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THE HEBREW UNIVERSITY OF JERUSALEM

המרכז למחקר בכלכלה חקלאית  
The Center for Agricultural  
Economic Research

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Department of Environmental  
Economics and Management

## Discussion Paper No. 5.20

# Exploring the Role of Trust Indicators in the P2P Economy: Analysis and Simulations of an Airbnb Market

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## **Exploring the Role of Trust Indicators in the P2P Economy: Analysis and Simulations of an Airbnb Market**

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### **Abstract**

We propose a structural econometric model in which listings in an Airbnb market differ not only in their attributes, but also in their seller's characteristics as trust indicators. Applying the model to Stockholm's Airbnb market reveals that hosts' attributes significantly affect market performance. Simulations of market scenarios show that the very high review scores and the Superhost certification help Airbnb compete with hotels and increase its market welfare. We also show that the "Airbnb plus" luxury program, which makes the apartments a closer substitute for hotels, leads to an increase in Airbnb's market welfare. Our analysis provides a framework for understanding the full impact of the different attributes of the products, their providers and their management in the sharing-economy accommodation market.

Keywords: Airbnb; trust; structural econometric model; differentiated goods market

## 1 Introduction

Trust between buyers and sellers plays an important role in online peer-to-peer (P2P) markets, especially in sharing economy platforms such as Airbnb and Uber, where online transactions are followed by offline encounters between strangers. The high risk involved in such transactions makes trust crucial to their success to an even greater degree than it is for more traditional P2P online markets that are limited to online transactions, such as eBay (Einav et al., 2016). For this reason, many P2P platforms provide information not only about their products and services, but also about their sellers. This study suggests that Airbnb utilizes these attributes in order to gain advantage in its competition with hotels in the accommodation market.

We claim that sellers' characteristics act as trust indicators and may play a prominent role in this economy just like attributes of goods. The most common indicator of trust in ecommerce platforms is probably the ratings ("review scores") shared by past customers, which are used as a reputation system. The use of review scores reduces information asymmetry, so many online markets solicit this information and display it to their customers (Cabral & Hortacsu, 2010; Tadelis, 2016). In the context of P2P markets, there are various studies on the role of sellers reputation in eBay (Livingston, 2005; Melnik & Alm, 2002; Tadelis, 2016). Recent research on Airbnb, a market leader of the sharing economy, has also studied the role of reputation (Ert & Fleischer, 2019; Fradkin et al., 2018). Yet the research on Airbnb has also identified additional important indicators that might affect consumers' perception of sellers' trustworthiness. These include the hosts'<sup>1</sup> personal images (Ert et al., 2016), their self-disclosure texts (Ma et al., 2017), and the Superhost badge, which has been implemented in Airbnb as a quality certification system (Gunter, 2018). The utilization and visibility of these seller attributes have undergone major changes in the past several years on Airbnb, probably as part of the company's competitive strategy in the accommodation market (Ert and Fleischer, 2019).

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<sup>1</sup> Airbnb refers to sellers as "hosts" and consumers as "guests."

While the aforementioned studies have provided an initial evidence to the potential role of sellers' attributes in these P2P markets, their effect on these markets is far from being clear since they have only analysed specific features of the market (e.g., price), rather than the market as a whole. The current paper makes this leap by analysing the effect of both product and seller attributes on the entire Airbnb market in Stockholm by using an econometric model of the market.

We employed a differentiated goods market analysis where we utilized the different types of the sellers' attributes in addition to the goods' attributes. We incorporated both sets of attributes into a structural model of the whole market, i.e., including demand and pricing equations with the hotel market as an outside good. Applying this approach to the Stockholm Airbnb market, in which the different trust indicators of the host and property attributes are observable, made it possible to compare the role of these two sets of attributes in the market. Moreover, the estimated model enables the simulation of market equilibria under different scenarios with changes in trust and property attributes.

This analysis led to the following main findings:

(1) Although the listings in Stockholm's Airbnb market differentiate themselves in both their property and host attributes, the market is still highly competitive, with demand elasticity of approximately -5 and a mark-up of 19%. We also found that guests see listings in the same neighbourhood as a closer substitute than listings in different neighbourhoods. (2) In our estimation of the structural empirical model of the market (demand and pricing equations), we used five host attributes: perceived trustworthiness of the host's photo, Superhost certification, review score, host's self-disclosure text and the host verification. The results revealed preferences for verified hosts, hosts who appear more trustworthy by their images, higher review scores, and Superhost certification. Yet Superhost certification entails higher costs for the host. Therefore, the final impact of introducing this certification to the market can be assessed only by market simulation. (3) We found that the physical attributes of the properties preferred by guests are central location, entire home (i.e., not sharing an apartment with the host), more rooms, and better-looking property. The more attractive properties attract more guests, but they also entail higher costs. Therefore, the full impact of changes in these variables on prices,

market shares, and welfare is not straightforward and could only be assessed by simulating full market equilibria. (4) By using the estimated structural econometric model of the market, we simulated two scenarios that explained the Airbnb changes in its trust signals and in upgrading their product to Airbnb plus. We evaluated their impact on demand, price level, profit, consumer surplus, and total welfare. In the first simulation, we shifted the scale of the Airbnb review score to have the same mean and standard deviation as the review scores hotels receive on Booking.com, and eliminated the Superhost certification. This resulted in a shift of guests to the outside good, (i.e., the hotels) and a loss of profits and consumer surplus in the Airbnb market. This result might explain why Airbnb strongly encourages guests to give very high rankings, despite the fact that this action makes them less informative. The implementation of the Superhost certification is similar, and although it might seem initially vague and redundant, it actually increases welfare. The second simulation tested the impact of introducing Airbnb plus — a selection of high-quality homes. The results show that this introduction results in an increase in demand and welfare in the Airbnb market, despite the price increase. It should be emphasized, that these results could be obtained only by simulating the full structural model of the market, as some attributes, like Superhost certification and luxurious properties, imply not only an increase in demand but also in costs. Thus, previous analyses that focused on only one market feature (e.g., price), fall short from addressing the implications of these attributes.

The main contribution of this paper is its use of a structural econometric model to analyse a sharing economy market as a whole while taking into consideration the seller and the good's attributes. A whole market analysis of the Airbnb market has not previously been reported in the literature and sellers' attributes have not been taken into consideration. The use of this model sheds light on two seemingly counterintuitive phenomena that characterize Airbnb. First, it explains why Airbnb has encouraged very high reviews scores, to the extent they become uninformative (although information about hosts is pivotal to its operation), and also explains the addition of the seemingly redundant Superhost certification. Secondly, the model explains why Airbnb has shifted its position in the accommodation market from a low-cost alternative to hotels that focuses on hosts, to a close substitute to hotels that offers luxury accommodation options

(Airbnb plus). These shifts in strategy imply changes in demand and costs that might act in opposite directions, and thus could be evaluated only by simulating the market equilibrium under the new conditions. We show that this strategy appears to have an advantage for Airbnb's in its competition with the hotels in the accommodation market and accordingly results in higher profits and welfare in the Airbnb market.

