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THE INFLUENCE OF SENSE OF COMMUNITY AND SOCIAL IDENTIFICATION ON TRUST IN THE SHARING ECONOMY

ABSTRACT

Property sharing is one of the most prominent examples of the rapidly expanding sharing economy. Travellers around the world often opt to stay at a stranger's apartment instead of any other tourism accommodation. Trust is essential in this choice, because staying with, or taking in, strangers can entail great risks. To create trust between users, sharing platforms often promote a sense of community. However, the relation between sense of community and trust in the sharing economy is still largely unknown. To investigate this relation, both hosts and guests of two sharing platforms, namely Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes, were surveyed. The findings indicate that sense of community indeed enhances trust between users. Moreover, the evidence suggests that hosts have a stronger sense of community than guests. Also, a significantly higher sense of community was found on the platform where identification between users is higher. This study shows that affect for the community contributes to the understanding of trust in the sharing economy.

INTRODUCTION

Letting strangers sleep in one's apartment while one is away is something that would have been considered improbable just a decade ago. However, this is exactly what is happening on a large scale via the online platform Airbnb,[14] part of a larger phenomenon called *the sharing economy*. Although very popular, exchange in the sharing economy is not without risks. Guests and hosts on Airbnb, for example, can be confronted with disappointing accommodation or property damage, respectively. Consequently, trust has been identified as a key factor for successful transactions in the sharing economy (Belk, 2010; Botsman & Rogers, 2010; Horton & Zeckhauser, 2016).

One of the challenges regarding trust in the sharing economy is overcoming people's fear of *stranger danger* and helping them to view hosts or guests as friends whom they have not met yet (Möhlmann & Geissinger, 2018). To reduce perceptions of stranger danger and to reassure users that using the platform is safe, sharing platforms stress the importance of the community in their marketing strategy. Airbnb, for example, states on its website that the values of the Airbnb community provide safety and lead to trust for travellers and hosts.[15] Sense of Community (SoC) can provide for a community marketplace where people matter to one another, ultimately leading to trust between users (Celata, Hendrickson, & Sanna, 2017).

SoC is an individual feeling that people in a community belong and matter to one another; this can provide for trust because, through the development of community norms, people know what to expect from one another (McMillan, 1996). Experiencing SoC in sharing economy marketplaces motivates owners to share and to be assured that other users adhere to a basic set of principles and norms (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012). A study on trust between virtual community members, for instance, has shown that SoC in a virtual community (D. Wang & Nicolau, 2017) plays a significant role in developing mutual trust (Blanchard et al., 2011). It increases the belief that co-members adhere to community norms and thus can be trusted.

Research on SoC has been conducted in different types of communities, such as face-to-face communities (McMillan & Chavis, 1986), virtual communities (Chang, Chang, & Hsieh, 2016), and brand communities (Carlson, Suter, & Brown, 2008). Sharing communities, however, where SoC is likely to play a role, have received very little academic attention to date. Therefore, the level of SoC within sharing communities remains unclear. Moreover, its influence on

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[14] Since 2008 there have been over 200 million guest arrivals (Airbnb, 2017).

[15] https://www.airbnb.com/trust?locale=en

facilitating trust between users is not fully understood, leaving the marketing claims of sharing platforms unchallenged. A study investigating SoC in a sharing community would provide insights into a new type of community that is becoming increasingly popular and therefore would complement existing community research.

The objectives of this research are to measure the level of SoC on different sharing platforms and to investigate its influence on trust between users, leading to the following research questions: *What is the level of SoC between users of sharing platforms*? and *To what extent does SoC influence trust in other users of sharing platforms?* The answers to these questions will contribute to a further understanding of how trust in the sharing economy is formed. These questions are empirically tested using a survey study on two accommodation platforms, i.e. Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes. Whereas Airbnb is a general platform, SabbaticalHomes is a platform aimed at a more close-knit community, namely members of the academic community. These two platforms are compared because they are similar in the product offered and it is expected that the extent to which users can identify with each other could influence SoC. Therefore, a platform was selected on which users are expected to have a lower identification with others (i.e. Airbnb) and another where users are expected to have a higher identification with others (i.e. SabbaticalHomes).

