Antecedents of Customer Participation on Sharing Platforms: A Meta-analysis

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Given the substantive influence of the digital revolution on the sharing economy, it is timely and relevant to ask why some sharing platforms (e.g. Airbnb and Uber) achieve significant success while others fail. To determine which factors encourage customers to participate in sharing goods and services on sharing platforms, and when they do so, this study conducts a meta-analysis of empirical findings from 192 independent samples, extracted from 167 studies involving 171,344 customers. As the results clarify, customer-related factors (customer motives, customer competence, customer satisfaction and subjective norms) are key antecedents. However, platform-related factors (service quality of the platform, trust in the platform, performance expectancy and effort expectancy) and service-provider-related factors (service quality of the provider, trust in the provider and provider gender) also exert meaningful effects. To assess the generalizability of these antecedents, the meta-analysis includes contextual moderators, namely customer type (previous provider experience), provider type (private/professional supply), platform characteristics (rivalry on the platform, prestige of ownership and services/goods) and exchange type (for-profit/non-profit and ownership transfer). The findings advance the literature on the sharing economy and provide specific guidance for platform managers about when to focus on certain antecedents.

Introduction

In the sharing economy, customers and private service providers participate together in 'a scalable socio-economic system that employs technology-enabled platforms that provide users with [temporary] access to [underused] tangible and intangible resources that may be crowdsourced' (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019, p. 7). In such systems, some well-known sharing platforms, such as Airbnb and Uber, have altered entire industries; owing to its 'innovative internet-based business model', Airbnb constitutes a disruptive innovation (Guttentag, 2015, p. 1193). However, not all sharing platforms have achieved similar levels of success. In a preliminary study, we tracked the performance of 522 sharing businesses between 2018 and 2023 and found that 226 of them failed (Web Appendix A). A key challenge for these platforms is attracting enough customers who are willing to use them to share goods and services, such as cars (Turo), designer clothes (Rent the Runway) or offices (WeWork) (CNBC, 2023; NPR, 2023; Wired, 2023).

In efforts to determine why customers participate in sharing goods and services on sharing platforms, researchers have cited multiple antecedents of customer sharing behaviour (Khalek and Chakraborty, 2023). These antecedents relate to the customer (e.g. ecological motives), the sharing platform (e.g. effort expectancy) and the service provider (e.g. trust in the provider). Table 1 provides an overview of frequently examined antecedents. Despite the progress made in this research domain, the results of empirical studies are inconclusive (see Table 1). For example, some studies note positive associations between ecological motives and sharing behaviour (Böcker and Anderson, 2020), whereas others report non-significant findings (Lamberton and Rose, 2012). Similarly, some empirical studies show that a subjective norm in relation to sharing goods and services exerts positive effects (So, Oh and Min, 2018), whereas others report effects that are not significant (Barnes and Mattsson, 2017). Such inconsistencies might arise from the limitations of the studies themselves (e.g. small samples) or from contextual differences between studies (e.g. with regard to the

Table 1. Effects of antecedents on customer sharing intention/behaviour: Theoretical explanation and empirical evidence

Antecedent	Theoretical explanation	Inconsistent findings
Customer-related antecedents		
Ecological motives	The sharing economy is portrayed as a sustainable business model, offering the potential to conserve natural resources, protect the environment and reduce waste and overconsumption. Customers may share goods and services out of their environmental and sustainability concerns.	Positive, strong effect (Böcker and Anderson, 2020) Positive, weak effect (Barnes and Mattsson, 2016; Kozlenkova *et al.*, 2021) No effect (Lamberton and Rose, 2012)
Economic motives	Sharing is considered a low-cost, economical alternative to ownership or traditional consumption (e.g. Airbnb vs. hotels). Customers may participate in sharing to save money and reduce costs.	Positive, strong effect (Hawlitschek, Teubner and Gimpel, 2018) Positive, weak effect (Zhang, Bufquin and Lu, 2019) No effect (Tripp, McKnight and Lankton, 2023)
Hedonic motives	Customers may choose to share because the sharing experience is enjoyable in its own right, aside from any external value or purpose. Sharing enables customers to experience fun and excitement, especially in the peer-to-peer accommodation industry.	Positive, strong effect (Tripp *et al.*, 2023; Tussyadiah, 2016) Positive, weak effect (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) No effect (Chen and Lee, 2023)
Social motives	The sharing economy facilitates social interaction and fulfils customers' social needs through its inherently prosocial nature. For example, peer-to-peer accommodation fosters direct interactions between guests and hosts, and connections between tourists and local communities, enabling people to develop relationships and social bonds.	Positive, strong effect (Zhang, Bufquin and Lu, 2019) Positive, weak effect (Kozlenkova *et al.*, 2021) No effect (So, Oh and Min, 2018) Negative effect (Tussyadiah, 2016)
Utilitarian motives	As the sharing economy is a type of market exchange, customers may participate for utilitarian reasons. For example, peer-to-peer accommodation provides guests with functional value and personal utility, such as convenience and home benefits.	Positive, strong effect (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2012) Positive, weak effect (Zhang, Bufquin and Lu, 2019) No effect (Lee and Kim, 2018)
Subjective norm	Subjective norm is perceived social or peer pressure in favour of sharing. Sharing is a prosocial behaviour, so an individual's decision to share goods and services or not might be subject to the influence of others (e.g. family and friends).	Positive effect (So, Oh and Min, 2018) No effect (Barnes and Mattsson, 2017)
Customer competence	Increased knowledge and familiarity likely reduce sharing uncertainties, increase customers' self-confidence in their ability to share, enhance trust in sharing and ultimately increase sharing propensity.	Positive effect (Zhu, So and Hudson, 2017) No effect (Lu and Yi, 2023)
Customer age	Younger people are more likely to use shared mobility because they are aware of trends and financially conscious. Older people are more used to traditional travel habits and financially comfortable, and bike/car sharing as a relatively new, low-cost travel option is less appealing to them.	Positive effect (Wu, Zeng and Xie, 2017) No effect (Hartl, Kamleitner and Holub, 2020) Negative effect (Böcker and Anderson, 2020)
Customer education	Sharing economy customers generally have a higher level of education, because well-educated people tend to be more experienced and confident in adopting innovations and also more environmentally conscious, which attracts them to sharing as an innovative, eco-friendly consumption mode.	Positive effect (Prieto, Baltas and Stan, 2017) No effect (Wu, Zeng and Xie, 2017) Negative effect (Olya *et al.*, 2018)
Customer gender	Sharing economy customers are typically profiled as male, which is in line with the profile of early adopters of innovations. For example, men have more interest in car sharing and use the service more than women do, because they have fewer safety concerns.	Male (Prieto *et al.*, 2017) No effect (Böcker and Anderson, 2020) Female (Tan, Yang and Li, 2022)
Customer income	Income may have a positive effect because it is highly correlated with education, which is positively related to participation in sharing. Alternatively, income may have a negative effect because the economic benefits of sharing are less attractive to higher-income people.	Positive effect (Bäro *et al.*, 2022) No effect (Hartl, Kamleitner and Holub, 2020) Negative effect (Olya *et al.*, 2018)
Customer satisfaction	If shared goods and services meet or exceed customer expectations, customers are more likely to share again. Thus, customer satisfaction is a key antecedent of repeat sharing intentions and behaviour.	Positive effect (Si *et al.*, 2022; Tussyadiah, 2016)

products offered on the platform, exchange modes and customer types) (Kansal and Bhalla, 2023).

The inconsistencies in empirical findings limit our understanding of which antecedents impact customer sharing behaviour and how important these antecedents are. Several systematic literature reviews have attempted to consolidate the diverse empirical findings (Table 2). For example, Akande, Cabral and Casteleyn (2020) provide an overview of different antecedents, such as trust and subjective norms, in a smart city context,

Table 1. (*Continued*)

Antecedent	Theoretical explanation	Inconsistent findings
Platform-related antecedents		
Service quality of platform	Customer evaluations of a sharing platform focus on system and information quality. Platform quality facilitates online interactions and exchanges between customers and service providers, reduces their risks, enhances their confidence in the platform and contributes to a positive online experience.	Positive effect (Akhmedova, Marimon and Mas-Machuca, 2020) No effect (Dabbous and Tarhini, 2019)
Trust in platform	A high level of platform-based trust means customers are confident that the platform will support the sharing encounter and has effective mechanisms in place to protect them. As such, their uncertainties and risks are greatly reduced, and they feel safer about sharing.	Positive effect (Mittendorf, Berente and Holten, 2019) No effect (Barnes and Mattsson, 2017)
Performance expectancy	Sharing platforms (e.g. Airbnb website or app) are digital technologies that have critical mediating roles in the sharing economy. Customers and service providers rely on the platform to interact and exchange. Thus, performance expectancy is a key factor influencing customer sharing.	Positive effect (Juric, Lindenmeier and Arnold, 2021) No effect (Jamšek and Culiberg, 2020)
Effort expectancy	Sharing platforms that are hard to use may cause confusion and frustration, so ease of using the platform should be a concern for customers sharing goods and services with a sharing platform. Compared with performance expectancy, effort expectancy is generally found to have a weaker (sometimes no) influence.	Positive effect (Jamšek and Culiberg, 2020) No effect (Juric *et al.*, 2021)
Service-provider-related antecedents		
Service quality of provider	The sharing economy is characterized by heterogeneous service quality, which can vary significantly from one service provider to another, making it a salient factor in determining customer experience. A peer provider's service quality has a significant positive influence on customer loyalty.	Positive effect (De Canio *et al.*, 2020)
Trust in provider	Customers in the sharing economy tend to have greater concerns about the liability and possible misconduct of peer providers. Therefore, the need for trust between sharing partners becomes crucial. When customers trust that the peer provider will deliver the promised service in the expected manner, they are more likely to accept and use the service.	Positive effect (Ert, Fleischer and Magen, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2024) No effect (Dickinson *et al.*, 2018)
Provider age	Older people as service providers are perceived to be more trustworthy, whereas younger peer providers appear more attractive. Therefore, provider age may have both positive and negative effects on customer sharing intention, through perceived trustworthiness and attractiveness, respectively. However, research on age similarity/congruity suggests that when a peer provider is of similar age, customers are more likely to participate in sharing.	Positive effect (Ert and Fleischer, 2020)
Provider gender	According to research on gender stereotypes, women are perceived as more trustworthy and attractive, with a higher level of reciprocity and warmth, than men. A female provider is found to increase customer sharing intention. However, research on gender similarity/congruity finds that when a peer provider is of the same gender, customers are more likely to participate in sharing.	Female (Ert and Fleischer, 2020; Ert, Fleischer and Magen, 2016)

and Becker-Leifhold and Iran (2018) do the same for collaborative fashion consumption. Reviews by Kansal and Bhalla (2023) and Khalek and Chakraborty (2023) provide an overview of some customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents, and they propose conceptual frameworks that consider the impact of these antecedents on sharing behaviour. Kansal and Bhalla (2023) also identify certain contextual moderators (e.g. product type) that may explain inconsistencies in previous research findings. However, because these reviews are qualitative in nature, they do not allow for empirical hypothesis testing or for assessment of the importance of antecedents and the impact of moderators (Web Appendix B provides a discussion). Accordingly, Khalek and Chakraborty (2023) call for meta-analyses to address this gap.