Digital platforms are changing the way urban economies operate. Although the different platforms operate in different markets they share many similarities such as use of unexploited labor, algorithmic management, digital reputation and crowdsourcing. They are also competing with existing traditional firms (e.g., UBER and taxis, Airbnb and hotels). In the case of urban tourism markets, the Covid-19 pandemic has temporarily paused some of these processes but it is increasing the use of digital services in other markets. More importantly, it caused a radical change in online consumption and a shift from offline to online transactions. Thus, we contend that this study can provide insights into other markets wherein digital platforms such as Airbnb are competing with the traditional incumbent firms. These insights can also be useful in post-Covid-19 days with the expected recovery (Airbnb might recover faster than hotel due to social distancing) and the sharp increase in the digital economy.

## 2 Literature Review

Over the years, Airbnb has continuously modified its trust signals and their visibility. For example, its two-sided rating system, whereby guests review hosts and hosts review guests, provoked fears of retaliation, which led to very high and uninformative review scores (Bolton et al., 2013; Ert et al., 2016; Zervas et al., 2015). To address this problem, Airbnb modified its review mechanism so that reviews are not revealed until both guest and host have submitted them. Fradkin et al. (2018) found this change to be effective in providing a more informative reputation system. Nevertheless, a recent examination of the review scores in 13 large cities revealed that their level remained high (Ert & Fleischer, 2019). A possible explanation for this phenomenon is that guests are strongly encouraged to give high ratings in their feedback.<sup>2</sup> This encouragement alludes to the interest of Airbnb to maintain high reputation scores even though it makes them uninformative.

Another change that Airbnb has implemented is the inclusion of the Superhost badge. According to Airbnb, superhosts are “experienced hosts who provide a shining example for other hosts and extraordinary experiences for their guests.” Although this definition is somewhat vague and even redundant (it is correlated with the review score), it is clear that Airbnb found it necessary to establish its own certification system, similar to eBay’s eTRS (eBay’s Top-Rated Seller; Elfenbein et al. 2015).

Airbnb not only modified the trust indicators, but also changed their prominence in the search screen. Until 2014, the front page of search results yielded images of the living space and the host only. Between 2014 and 2017, Airbnb added the review score, on a scale of one to five stars, to the images of the living space and the host displayed in the initial search results. At the end of 2016, Airbnb removed the image of the host from the front page of the search results (for details see Ert & Fleischer 2019). Following this change, potential guests can see the host’s image only after they choose a listing and click on it. For years, hosts’ photos were placed next to the property photo on the front page of the search results to highlight the personal experience and differentiate Airbnb from

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<sup>2</sup> The following text is send to guests: "Please before you leave your feedback take into consideration Airbnb criteria for Guests satisfaction. There is a common misunderstanding about the stars value by which a lot of times guests leaves 4 stars and nice comment for the host thinking it's a good feedback while actually Airbnb considers it bad feedback and penalizes all host below 4.8 stars."

hotels. The host's personal photo was originally intended to facilitate a sense of social contact that inspires mutual trust, which is often missing in ecommerce (Charness et al., 2007; Gefen & Straub, 2004). Yet personal hosts' photos might have had additional effects, since they also disclose social information (e.g., gender, race) and led to automatic impression formation (e.g., perceived trustworthiness). Indeed, hosts' photos were found to affect guests' decision making (Ert et al. 2016). However, this change in the prominence of the hosts' photos may have occurred in response to claims of racial discrimination (Edelman et al., 2017; Edelman & Luca, 2014), which were widely covered in the media.<sup>3</sup>

Another change Airbnb introduced is the line of luxurious, beautifully stylized and designed properties on "Airbnb plus." This change, alongside the previously mentioned change of weakening the visibility of the hosts' photos, positioned Airbnb listings as closer substitutes for hotel accommodations. Li and Srinivasan (2019) studied this trend by testing the impact of "professional" hosts on lowering costs. They suggest that this trend helps Airbnb cannibalize the hotels in the same location. We want to study the introduction of "Airbnb plus" from the point of view of the attributes and their effect on demand (the property is more attractive) and costs (it is more costly to operate a luxury apartment).

In order to identify the role of the aforementioned attributes in the economic performance of an Airbnb market, we applied a model in the spirit of Berry, Levinsohn, and Pakes's (1995; henceforth BLP) differentiated goods model of the American car market. Variants of this model have been applied to different markets, such as the Swedish analgesics market (Björnerstedt & Verboven, 2016; henceforth B&V), grocery stores (Eizenberg et al., 2018), and the rural accommodation market (Tchetchik et al., 2008). All of these markets are differentiated goods markets in which the attributes of the goods differ, e.g., the car model, the medication dosage, the location of the retail store, or the size of the accommodation unit, respectively. Services in P2P markets differ in their attributes in a similar manner, e.g., number of rooms and location. However, unlike business-to-customer (B2C) markets, P2P service platforms also differ in terms of their

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<sup>3</sup> See, e.g., <https://www.theverge.com/2017/7/26/16037492/airbnb-naacp-partnership-racism-diversity-hosts>

sellers' (e.g., hosts in Airbnb, drivers in Uber) attributes, which are typically interpreted as trust signals.

Including Airbnb hosts' attributes in the model is not a straightforward matter. They appear in different information formats—numeric scores (online reviews), identifiers (Superhost badge), textual narratives (hosts' self-disclosure texts), and visual items (hosts' photos). One of the challenges of this work is to quantify the visual and textual information in order to account for it fully in the empirical model. By doing so, we can include both, product attributes and sellers' attributes, in the same analytical framework. The next section describes this framework in details.

### 3 Methodology

#### 3.1 A Differentiated Good Market Model of Airbnb

We propose a differentiated goods market model as a framework for analysing an Airbnb market. The underlying assumption of this model is that both the listing's and the host's attributes affect market performance, e.g., market shares, prices, markups, and welfare. We are especially interested in the effect of different trust indicators and changes in them (e.g., online reviews, hosts' photos, hosts' self-disclosure texts, and the Superhost badge) on the market.

Our model is defined in terms of four primitives and a Nash equilibrium assumption in prices. The primitives are: (1) the utility function that assigns values to different possible combinations of product and host attributes, (2) the cost function that determines the production cost associated with different combinations of attributes, (3) a distribution of consumer characteristics, and (4) a distribution of listing characteristics. Conditional on these primitives, the model can be solved for the distribution of prices, quantities, and consumer welfare. It can then be used in different market equilibrium simulations that will interpret modifications of trust attributes that have occurred in the market and their impact on welfare. The utility, aggregate empirical demand, and pricing equations are depicted below. We chose to display the primitives and the derived final empirical equations.