The remainder of the article is structured as follows. First, the background to the relevant theoretical concepts and the hypotheses of the study are presented. In the next section, the research method is discussed, after which the results are presented. Lastly, the findings are discussed and implications for theory and practice are outlined.

BACKGROUND

The term sharing economy has grown in popularity, especially since Rachel Botsman and Roo Rogers popularized the term in their book What's mine is yours (2010) and in multiple TED talks.[16] Botsman and Rogers (2010) distinguish three different consumption systems that make up the sharing economy, i.e. product service systems (e.g. Airbnb), redistribution markets (e.g. craigslist), and collaborative lifestyles (e.g. ParkAtMyHouse). Although this classification provides a clear overview of the sharing economy, agreement on defining the sharing economy is far from being reached (Dredge & Gyimóthy, 2015). Nonetheless, many definitions emphasize 1) the peer-to-peer character of

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[16] See for an example TED talk https://www.ted.com/talks/rachel_botsman_the_currency_of_the_new_economy_is_trust

transactions and 2) the fact that the resources that are shared would otherwise be underutilized. To incorporate these facets, in this study, the sharing economy is viewed as "an economic model based on sharing underutilized assets between peers without the transfer of ownership, ranging from spaces, to skills, to stuff, for monetary or non-monetary benefits via an online mediated platform" (ter Huurne et al., 2017, p. 2).

The Importance of Trust in the Sharing Economy

Trust in the sharing economy is of utmost importance, because transactions are initiated in an online context where consumers are unable to inspect goods upfront, personal interaction is possible only to a limited extent, and regulations are often absent. In fact, a successful transaction without trust would be inconceivable, as trust is important especially for the sharing economy where products and services are exchanged between strangers (Tussyadiah & Park, 2018).

For the purpose of this study, trust is viewed from the group level because the unit of analysis is the group comprised of community members on sharing platforms. Group trust exists, or has to be built, between an individual and the collective with whom that individual is dealing (McEvily, Weber, Bicchieri, & Ho, 2006). It can be defined as "a particular level of the subjective probability with which an agent assesses that another agent or group of agents will perform a particular action" (Ostrom & Ahn, 2009, p. 9). In brief, trust in sharing communities is necessary, as it leads an individual to have positive expectations about group members not harming one another, thereby inciting that individual to rely for outcomes on others in the community and dare to participate in the community.

The role of trust in the sharing economy deviates from that in more common economic transactions for at least five reasons. First, consumers are protected less via rules and regulations compared to traditional transactions, causing legal grey areas and regulatory uncertainty (Ranchordás, 2015). Second, trust has moved from a dyadic relationship between a consumer and a provider to a triad of relationships, including the sharing platform that facilitates the transaction (Möhlmann, 2016). This alteration has generated trust relationships between peers, and between peers and the sharing platform, making the act of sharing complex and blurry. Third, transactions have both an online and an offline component, entailing information barriers and possible personal risks. Fourth, consumption has shifted from owning products to a situation whereby consumers use products temporarily and pay for access to them (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). This could entail risks regarding damage to, or theft of, property. Lastly, when service exchanges are included in the definition of the sharing economy (e.g. accommodation, taxi services, cleaning), there are more complex activities that can go wrong (e.g. hospitality, punctuality, planning) than found in product exchange (Möhlmann, 2016).