Meta-analyses can be crucial for resolving inconsistencies because they synthesize empirical evidence quantitatively within a research domain; they can reveal the influence of various antecedents on outcomes such as customer sharing behaviour (Grewal, Puccinelli and Monroe, 2018); they can address the limitations of individual studies, such as measurement error and sampling bias (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004); and they can clarify the influence of study-level differences that may explain inconsistent findings. Barari *et al.* (2022) conducted a noteworthy meta-analysis; however, their study differs from ours in several important aspects (Table 2). In addition to considering more customer-, platform- and provider-related antecedents, our meta-analysis, in line with theory, considers sharing intention and behaviour differences, as well as numerous

Table 2. Selected systematic literature reviews and meta-analyses on sharing economy

Authors	Method	Focus	Antecedents of sharing?	Quantitative review?	Effect size integration?	Test of moderators?
Akande, Cabral and Casteleyn (2020)	Systematic literature review and meta-analysis	• Examines antecedents of the sharing economy and implications for smart cities. The study includes a total of 22 articles, all of which were published between 2016 and 2018. Within this set, 19 articles are included in the meta-analysis. • Provides an overview of different antecedents of consumers' intention to share (e.g. trust, subjective norm and economic benefit). A total of 12 antecedents are tested in the meta-analysis. • Does not differentiate between customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents. No moderators are examined.	Yes	Yes	Yes (19 studies, 12 antecedents of SI)	No
Barari *et al.* (2022)	Meta-analysis	• Considers nine sharing antecedents and provides preliminary insights into their importance. Does not differentiate between sharing intention and behaviour as outcomes, which is problematic as some antecedents may impact behaviour indirectly via intentions. • Considers country-related moderators but not those examined in the present research (i.e. customer type, provider type, platform characteristics and exchange type); moderators are not examined for each antecedent individually.	Yes	Yes	Yes (nine antecedents)	Yes (but not moderators of this study)
Becker-Leifhold and Iran (2018)	Systematic literature review	• Explores motivators and barriers of collaborative fashion consumption, with specific emphasis on the fashion industry. Includes 33 articles published until 2016. • Provides an overview of different motivators (e.g. hedonic, utilitarian) and barriers (e.g. lack of trust) of collaborative fashion consumption from the consumer perceptive. Discusses motivators (e.g. minimizing environmental risks) and barriers (e.g. organizational barriers) from a business perceptive. • Differentiates between consumer and business perspectives, though not between customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents. No moderators are examined.	Yes	No	No	No
Kansal and Bhalla (2023)	Systematic literature review	• Examines 10 years of consumer behaviour in collaborative consumption. Includes analysis of 97 articles published between 2010 and 2021. • Provides an overview of different reasons for (e.g. sustainability, sense of belonging and ease of use) and against (e.g. lack of trust and risk) sharing goods and services. Highlights differences among customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents. • Suggests using a contingency approach when studying the effects of different antecedents. While the framework hints at potential moderators (e.g. products offered on the platform, exchange modes and customer types), no moderators are tested.	Yes	No	No	No
Khalek and Chakraborty (2023)	Systematic literature review	• Concentrates on shared consumption and its determining factors, encompassing 331 articles published from 2010 to 2022. • Provides an overview of different motivators (e.g. functional, economic, social, ecological and emotional values) and barriers (e.g. usage, value and quality barriers) to sharing. Accounts for trust (e.g. provider and platform), individual traits (e.g. personality and efficacy norms) and sociodemographic variables. • Framework points to differences among customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents. Uses broad themes to discuss antecedents, even those that have been treated as separate constructs in sharing literature. No moderators are examined.	Yes	No	No	No

Notes: Detailed discussions of these and further systematic literature reviews are shown in Web Appendices B and C. SI = sharing intention.

untested moderators (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2012; Web Appendix C).

A meta-analysis of a rich data set has the potential to address inconsistencies in previous studies thanks to its capacity to provide a comprehensive assessment of contextual moderators. It can also enhance understanding of the generalizability of antecedents across different products offered on sharing platforms, different exchange modes and different customer types. Meta-analysis moderator tests go beyond those in studies that explore *when* different antecedents affect customer sharing behaviour (Table 3), including tests of whether their importance depends on customer gender, perceived risk, income, awareness knowledge or experience (Eccarius and Lu, 2020; Jain and Mishra, 2020; So, Kim and Min, 2022; Zhang and Liu, 2022). In most cases, moderation tests involve a single antecedent or a few antecedents, and very few studies have addressed contextual moderators. Moreover, most empirical studies are limited to single-sharing contexts; exceptions (Gupta *et al.*, 2019; Möhlmann, 2015) include Minami, Ramos and Bortoluzzo's (2021) comparison of the effects of five antecedents in for-profit versus non-profit settings. As a result, it remains uncertain whether the importance of different antecedents varies across contexts.

Against this background, we conduct a comprehensive meta-analysis of the antecedents of customer sharing behaviour, using data from 192 samples and 171,344 customers. We develop and test a conceptual framework that considers various antecedents and moderators. We find that several customer-related factors (customer motives, customer competence, customer satisfaction and subjective norms) represent key antecedents, as do several platform-related antecedents (service quality of the platform, trust in the platform, performance expectancy and effort expectancy) and service-provider-related antecedents (service quality of the provider, trust in the provider and provider gender).[1] These antecedents exert medium to strong effects, unlike most sociodemographic factors, which have weak effects or are non-significant. In addition to specifying which antecedents have the greatest impacts, we assess which contextual factors can explain the varying importance of different antecedents. In line with meta-analyses in related contexts (e.g. services vs. goods; Pick and Eisend, 2014), we assess the influence of various contextual moderators in order to propose explanations of inconsistent findings in the literature. The results reveal moderating influences of customer type (previous provider experience), provider type (private/ professional supply), platform characteristics (rivalry on platform, prestige of ownership and services/goods) and exchange type (for-profit/non-profit and ownership transfer). We also observe time effects (e.g. some antecedents increasing in importance over time) and country differences. These insights advance the sharing economy literature by generalizing across diverse contexts the importance of antecedents of sharing. The findings allow scholars to understand variations in the importance of antecedents across contexts, to interpret the results of their studies and to decide which antecedents to include in their research. Managers can use the findings to determine where to focus their resources and how to configure their business model.

Meta-analytic framework

Our meta-analytic framework (Figure 1) draws on the updated unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT2), for three main reasons. First, the sharing economy can be viewed as a technological phenomenon (Hamari, Sjöklint and Ukkonen, 2016), and it enables technology-mediated exchange with customers (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019; Guttentag, 2015). UTAUT2 is, therefore, appropriate for explaining customers' sharing intentions and behaviour (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2012). Second, UTAUT2 integrates elements from diverse theories; it is, therefore, more comprehensive than other approaches and suitable for use in a meta-analysis. Third, UTAUT2 is the theoretical framework adopted in previous studies of the sharing economy (e.g. Curtale, Liao and Rebalski, 2022; Juric, Lindenmeier and Arnold, 2021; Kopplin, Brand and Reichenberger, 2021). Web Appendix D offers a more detailed justification of this choice.

First, in line with UTAUT2, we identify customer sharing intention and behaviour as the dependent variables. Second, given that prior research extended UTAUT2 to various contexts by adding additional antecedents (Blut *et al.*, 2022), we integrate a range of UTAUT2 and non-UTAUT2 antecedents that have demonstrated theoretical relevance and empirical importance in the sharing economy literature (Table 1). We group them into customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents (Khalek and Chakraborty, 2023). Third, we include contextual moderators of the relationships among different antecedents and sharing intention to account for different sharing contexts. We do so for two reasons: UTAUT2 predicts that most antecedents exert indirect effects through behavioural intention, and prior empirical studies have mostly examined sharing intention. Therefore, this perspective enables us to test a more comprehensive set of moderators and establish new insights into which antecedents influence customers' sharing intention and when they do so. As such, our meta-analytic framework is based on UTAUT2 and extends UTAUT2 to the sharing

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[1]'Provider gender' refers to service provider gender. For simplicity, we use 'provider' instead of 'service provider' in construct labels, in line with Khalek and Chakraborty (2023).

Table 3. Moderators examined in extant research

	No. of rel. antecedents	Individual differences											Interaction characteristics							Context								
		Gender	Perceived risk	Past experience	Awareness knowledge	Income	Age	Car ownership	Advertisement perception	Education	Optimal stimulation	Usage intention	Consumption stage	Acquisition mode	Group size	Length of stay	Offline interaction	Provider characteristics	Shared property mgt.	Provider experience	Service object (tool, car)	Country	For-profit vs. non-profit	Ownership transfer	Prestige of ownership	Private/professional supply	Rivalry on platform	Services vs. goods
No. of studies		6	6	4	3	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
Agag and Eid (2019)	1	x				x	x																					
Bäro et al. (2022)	2	x				x	x																					
Eccarius and Lu (2020)	2	x			x	x		x	x	x																		
Jain and Mishra (2020)	3	x																										
Liu and Yang (2018)[a]	0	x																										
Si et al. (2022)	2	x						x																				
Anaya and Vega (2022)	3		x																									
Jiang and Lau (2021)	2		x																									
Lu and Yi (2023)	2		x																									
Raza, Khan and Salam (2023)	3		x																									
Rosenthal, Tan and Poh (2020)	1		x																									
Zhang and Liu (2022)	1		x																									
Cheah et al. (2022)	0			x							x																	
Mencarelli et al. (2022)	2			x																								
So, Kim and Min (2022)	4			x									x	x														
Wu, Zeng and Xie (2017)	7			x																								
Cheng, Fu and De Vreede (2018)	2				x																							
Lee and Kim (2018)	2				x																							
Yan, Zhang and Yu (2019)	3											x																
Huang (2022)	1												x															
Zhang, Jahromi and Kizildag (2018)	1														x													
Lawson (2011)	0															x												
Wu et al. (2021)	0																x											
Fu et al. (2023)	1																	x										
Xiang et al. (2022)	3																		x									
Lang et al. (2020)	1																			x								
Mittendorf, Berente and Holten (2019)	2																			x	x							
Zhu and Kubickova (2023)	2																			x								
Oyedele and Simpson (2018)	4																				x							
Aktan and Kethüda (2024)	1																					x						
Curtale, Liao and Rebalski (2022)	9																					x						
Minami, Ramos and Bortoluzzo (2021)	5																						x					
This meta-analysis	**20**																			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: In total, 32 out of 167 studies included in this meta-analysis consider moderators. Most moderators have been tested for single or a few antecedents of sharing behaviour (Table 1). Individual difference-related moderators received more attention than interaction- and context-related moderators. This meta-analysis examines the influence of nine context moderators on the effects of 20 antecedents of customers' sharing behaviour. Meta-analyses usually focus on context moderators because individual difference moderators are difficult to extract from the collated studies.

[a] Some studies have tested moderators for antecedents that are studied infrequently and are not part of the meta-analysis; we still include these studies in the table.
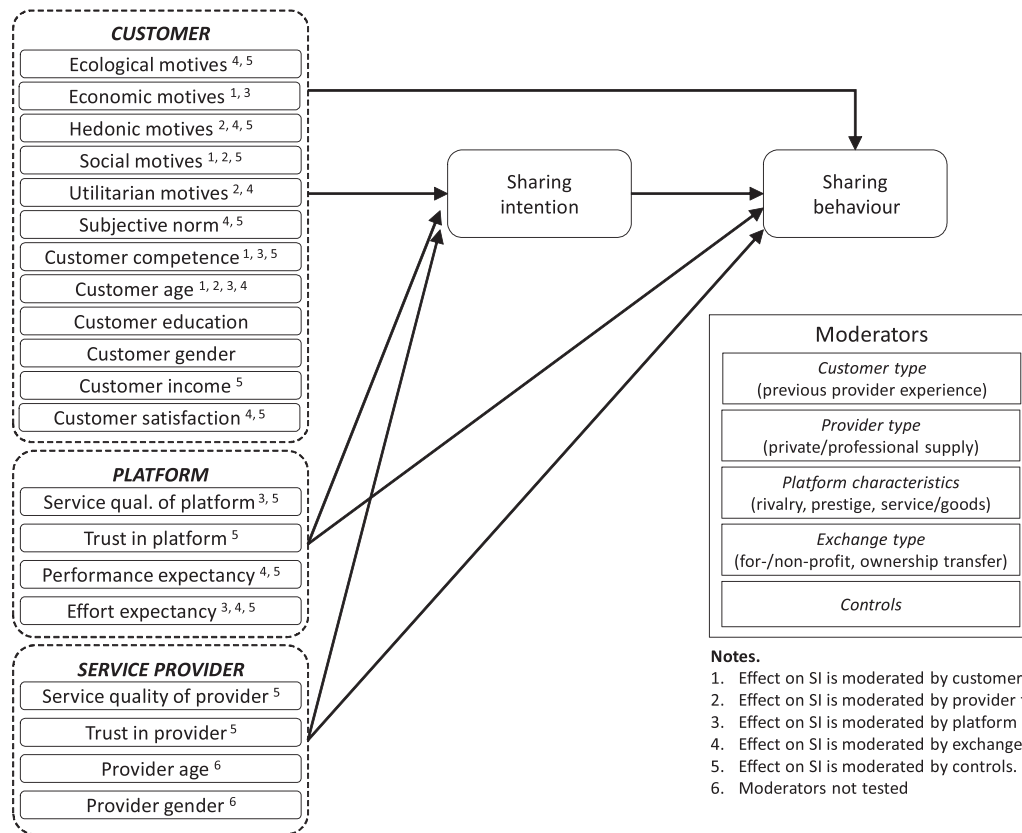
Figure 1. Meta-analytic framework on the customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents of customer sharing behaviour

economy context. Following other meta-analyses (Blut *et al.*, 2021), we present the main effects first and then develop our moderator hypotheses. Table 4 provides definitions of the constructs.