### 3.1.1 Demand

We chose to follow the extension of B&V to BLP's model and use utility specification where price enters logarithmically, market shares are measured in value, and the potential market in our case refers to the potential value of the accommodation market in a location. This extension allows the implied price elasticities to be quasi-constant instead of quasi-linear in prices.<sup>4</sup> Based on B&V and BLP analyses of the USA car market and the Swedish analgesics market , this functional form is not expected to have a strong impact on our main conclusions.

Consider an Airbnb market with  $J$  listings,  $j=1 \dots J$ , and  $N$  potential guests  $i=1 \dots N$ . A one-level nest is specified, where the different nests are defined as the different neighbourhoods in the city. Underlying this single-level nesting is the assumption that due to common unobserved variables such as tourism attractions and amenities, the degree of substitution between two listings from the same neighbourhood is higher than the one between two attractions from different neighbourhoods. Although it is possible that guests have heterogeneous preferences when it comes to the number of rooms in a listing, we preferred to retain the nested model because location plays an important role in this market and dictates the structure of substitution.

The utility of guest  $i$  from staying in listing  $j$  is:

$$u_{ij} = x_j \beta + \xi_j + \alpha f(y_i, p_j) + \zeta_{ig} + (1 - \sigma) \varepsilon_{ij},$$

where  $x_j$  is a vector of observed characteristics of listing  $j$ , including the property and the hosts' observed characteristics,  $y_i$  is individual  $i$ 's income, and  $p_j$  is the price per night of listing  $j$ .  $\xi_j$  captures the average utility (over all potential guests) attached by the guest to the unobserved characteristics of listing  $j$ . These attributes are observed by guests and hosts, but unobserved by the researcher.  $\zeta_{ig}$  is the  $i^{th}$  guest's preference for a specific

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<sup>4</sup> See B&V for further details on the model.

neighbourhood  $g$ , and  $\varepsilon_{ij}$  is the guest's  $i^{th}$  idiosyncratic preference for listing  $j$ . The parameter  $\sigma$  captures the substitution patterns between and within neighbourhoods. Based on this primitive, the aggregate empirical demand function receives the following form:

$$(1) \quad \ln(s_j/s_0) = x_j\beta - \alpha \ln p_j + \sigma \ln(s_{j/g}) + \xi_j,$$

where  $s_j$  is the revenue market share of listing  $j$ ,  $s_0$  is the revenue market share of the outside good, in our case the hotels in the same city, and  $s_{j/g}$  is the revenue market share of listing  $j$  in neighbourhood  $g$ .

### 3.1.2 Pricing

It is assumed that each host maximizes profits. In the short run, the decision variable is the price, while other characteristics of the listing remain fixed. Each host is assumed to set prices that maximize his/her profit given his/her product's attributes and the prices and attributes of the competing listings. We assumed that a Nash equilibrium for this pricing game exists and the equilibrium prices are at the interior of the host's strategy sets.

In order to obtain the empirical pricing specification, we rearranged the first order conditions to receive:

$$p_j = mc_j - \frac{q_j}{\partial q_j / \partial p_j} ,$$

where  $mc_j$  is the marginal cost of listing  $j$ , and  $q_j$  is the number of nights sold.

Stated differently, we received the following expression for the markup:

$$\frac{p_j - mc_j}{p_j} = \frac{1}{e_{jj}} ,$$

where  $e_{jj}$  is the absolute value of the own-price elasticity.

The nested logit constant expenditure specification generates simple analytic expressions for the aggregate own-price elasticity of demand (for further details, see Appendix 1):

$$e_{jj} = -\frac{\partial q_j}{\partial p_j} \frac{p_j}{q_j} = \frac{\alpha[1-\sigma s_{j/g} - (1-\sigma)s_j] + 1 - \sigma}{1 - \sigma} .$$

Based on this primitive, and by assuming that the marginal cost is log-linear in the vector of cost attributes (BLP, 1995)  $\ln(m_{c_j}) = W_j \gamma + \omega_j$ , we obtain the following estimable pricing equation:

$$(2) \quad \ln(p_j) = W_j \gamma - \ln\left(\frac{\alpha[1-\sigma s_{j/g} - (1-\sigma)s_j]}{\alpha[1-\sigma s_{j/g} - (1-\sigma)s_j] + 1 - \sigma}\right) + \omega_j .$$

The expression of the markup, in the large brackets, is a positive fraction between zero and one. If  $\sigma=0$ , only the market share,  $s_j$ , affects the markup. Conversely, as  $\sigma$  approaches one, only the nest share (regional share in our case) matters. Thus, the relationships in the data between the prices, market shares, and regional revenue shares will assist in identifying the substitution parameter  $\sigma$ .

The empirical demand and pricing equations, (1) and (2) respectively, consist of a system of nonlinear, simultaneous equations that can be estimated. That is, the system of revenue share (Eq. 1) and pricing equations (Eq. 2) for all listings yields an equilibrium model of the Airbnb market in a city. By employing the estimated parameters, the model facilitates simulations of the equilibrium of the Airbnb market under various conditions.

### 3.2 Data

Our dataset, compiled from various sources, consists of information on Airbnb listings in Stockholm. Stockholm was chosen because it is not a very large city and is still characterized mainly by peer-to-peer transactions rather than a more commercialized version where rental companies rent properties to tourists. Another benefit of focusing on Stockholm is that it has five well-defined neighbourhoods that appear on its site (Kungsholmen, Norrmalm, Södermalm, Östermalm, and outside the city center) that we

used as nests. We obtained two complementary data sets for Stockholm Airbnb listings from Airdna (<https://www.airdna.co/>). One data set included the economic performance of listings (Average Daily Rate (ADR), number of reservations, and revenue) during the year 2016, on a monthly basis. The second data set included a static shot of each listing's attributes (e.g., photo of the host, review score) at the month the data was downloaded, i.e., January 2017. One dilemma concerns the choice of the exact time period for the market analysis. Our first thought was to simply analyze the entire year 2016 and use the monthly economic performance as panel data. However, this choice has some major drawbacks. Some of the listings' attributes are likely to have changed over the course of an entire year (e.g., review score), and so their record from January 2017 might misrepresent their actual state as it was 12 months earlier on January 2016. The longer the period, the higher the chance that the listing's attributes have changed. This issue is important since our interest is analyzing the impact of the attributes on economic performance. There is no way to retrospectively obtain the actual attributes as they were in each month of 2016. Another challenge is that many listings have zero revenue during certain months. This challenge can be addressed by considering the total revenue over a period of several months. Thus, we decided to define the market we would study as the last five months of 2016, i.e., from August to December 2016. One important aspect of this time frame is that it captures both peak and low seasons, i.e., summer, fall and winter. At the same time, it is not too long a period for the listing's attributes to change drastically,<sup>5</sup> while it is long enough for most of the active listings to have non-zero revenue. In this case, the market share of each listing is its revenues during these five months divided by the total revenue of the accommodation market in Stockholm.

