theory (2010). However, by adding the

marketplaces dimension, the level of sharing the different type of members and the side of interconnections to the classical categorisation of collaborative economy, this thesis brings a new insight for this emerging economic system.

As collaborative economy has changed due to the involvement of more economical agents, more individuals as well as more governments, studying drivers, key success factors and challenges was necessary to complete the overview. Drivers depicted in this thesis reached former theory (Botsman 2010). Therefore economical pressure, new technologies and believe in the common are the main drivers of collaborative consumption. Key success factors considered in this thesis such as collaborative design, recommendation and reputation, and value delivered (Botsman 2010, Gansky 2010, Gramovetter 1973, Tunguz 2013, Kim et al. 2004) can be seen as tool-kit for an entrepreneur who aims at launching their business within the collaborative economy especially within the collaborative consumption. Likewise, The study case indicates that BlaBlaCar platform follows the 6 keys of success regarding adoption of online news service e.g. Perceived usefulness, Perceived core service quality, perceived supplementary service quality, trust, networking, interface and subjective Norm. (Chen and Corkindale 2008). Findings of interviews clarify that people believe in the usefulness of car-sharing especially if it allows us to reach two areas which otherwise could not be reached. Perceived quality is synthesised through posted comments. Trust appears due to experiences combined to comments. People use their networking to receive advices about whether or not they can use the service. Respondents acknowledge that BlaBlaCar's interface is pleasant and enhances their willingness to use the service. Moreover, Challenges bring a fresh insight regarding collaborative economy since regular economic agents as well as governments now threaten this economy, which has increased sharply over the past few years. In that perspective, there is a need of regulations (Surowiecki 2013) to avoid being seen as an unfair economic agent (Brynjolsson et al. 2014). All these challenges required a neat definition (Kirsch 2007). Eventually ethical issue (Edelman et al. 2014) as well as lack of ownership (Morozov 2010) will be recurrent concerns.

Furthermore, this thesis tackled the issue of motivation within the collaborative consumption. A wide range of motivations has been measured in surveys such as Van

de Glind (2013) and Hamari et al. (2013). Intrinsic motivations have been distinguished in this study since they do not follow the to the same logic (Sansone et al. 2010). Same idea fuelled the researcher to distinguish individual / collective motivations (Ipsos 2013) and sharing in/sharing out (Belk 2010). These new dimensions enable a more precise description of collaborative consumer behaviour. Classification of motivations was based on intrinsic/extrinsic motivation distinction (Eccles et al. 2002) as well as individual/collective motivations. (Ipsos 2013). 6 main types of motivation have been distinguished, practical, financial, curiousness, social environmental and cultural. (Van de Glind 2013, Botsman 2013, Belk 2010, c). Findings of the empirical part reveal that respondents mentioned financial as well as practical motivations. Social motivation, such as recommendations from friends appeared decisive when it comes to starting using car-sharing services. More intrinsic motivations such as meeting new people, believe in the common were revealed. Surprisingly, no respondents mentioned curiousness as a motivation (Van de Glind 2013) but rather than the fame of the platform when it comes to starting using car-sharing.

Moreover, notions of trust, experience and confidence have been studied in this thesis. Trust, which fuels the collaborative economy. (Botsman 2010, 2012; Gansky 2010; Keetels 2012; Pick 2012) embeds trustworthiness (O'neil 2013). Trustworthiness is required to enable trust and trust with a high degree of familiarity leads to confidence. (Simintiras et al. 2014). So collaborative platforms, such as BlaBlaCar, try to raise this trust within the community. (Mazzella 2012). Findings in accordance to the interviews indicate that trust is enabled by user's car-sharing experiences as well as relevant information available on this platform. These findings provide another evidence of Mazzella's framework called DREAM regarding trust in collaborative platform. (2012). This study bases its analysis of confidence on 3 categories of antecedents, which are cognisance factors, idiosyncratic factors and situational factors. (Simintiras et al. 2014). Regarding the confidence process within the car-sharing industry past experience, knowledge, trust, outcomes expectancies, information, repetition of use, and influence of others impact this confidence. Findings of this study add another dimension of confidence within the car-sharing industry is the emotional process wherein the decision making process is based on feelings.