Main effects

Table 5 details the antecedents and the rationale for their inclusion. Five of the 20 antecedents are UTAUT2 constructs, and the others are extensions. First, for *customer-related antecedents*, whereas UTAUT2 considers monetary and enjoyment aspects of technology adoption by including price value and hedonic motivation, in the context of the sharing economy, we capture these aspects of sharing by measuring economic and hedonic sharing motivations. We also include the ecological, social and utilitarian motives identified in the literature as five distinct major motives for customer participation in the sharing economy (Guttentag *et al.*, 2018; Minami, Ramos and Bortoluzzo, 2021; So, Oh and Min, 2018; Tussyadiah, 2015, 2016). Second, whereas UTAUT2 treats age and gender as moderators, we also include education and income, and we consider all four sociodemographic factors as antecedents. This aligns with sharing economy studies that treat customer demographics as direct behavioural antecedents

(Bäro *et al.*, 2022; Hjorteset and Böcker, 2020; Olya *et al.*, 2018). Third, in addition to customer motives and demographics, we incorporate three additional antecedents that have been found to impact sharing intention and behaviour: subjective norms (UTAUT2), customer competence and customer satisfaction (So, Oh and Min, 2018; Tussyadiah, 2016).

For *platform-related antecedents*, we incorporate performance expectancy and effort expectancy directly from UTAUT2, and we include two additional antecedents: the service quality of the platform and trust in the platform. Service quality and trust represent two key concepts in the sharing economy literature, and both have been studied extensively, especially in tourism and hospitality research (Wang, Asaad and Filieri, 2020; Yang *et al.*, 2019).

Although UTAUT2 does not include *service-provider-related antecedents*, we integrate them into our framework to reflect the triadic nature of the sharing economy (i.e. customer, platform and service provider) (Khalek and Chakraborty, 2023). As customer–provider interaction is a crucial feature of the sharing economy, attributes of the provider influence customer sharing intention and behaviour directly (Pino *et al.*, 2020). As with platform-related antecedents, we examine the service quality of the provider and trust in the provider,

Table 4. Construct definitions and aliases

Construct	Definition	Alias(es)/examples	Representative studies
Outcomes			
Sharing behaviour	Customers' actual use of the sharing platform to share goods and services (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2012)	Actual adoption, actual booking, renting behaviour, repeat purchase, usage frequency, usage, use behaviour	Fritze et al. (2020) Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016)
Sharing intention	Customers' intention to use the sharing platform to share goods and services (Venkatesh et al., 2012)	Booking intention, intention to use, intention to participate, loyalty intentions, renting intention	Hamari, Sjöklint and Ukkonen (2016)
Customer-related antecedents			
Ecological motives	Customers' evaluation of sharing goods and services with regard to its impact on the environment (Kozlenkova et al., 2021)	Environmental benefits/concerns/value, green aspects, sustainability	Li, Graul and Zhu (2024)
Economic motives	Customers' perceived monetary benefits and costs of sharing goods and services (Lamberton and Rose, 2012)	Cost savings, economic benefits/value, financial benefits, price value	Lamberton and Rose (2012) Li, Graul and Zhu (2024) Kozlenkova et al. (2021) So, Oh and Min (2018)
Hedonic motives	The fun or pleasure customers derive from sharing goods and services (Kozlenkova et al., 2021)	Emotional value, enjoyment, fun	Farmaki and Stergiou (2019) Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016)
Social motives	Customers' evaluation of sharing goods and services for creating and maintaining social connections and interactions with others (Kozlenkova et al., 2021)	Sense of community, social benefits/value, social interactions	Lamberton and Rose (2012) Tripp, McKnight and Lankton (2023)
Utilitarian motives	Customers' evaluation of sharing goods and services with regard to functional benefits, such as convenience (Kozlenkova et al., 2021)	Convenience, functional benefits/value, utility	Kopplin, Brand and Reichenberger (2021) Shin et al. (2023)
Subjective norm	Extent to which customers perceive that important others (e.g. family, friends) believe they should share goods and services (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2012)	Peer influence, social influence, social norm	So, Oh and Min (2018) Tan, Yang and Li (2022)
Customer competence	Customer's potential to utilize the sharing platform to share goods and services (Munro et al., 1997)	Familiarity, knowledge, perceived behavioural control, self-efficacy	Hartl, Kamleitner and Holub (2020) Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016)
Customer age	Customer's age	—	Hartl et al. (2020) Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016)
Customer education	Customer's educational level	—	Hartl et al. (2020) Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016)
Customer gender	Customer's gender	—	Hartl et al. (2020) Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016)
Customer income	Customer's income	—	Hartl et al. (2020) Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016)
Customer satisfaction	An affective state that is the emotional reaction to sharing experience (Blut et al., 2021)	Expectation confirmation	Tussyadiah (2016) Zhang, Meng and So (2021)

Table 4. *(Continued)*

Construct	Definition	Alias(es)/examples	Representative studies
Platform-related antecedents			
Service quality of platform	Extent to which a platform facilitates efficient and effective sharing of goods and services (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Malhotra, 2002)	Information quality, online service quality, system quality, website quality	Akhmedova, Marimon and Mas-Machuca (2020) Ju *et al.* (2019) Möhlmann (2021) Park and Tussyadiah (2020) Tussyadiah and Park (2018)
Trust in platform	A psychological expectation that the platform will be sincere in keeping promises and not behave opportunistically in expectation of a promised service (Mittendorf, Berente and Holten, 2019)	Institutional trust, trust in intermediary	Juric, Lindenmeier and Arnold (2021) Kopplin, Brand and Reichenberger (2021)
Performance expectancy	Degree to which the platform provides benefits to customers in sharing goods and services (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2012)	Relative advantage,[a] usefulness	Juric *et al.* (2021) Kopplin *et al.* (2021)
Effort expectancy	Degree of ease associated with customers' use of the platform (Venkatesh *et al.*, 2012)	Complexity, ease of use	
Service-provider-related antecedents			
Service quality of provider	Customers' overall evaluation of a peer provider's service in terms of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988)	Offline service quality, facility service quality	Akhmedova, Marimon and Mas-Machuca (2020) Ju *et al.* (2019) Möhlmann (2021) Park and Tussyadiah (2020) Tussyadiah and Park (2018)
Trust in provider	A psychological expectation that the service provider will be sincere in keeping promises and not behave opportunistically in expectation of a promised service (Mittendorf, Berente and Holten, 2019)	Trust in other customers, trust in host	Ert and Fleischer (2020) So, Xie and Wu (2019)
Provider age	Service provider's age	—	Ert and Fleischer (2020)
Provider gender	Service provider's gender	—	Ert, Fleischer and Magen (2016)
Moderators			
Provider experience	Previous experience of the sampled customers as service providers in the sharing economy (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019)	Dummy coded 1 for no provider experience, and 0 for provider experience	Mittendorf, Berente and Holten (2019)
Private/professional supply	Resource provision on the platform through many private or professional service providers (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019)	Dummy coded 1 for private service providers, and 0 for professional	Not tested before
Rivalry on platform	Extent to 'which use of the product by one consumer subtracts from the availability of the product to other consumers' (Lamberton and Rose, 2012, p. 110)	Dummy coded 1 for high rivalry among customers on the platform, and 0 for low rivalry	Not tested before
Prestige of ownership	Extent to which the rental of goods and services can be used as status symbols (Fritze *et al.*, 2020)	Dummy coded 1 for high prestige of sharing offer; and 0 for low prestige	Not tested before
Services vs. goods	Provision of services or goods on the sharing platform (Plewnia and Guenther, 2018)	Dummy coded 1 for services shared on platform, and 0 for goods	Not tested before
For-profit vs. non-profit	Market orientation of the sharing platform that provides resources to gain economic benefits (for-profit) or without such an aim (non-profit) (Plewnia and Guenther, 2018)	Dummy coded 1 for for-profit sharing platform, and 0 for non-profit	Minami, Ramos and Bortoluzzo (2021)
Ownership transfer	Whether a transfer of ownership takes place on the sharing platform (Trenz, Frey and Veit, 2018)	Dummy coded 1 for no ownership transfer on sharing platform, and 0 for ownership transfer	Not tested before

[a] Innovation diffusion theory holds that the individual decision to adopt or reject an innovation is determined by relative advantage; this construct is treated as similar to performance expectancy herein (Blut *et al.*, 2022).

Table 5. Choice of antecedents/outcomes and rationale for inclusion

Framework element	UTAUT2 construct?	Rationale for inclusion
Outcomes		
Sharing behaviour	Yes (use behaviour)	Referred to in this study as 'sharing behaviour' to adapt to the sharing economy context.
Sharing intention	Yes (behavioural intention)	Referred to in this study as 'sharing intention' to adapt to the sharing economy context.
Customer-related antecedents		
Ecological motives	No	A distinct motive frequently examined in the sharing economy literature (Barari *et al.*, 2022; Kozlenkova *et al.*, 2021).
Economic motives	No (though price value is considered)	Sharing economy studies often capture the monetary aspects of sharing via platforms by measuring consumers' economic motives, while UTAUT considers monetary aspects through price value. The measurements in the sharing economy are more context-specific.
Hedonic motives	No (though hedonic motivation is considered)	Sharing economy studies often capture the enjoyment aspects of sharing via platforms by measuring consumers' hedonic motives, while UTAUT considers enjoyment aspects through hedonic motivation. The measurements in the sharing economy are more context-specific.
Social motives	No	A distinct motive that is frequently examined in the sharing economy literature (Barari *et al.*, 2022; Kozlenkova *et al.*, 2021).
Utilitarian motives	No	A distinct motive that is frequently examined in the sharing economy literature (Barari *et al.*, 2022; Kozlenkova *et al.*, 2021).
Subjective norm	Yes (social influence)	Referred to in this study as 'subjective norm', to avoid potential confusion with 'social motives'. According to Venkatesh *et al.* (2003), subjective norm and social influence are conceptually similar.
Customer competence	No	Captures customer knowledge, familiarity, confidence and ability; has been frequently examined as an antecedent of customer sharing intention and behaviour (So, Oh and Min, 2018; Tan, Yang and Li, 2022).
Customer age	Yes (age)	Age is a moderator in UTAUT2, but sharing economy studies often treat age as a sociodemographic antecedent of customer sharing intention and behaviour (Hjorteset and Böcker, 2020; Olya *et al.*, 2018).
Customer education	No	Sharing economy studies often treat education as a sociodemographic antecedent of customer sharing intention and behaviour (Hjorteset and Böcker, 2020; Olya *et al.*, 2018).
Customer gender	Yes (gender)	Gender is a moderator in UTAUT2, but sharing economy studies often treat gender as a sociodemographic antecedent of customer sharing intention and behaviour (Hjorteset and Böcker, 2020; Olya *et al.*, 2018).
Customer income	No	Sharing economy studies often treat income as a sociodemographic antecedent of customer sharing intention and behaviour (Hjorteset and Böcker, 2020; Olya *et al.*, 2018).
Customer satisfaction	No	Prior satisfying sharing experience has been frequently shown to influence future customer sharing intention and behaviour (Barari *et al.*, 2022; Tussyadiah, 2016).
Platform-related antecedents		
Service quality of platform	No	As the sharing economy is a service economy, service quality plays an important role in driving customer sharing intention and behaviour (Akhmedova, Marimon and Mas-Machuca, 2020; Ju *et al.*, 2019).
Trust in platform	No	Trust is a key concept in the sharing economy literature and plays a key role in driving customer sharing intention and behaviour (Ashaduzzaman *et al.*, 2022; Barari *et al.*, 2022; Kozlenkova *et al.*, 2021). Later studies also extend UTAUT2 by including trust (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2016).
Performance expectancy	Yes (performance expectancy)	—
Effort expectancy	Yes (effort expectancy)	—
Service-provider-related antecedents		
Service quality of provider	No	While UTAUT2 only considers customer- and technology-related antecedents, this study extends UTAUT2 to the sharing economy context by adding service-provider-related antecedents (Khalek and Chakraborty, 2023). Consistent with the service quality of the platform, we include the service quality of the provider, which has frequently been shown to influence customer sharing intention and behaviour (Akhmedova, Marimon and Mas-Machuca, 2020).
Trust in provider	No	Consistent with trust in the platform, we include trust in the provider, which has frequently been found to affect customer sharing intention and behaviour (Ashaduzzaman *et al.*, 2022; Barari *et al.*, 2022; Kozlenkova *et al.*, 2021).
Provider age	No	Sharing economy studies find that service providers' age matters to customers when determining their sharing intention and behaviour (Ert and Fleischer, 2020; Kwok and Xie, 2018).
Provider gender	No	Sharing economy studies also find that service providers' gender matters to customers when determining their sharing intention and behaviour (Ert and Fleischer, 2020; Ert, Fleischer and Magen, 2016; So, Xie and Wu, 2019).