Airbnb Stockholm, as recorded in January 2017, included 8626 listings. However, only a small number of those listings was actively competing in the market during the last five months of 2016. In terms of level of activity, the listings in the market range from those that have not been rented for more than a year, to very active listings that have been rented during each month of the study period. On Airbnb, unlike hotels, hosts can choose

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<sup>5</sup> We checked how dynamic the changes in attributes of the listings are. While we did not have the data to compare the attributes of January 2017 to those of August 2016, we had data for January and April 2017. Our comparison of the major attributes between these two points in time showed almost no changes during this time span, confirming our assumption.

not to rent their property even if it appears on the site. They can choose to rent it only at their convenience and block it at other times or deny requests from potential guests as they choose. Thus, listings can be arranged along this range according to their level of active competition in the market. Some were available for only a few days (e.g., the hosts left for a weekend and decided to rent their apartment over this weekend) and some were available for most of the period. In the current analysis, we focus on the latter type of listings, the ones most active in the market, for several reasons. First, the current analysis dictates the collection of primary data on each listing regarding their visual attributes (e.g., judgement of host and apartment photos) and textual attributes, which is very costly and can be done only to a subset of the market. Given that the analysis can only focus on one subset of the listings, it seems more reasonable to focus on the most active listings, under the assumption that these listings are the ones that drive the market in terms of transactions, revenue share, and so on. Another important feature of analyzing the subset that includes the most active listings is that there are no missing values on important attributes that are needed for the analysis. The estimation problem we could have faced with this sample selection was that it could have affected the statistical significance of the chosen statistical tests. It also should be noted that what we learn from these estimations about the connections between the attributes and the market performance of a listing is mainly relevant for the most active listings and might not be relevant for the non-active ones.

The process of eliminating the listings that were not relevant for our analysis was composed of the following steps. The first step was removing “ghost” listings, i.e., apartments that were never rented in 2016, which resulted in 6082 listings remaining. Next, we removed listings that were not been rented at least once during the five-month period (August to December 2016). The application of this criterion resulted in 4243 listings remaining. Our next step was to remove listings that were blocked for booking for more than two weeks per month during the five-month period. This step resulted in 1473 listings remaining. We then excluded listings that have never been rated by guests (i.e., that have no review score). This resulted in a dataset of 1238 relevant listings.

By selecting this set of listings, we were exposed to the error of eliminating a listing that was active in the market but did not receive any reservations during the study

period because it priced itself out of the market. In order to test this possibility, we compared the average daily rate (ADR) of the 1238 listings dataset with that of the 4844 listings that were excluded from the initial data of 6082 listings. The comparison revealed that the ADR in the 1238 listings data set (\$139) was very similar to the ADR of the initial dataset (\$133). Therefore, we can reject the concern that the listings that were excluded from our analysis are not active because they priced themselves out of the market. The next step was excluding properties that were not apartments or houses (e.g., dormitories, boats, and so on), resulting in 1159 listings remaining.

Since the focus of the study was the role of the different listings' attributes in the market, we excluded listings that had no photos of hosts (e.g., that featured smiley icons, flowers, and so on) or the property (e.g., that showed city views), and those whose self-disclosure text was in Swedish. Nevertheless, we used them by adding their revenue to that of the outside good—in our case the hotels in Stockholm. After the application of these criteria, the final data set included 576 relevant listings.

In order to ensure that there was no selection bias resulting from the latter exclusion, we compared the listings in the final dataset with the listings that were excluded from the 1159-listing dataset. Table 2 shows some differences between the two sets, yet in most cases these differences are rather small even in cases where they showed statistical significance.

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To summarize, the final dataset of Stockholm's listings used in the current study represents all the active apartments that had all the needed information for our analysis. Thus, the market we analyzed is the market of the last five months in 2016 of active listings that contain all the information we needed. The rest of the active listings in our analysis fall, with the hotel market, into the category of outside good, which is taken into consideration in our theoretical and empirical model.

The listings' attributes include the following variables: listing type (shared room, private room, entire home), number of months on Airbnb (computed according to the listing's creation date), neighbourhood, number of bedrooms, number of bathrooms, maximum guests allowed, Average Daily Rate (ADR) in USD, number of reviews, review score (i.e., overall rating score), number of reservation days, number of available

days, number of blocked days, number of listing photos posted, and listing's main photo. For each of the listing's variables that include monthly information (e.g., ADR), we then used the means (or sums wherever applicable) over the five months of the recorded data.

The hosts' data include the host's self-disclosure text, from which we extracted the number of words in the description, Superhost status (yes/no), whether the host was tagged as "verified" (yes/no), number of host's listings, and the host's personal photo.

The data extracted from Airbnb does not include the perceived trustworthiness of the hosts and the perceived attractiveness of the apartment. To collect this information, we leveraged on-demand user-contributed opinions from Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). The data consists of photos of 538 different hosts and 576 photos of their apartments. The host photos were evaluated by 540 AMT workers from the US and Canada. Each worker examined 20 photos. Each host photo was examined by 20 AMT workers who responded to the question "How trustworthy is the person in the picture?" (on a scale of 1 to 10). Interrater correlation analysis was performed on the rating data for the photographs in each group of participants. The results indicated adequate levels of reliability (mean score = 0.70).

To assess the perceived attractiveness of the apartment photos, we recruited another 400 AMT workers, each of whom examined 30 photos. Each apartment's photo was examined by 20 workers who responded to the question: "Would you choose to spend a night in the lodging shown in the picture?" (on a scale of 1 to 10) We computed the mean scores for each of these variables and merged them with the original dataset. Interrater correlation analysis was performed on the rating data for the apartment photographs in each group of participants. The results indicated adequate levels of reliability (mean score = 0.73).

The quantification of the text was conducted according to Ma et al.'s (2017) algorithm, which analyzes the text of host profiles to predict hosts' perceived trustworthiness, based on their textual features. We chose to use the word count of the self-disclosure text as a proxy for trustworthiness based on the strong correlation the authors found between the number of words in the text and the host's trustworthiness as calculated by their algorithm.

The Airbnb Stockholm market analysis is based on the structural empirical model, as described in Section 2. The system of equations is estimated using the merged dataset that includes the listings' and hosts' data from Airdna, the on-demand user-generated data from AMT, and the text quantification data.

## 4 Model Specification and Results

In this section, we present the specification of our empirical model and the estimation results. We estimated four models, each composed of a different set of hosts' attributes. This section reports the empirical analysis and the next section reports simulations that applied these estimates to different scenarios in order to evaluate the economic effects of the changes Airbnb is undergoing.