Forms of Trust

Another significant aspect of trust is that it can have different foundations depending on the type of relationship (Rousseau et al., 1998). Habibi, Kim, and Laroche (2016) discern two types of relationships in the sharing economy, i.e. market exchange and communal relationships. Market exchange relationships are based on the expectation that a given benefit is returned in a comparable way or in repayment for a benefit received previously (Clark & Mills, 1993). In market exchange relationships, trust is often based on an ongoing calculation of sustaining or leaving the relationship, also called calculus-based trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995). Calculus-based trust is derived from credible information about the intentions or competence of the other, as well as the possibility of applying sanctions (Rousseau et al., 1998). For example, in the online shopping context, calculus-based trust can be based on trust measures such as security certificates, return policies, and user feedback (Roghanizad & Neufeld, 2015). In the sharing economy, a user's (both provider's and consumer's) reputation, reviews from other users, and guarantees set by the sharing platform are important sources of trust (Ert et al., 2016; Thierer et al., 2015) and can be viewed as drivers of calculus-based trust. When a person considers transacting in the sharing economy from a market exchange perspective, he or she might have a higher need for calculus-based trust when developing trust in others and thus make more use of it in his or her buying decisions.

In communal relationships, people give benefits to others in response to needs or to demonstrate a general concern for the other person (Clark & Mills, 1993). Trust in communal relationships is often based on emotional bonds between individuals, also referred to as affect-based trust (McAllister, 1995). Affect-based trust in relationships means that people make emotional investments, such as caring for others and their wellbeing, in the belief and expectation that these sentiments will be reciprocated (McAllister, 1995). McAllister (1995, p. 26) emphasizes the importance of emotions for trust by stating that "the emotional ties linking individuals can provide the basis for trust".

Previous research on trust in the sharing economy has focused mainly on calculus-based trust measures, such as reputation, the use of profile pictures, and the effect of verified identities (e.g. Ert et al., 2016; Teubner, Hawlitschek, & Dann, 2017; Wang & Nicolau, 2017), leaving affect-based trust unexplored. In this study, therefore, how affect-based antecedents form a basis for trust in other users in the sharing economy is investigated by using SoC and social identification as an additional basis on which trust relations between users in the sharing economy can be built and sustained.

Sense of Community

The term community has been defined as "networks of interpersonal ties that provide sociability, support, information, a sense of belonging, and social identity" (Wellman, 2005, p. 53). The presence of elements of SoC in a community, for example when people seek to connect and bond with one another, is often seen as evidence for the existence of a community (Decrop, Del Chiappa, Mallargé, & Zidda, 2017). McMillan and Chavis (1986) distinguish four dimensions of SoC, namely (1) membership – relating to the feeling that one is part of a group, (2) influence – whether one has some sort of influence in the group, (3) integration and fulfilment of needs – believing that one's needs will be met through the community, and lastly (4) shared emotional connection – concerning shared history and shared participation.

Clearly, these elements vary in strength between sharing communities. Couchsurfing, for instance, is well-known for connecting people all over the world to provide a place to stay on their travels. It has succeeded in doing so, inter alia, by creating feelings of connectedness and bonding between its members (Decrop et al., 2017; Rosen et al., 2011). Uber, on the other hand, can be viewed as an example of a sharing platform where relations between users are of minor importance because an individual is booking a taxi. In this study, the SoC concept is used to investigate how members of a sharing platform relate to one another, as SoC is important in shaping the relational aspect of social exchanges (Sandefur & Laumann, 1998). Also, SoC has been associated with several positive community outcomes, such as higher participation in activities, loyal community members, and a stronger commitment to the community's goals (Chang et al., 2016; McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Therefore, it is an important construct for measuring community strength.

With regard to characteristics, communities have been discerned as geographical communities (e.g. neighborhoods) and relational communities (e.g. brand-based communities) (Gusfield, 1975). The first are bound by territories, whereas the latter are concerned with the "quality of character of human relationship, without reference to location" (Gusfield, 1975, p. 16). Sharing communities, however, entail aspects of both geographical and relational communities, because users meet offline when completing transactions and are connected in a virtual manner. This process creates a hybrid type of community in which users can experience SoC in various ways, namely via offline social interactions, via the feeling of knowing that other users exist, and possibly via the brand of the sharing platform. Nonetheless, the number of social interactions between members of sharing platforms is usually limited, making the psychological nature of sharing communities more salient. In this study, Carlson et al.'s (2008, p. 286) definition of SoC as "the degree to which an individual perceives relational bonds with other brand users" is adopted to accommodate the psychological aspect of sharing communities.