Table 6. Choice and classification of moderators

	Customer	Provider	Platform			Exchange		Controls[d]		Other differences
	Previous provider experience	Private vs. professional supply	Rivalry on platform	Prestige of ownership	Services vs. goods	For-profit vs. non-profit	Ownership transfer	Flat vs. car vs. tool	US vs. non-US[a]	
Eckhardt *et al.* (2019)	x	x					x			Economically substantive[c] Platform use[c]
Hawlitschek, Teubner and Gimpel (2018)		x			x	x	x	x		Government to consumer[b]
Lamberton and Rose (2012)			x	x						
Plewnia and Guenther (2018)		x			x	x		x		Government to consumer[b]
Trenz, Frey and Veit (2018)		x				x	x			Government to consumer[b]
This meta-analysis	**x**	**x**	**x**	**x**	**x**	**x**	**x**	**x**	**x**	

[a] We included this moderator as recommended by Kansal and Bhalla (2023), although it was not specifically discussed in the overview articles given their specific focus on classifying sharing activities.
[b] This context factor could not be considered due to the lack of empirical studies.
[c] This characteristic of the sharing economy was not considered; Eckhardt *et al.* (2019) explain how it differentiates sharing from non-sharing.
[d] We also consider method differences as moderators but will discuss them later in the paper.

both of which have been shown to impact customer sharing intention and behaviour (Akhmedova, Marimon and Mas-Machuca, 2020; Park and Tussyadiah, 2020). We also consider the service provider's age and gender, which have been found to matter to customers with respect to participation in sharing (Ert and Fleischer, 2020; Ert, Fleischer and Magen, 2016). For example, Ert and Fleischer (2020) explain that appearance-based judgments about providers (e.g. photos showing the gender of Airbnb hosts) impact customers' decisions to participate in sharing. Table 1 presents theoretical explanations and empirical evidence for all the main effects.

Moderating effects

Given the inconsistent findings of the empirical research, we adopted a contingency approach to studying the antecedents of customer sharing behaviour (Kansal and Bhalla, 2023). This approach is in line with context-specific theorizing in information systems research (Hong *et al.*, 2014) which suggests that the influence of different antecedents of technology use varies with contextual characteristics. Although Kansal and Bhalla (2023) point towards groups of potential moderators, they are vague regarding the specific moderators to be tested. Here, we reviewed studies that classify different sharing economy activities (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019; Hawlitschek, Teubner and Gimpel, 2018; Lamberton and Rose, 2012; Plewnia and Guenther, 2018; Trenz, Frey and Veit, 2018). We grouped the

context differences identified in these studies according to customer type (provider experience), provider type (private/professional supply), platform characteristics (rivalry on platform, prestige of ownership and services/goods) and exchange type (for-profit/non-profit and ownership transfer) (Table 6). Three studies discuss the government-to-consumer context, but, given the lack of relevant empirical studies, we could not include that moderator. Eckhardt *et al.* (2019) emphasize that the sharing economy is economically substantive and relies on digital platforms. Because these two criteria distinguish sharing from non-sharing activities, we did not consider them as moderators. However, we compared US versus non-US contexts, as Kansal and Bhalla (2023) noted potential differences. We also considered the object exchanged (i.e. flat vs. car vs. tool) but, given the lack of theory, we did not derive hypotheses. We discuss these moderators and explain their moderating effects in subsequent sections.

Previous provider experience. According to Eckhardt *et al.* (2019), customers in the sharing economy may have previously taken on the role of provider. These customers typically have a more comprehensive understanding of the sharing platform and its offerings (Belk, 2014; Xiang *et al.*, 2022). They understand better how sharing goods and services can meet their needs. Therefore, the five motives (ecological, economic, hedonic, social and utilitarian) will have enhanced effects on sharing intention for customers with provider experience. Similarly, customers with provider experience are more difficult to satisfy, as they have higher expectations of

the sharing business, and therefore satisfaction will have less of an effect on sharing intention. They are also characterized by a higher level of platform experience and trust (Lang *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, customer competence and platform-related antecedents (service quality of platform, trust in platform, performance expectancy and effort expectancy) will become less salient in determining the sharing intentions of those customers.

H1: The effects of (a) ecological motives, (b) economic motives, (c) hedonic motives, (d) social motives and (e) utilitarian motives on sharing intentions are stronger for *customers with previous provider experience*, whereas the effects of (f) customer competence, (g) customer satisfaction, (h) service quality of the platform, (i) trust in the platform, (j) performance expectancy and (k) effort expectancy are stronger for *customers without previous provider experience*.

Private/professional supply. Eckhardt *et al.* (2019) explain that resources in the sharing economy can be provided either by many private individuals (e.g. BlaBlaCar) or by professional companies (e.g. Zipcar). The former entails C2C peer-to-peer private sharing, while the latter involves B2C professional sharing, which is similar to traditional rental arrangements (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019). Unlike the previous moderator, which refers to customers' previous provider experience or lack thereof (demand side), the present moderator refers to the general approach towards resource supply on the sharing platform by private or professional providers (supply side). Eckhardt *et al.* (2019) stress the importance of distinguishing between these two moderators, and they explore how these unique aspects of the sharing economy impact consumers' perception of shared consumption. Customers have different expectations of private versus professional providers and are likely to consider different factors when evaluating their sharing intentions (Möhlmann, 2015). First, customers' intrinsic motives (hedonic and social) are more relevant on platforms that use private sharing (Minami, Ramos and Bortoluzzo, 2021). Tussyadiah (2016) and Tussyadiah and Pesonen (2016) describe how Airbnb guests enjoy authentic local experiences, interactions and a sense of belonging with peer hosts, benefits that are rare in professional sharing settings. Thus, customers' extrinsic (economic and utilitarian) motives are likely to be more salient for driving customer participation on platforms that use professional sharing. We do not expect the impact of ecological motives to differ because both types of sharing schemes claim to be based on sustainable business models. Second, service-provider-related factors (service quality of provider and trust in provider) are more important on private sharing platforms. When consumers deal with private peers, they face more concerns and uncertainties, and the quality of the service is more likely to vary. Therefore, trust becomes crucial (Dabbous and Tarhini, 2019), and service quality is an especially salient antecedent of sharing intentions (Proserpio, Xu and Zervas, 2018). We do not propose moderating effects for platform-related factors; the platform's role and function are the same for customers in both private and professional sharing.

H2: The effects of (a) hedonic motives, (b) social motives, (c) service quality of the provider and (d) trust in the provider on sharing intention are stronger for platforms that use *private sharing*, whereas the effects of (e) economic motives and (f) utilitarian motives are stronger for *professional sharing*.

Rivalry on platform. A level of rivalry exists on many sharing platforms. The number of customers often exceeds the number of providers, and customers must compete for a limited supply of shared products or services. Lamberton and Rose (2012, p. 110) define rivalry in the sharing economy as 'the degree to which use of the product by one consumer subtracts from the availability of the product to other consumers'. As rivalry increases, the sharing platform becomes less appealing because customers face the risk of the product or service being unavailable and of having to alter their needs or accept a delay (Hazée, Delcourt and Van Vaerenbergh, 2017). Given these uncertainties and inconveniences, which Schaefers, Moser and Narayanamurthy (2018) call 'burdens of access', only true believers with strong motives are likely to share goods and services. These individuals believe that sharing platforms enable them to protect the environment, make friends, have fun and save money (Cheah *et al.*, 2011); that is, when platform rivalry is higher, ecological, hedonic, social, economic and utilitarian motives should be stronger antecedents of sharing intentions. In addition, we expect platform-related factors (service quality of platform, trust in the platform, performance expectancy and effort expectancy) to exert stronger effects because customers have to rely more on the platform's performance if they are to avoid disappointment. Service-provider-related factors (service quality of provider and trust in provider) are less important; when supply is short, customers naturally face limited choice.

H3: The effects of (a) ecological motives, (b) economic motives, (c) hedonic motives, (d) social motives, (e) utilitarian motives, (f) service quality of the platform, (g) trust in the platform, (h) performance expectancy and (i) effort expectancy on sharing intention are stronger for *higher rivalry* platforms, whereas the effects of (j) service quality of the provider and (k) trust in the provider are stronger for *lower rivalry* platforms.

Prestige of ownership. People can signal social status via ownership of products such as expensive cars, designer clothes or vacation homes (Lamberton and Rose, 2012). The sharing economy provides customers with

an alternative, namely, renting goods and services that are status symbols (Lamberton and Rose, 2012). Aspara and Wittkowski (2019, p. 206) explain that 'borrowing allow[s] consumers to (conspicuously) use a more expensive good than what they might be able to afford to privately own'. Sharing platforms such as Rent the Runway capitalize on this need by granting access to designer fashion; other people cannot tell whether a designer bag is rented or owned. For platforms that offer prestige-oriented goods and services, social factors (social motives and subjective norms) should be more relevant and salient. In turn, if customers rent goods and services to improve their social standing, they are also likely to consider what others think about sharing and whether sharing will help them belong to a group of like-minded people (Aspara and Wittkowski, 2019). Moreover, for high-end sharing, financial and social risks tend to be higher, and customers have higher expectations of quality (service quality of platform and service quality of provider), satisfaction and trust (trust in platform and trust in provider). Thus, these antecedents will be more important in driving customer sharing intentions (Mittendorf, Berente and Holten, 2019).

H4: The effects of (a) social motives, (b) subjective norms, (c) customer satisfaction, (d) service quality of the platform, (e) trust in the platform, (f) service quality of the provider and (g) trust in the provider on sharing intentions are stronger when the *prestige of ownership* is higher versus when it is lower.

Services versus goods. Depending on what is being shared, sharing platforms can be classified as providing services (e.g. peer-to-peer lending) or goods (e.g. tool sharing) (Hawlitschek, Teubner and Gimpel, 2018). Customers use different criteria to assess services than to assess goods (Blut, Wang and Schoefer, 2016). Owing to their intangible and heterogeneous nature, services are more difficult to evaluate, and sharing services tend to be riskier (Pick and Eisend, 2014). Consequently, in their decision-making, customers rely more on informational cues (Cheah *et al.*, 2011), such as their own past satisfaction with a sharing business, opinions of others (subjective norm) and service-provider cues (service quality of provider and trust in provider). Conversely, platform-related factors (service quality of platform, trust in platform, performance expectancy and effort expectancy) may be less important because for services, it is the service provider, rather than the platform, that creates and delivers the most value or benefits for customers and determines their sharing experience.

H5: The effects of (a) subjective norms, (b) customer satisfaction, (c) service quality of the provider and (d) trust in the provider on sharing intention are stronger for *services sharing*, whereas the effects of (e) service quality of the platform, (f) trust in the platform, (g)

performance expectancy and (h) effort expectancy are stronger for *goods sharing*.

For-profit versus non-profit. Exchanges in the sharing economy can take place with or without a fee (Hawlitschek, Teubner and Gimpel, 2018). For-profit platforms (e.g. Airbnb) charge their customers, whereas non-profit platforms (e.g. CouchSurfing) provide offerings free of charge. Köbis, Soraperra and Shalvi (2021, p. 333) explain that '[n]on-profit platforms differ from commercial [for-profit] platforms because they do not seek to secure profits and are better able to select participants committed to "true sharing"'. Such non-profit exchanges are closer to bartering than to monetary transactions. Because they tend to be perceived as 'true sharing', we expect non-monetary (ecological, hedonic and social) motives to be more salient for non-profit sharing, whereas economic and utilitarian motives may be more relevant for for-profit sharing. Moreover, as non-profit exchanges involve no financial costs, customers may be more tolerant and less critical regarding quality and satisfaction. Conversely, the financial costs and risks involved in for-profit sharing are likely to make customers more cautious and demanding, and therefore service quality (of platform and of provider), satisfaction and trust (in platform and in provider) will be more important in determining their sharing intentions.