The nested logit model used here implies that guests tend to have higher levels of substitution within a neighbourhood than between neighbourhoods. This model structure is more suitable for our analysis, since guests tend to seek accommodation near their point of interest in a city (Shoval et al., 2011). Thus, it is more likely that guests would prefer to substitute listings within the neighbourhood than outside it.

The potential accommodation market in Stockholm is defined as the total revenue of hotels in 2016 (*Stockholm Hotel Report 2018*, n.d.) adjusted to a five-month period. In 2016 there were 7,185,507 available hotel rooms with RevPAR (revenue per available room) of 100.7 USD and total revenue of approximately 723 million USD.

### 4.1 Estimation Methodology

The system of equations (1) and (2) is simultaneous and non-linear in  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma$ ; the price,  $p_j$ , and the shares,  $s_j$  and  $s_{j/g}$  are endogenous and thus require a set of instruments. The error terms in both equations are functions of unobserved attributes of the listing and thus can be correlated, and  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma$  appear in both equations. We chose to employ the general method of moments (GMM) in the estimation as the best procedure to handle the aforementioned econometric problems mainly because it does not require additional assumptions on the error terms in the structural equations. The estimations were carried out by utilizing GMM procedure in STATA (v15).

## 4.2 Instruments

The endogenous variables in the model are the price,  $p_j$ , and the shares,  $s_j$  and  $s_{j/g}$ . Instrument variables for revenue shares that do not correlate with costs are the following: the perceived trustworthiness of the host photo, which is observed by the guests and positively correlated with demand, but not with costs, and the number of apartments of the same size in the neighbourhood, the number of hotel rooms, and the number of other Airbnb listings at the neighbourhood level, which are negatively correlated with the revenue shares with and within the neighbourhood, as suggested by BLP and B&V. Therefore, they are used as instruments for both types of shares.

The instruments for price (ADR) are: the average price of listings of the same size in different neighbourhoods, the average price of listings of different size in the same neighbourhood, the number of listings of the same size in different neighbourhood, dummy if the host manages more than one listing (economies of scale), and the number of reservations (a large number of short-stay reservations are more costly to manage than a small number of long-stay reservations). The choice of all instruments was validated by the F-test of the excluded instruments, which was significant in the first-stage regressions for all three endogenous variables. Table 1 shows descriptive statistics of these instruments. Note that we treated the review score, our variable for reputation, as an exogenous variable. This assumption can be justified to the extent that the review score is based on the mean of all guests' ratings, and different guests observed different prices during the relevant period. We tested this assumption by considering a specification

----- put Table 1 here-----  
 where overall rating was treated as an endogenous variable with the same set of instruments, with no significant change in the results.

## 4.3 Results

Table 3 presents the estimated demand parameters for four different models. We report the values of  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma$  in the demand estimation results table although they also

appear in the pricing equation. As expected,  $\alpha$  and  $\sigma$  are both positive and significant.<sup>6</sup> The significance of  $\sigma$  confirms our nested structure assumption that guests perceive listings in the same neighbourhood as closer substitutes than listings from different neighbourhoods. The estimated value of demand elasticity is -5.2 (see Appendix 1 for the method of calculating the elasticity) and the markup is, accordingly, 19%. The value of the elasticity is the weighted (by sales) average elasticity across the listings. In a work by Lanza et al. (Lanza et al., 2003) demand elasticity for tourism in 13 European countries was estimated to be between -1.8 to -1.1. Konovalova and Vidishcheva (Konovalova & Vidishcheva, 2013) conducted an empirical study on elasticity of demand in tourism and hospitality industries in different economics. They found that the average price elasticity of demand for most countries is between -2 to -0.8. Our findings of a relatively high demand elasticity and a lower markup reveal that, comparing to tourism markets, the Airbnb market in Stockholm is competitive and although the listings differ in their attributes, guests consider them as close substitutes.

-----put Table 3 here-----

In Model 1 we included only the variable of visual trustworthiness and in Model 2 we added the variable review scores. As expected, guests have higher preferences for more trustworthy host images and listings with better host reputations (higher review score). In both cases, the variables are positive, trustworthy image is significant in Model 1 only and review score is significant in Model 2. Model 3 reveals that when we included the Superhost certification badge the review score coefficient is still significant but at a lower level of significance and visual trustworthiness was not significant. Pearson correlation between Superhost and review score is 0.27, between Superhost and visual trust 0.1, and between review score and visual trust 0.08. We can also see that guests have higher preferences for verified hosts and that the trustworthiness of the self-disclosure text does not seem to affect guests' preferences significantly.

The estimated coefficients in all the models suggest that guests have different valuations for the different listings' physical attributes. Guests' valuations of entire homes and private rooms are significantly higher than their valuations of

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<sup>6</sup> Due to the structured minus sign of alpha (i.e.,  $-\alpha$ ) in demand equation (1), a positive coefficient of alpha is expected.

accommodations in shared rooms. Likewise, their valuations are significantly higher for more bedrooms and bathrooms. As expected, guests' valuations for listings increase if the accommodations are located at the center of Stockholm. Other significant variables that positively affect demand are the level of attractiveness of the listing's main image and the number of listing images posted. A possible explanation for the significant positive coefficient of the number of images is that posting a large number of photos conveys the message that a host has nothing to hide. We control for the number of days some of the hosts blocked their listing by adding the number of blocked days to the estimation.

Table 4 presents the results for the pricing equation. The estimated coefficients in the table reflect the effect of the attributes on marginal cost. Estimation results suggest that listings located outside the city center enjoy lower marginal cost, whereas the cost of an entire home is higher than that of shared rooms and private rooms. Costs increase with the size of the apartment (number of bedrooms, bathrooms, and maximum number of guests) and the attractiveness of the interior decoration ('apartment mean' and 'number of photos'). In Model 4, the Superhost certification was included in the pricing equation under the assumption that in order to excel, hosts with such certification face higher costs. The coefficient is positive, but not significant.

-----put Table 4 here -----

## 5 Simulations of Stockholm's Airbnb Market Equilibrium

Given the estimated parameters, the system of demand and pricing equations (1) and (2) comprises an equilibrium model of the Stockholm Airbnb market. Exogenous to the equilibrium model are the host and listing attributes. After an exogenous change in host and/or listing attributes, the model searches for sets of 576 listing prices (i.e., ADR) and quantities (i.e., number of reservation days) that simultaneously solve the demand and pricing equations in equilibrium.