Experience allows car-sharing users to be more trustful regarding providers and other users. Findings show that the more individual use car-sharing the most trustful they are not only for this service but also for other collaborative services. A negative experience has a limited impact on users' willingness to use car sharing if the price is lower than other transport mode. If a negative experience happens users balance it with former experiences and/or comments when it comes to choosing another one.

Based on these findings the confidence building process is composed of pattern recognition, which is, in car sharing perspective, a mix of information, social influence, past experiences, feeling. This phase is followed by pattern invariance, which is, in car sharing perspective, repetition of use and comments. Eventually anticipatory pattern recurrence, which is, in car-sharing perspective, good service delivered anticipation, occurs.

Inter-cultural consumer behaviour has been studied based on Hofstede's framework (1980). Few cultural differences have been found in this study due to the small amount of interviews. Nevertheless, cultural differences impact the expectation of value delivered as well as the value delivered. Some discriminative behaviour can occur (Edelman 2014) whether it is based on a truly difference regarding the quality of delivered service or not.

Eventually, the empirical part aims at extrapolating the consumer behaviour within the collaborative consumption by providing some information regarding motivations for participating in collaborative platform. It appears that fame is a main element to attract people. Respondents use every subpart of collaborative consumption e.g. collaborative lifestyle, product as a service, redistribution market. Social motivation, which means meeting new people, is more important for other collaborative platform than for car-sharing. Barriers, which prevent people from starting using collaborative platforms, are lack of trust, lack of understanding, lack of time and lack of ownership.

These insights regarding consumer behaviour compared with data gathered from the brief case study of BlaBlaCar allows the study to indicated the right practices for a car-sharing platform.

6.2. Managerial implications:

This thesis sheds light on the consumer behaviour within the collaborative economy. This new economy is full of opportunities for start-ups. Some platforms like Airbnb or Uber are valued over \$ 10 millions. Although the idea behind this economy is simple, succeed in it has become complicated. Indeed, consumers acknowledge firstly that convenience is important. It means that platform's community has to be enough big to fulfil consumer's requirements. Likewise the platform's fame is important. Is even truer since collaborative economy is an emergent market wherein word-of-mouth is the initiative factor to start using the services. These elements imply an important initial investment. Only few actors in each market wherein collaborative economy operates could be profitable.

Furthermore, for some marketplaces within the collaborative economy, users are no longer belonging to the early adopters but rather than to the early mass (Rogers 2003). Members of this category are less curious than early adopters, which mean other factors than curiousness, have to be enhanced to attract new people. The fame as well as trust-building mechanisms needs to be master be collaborative platform to succeed.

Another finding might have a consistent impact regarding business models. Experience enhances dramatically the confidence toward collaborative service. Paying attention on experiences could make a collaborative platform successful. It can be done by free try for instance. Collaborative platform needs to facilitate the first try. This mechanism should succeed since users searching a meaningful experience, which can be possible almost only within the collaborative economy. Moreover, users are looking for like-minded people. This underpins the importance of information shared before the interaction occurred through the profile for instance. Enabling clear view of stakeholders' personalities increase the confidence within the community.

Cost saving is a deciding factor when starting and continuing using a car-sharing platform. Low prices are the first element mentioned when it comes to talking about car-sharing. This implies few margins from the collaborative companies or at least in the car-sharing market.

Eventually, the collaborative platform needs to be easy to use. This is a part of convenience perspective and it proves that car-sharing platform needs a web site but also an app.

6.3. Limitations:

Every research is limited by several constraints. Researcher must be taken into account these constraints in order to provide reliable and valuable findings. For this thesis constraints were numerous. The following chapter will describe these coersions.

Firstly, time allocated to fulfil the research was limited. Therefore, the consumer behaviour within the collaborative consumption could not be studied through a long period of time. Findings are able to only provide a snapshot of consumer behaviour. The impact of experience as well as memories of the first experience could not be so precise. Therefore, the relevance of findings is minimised. The lack of time has also an impact on the theoretical part. Indeed, not all concepts regarding collaborative economy and consumer behaviour were mentioned. Eventually only some countries have been studied which means that these interview could not be generalised to understand consumer behaviour. Likewise findings are based on qualitative approach interviews so generalise them is not possible.