H6: The effects of (a) ecological motives, (b) hedonic motives and (c) social motives for sharing intentions are stronger for *non-profit exchanges*, whereas the effects of (d) economic motives, (e) utilitarian motives, (f) customer satisfaction, (g) service quality of the platform, (h) trust in the platform, (i) service quality of the provider and (j) trust in the provider are stronger for *for-profit exchanges*.

Ownership transfer. In addition to exchanges with temporary access and no permanent transfer of ownership (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019), the sharing economy features transactions in which some transfer of ownership occurs, particularly of physical goods (Trenz, Frey and Veit, 2018). For example, second-hand sharing platforms sell, instead of rent, 'previously loved' goods. When a transfer of ownership takes place, customers are likely to be more cautious and seek security and certainty in the exchange, so the sharing platform may gain importance as the intermediary. The negative consequences of choosing the wrong platform are greater because customers rely on the platform to facilitate and protect the exchange and to reduce the transaction risk and uncertainty. Given that the platform needs to offer excellent service quality and be trustworthy, useful and easy to use (Blut *et al.*, 2015), platform-related factors should display stronger effects when sharing transactions involve ownership transfer.

H7: The effects of (a) service quality of the platform, (b) trust in the platform, (c) performance expectancy and (d) effort expectancy on sharing intentions are stronger for *exchanges with ownership transfer* than for those without ownership transfer.

Controls

We control for the quality of the publication outlet because higher-quality outlets have more rigorous control mechanisms for factors that may inflate effect sizes. We also control for publication bias, by testing whether effect sizes differ between published and unpublished studies. By controlling for the study year, we address whether customers who have gained experience with the sharing economy develop different expectations. Finally, we note country differences (US vs. non-US) and whether the effects differ depending on the object exchanged (e.g. residence, car or tool).

Method

We identified studies in electronic databases using keywords such as 'sharing economy', 'collaborative consumption', 'collaborative economy' and 'access-based services'. We also searched for studies of specific platforms, such as 'Airbnb' and 'Uber', and specific offerings such as 'car sharing' and 'bike sharing'. We then examined the reference lists of the publications in order to identify grey literature, such as conference proceedings, dissertations and unpublished studies (Web Appendices E and F).

We used correlation coefficients as effect sizes. If a sample reported more than one correlation for the same relationship, we averaged the correlations to avoid assigning too much weight to the sample in the subsequent analysis. The final data set for the meta-analysis consisted of 2185 correlations reported in 192 independent samples by 167 studies (Table 7).

Using the construct definitions detailed in Table 4, two coders extracted effect size information from the studies. Because scholars researching the sharing economy have used a variety of scales, we adopted Palmatier et al.'s (2006) approach and used aliases. For example, like Venkatesh *et al.* (2003) and Blut *et al.* (2022), we treated effort expectancy and ease of use, and performance expectancy and usefulness, as aliases. The coders carefully checked the items that the authors had used to classify effect sizes; they achieved 97% agreement and resolved any disagreements through discussion. They also extracted sample size information, construct reliabilities and characteristics of the study context that might represent moderators.

Using Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) random effects approach to meta-analysis, we corrected the effect sizes for different artefacts, including measurement error in the relevant variables and sampling error. We obtained 95% confidence intervals for the sample size-weighted and artefact-adjusted correlations. We calculated 80% credibility intervals; wider intervals suggest substantial effect size variations that require moderator analyses (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004). As a complement, we used structural equation modelling (SEM) to test for the indirect effects of antecedents. We also tested moderators (Table 7).

Results

Descriptive results

Table 8 reports the results of the effect size integration. First, most customer motives display large and significant effect sizes for sharing intentions: ecological motives (sample-weighted, reliability-adjusted average correlation [rwc] = 0.43, $p < 0.05$), hedonic motives (rwc = 0.57, $p < 0.05$), social motives (rwc = 0.43, $p < 0.05$) and utilitarian motives (rwc = 0.52, $p < 0.05$). Subjective norms (rwc = 0.55, $p < 0.05$) and customer satisfaction (rwc = 0.70, $p < 0.05$) also display large effect sizes. The effects of economic motives (rwc = 0.39, $p < 0.05$) and customer competence (rwc = 0.35, $p < 0.05$) are medium in size. The effect sizes of customer age (rwc = -0.06, $p < 0.05$) and customer education (rwc = 0.06, $p < 0.05$) are small but significant, whereas those of customer gender and income are non-significant. The results for sharing behaviour show a similar pattern, although some effect sizes are weaker. Ecological (rwc = 0.26, $p < 0.05$), hedonic (rwc = 0.28, $p < 0.05$) and social (rwc = 0.46, $p < 0.05$) motives display medium to large effect sizes, as do subjective norms (rwc = 0.51, $p < 0.05$), customer competence (rwc = 0.35, $p < 0.05$) and customer satisfaction (rwc = 0.48, $p < 0.05$). The effect sizes of customer education (rwc = 0.12, $p < 0.05$), customer gender (rwc = -0.11, $p < 0.05$) and income (rwc = 0.09, $p < 0.05$) are significant, albeit small. No significant effects arise for economic motives, utilitarian motives or customer age. These antecedents seem to exert their effects indirectly via intentions.

Second, all platform factors relate significantly to sharing intentions and behaviour. Service quality of the platform (rwc = 0.52, $p < 0.05$), trust in the platform (rwc = 0.59, $p < 0.05$) and performance expectancy (rwc = 0.56, $p < 0.05$) display strong effect sizes with sharing intentions; the effect size of effort expectancy (rwc = 0.39, $p < 0.05$) is medium. For sharing behaviour, we find a large effect size for the service quality of the platform (rwc = 0.40, $p < 0.05$) and medium effect sizes for trust in the platform (rwc = 0.24, $p < 0.05$), performance expectancy (rwc = 0.38, $p < 0.05$) and effort expectancy (rwc = 0.21, $p < 0.05$).

Table 7. Method choices, data coding and analyses

Method issue	Consideration
Inclusion criteria	We applied three inclusion criteria. First, studies had to measure two or more constructs in the meta-analytic framework. We excluded studies that did not examine these constructs or those that examined infrequently tested constructs. Second, the studies had to refer to the context of the sharing economy; the studied platforms had to fulfil most of the criteria proposed by Eckhardt *et al.* (2019): temporary access, transfer of economic value, platform mediation, extended customer role and private/professional supply. For example, we excluded eBay, which does not meet these main criteria. Third, the studies had to be empirical and report statistical information that could be used as an effect size in the meta-analysis or converted into one (e.g. t-values), which removed studies that were conceptual or qualitative. These criteria yielded 167 usable studies that represent multiple research domains, including hospitality (28%), marketing (24%), management (13%), information systems (13%), innovation management (5%) and other (17%) (Web Appendices E and F). Of the 192 samples, 184 were published in journals and eight in conference proceedings, dissertations and unpublished works. The cumulative sample size was 171,344.
Coding and classification of effect sizes	Correlation coefficients are not only scale-free but also frequently reported in the studies we collected; where they are not reported, we calculated them by converting other statistical information, such as regression coefficients (Peterson and Brown, 2005). When classifying effect sizes, we adopted Palmatier et al.'s (2006) approach and used aliases. For example, we treat effort expectancy and ease of use as aliases, as well as performance expectancy and usefulness. When developing UTAUT, Venkatesh *et al.* (2003) explain that the construct from the technology acceptance model that pertains to performance expectancy is perceived usefulness. Similarly, they explain that perceived ease of use is the construct from existing models that captures the concept of effort expectancy. They also measured performance expectancy as usefulness and effort expectancy as ease of use. In a later study, Venkatesh and colleagues conducted a meta-analysis of this theory that also considers the two sets of constructs as aliases (Blut *et al.*, 2022).
Coding of moderators	As substantive moderators, they dummy coded the previous provider experience (1 = no provider experience; 0 = provider experience), private/professional supply (1 = yes; 0 = no), platform rivalry (1 = high; 0 = low), prestige of ownership (1 = high; 0 = low), type of offering (1 = services; 0 = goods), nature of exchange (1 = for-profit; 0 = non-profit) and transfer of ownership (1 = yes; 0 = no). As control variables, they considered the quality of the publication outlet using the Academic Journal Guide to assign ratings from 1 (low quality) to 4 (high quality), dummy coded publication status (1 = published; 0 = unpublished) and extracted the study year. They coded the country focus (1 = US; 0 = non-US) and the object exchanged: residence (1 = flat; 0 = other), car (1 = car; 0 = other) and tool (1 = tool; 0 = other).
Effect size integration	We also tested the homogeneity of the effect sizes using a χ^2 test. Furthermore, we calculated the percentage of variance in observed correlations (PVA) attributable to sampling and measurement errors; Hunter and Schmidt (2004) suggest moderator tests if PVAs are lower than 75%. To assess potential publication bias, we used Rosenthal's (1979) fail-safe N (FSN), which indicates the number of studies with null results needed to reduce a significant effect size to a barely significant level (p = 0.05). Results are robust if FSNs are greater than $5 \times k + 10$, where k is the number of correlations (Rosenthal 1979). Besides calculating FSNs, we contacted authors and asked for unpublished studies and included grey literature in the meta-analysis. We also examined the symmetry of calculated funnel plots; asymmetric plots indicate potential publication bias. In the moderator tests, we controlled for differences between published and unpublished studies.
SEM	We employed structural equation modelling to evaluate the collective impact of constructs in our conceptual framework. A correlation matrix with 13 out of 21 constructs was generated and utilized as input for LISREL 9.2. The sample size for calculations was determined using the harmonic mean across all samples. Error variances for constructs, measured with single indicators, were set to 0, taking into account measurement error during the integration of effect sizes.
Moderator tests	We tested the moderators using two approaches (Grewal, Puccinelli and Monroe, 2018). By regressing the moderator variables on the reliability-corrected effect sizes using random-effects meta-regression, we can control for the influence of various study characteristics when testing the moderator hypotheses. We required a minimum of 10 effect sizes for each relationship. Then, with additional subgroup analyses, we ensure accurate interpretations of the meta-regression results.

Third, some service-provider-related factors relate strongly to sharing intentions, including the service quality of the provider (rwc = 0.55, p < 0.05) and trust in the provider (rwc = 0.55, p < 0.05). Provider age and gender are non-significant. For sharing behaviour, we find a significant, medium effect size for trust in the provider (rwc = 0.26, p < 0.05) but not for service quality. Among the sociodemographic variables, provider gender is significant and displays a medium effect size (rwc = 0.29, p < 0.05). Provider gender seems to drive sharing intention, but we observe no significant effect for provider age. In addition, sharing intention is significantly related to sharing behaviour (rwc = 0.62, p < 0.05), suggesting indirect effects.