Table 5 presents the results of simulating the equilibrium of Stockholm's Airbnb market in two scenarios. The first simulation was intended to evaluate the role of the hosts' attributes in a scenario in which there are no Superhosts and the reputation indicators are taking a plunge. In the second one, we simulated a scenario in which the physical attributes of the property had improved—a move from Airbnb to “Airbnb plus”—the category within Airbnb that offers more luxurious listings. In each simulation, we were able to evaluate the effects of the changes on the number of reservation days, the ADR, profits, consumer surplus (see Appendix 2 for details), and total welfare of the market. It should be noted that the simulations take into consideration the optout option of hotels as an outside good. For example, when we lower the reputation of all the listings consumers have the option to choose not to stay in any Airbnb apartment and choose to stay in hotels in the accommodation market of Stockholm. The different listings do not only compete with each other they also compete with hotels in the accommodation market. Thus the absolute change in the level of reputation of all Airbnb listings does make a difference.

-----put Table 5 here-----

### 5.1 *Simulation 1: Change in the hosts' attributes – lower review scores and no Superhosts*

The purpose of this simulation was to test the effect of the hosts' attributes on the market. Ostensibly, they should not have affected the market, since they do not describe the product traded in the market. However, as we showed in the estimated model, they do play a significant role in the market. As mentioned above, high review scores are very

important for Airbnb in its competition with the hotels in the accommodation market. The same holds true for the Superhost certification. These two attributes assist Airbnb in overcoming its image as a risky P2P platform. Thus, in this simulation we tested what would happen if we eliminated the Superhost certification (currently held by approximately 20 percent of the market) and lowered the review score to the same level hotels in Europe receive on Booking.com. We employed the data of hotels' rankings in Paris, London, Barcelona, Vienna and Berlin from Ert et al.'s (2016) study. Based on the distribution of the rankings from these locations, we shifted and scaled Airbnb's review scores so they would have the same mean and SD as those of the hotels.<sup>7</sup> Under this scenario, Airbnb market suffers a 34 percent reduction in reservation days. In our model, this means that these reservations shifted to hotels. ADR decreased by one percent, implying that demand decreased even more, but it was offset by the price decrease. Profit decreased by 35 percent and consumer surplus by 42 percent. These results demonstrate the importance of reputation and quality certification in Airbnb's market. They explain why Airbnb implemented the Superhost certification although it is correlated with the review score. It also explains why Airbnb does not make an effective effort to change the very high review scores. As mentioned above, these very high review scores do not provide the necessary information about the hosts in this market, in which trust plays an important role. Nevertheless, it is in Airbnb's interest to keep the review scores high in order to maintain a competitive edge over hotels in the same location.

## **5.2 *Simulation 2: Change in the listings' attributes – A move towards Airbnb plus***

Airbnb is moving slowly toward offering more luxury apartments and boutique accommodations. As mentioned above, their new line of luxury accommodation is called "Airbnb plus" (<https://www.airbnb.com/plus>). In light of the fact that Airbnb positioned itself in its early years as a low-cost alternative to hotels, this recent development is significant. We attempted to simulate this change by increasing the number of bedrooms by one in listings with an entire apartment only. We also increased the apartment's

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<sup>7</sup> Mean and SD of the review score of the hotels are 7.73 and 0.62 respectively on a scale of 1 to 10. In the simulation, we normalized it to the scale of 1 to 5 as it is used in Airbnb, resulting in a mean of 3.86 and an SD of 0.31.

attractiveness score (based on its photos), which reflects improvement in the design of the interior decoration. With these changes in the accommodations' attributes, we simulated an upscaling of the Airbnb market in Stockholm. This resulted mainly in a 24 percent increase in ADR. Demand increased by 24 percent despite the price increase. Profit and consumer surplus increased by 57 percent and 60 percent respectively. From this simulation, we can infer that the Airbnb market seems to benefit by positioning itself as offering luxury accommodations, despite the fact that its initial positioning focused on its being cheaper than hotels. This situation may explain Airbnb's move to a level of accommodation similar to that of the hotels with which it is competing.

## 6 Conclusions

Peer-to-peer market platforms, particularly those associated with the “sharing economy,” are based on trust between buyers and sellers. Therefore, these platforms present not only product information, but also substantial information about their sellers, indicating the importance of trust to their success. Consequently, products in P2P service markets are not differentiated from one another only in terms of their physical attributes, but also in terms of their sellers’ attributes, which are interpreted as trust signals.

In this paper, we introduced a framework for identifying the role of trust and its importance to economic performance in P2P platforms. To that end, we used a differentiated goods model that takes into account differentiation in the attributes of both products and their sellers. The empirical model also provides a convenient framework for market-equilibrium simulations, which we use to examine the effect of the different attributes on economic welfare. We applied our model to the Stockholm Airbnb market by using numerical, visual, and textual data from different sources that described the sellers’ attributes. We also simulated different market equilibria to evaluate the full impact of the different attributes, since some appear in both the demand and pricing equations.

We showed that although the Airbnb market in Stockholm is a differentiated goods market, it is a competitive market with relatively high demand elasticity. The simulation results suggest an explanation for why it is in the interest of these platforms to retain the uninformative high review scores and introduce an additional quality certification. Specifically, the simulations show that lowering the review scores and eliminating the certification will cause guests to move to hotels in the city, resulting in a reduction in profit and consumer surplus. We also explain the shift in the positioning of Airbnb from an inexpensive alternative to hotels to a closer substitute for hotels by introducing an upscale line of luxury accommodations.

We provide insight into the role of sellers’ attributes in P2P markets and show how they can be deployed in order to increase the market welfare. Airbnb changed sellers’ attributes over time, altering their dominance on the search page and adding additional ones, and we showed the economic rationale behind these actions. We

demonstrated that Airbnb utilizes its unique capabilities as an online platform in order to compete with hotels—the traditional products in the market. This significant insight, that it is possible to increase profit by changing the attributes of the sellers only, can be applied to other P2P markets.

This paper takes a first step in offering not a partial analysis of P2P markets (as its predecessors did), but rather a full market economic model that considers not only the equilibrium in the market, but also the effect of an outside good, i.e., hotels in our case. Thus, it suggests a reasonable and relatively simple extension of the differentiated goods modeling approach that enables the assessment of P2P markets.

Our work has a number of limitations, some of which can point to fruitful areas for future research. In this study, we focused on the Stockholm Airbnb market, which shares its main important features with other Airbnb markets (e.g., the online platform), but certainly includes some specific attributes (e.g., the city's structure). Accordingly, in order to address the generalizability of current market and results future studies could compare them with those of other cities in different areas in the world. Another fruitful possibility for future research would involve assessing the role of the trust indicator in more traditional P2P markets where sellers and buyers do not meet offline, such as eBay. The framework developed in this study could be used for such purposes.