Secondly, budget was limited indeed researcher did not have any money to carry out the thesis. He was the only person to lead interviews therefore a restricted number of people were interviewed. The small number of interviews enhancing by the fact that, a part from France, only one person from each country was interviewed, does not allow to generalise findings regarding cultural aspects. Likewise, countries studied did not vary a lot regarding cultural aspects especially in individualism/collectivism perspective (Hofstede 1980), which is one of the main dimensions to bear in mind

when it comes to sharing. (Belk 2010). Indeed the power of feelings regarding possessiveness, (Belk 2010) could not be measured in that study since, concepts of property, ownership and possession are tied to individualism culture (Belk 2010).

Thirdly, researcher aimed at determining experiences and motivations regarding collaborative economy. To achieve this goal any others elements must remain the same. In that perspective, only millennial were interviewed as consumer behaviour differences regarding age were highlighted in former surveys. Likewise only consumer behaviour within the car-sharing economy has been studied. Indeed, different motivations occur according to the target market. The findings could not measure consumer behaviour within other collaborative economy marketplaces. Moreover, car sharing can be considered as a commodity exchange (Belk 2010) other collaborative subsets such as collaborative education could be more relevant to measure the sharing in process.

Fourthly, collaborative economy is a new field and linked definitions can be change in the future. Having a fuzzy definition of terms could provoke misunderstandings when it comes to determining a phenomenon.

Eventually, some interviews were carried out in English. The researcher as well as the respondents mastered this language. Nevertheless, English was the second language for every respondents and some bias could occur.

6.4. Future research suggestions:

In this chapter researcher tackles the issue of further research needs. Indeed the thesis sheds the lights on consumer behaviour within the collaborative consumption, which is a new topic for scholars.

Studying consumer behaviour within the car sharing industry can be handled in different countries in order to highlight cultural differences. Although this study depicted consumer behaviour regarding users from different countries, countries studied were too similar in terms of culture according to Hofstede's classification (1980). It might be interesting to extend the observation to countries wherein cultures

are completely different. As for intense comparing countries considered as collectivistic to countries viewed as individualistic (Hofstede 1980). Indeed the level of attachments towards belongings might differ from a culture to another. (Belk 2010)

Likewise it may be fruitful to observe different perceptions regarding car-sharing concept according to national culture. This embeds studying the expectation through the lens of cultural differences. Moreover, collaborative users are looking for interact with like-minded people, researches could be undertaken to determine whether or not users are keen to share a ride with strangers from other countries.

The impact of experience as well as barriers can also be studied regarding other collaborative service. Experience's impact toward confidence might be different whether is regarding car sharing or couch surfing, crowd funding etc. Moreover, if experience has a different impact on confidence, profiles could be changed and some discrimination decreases it may be interesting to measure this phenomenon. Likewise experiences seem to balance a deceitful feelings toward collaborative platform, it might be interesting to figure out the extent to which bad experiences lead to stop using collaborative services.

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8. APPENDIXES

Interview guidelines:

This part shows the guideline regarding semi-structural interviews undertaken during the study. Questions mentioned are examples. They could vary from one interview to another.

Car-sharing:

What do you think about car-sharing?

Why do you use car-sharing?

How often do you use this service?

BlaBlaCar:

Why did you choose to use BlaBlaCar? What do you think about the BlaBlaCar Front Page?

Perception:

How do you perceive providers in car-sharing?

How do you consider other users in car-sharing?

Confidence:

How are you confident with car sharing?

Experience:

How experience in car sharing change your feeling towards collaborative consumption?

Other collaborative consumption services:

Have you done any other collaborative experience? What do you think about it?

Barrier:

In your opinion which factors prevent people from using collaborative consumption?

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2014-05-06 4:49 GMT+01:00 Edelman, Benjamin

> In your mind, what are the most important things to handle for collaborative consumption in order to build the trust between strangers? Probably consumers consider different factors in different contexts. I wouldn't presume that what consumers want in a short-term apartment rental service is the same as what they want when booking a taxi.

Safety is important in many circumstances. But a lower price is also clearly broadly important. Some consumers want differentiated experiences not otherwise available (e.g. apartment with more space, laundry, etc. rather than hotel).

> Do you believe that Collaborative consumption users are looking for "trust" and not "randomness" when it comes to experiment "experience with strangers", which could be mentioned as an antifragile attitude (Nassim Nicholas Taleb 2012, Antifragile, things that gain from disorder)?

I don't know that paper, and I'm not confident in the meaning of these terms in context.

Here too, I wonder if answers might vary by context. What consumers want in a taxi could be different than what consumers want in an apartment, chef, artist, etc.