The power tests indicate that most of the statistical analyses have sufficient power (>0.5). Most of the Q-tests for heterogeneity are also significant, and the credibility intervals are wide, indicating variance in effect

Table 8. Descriptive results on customer-, platform- and service-provider-related antecedents of customer sharing behaviour

Relationship	k	N	rwc	Magnitude	CI_{95-}	CI_{95+}	CR_{95-}	CR_{95+}	PVA	Q	FSN	Power
Customer-related antecedents												
Ecological motives → SI	44	19,765	0.43*	Large	0.36	0.49	0.15	0.71	4%	731*	40,473	>0.999
Economic motives → SI	51	22,561	0.39*	Medium	0.32	0.47	0.05	0.74	3%	1,256*	51,928	>0.999
Hedonic motives → SI	50	19,305	0.57*	Large	0.50	0.64	0.27	0.88	3%	868*	81,040	>0.999
Social motives → SI	59	20,800	0.43*	Large	0.36	0.49	0.12	0.73	5%	924*	56,642	>0.999
Utilitarian motives → SI	24	8,609	0.52*	Large	0.43	0.61	0.25	0.80	5%	296*	13,355	>0.999
Subjective norm → SI	29	12,487	0.55*	Large	0.48	0.62	0.31	0.79	5%	352*	27,704	>0.999
Customer competence → SI	33	12,795	0.35*	Medium	0.24	0.46	−0.07	0.77	3%	997*	14,974	>0.999
Customer age → SI	16	12,285	−0.06*	Small	−0.12	−0.002	−0.20	0.08	13%	125*	16	>0.999
Customer education → SI	11	10,481	0.06*	Small	0.01	0.11	−0.03	0.16	21%	54*	53	>0.999
Customer gender[a] → SI	11	10,669	0.00	Small	−0.05	0.05	−0.09	0.10	20%	54*	—	0.107
Customer income → SI	13	11,296	0.02	Small	−0.03	0.08	−0.10	0.14	16%	83*	—	0.685
Customer satisfaction → SI	27	9,157	0.70*	Large	0.63	0.77	0.46	0.94	4%	255*	30,198	>0.999
Ecological motives → SB	13	10,674	0.26*	Medium	0.14	0.37	−0.01	0.52	3%	342*	2,697	>0.999
Economic motives → SB	10	6,245	0.12	Small	−0.01	0.25	−0.15	0.38	5%	195*	—	>0.999
Hedonic motives → SB	5	789	0.28*	Medium	0.21	0.35	0.28	0.28	100%	3	66	>0.999
Social motives → SB	10	2,635	0.46*	Large	0.32	0.59	0.19	0.72	8%	87*	1,138	>0.999
Utilitarian motives → SB	3	788	0.06	Small	−0.07	0.20	−0.05	0.18	41%	7*	—	0.516
Subjective norm → SB	8	2,459	0.51*	Large	0.31	0.71	0.15	0.87	4%	149*	920	>0.999
Customer competence → SB	7	1,582	0.35*	Medium	0.16	0.54	0.04	0.66	8%	73*	188	>0.999
Customer age → SB	12	10,142	−0.03	Small	−0.09	0.02	−0.14	0.08	19%	63*	—	0.916
Customer education → SB	9	8,734	0.12*	Small	0.03	0.22	−0.06	0.31	6%	137*	40	>0.999
Customer gender[a] → SB	10	9,148	−0.11*	Small	−0.20	−0.02	−0.28	0.07	8%	132*	95	>0.999
Customer income → SB	11	9,787	0.09*	Small	0.06	0.11	0.07	0.11	88%	12	107	>0.999
Customer satisfaction → SB	7	1,340	0.48*	Large	0.31	0.65	0.20	0.76	9%	54*	358	>0.999
Platform-related antecedents												
Service quality of platform → SI	42	13,208	0.52*	Large	0.45	0.58	0.26	0.77	6%	420*	38,621	>0.999
Trust in platform → SI	42	15,066	0.59*	Large	0.53	0.64	0.36	0.81	6%	380*	59,887	>0.999
Performance expectancy → SI	27	9,200	0.56*	Large	0.49	0.63	0.32	0.80	6%	256*	18,710	>0.999
Effort expectancy → SI	28	11,079	0.39*	Medium	0.26	0.51	−0.04	0.82	2%	937*	13,729	>0.999
Service quality of platform → SB	8	2,220	0.40*	Large	0.15	0.65	−0.06	0.86	3%	221*	498	>0.999
Trust in platform → SB	5	789	0.24*	Medium	0.17	0.32	0.24	0.24	100%	4	39	>0.999
Performance expectancy → SB	6	1,213	0.38*	Medium	0.29	0.47	0.28	0.47	55%	9	127	>0.999
Effort expectancy → SB	8	2,444	0.21*	Medium	0.04	0.39	−0.10	0.53	7%	112*	149	>0.999
Service-provider-related antecedents												
Service quality of provider → SI	17	4,617	0.55*	Large	0.46	0.64	0.32	0.79	9%	122*	6,268	>0.999
Trust in provider → SI	28	10,434	0.55*	Large	0.47	0.63	0.27	0.83	4%	411*	21,159	>0.999
Provider age → SI	4	389	0.04	Small	−0.07	0.15	0.04	0.04	100%	3	—	0.196
Provider gender[a] → SI	5	807	−0.09	Small	−0.21	0.03	−0.22	0.04	46%	11*	—	0.821
Service quality of provider → SB	7	5,579	0.09	Small	−0.02	0.20	−0.09	0.27	8%	83*	—	>0.999
Trust in provider → SB	5	1,182	0.26*	Medium	0.20	0.31	0.26	0.26	100%	3	50	>0.999
Provider age → SB	4	389	0.08	Small	−0.03	0.19	0.08	0.08	100%	3	—	0.474
Provider gender[a] → SB	5	3,001	0.29*	Medium	0.18	0.40	0.14	0.44	14%	32*	67	>0.999
Sharing intention → SB	11	3,677	0.62*	Large	0.41	0.83	0.17	1.07	2%	346*	2,753	>0.999

Notes: SI = sharing intention; SB = sharing behaviour; k = number of effect sizes, N = cumulative sample size, rwc = sample-weighted, reliability-adjusted average correlation, SD = sample size weighted observed standard deviation of correlations, CI = 95% confidence interval, CR = 80% credibility interval, Q = Q statistic, FSN = fail-safe N, power = results of power test. PVA = percentage of variance in observed correlations due to measurement error and sampling bias.

[a] 1 = female; 0 = male.

*p < 0.05.

sizes. The average PVA is 24%, which indicates that 24% of the variance in effect sizes is due to measurement and sampling error, and suggests a need to assess the influence of study-level differences. All fail-safe Ns (FSNs) exceed the tolerance levels (Rosenthal, 1979), and the calculated funnel plots are symmetric, giving no indication of publication bias (Web Appendix G).

We complement these analyses with SEM considering the indirect effects of antecedents on sharing behaviour through intentions (Table 9). This analysis takes

Table 9. Results of structural equation modelling

Relationship	Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	p-value	R^2
Effects on sharing intention					**44%**
Ecological motives → SI	—				
Economic motives → SI	0.07*	0.03	2.29	0.01	
Hedonic motives → SI	0.17*	0.03	5.25	0.00	
Social motives → SI	—				
Subjective norm → SI	—				
Customer education → SI	0.07*	0.03	2.89	0.00	
Customer satisfaction → SI	0.32*	0.04	8.36	0.00	
Trust in platform → SI	0.08*	0.04	1.96	0.03	
Performance expectancy → SI	0.07*	0.04	1.97	0.02	
Trust in provider → SI	0.11*	0.03	3.28	0.00	
Provider gender[a] → SI	−0.06*	0.03	2.44	0.01	
Effects on sharing behaviour					**20%**
SI → SB	0.24*	0.04	6.96	0.00	
Ecological motives → SB	0.09*	0.04	2.33	0.01	
Economic motives → SB	—				
Hedonic motives → SB	—				
Social motives → SB	0.16*	0.04	4.38	0.00	
Subjective norm → SB	0.09*	0.04	2.39	0.01	
Customer education → SB	—				
Customer satisfaction → SB	—				
Trust in platform → SB	—				
Performance expectancy → SB	—				
Trust in provider → SB	—				
Provider gender[a] → SB	—				
Indirect effects					
Economic motives → SB	0.02*	0.01	2.18	0.02	
Hedonic motives → SB	0.04*	0.01	4.19	0.00	
Customer education → SB	0.02*	0.01	2.67	0.00	
Customer satisfaction → SB	0.08*	0.01	5.35	0.00	
Trust in platform → SB	0.02*	0.01	1.89	0.03	
Performance expectancy → SB	0.02*	0.01	1.90	0.03	
Trust in provider → SB	0.03*	0.01	2.97	0.00	
Provider gender[a] → SB	−0.02*	0.01	2.30	0.01	
Model fit					
Chi-square (df)			66(11)		
CFI			0.93		
RMSEA			0.08		
SRMR			0.04		

Notes: The model was calculated in LISREL and used the harmonic mean (N = 876) as the sample size. Web Appendix H shows the stepwise test of the model considering additional relationships.

[a] 1 = female; 0 = male.

*p < 0.05.

covariation among variables into account, and therefore the results of the effect size integration may differ from the current outcomes in terms of observed significance (Grewal, Puccinelli and Monroe, 2018). Web Appendix H details the stepwise test of the model. To estimate model fit, we do not include non-significant effects. The best-performing model has a good fit (chi-square[df] = 66[11]; CFI = 0.93; RMSEA = 0.08; SRMR = 0.04) and considers indirect effects of hedonic motives, economic motives, customer education, satisfaction, trust in platform, performance expectancy, trust in provider and provider gender, together with direct effects of ecological motives, social motives and subjective norms on behaviour. The other antecedents are non-significant,

which suggests that their influence is conditional on the moderators. This result is in line with UTAUT2, which suggests that most antecedents have indirect effects (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2012).

Moderator results

Customer type. The results of the meta-regression (Table 10) are in line with the subgroup analysis (Web Appendix I). As expected, the positive effect of customer competence (H1f: b = 0.26, p < 0.10) on sharing intentions is stronger for customers without previous provider experience. The positive effects of economic motives (H1b: b = 0.24, p < 0.10) and social

Table 10. *Results of moderators tests of antecedents–sharing intention relationships*

Relationship	k	Customer 1 = No provider experience / 0 = Provider experience	Provider 1 = Private / 0 = Professional	Platform 1 = High rivalry / 0 = Low rivalry	Platform 1 = High prestige / 0 = Low prestige	Exchange 1 = Services / 0 = Goods	Exchange 1 = For-profit / 0 = Non-profit	Exchange 1 = No ownership transfer / 0 = Ownership transfer	Controls: Outlet quality	Controls: 1 = Published / 0 = Unpublished	Controls: Study year	Controls: 1 = US / 0 = Non-US	Controls: 1 = Flat / 0 = Other	Controls: 1 = Car / 0 = Other	Controls: 1 = Tool / 0 = Other	VIF
Ecological motives → SI	44	0.01	0.21	−0.02	−0.15	0.05	−0.30* FP < NP	−0.33* NO < O	−0.09	−0.23† P < UP	0.26* N > O	0.17	−0.20	0.08	0.07	3.11
Economic motives → SI	51	0.24† NP > P	0.21	−0.08	0.16	0.30* S > G	0.14	−0.18	0.39* L > H	−0.28† P < UP	0.09	0.30* U > NU	−0.04	0.15	0.08	6.05
Hedonic motives → SI	50	—	−0.13	0.51* H > L	—	0.03	0.08	0.43* NO > O	0.13	−0.09	0.25† N > O	0.02	−0.19	−0.39* C < NC	0.33* T > NT	5.19
Social motives → SI	59	0.23* NP > P	−0.15	−0.25* H < L	0.16	0.09	−0.13	0.10	0.06	−0.20† P < UP	0.09	0.00	0.13	0.05	0.29* T > NT	2.90
Utilitarian motives → SI	24	−0.24	0.85* PRI > PRO	—	−0.24	−0.11	0.56* FP > NP	—	0.18	—	0.21	0.26	−0.11	—	0.26	3.44
Subjective norm → SI	29	−0.05	−0.26	0.11	−0.09	−0.13	−0.16	−0.32* NO < O	0.08	−0.13	0.10	0.22	—	−0.41* C < NC	0.41* T > NT	5.01
Customer competence → SI	33	0.26† NP > P	0.24	−0.07	−0.41* H < L	−0.24	0.15	—	−0.40* L < H	0.26	−0.13	0.26† U > NU	0.45† F > NF	0.14	−0.38* T < NT	4.83
Customer age[b] → SI	16	−0.17* NP < P	−0.31† PRI < PRO	−0.65* H < L	0.01	−0.27† S < G	0.10	—	0.20	0.01	0.11	—	—	—	−0.02	5.67
Customer education → SI	11	−0.26	−0.21	—	−0.11	—	—	—	0.11	−0.04	—	—	—	—	—	2.79
Customer gender[a] → SI	11	—	−0.06	−0.40	0.22	0.12	—	—	—	0.08	—	—	—	—	—	3.74
Customer income → SI	13	0.01	0.23	0.16	—	−0.34	—	—	—	—	0.41† N > O	—	—	0.49† C > NC	—	2.61
Customer satisfaction → SI	27	0.11	−0.05	—	—	0.26	0.42* FP > NP	—	0.67* H > L	−0.35	0.23	0.35* U > NU	0.11	0.02	0.89	6.92
Service quality of platform → SI	42	0.04	0.18	−0.23	−0.27	−0.69* S < G	−0.26	—	−0.15	0.02	0.25	0.15	−0.30	−0.42* C < NC	−0.15	5.59

Table 10. (Continued)