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## Appendix 1

### Own Price Elasticity in the One-Level Nested Logit Constant Expenditure Demand Model

We rely on Björnerstedt and Verboven's (2016) two-level nested logit constant expenditure demand model, which generates the following analytic expressions for price elasticities (B&V pages 159–160):

$$(A.10) \quad \frac{\partial q_k}{\partial p_j} \frac{p_j}{q_k} = -\alpha \left( \frac{1}{1-\sigma_1} D_{jk}^1 - \left( \frac{1}{1-\sigma_1} - \frac{1}{1-\sigma_2} \right) s_{j/hg} D_{jk}^2 - \frac{\sigma_2}{1-\sigma_2} s_{j/g} D_{jk}^3 - s_j \right) - D_{jk}^1$$

where  $D_{jk}^1$ ,  $D_{jk}^2$  and  $D_{jk}^3$  are dummy variables defined as follows:  $D_{jk}^1 = 1$  if  $j=k$ ,  $D_{jk}^2 = 1$  if  $j$  and  $k$  are in the same subgroup, and  $D_{jk}^3 = 1$  if  $j$  and  $k$  are in the same group (and zero otherwise). The indices  $g$  and  $h$  are the group and subgroup indices, respectively.  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  are the nesting parameters associated with the nested logit distribution, measuring the preference correlation across products of the same subgroup or group. If  $\sigma_2 = 0$ , the model reduces to the one-level nested logit (as specified in our context), and if  $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = 0$  the model reduces to the familiar logit model, so preferences are not correlated across products of the same subgroups or groups.

In order to get the expression for the own price elasticity in the one-level nested logit constant expenditure demand model,  $D_{jk}^1 = D_{jk}^2 = D_{jk}^3 = 1$ , and  $\sigma_2 = 0$  need to be set in (A.10).<sup>8</sup>

(A.11)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial q_j}{\partial p_j} \frac{p_j}{q_j} &= -\alpha \left( \frac{1}{1-\sigma} - \left( \frac{1}{1-\sigma} - 1 \right) s_{j/g} - s_j \right) - 1 = -\alpha \left( \frac{1}{1-\sigma} - \frac{s_{j/g}}{1-\sigma} + s_{j/g} - s_j \right) - 1 = \\ &= \frac{-\alpha [1 - s_{j/g} + (1-\sigma)s_{j/g} - (1-\sigma)s_j] - (1-\sigma)}{1-\sigma} = \frac{-\alpha [1 - \sigma s_{j/g} - (1-\sigma)s_j] - (1-\sigma)}{1-\sigma} \end{aligned}$$

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<sup>8</sup> All the dummy variables are equal to 1 since  $j=k$ . Moreover, indices “h” and “1” are redundant when reducing to one-level nested logit.



## Appendix 2

### Consumer Surplus in the One-Level Nested Logit Constant Expenditure Demand Model

Departing from (S. T. Berry, 1994) one-level nested logit demand model, the utility of guest  $i$  from visiting listing  $j$  is:

$$(A.1) \quad u_{ij} = x_j \beta + \xi_j + \alpha f(y_i, p_j) + \zeta_{ig} + (1 - \sigma) \varepsilon_{ij}$$

We adopted the B&V constant expenditure model, which allows for income and price to enter non-additively, specifically

$$(A.2) \quad f(y_i, p_j) = \gamma^{-1} \ln y_i - \ln p_j$$

where  $\gamma$  is the fraction of a guest's budget allocated to Airbnb listings. Note that when expression (A.2) is substituted into equation (A.1), the mean utility level attached to listing  $j$  (common to all guests) is defined as:

$$(A.3) \quad \delta_j \equiv x_j \beta - \alpha \ln p_j + \xi_j$$

In order to continue with the analysis, several more assumptions are required regarding the population distribution of the utility components attached to the unobserved characteristics. Following Berry's (1994) assumptions,  $v_{ij} \equiv \zeta_{ig} + (1 - \sigma) \varepsilon_{ij}$  is *i.i.d.* and its population mean is zero. Hence, the range of utility values,  $v_{ij}$ , for whom guest  $i$  chooses listing  $j$  from neighbourhood  $g$  is denoted by  $A$ :

$$(A.4) \quad A \equiv \{v_{ij} \mid \delta_j + v_{ij} \geq \delta_k + v_{ik} \quad \forall k \neq j\}$$

Denoting the cumulative distribution function of  $v_{ij}$  by  $F(v)$ , the analytical expression for the probability that a guest  $i$  will choose listing  $j$  is given by:  $\int_A dF(v)$

To complete the theoretical aggregate demand framework and to derive a closed form expression for the probability of choosing listing  $j$ , we introduced an outside good,  $j = 0$ , whose mean utility is normalized to zero, i.e.,  $\delta_0 = 0$ . In our case, the outside good consists of the hotels located in the same market (city in our case).

Following (Cardell, 1997), it can be shown that the joint distribution of  $v_{ij}$  is given by:

$$v \sim \exp \left[ -\sum_{l=1}^G \left( \sum_{j=1}^{G_g} e^{\frac{v_j}{\sigma}} \right)^\sigma \right] \text{ where } G_g \text{ denotes the set of listings in neighbourhood } g.$$

Employing the above distributional assumptions, the familiar closed form expression for the probability that a guest  $i$  will choose a listing  $j$  belonging to neighbourhood  $g$  is:

(A.5)

$$\begin{aligned} s_j(\delta, \sigma) &= \frac{e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}}}{\left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^\sigma \cdot \sum_g \left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^{1-\sigma}} = \frac{e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}}}{\left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^\sigma \cdot \left[ 1 + \sum_{g=1}^G \left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^{1-\sigma} \right]} = \frac{e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \cdot e^{I_{G_g}}}{e^{\frac{I_{G_g}}{1-\sigma}} \cdot e^I} \\ &= \frac{e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}}}{e^{\frac{I_{G_g}}{1-\sigma}} \cdot e^{-I_{G_g}} \cdot e^I} = \frac{e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}}}{e^{\frac{I_{G_g}}{1-\sigma}} \cdot e^{\frac{(1-\sigma)I_{G_g}}{(1-\sigma)}} \cdot e^I} = \frac{e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}}}{e^{\frac{I_{G_g} - (1-\sigma)I_{G_g}}{1-\sigma}} \cdot e^I} = \frac{e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}}}{e^{\frac{\sigma I_{G_g}}{1-\sigma}} \cdot e^I} \end{aligned}$$

where  $I_{G_g}$  and  $I$  are the “inclusive values” defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} (A.6) \quad I_{G_g} &= (1-\sigma) \ln \left( \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right) = \ln \left( \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right)^{1-\sigma} \\ I &= \ln \left( 1 + \sum_{g=1}^G e^{I_{G_g}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

The expected utility of a random consumer (guest)  $i$  in utiles is:

$$(A.7) \quad EU_i = E \left( \max_{j \in J} u_{ij} \right) = \ln \left( 1 + \sum_{g=1}^G e^{I_{G_g}} \right) = I$$

Following (Train, 2009), we convert utiles to monetary terms by dividing the expected utility  $EU_i$  by the marginal utility of income  $\partial u_{ij} / \partial y_i$  to get:

$$(A.8) \quad CS_i = \frac{EU_i}{\partial u_{ij} / \partial y_i} = \frac{EU_i}{\alpha / \mathcal{W}_i} = \frac{\ln \left( 1 + \sum_{g=1}^G \left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^{1-\sigma} \right)}{\alpha / \mathcal{W}_i} = \frac{\ln \left( 1 + \sum_{g=1}^G \left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^{1-\sigma} \right)}{\alpha} \cdot \mathcal{W}_i$$

the consumer surplus (per consumer).