Relationship	k	Customer 1 = No provider experience 0 = Provider experience	Provider 1 = Private 0 = Professional	Platform 1 = High rivalry 0 = Low rivalry	Platform 1 = High prestige 0 = Low prestige	Exchange 1 = Services 0 = Goods	Exchange 1 = For-profit 0 = Non-profit	Exchange 1 = No ownership transfer 0 = Ownership transfer	Controls Outlet quality	Controls 1 = Published 0 = Unpublished	Controls Study year	Controls 1 = US 0 = Non-US	Controls 1 = Flat 0 = Other	Controls 1 = Car 0 = Other	Controls 1 = Tool 0 = Other	VIF
Trust in platform → SI	42	0.14	−0.18	—	0.18	—	—	—	0.18	−0.21	0.39* N > O	0.12	−0.10	—	—	2.44
Performance expectancy → SI	27	0.11	−0.09	—	−0.10	−0.22	—	0.30† NO > O	0.37* H > L	−0.06	−0.07	0.72* U > NU	—	0.11 0.65	−0.01 0.94	5.27
Effort expectancy → SI	28	0.14	0.40* PRI > PRO	0.22	−0.80* H < L	−0.60* S < G	—	0.59* NO > O	0.01	0.06	0.20* N > O	0.11	—	−0.17	−0.11	4.79
Service quality of provider → SI	17	—	—	—	0.18	0.16	—	—	0.34	−0.56† P < UP	0.53* N > O	—	—	−0.13 0.58	−0.13	4.37
Trust in provider → SI	28	0.07	—	—	—	0.11	—	—	−0.14	0.09	0.64* N > O	0.16	−0.47† F < NF	−0.44† C < NC	−0.48* T < NT	6.27

Notes: A dash indicates that a moderator could not be tested.
[a] 1 = female; 0 = male.
[b] Effect sizes were reversed to ease interpretability for this antecedent.
* p < 0.05.
† p < 0.10.

motives (H1d: b = 0.23, p < 0.05) on sharing intentions are stronger for those customers, and the negative effect of customer age (b = −0.17, p < 0.05) is weaker.

Provider type.   Contrary to expectations, the positive effects of utilitarian motives (H2f: b = 0.85, p < 0.05) are stronger for private than for professional providers serving customers. Although effort expectancy (b = 0.40, p < 0.05) is also stronger for private than for professional providers, the negative effect of customer age (b = −0.31, p < 0.10) is weaker. We did not predict the latter two effects.

Platform characteristics.   In line with our predictions, the positive effect of hedonic motives (H3c: b = 0.51, p < 0.05) on sharing intentions is stronger when platform rivalry is higher. Surprisingly, the positive effect of social motives (H3d: b = −0.25, p < 0.05) on sharing intentions is weaker when there is more rivalry. The negative effect of customer age (b = −0.65, p < 0.05) on sharing intentions is also weaker, which we did not expect. Prestige of ownership weakens the positive effects of customer competence (b = −0.41, p < 0.05) and effort expectancy (b = −0.80, p < 0.05) on sharing intentions. Neither of these effects was predicted. We also observe some moderating effects for services versus goods. As expected, the positive effects of service quality of the platform (H5e: b = −0.69, p < 0.05) and effort expectancy (H5h: b = −0.60, p < 0.05) on sharing intentions are weaker for services than for goods. Although not predicted, the negative effect of customer age (b = −0.27, p < 0.10) is also weaker, whereas the positive effect of economic motives (b = 0.30, p < 0.05) is stronger for services than for goods.

Exchange type.   In line with our expectations, utilitarian motives (H6e: b = 0.56, p < 0.05) and customer satisfaction (H6f: b = 0.42, p < 0.05) display stronger positive effects in for-profit than in non-profit exchanges, whereas ecological motives (H6a: b = −0.30, p < 0.05) display weaker positive effects. We also find various unpredicted moderating effects of ownership transfer. Specifically, the positive effects of hedonic motives (b = 0.43, p < 0.05), performance expectancy (H7c: b = 0.30, p < 0.10) and effort expectancy (H7d: b = 0.59, p < 0.05) on sharing intentions are stronger in exchanges without ownership transfer, whereas the positive effects of ecological motives (b = −0.33, p < 0.05) and subjective norms (b = −0.32, p < 0.05) are weaker.

Controls.   Several control variables are significant, although their inclusion in the meta-regression does not change the results of the hypothesis testing. The effects of various antecedents gain importance over time, including ecological motives, hedonic motives, income, trust in the platform, effort expectancy, service quality of the provider and trust in the provider. Some antecedents show stronger effects on US customers,

namely, economic motives, customer competence, customer satisfaction and performance expectancy.

Discussion

Which antecedents impact customer sharing?

Citing inconsistencies in empirical findings on antecedents of customer sharing behaviour, Khalek and Chakraborty (2023) stress the need for meta-analyses to move the field forward. Here, accordingly, we use meta-analysis to address the limitations of individual studies and synthesize the empirical evidence in the field quantitatively (Grewal, Puccinelli and Monroe, 2018). This approach helps to reconcile insights into which factors prompt customers to share goods and services on sharing platforms. By developing and testing a comprehensive conceptual framework, our study provides key insights into the antecedents of sharing behaviour.

First, the results of the effect size integration clarify the importance of *customer-related antecedents* for driving customer sharing behaviour (Table 11). Previous studies report positive, negative and non-significant results, but our meta-analysis clarifies which customer motives display medium to strong positive effect sizes for sharing intentions and behaviour; these include ecological, economic, hedonic, social and utilitarian motives. Subjective norms and customer satisfaction display large positive effect sizes, but customers' sociodemographic factors indicate small effect sizes and several of them are non-significant. Prior research suggests that young, educated, urban men use sharing offers (Khalek and Chakraborty, 2023), whereas our findings clarify that demographic differences are actually of minor importance. Regarding *platform-related antecedents*, extant studies again display inconsistent effects, ranging from non-significant to positive. Our meta-analysis clarifies that all factors, including service quality of the platform, trust in the platform, performance expectancy and effort expectancy, display medium to strong positive effect sizes. For *service-provider-related antecedents*, the meta-analysis clarifies previous mixed results by showing that the effect strength depends on the outcome. While the service quality of the provider and trust in the provider display strong positive effect sizes for sharing intentions, trust in the provider displays medium positive effect sizes for sharing behaviour. Thus, scholars should differentiate between platform- and service-provider-related antecedents rather than focusing exclusively on either set. Notably, although Khalek and Chakraborty (2023) acknowledge the role of platform- and provider-related antecedents, they do not differentiate between them in their conceptual framework (except for trust). Provider gender shows a medium positive effect size, whereas provider age is non-significant.

Table 11. Summary of findings

Effect	Prior studies	Findings[a]	Interpretation
Main effects			
Ecological motives	ns, +, ++	++	Medium/large positive effect
Economic motives	ns, +, ++	++ (SI), + (SB)	Effects differ for SI and SB
Hedonic motives	ns, +, ++	++	Medium/large positive effect
Social motives	−, ns, +, ++	++	Medium/large positive effect
Utilitarian motives	ns, +, ++	++ (SI), + (SB)	Effects differ for SI and SB
Subjective norm	ns, +	++	Medium/large positive effect
Customer competence	ns, +	+	Small positive effect
Customer age	−, +, ++	−	Small negative effect
Customer education	−, ns, +	+	Small positive effect
Customer gender	−, ns, +	ns (SI), − (SB)	Effects differ for SI and SB
Customer income	−, ns, +	ns (SI), + (SB)	Effects differ for SI and SB
Customer satisfaction	+	++	Medium/large positive effect
Service quality of platform	ns, +	++	Medium/large positive effect
Trust in platform	ns, +	++	Medium/large positive effect
Performance expectancy	ns, +	++	Medium/large positive effect
Effort expectancy	ns, +	++	Medium/large positive effect
Service quality of provider	+	++ (SI), + (SB)	Effects differ for SI and SB
Trust in provider	ns, +	++	Medium/large positive effect
Provider age	+	ns	No significant effects
Provider gender	+	ns (SI), ++ (SB)	Effects differ for SI and SB
Moderating effects			
Previous provider experience (H1)	Not tested for most relationships	Economic motives (↑) Social motives (↑) Customer competence (↑) Customer age (↓)	Eckhardt *et al.* (2019) discussed this moderator; some effects were not predicted (age, motives).
Private/professional supply (H2)	Not tested for most relationships	Utilitarian motives (↑) Customer age (↓) Effort expectancy (↑)	Eckhardt *et al.* (2019) discussed this moderator; these effects were not predicted.
High vs. low rivalry (H3)	Not tested before	Hedonic motives (↑) Social motives (↓) Customer age (↓)	Lamberton and Rose (2012) discussed this moderator; some effects were not predicted (social motives, age).
High v.s low prestige (H4)	Not tested before	Customer competence (↓) Effort expectancy (↓)	Lamberton and Rose (2012) discussed this moderator; both effects were not predicted.
Services vs. goods (H5)	Not tested before	Economic motives (↑) Customer age (↓) Service quality of platform (↓) Effort expectancy (↓)	Plewnia and Guenther (2018) discussed this moderator; some effects were not predicted (age, economic motives).
For-profit vs. non-profit (H6)	Not tested before	Ecological motives (↓) Utilitarian motives (↑) Customer satisfaction (↑)	Plewnia and Guenther (2018) discussed this moderator; the effects are in line with predictions.
No ownership transfer vs. ownership transfer (H7)	Not tested before	Ecological motives (↓) Hedonic motives (↑) Subjective norm (↓) Performance expectancy (↑) Effort expectancy (↑)	Trenz, Frey and Veit (2018) discussed this moderator; these effects were not predicted.

Notes: ++ = medium/large positive effect; + = small positive effect; − = small negative effect; ↑ = stronger effect; ↓ = weaker effect.
[a] The results for the main effects are based on the descriptive statistics (Table 8); the meta-analysis corrects effect sizes for artefacts, including measurement error and sampling error (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004).

Scholars should, therefore, continue to examine gender differences and their effects on sharing behaviour.

Second, we utilized SEM to assess the indirect effects of antecedents on customer sharing behaviour through sharing intentions. We find strong indirect effects of hedonic motives, economic motives, customer education, satisfaction, trust in the platform, performance expectancy, trust in the provider and provider gender. If scholars ignore these indirect effects, they may underestimate the importance of specific antecedents. Some antecedents also display direct effects on sharing behaviour, including ecological motives, social motives and subjective norms. Although studies often examine sharing intentions only, our results emphasize the importance of measuring sharing behaviour because the impacts of the antecedents differ. When the an-

Table 12. Summary of moderator tests

Relationship	No provider experience vs. provider experience	Private vs. professional supply	High rivalry vs. low rivalry	High prestige vs. low prestige	Services vs. goods	For-profit vs. non-profit	No ownership vs. ownership transfer
Ecological motives → SI						FP < NP	NO < O
Economic motives → SI	NP > P				S > G		
Hedonic motives → SI			H > L				NO > O
Social motives → SI	NP > P		H < L				
Utilitarian motives → SI		PRI > PRO				FP > NP	
Subjective norm → SI							NO < O
Competence → SI	NP > P			H < L			
Customer age → SI	NP < P	PRI < PRO	H < L		S < G		
Customer education → SI							
Customer gender → SI							
Customer income → SI							
Customer satisfaction → SI						FP > NP	
Service quality of platform → SI					S < G		
Trust in platform → SI							
Performance expectancy → SI							NO > O
Effort expectancy → SI		PRI > PRO		H < L	S < G		NO > O
Service quality of provider → SI							
Trust in provider → SI							
# moderating effects	**4**	**3**	**3**	**2**	**4**	**3**	**5**

tecedents are tested together using SEM, some become non-significant, and their effect on behavioural intentions appears conditional.

When do antecedents affect customer sharing behaviour?

Using a contingency approach, we focus on four types of contextual moderators (i.e. customer type, provider type, platform characteristics and exchange type). We leverage our vast data set to compare different study contexts and resolve inconsistencies in the literature (Table 1). The moderator tests provide a more nuanced understanding of why some empirical studies report stronger or weaker effects of antecedents on sharing intentions in certain contexts (Tables 11 and 12). We find significant effects for all four groups of contextual moderators and clarify that ownership transfer exerts the most moderating effects. Some antecedents (customer income, trust in the platform, service quality of the provider and trust in the provider) are not moderated by the study characteristics but vary with different control variables (e.g. time effects and country differences). No moderating effects arise for customer education and gender. Scholars should consider our results when interpreting empirical findings, undertake more cross-contextual theorizing and include moderators in their models.