Define  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^N y_i$  as the total income of all  $N$  consumers in the economy. Following B&V

we define  $B = \gamma Y$  as the total potential budget allocated to the differentiated listings in the economy. Therefore, the total consumer surplus is:

$$(A.9) \quad CS = \sum_{i=1}^N CS_i = \frac{\ln \left( 1 + \sum_{g=1}^G \left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^{1-\sigma} \right)}{\alpha} \cdot \gamma Y = \frac{\ln \left( 1 + \sum_{g=1}^G \left[ \sum_{j \in G_g} e^{\frac{\delta_j}{1-\sigma}} \right]^{1-\sigma} \right)}{\alpha} \cdot B$$

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Scale	Mean	Std. Dev.
ADR (\$)		145.73	86.21
Revenue share		0.0017	0.0015
Block share		0.04	0.06
Outside city center	Outside=1	0.06	
Review score	1-5	4.72	0.24
Entire home	Entire=1	0.79	
Private room	Private=1	0.20	
No. of photos		12.55	7.82
Apartment attractiveness	1-10	6.11	1.23
No. of bedrooms		1.21	0.72
No. of bathrooms		1.08	0.26
Verified	Verified=1	0.61	
Superhost	Super=1	0.19	
Max._guests		2.95	1.43
Visual Trustworthiness	1-10	6.10	0.83
Word count		28.14	35.98

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Table 2: Comparison of the final data (576 listings) with the 583 (1159-576) listings' data

	Data 576		Data 583	
	Mean	Std.	Mean	Std.
ADR	145.73	86.21	138.43	85.19
Prop. blocking days	0.04	0.06	0.04	0.05
Outside of city center	0.07	0.26	0.07	0.25
Review score	4.72**	0.24	4.67	0.40
Entire home	0.79**	0.41	0.85	0.35
Private room	0.20***	0.40	0.13	0.34
No. of listing photos	12.55**	7.82	11.14	7.47
No. of bathrooms	1.08	0.26	1.07	0.24
Verified host	0.61***	0.49	0.41	0.49
Superhost	0.17***	0.38	0.08	0.27
Multiple apartments	0.28	0.45	0.26	0.44
No. of reservations	19.05***	13.51	11.90	10.77
No. of bedrooms	1.21	0.71	1.15	0.75
Maximum guests	2.95	1.43	2.95	1.38
Response time (min)	390.57	438.80	361.04	437.76

\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001, for the difference between the means of the two datasets

Table 3. Demand Estimation Results

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Constant	-0.970 (3.830)	-3.357 (3.455)	-3.775 (2.911)	-3.822 (2.924)
Block share	-0.686 (1.143)	-1.139 (1.312)	-0.944 (1.126)	-0.981 (1.130)
Outside city center	-1.266*** (0.289)	-1.459*** (0.362)	-1.298*** (0.291)	-1.299*** (0.292)
Entire home	4.028*** (1.026)	4.765*** (1.276)	4.131*** (1.041)	4.144*** (1.044)
Private room	1.972*** (0.610)	2.302*** (0.810)	2.018*** (0.662)	2.026*** (0.665)
No. of Bedrooms	1.154*** (0.319)	1.343*** (0.364)	1.108*** (0.297)	1.113*** (0.298)
No. of Bathrooms	1.137*** (0.428)	1.344*** (0.499)	1.119*** (0.400)	1.118*** (0.402)
Apartment attractiveness	0.289*** (0.099)	0.316*** (0.109)	0.243*** (0.086)	0.245*** (0.087)
No. of photos	0.0469*** (0.014)	0.0526*** (0.016)	0.0424*** (0.012)	0.0427*** (0.012)
Verified	0.255** (0.121)	0.224 (0.138)	0.181 (0.119)	0.183 (0.119)

Word count	0.00205 (0.002)	0.00182 (0.002)	0.00142 (0.002)	0.00142 (0.002)
Visual	0.097*	0.0570	0.0509	0.0570
Trustworthiness	(0.06)	(0.071)	(0.064)	(0.064)
Review score		1.089** (0.444)	0.670* (0.366)	0.673* (0.366)
Superhost			0.535*** (0.165)	0.530*** (0.166)
<b>Joint Parameters</b>				
Alpha	3.682 *** (1.215)	4.485 *** (1.424)	3.631 *** (1.140)	3.642 *** (1.144)
Sigma	0.206 *** (0.075)	0.191 ** (0.081)	0.214 *** (0.073)	0.211 *** (0.073)

Standard errors in parentheses

\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

Table 4. Pricing Estimation Results

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Constant	3.817*** (0.202)	3.824*** (0.202)	3.817*** (0.201)	3.826*** (0.204)
Outside city center	-0.193*** (0.049)	-0.190*** (0.049)	-0.191*** (0.049)	-0.191*** (0.048)
Entire home	0.614*** (0.187)	0.612*** (0.186)	0.612*** (0.186)	0.617*** (0.189)
Private room	0.140 (0.187)	0.135 (0.187)	0.135 (0.187)	0.129 (0.190)
No. of Bedrooms	0.168*** (0.024)	0.166*** (0.024)	0.167*** (0.024)	0.166*** (0.024)
No. of Bathrooms	0.194*** (0.061)	0.202*** (0.060)	0.199*** (0.060)	0.197*** (0.060)
Max._guests	0.0762*** (0.013)	0.0734*** (0.013)	0.0745*** (0.013)	0.0742*** (0.013)
Apartment	0.0645*** (0.011)	0.0652*** (0.011)	0.0640*** (0.011)	0.0622*** (0.011)
Attractiveness				
No. of photos	0.00791*** (0.002)	0.00800*** (0.002)	0.00791*** (0.002)	0.00759*** (0.002)
Superhost				0.0541* (0.032)

Standard errors in parentheses

\* $p < 0.10$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$

Table 5. Simulation Results

	Current	Simulation 1:	Simulation 2:
	No Superhosts, and review distribution transfer	An additional room in each apartment, and apartment attractiveness increases by 10%	
Reservation days	40,628	-34%	24%
ADR (\$US)	145	-1%	21%
Profit (\$US)	1,077,633	-35%	57%
Consumer surplus (\$US)	2,968,470	-42%	60%
Total welfare (\$US)	4,046,103	-40%	59%