Regarding the moderating effects of *customer type*, we determined that some customers in the sharing economy have previous experience as providers (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2019). Mittendorf, Berente and Holten (2019) note how this moderator impacts the effects of trust perceptions on sharing intentions. We expanded the analysis to include 20 different antecedents, and our results emphasize the importance of this moderator: economic motives, social motives and customer competence are stronger for customers without previous provider experience, and the negative effect of customer age is weaker for these customers. It seems that previous provider experience influences customers' expectations and understanding of the sharing business. Qualitative studies should explore why economic motives are more important for customers without provider experience and why customer age displays the opposite effect.

Our results pertaining to *provider type* also help explain inconsistent findings related to several antecedents. Eckhardt *et al.* (2019) encourage scholars to assess the influence of private/professional supply. We find that customers have different expectations of private versus professional providers, although there were some effects we did not predict. Utilitarian motives gain importance when customers use private providers instead of professional ones. Perhaps they assume that private providers are more flexible than professional

providers, and this assumption enhances the salience of convenience benefits. Moreover, the ease of use of the platform gains importance when customers use private providers, probably because customers require more time to assess different providers and their trustworthiness, a matter that is less relevant for professional providers. We observe that customer age effects are less pronounced when private providers are used; given the presumed affordability of private service provision, perhaps the sharing offer is attractive to customers of all ages.

In our assessment of the moderating effects of *platform characteristics*, we tested rivalry on the platform and the prestige of the offering. Both factors appear in the literature, but their moderating effects have not been tested (Lamberton and Rose, 2012). We find that rivalry enhances the positive effect of hedonic motives, in that only 'true believers' (customers who enjoy sharing goods and services) participate when rivalry is high. These customers may also find it enjoyable to hunt for bargains, such as appealing vacation apartments; however, this moderator weakens the positive effect of social motives. Although previous research suggests that rivalry among customers exerts negative effects (Lamberton and Rose, 2012), our findings reveal some positive effects; some customers may even enjoy rivalry. Scholars should, therefore, define what levels of rivalry are acceptable to different types of customers. We also find stronger effects of customer age when rivalry is low, and we call for qualitative research to identify the underlying reasons.

Ownership prestige can also explain inconsistencies. Specifically, effort expectancy is less important for platforms that offer goods and services with higher prestige. Customers use these platforms to find offerings that can signal their social status, and they seem not to mind spending more time browsing the platform and learning how to use it (effort expectancy). Scholars should therefore explore why customer competence also has stronger effects on offerings that provide lower prestige. We also tested services versus goods contexts (Plewnia and Guenther, 2018), noting that although scholars acknowledge that sharing platforms can offer services or goods, the literature lacks comparative assessments of the two contexts. The service quality of the platform appears more important when it provides goods rather than services, because goods exchanges involve very little interaction between customers and service providers and the platform is the main contact point. For similar reasons, effort expectancy is more relevant in the context of goods. Thus, scholars should consider how the offering influences platform perceptions and customer requirements when sharing services as opposed to goods. Whereas economic motives are more important in explaining sharing behaviour for services than for goods, we find the opposite for age. Scholars should investigate these findings using qualitative methods.

In testing the moderating effects of *exchange type*, we note differences between for-profit and non-profit exchanges (Plewnia and Guenther, 2018). In line with Minami, Ramos and Bortoluzzo (2021), we find that the effects of ecological motives are more important in non-profit than in for-profit contexts. However, we find the opposite for customer satisfaction and utilitarian motives. Customers appear to have different expectations regarding the degree of professionalism of the sharing businesses and their potential to conserve natural resources.

Noting Trenz *et al.*'s (2018) categorization of exchange practices in terms of ownership transfer, we predicted that platform factors would be more important when exchanges involve ownership transfer, given the need to reduce transaction risk and uncertainty. Instead, we found that performance expectancy and effort expectancy are less important for such exchanges; perhaps the financial risk involved in the sale of second-hand items is relatively low. The differences between ecological motives, hedonic motives and subjective norms, which we did not predict, require more research attention. Ecological motives may gain importance in such exchanges, and subjective norms may appear more effective because customers recognize the positive environmental impact of purchasing second-hand items.

Finally, we observe time effects and country differences. The effects of ecological motives, hedonic motives, income, trust in the platform, effort expectancy, service quality of the provider and trust in the provider gain importance over time. As customers become more familiar with the sharing economy, their expectations increase. Moreover, the effects of economic motives, customer competence, customer satisfaction and performance expectancy appear stronger in the United States than in other countries. Juric, Lindenmeier and Arnold (2021) argue that the individualistic nature of US culture may make satisfaction of needs more salient there than elsewhere.

Managerial implications

Our findings have notable implications for managers. First, they provide guidance on which customers to approach and how to approach them. Platform managers should apply ecological, economic, social, hedonic and utilitarian motives for customer segmentation, together with subjective norms, customer competence and customer satisfaction, to define and target the most promising customer segments. Customer age, education and gender are less useful. For example, firm communications should appeal to customers' ecological motives by emphasizing the brand's environmental friendliness (Chatzidakis and Shaw, 2018).

Second, platform managers should take measures to ensure that customers trust the platform and its service providers. Such initiatives are more important than improvements in service quality. Customers feel vulnerable to uncertainties related to the platform and service provider, and they appreciate reassurances when booking (e.g. money-back guarantees and secure transactions). Similarly, when interacting with unfamiliar service providers, customers expect reassurance regarding safety and liability. Managers should provide emergency contacts and engage in professional efforts to manage their online reputation. Customers functioning as providers also need assurances that they are insured and that any potential damage to them or to the shared assets will be covered.

The third implication, which builds on the previous point, is that managers should recognize that customers who lack experience as providers have different expectations of platforms, and that they often prioritize cost-saving and social motives. These aspects should be emphasized in the firm's communications.

Fourth, platform managers should decide whether to rely on private/professional supply, as this decision influences customers' expectations. Our results favour private providers, as they can leverage the effects of several antecedents that enhance sharing intentions.

Fifth, regarding the configuration of the sharing platform, we note relevant differences related to rivalry. When customers compete for scarce goods and services, hedonic motives gain importance, whereas social motives lose relevance. More intense rivalry might make it more difficult to create feelings of community, and constant shortages may affect customers' willingness to share goods and services; however, some customers also enjoy a competitive hunt for bargains. Managers should determine an optimal level of rivalry. If customers use the goods and services as status symbols, this appeal should also be prominent in firm communications. Customers seem eager to learn how to participate in sharing and to develop competencies in using the sharing platform when the goods and services enhance their social status.

Sixth, managers should attend to the exchange modalities of their businesses. We find differences between for-profit and non-profit exchanges. The latter represent 'true sharing' and appear to evoke different expectations, which managers must meet. Similarly, managers should recognize that customers develop different expectations when exchanges involve ownership transfer.

Limitations and research agenda

Our conceptual framework of customer sharing behaviour reflects the empirical evidence currently available in this research domain. To extend the framework, we propose a research agenda based on our meta-analysis, highlighting its limitations and under-researched areas (Table 13).

Due to data availability constraints, we were unable to include some potentially relevant factors. Among *customer-related factors*, conditional and epistemic motives might influence sharing behaviours (Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991). Exploring interactions among different antecedents could be valuable, and profiles of customers with multiple motives could be developed. Extensions of the framework might also include endogenous mechanisms that influence perceptions of motives; for example, customers with high price sensitivity and limited budgets are likely to display economic (cost-saving) motives. For *platform-related factors*, characteristics like rating systems and identity verification could be examined for their impact on sharing behaviour and then compared with other antecedents. Similarly, the inclusion of novel *service-provider-related antecedents* could be beneficial. Although we tested the direct impact of provider age and gender, research on age and gender similarity/ congruity suggests that the impact may be complex enough to warrant further study (Kwok and Xie, 2018). Other unique factors, such as personality traits and endogenous mechanisms affecting customer perceptions of providers, should be assessed. Organizational theories (notably in relation to training and leadership) and governance theories (in relation to provider selection and incentives) could enhance this research, offering insights into training and managing service providers. Such tests would further enrich the sharing economy literature.

Current frameworks rarely consider contextual moderators. We encourage researchers to incorporate our proposed moderators and explore moderators that we excluded because of data constraints. For example, applications of role theory might assess different *customer types* in the sharing business. Some customers may have previous experience as information providers, owners of goods or providers of access to social networks. We also found that customer expectations differ regarding *private/professional supply*. Sharing can take place in different contexts (consumer-to-business, business-to-business and government-to-consumer) with different influences on customer expectations (Plewnia and Guenther, 2018). For example, local or state government contracts with sharing firms to provide traditional governmental services are likely to influence customers' expectations. Moreover, scholars could explore *rivalry* effects, such as why and when customers enjoy hunting for bargains, as well as whether rivalry might be harmful in certain industries, such as those in which customers expect goods and services to be available. Regarding *prestige*, scholars could develop unique sharing models using theories of conspicuous consumption and transfer those ideas to the sharing context. For example,

Table 13. Research agenda: Extending the sharing behaviour framework

Issue	Recommendations
Extend framework regarding novel antecedents	
• Customer	– Examine the role of other customer-related factors, such as conditional and epistemic motives, and assess profiles based on multiple motives.
	– Assess endogenous mechanisms that influence the formation of customer motives; for example, customers with high price sensitivity and limited budgets likely display economic motives such as cost saving.
• Platform	– Assess theoretically meaningful platform-related factors; for example, a rating system helps customers assess the offerings on the platform, so studies should assess when and how ratings influence willingness to share.
• Service provider	– Explore more factors related to the service provider, such as personality traits (BIG 5) and other sociodemographic factors.
	– Assess endogenous mechanisms that influence perceptions of service providers; scholars may rely on theories from organizational research (training and leadership) and governance theory (service-provider selection and service-provider incentives).
Extend framework regarding novel moderators	
• Previous provider experience	– Use role theory to explore the influence of customers' previous experience in different roles; for example, customers can support sharing by providing different resources (information, goods, access to social networks).
• Private/professional supply	– Assess other service-provider types; Plewnia and Guenther (2018) point out that sharing can also take place in consumer-to-business, business-to-business or government-to-consumer context. Explore how customers respond when sharing businesses transition from private to professional provision.
• Rivalry on platform	– Explore when customers enjoy hunting for bargains on sharing platforms.
	– Determine which level of rivalry is acceptable among customers and when it is too high, for which types of goods and services.
• Prestige of ownership	– Conduct studies of conspicuous consumption, leveraging marketing literature pertaining to status consumption and theories that can inform sharing research.
• Services/goods sharing	– Explore how the shared offering influences platform perceptions and which requirements customers have when sharing services vs. goods.
• For-profit/non-profit exchange	– Examine non-profit platforms in more detail and how they allow consumers at the bottom of the pyramid to access goods and services at low costs; more research is needed into when and how these platforms support the poor.
• Ownership transfer	– Assess how ownership transfer influences customer expectations towards the service provider and platform in more detail; such platforms do not create a community feeling, and customers have different expectations, similar to regular e-commerce.
• Further moderators	– Assess country differences characterizing the environmental setting in which sharing takes place (e.g. regulations and policies, self-regulation relative to government regulation).

other customers are likely to exert contextual influences on the sharing experience (similarity, physical appearance, suitable behaviour; Brocato, Voorhees and Baker, 2012), and therefore tests of such contextual factors as moderators would be helpful. Regarding *type of offering*, scholars might examine customers' specific requirements of platforms that share different services. Service classifications (processing of people, possessions, mental stimuli and information) might be relevant (Wirtz, Chew and Lovelock, 2013). Regarding the *nature of the exchange*, non-profit platforms provide low-cost access to goods and services for those at the bottom of the pyramid, addressing challenges such as constrained income, unsafe drinking water, inadequate nutrition and limited access to health and education (Schaefers, Moser and Narayanamurthy, 2018). More research is needed on how sharing platforms can support the poor. Regarding the moderating effects of *ownership transfer*,

Trenz, Frey and Veit (2018) highlight different trading practices, such as swapping and gifting/donating (e.g. families swapping homes for the summer) that influence customer expectations. Finally, we call for tests of additional moderators related to the *country* or regulatory context. Given that national cultures and regulatory differences affect customer behaviour, adding such moderators to the conceptual framework could advance the sharing economy literature even further.

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Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.