Regarding the relation between SoC and trust, SoC has been associated with trust in both offline and online communities (Blanchard et al., 2011; McMillan, 1996). Rosen et al. (2011), for example, found a significant positive correlation between SoC and trust among Couchsurfing community members. These findings suggest that trust and SoC also play a role in sharing communities. In the development of SoC, community norms play an important role (Blanchard et al., 2011). When a community becomes more connected, social norms develop and strengthen. These norms create social pressure on group members to act in a certain way and can reinforce their bond with the community (Blanchard et al., 2011). Consequently, when community members adhere to prevalent norms, their actions become predictable and reliable to others, making them trustworthy. Sharing platforms also try to establish social norms. Couchsurfing, for instance, informs users on how to behave and communicate, both upfront and during their stay (e.g. "get to know the 'rules' of the house"). Concluding, SoC can create bonds between users within sharing communities and mediates the relationship between norms and trust between users. It is thus hypothesised that:

H1: SoC relates positively to trust in other community members in the sharing economy.

Social Identity Theory

Social identification is strongly related to SoC, and the interplay between the two constructs requires the inclusion of social identification in studies of communities (Blanchard, 2008; Blanchard & Markus, 2004; Obst & White, 2005). Social identification is a recurrent element in different dimensions of SoC, because the extent to which one sees oneself as a member of a community and feels emotionally connected to other members is an important element. Despite this, social identification is not measured separately in classical measures of SoC (Obst & White, 2005). Social identification is therefore included in this study as a separate concept in the investigation of sharing communities, also because it can be applied to two objects, namely to other users and to the platform.

According to social identification theory, an individual's personal identity is largely derived from his or her (perceived) membership of a social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Social identification occurs when one experiences a certain level of oneness with the group, which leads to thoughts, feelings, and expectations that are consistent with those of the group (Hogg & Terry, 1995). However, for social identification to occur, face-to-face contact between group members is not a necessity; it can also be developed without any social interaction, for example, in the case of identification with brands (Carlson et al., 2008).

In sharing communities, trusting other community members often occurs under the condition of limited information about the other, making it difficult to

develop trusting beliefs. However, social identification with the group can lead to favourable perceptions of group members and consequently to trust in others (Kramer, Brewer, & Hanna, 1996; Kramer & Goldman, 1995). Previous research has shown that trusting beliefs can be influenced by the mere fact that people are members of the same group and that these perceptions are amplified when identification with the group is strong (De Cremer & Van Vugt, 1999). Blanchard et al. (2011) state that group norms serve as the underlying mechanism by which social identification leads to trust. A person's identification with the group implies a perceived overlap between the person's own identity and that of the group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), resulting in understanding and adhering to group norms (Postmes, Spears, Lee, & Novak, 2005). A strong identification with members of a sharing community is therefore expected to lead to increased trust in those members. Thus, it is proposed that:

H2: Social identification with other users relates positively to trust in community members.

Besides identifying with group members of a community, an individual can develop a social identification with organizations. Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) state that strong consumer–company relationships are based on consumers' identification with an organization that helps them satisfy their need for self-definition. A company can represent an attractive and meaningful object of identification that is used by consumers to self-categorize. For example, people can perceive a strong identification with Couchsurfing because of the perceived attractiveness of its mission, principles, and leadership.

We believe that favourable perceptions of an organization (i.e. sharing platform) could transfer to the users of that platform, in turn leading to positive trusting beliefs about those users. Users of a sharing platform form an integral part of the platform, and, because of their membership of a platform, they can be perceived as sharing the organization's mission and values. For example, people traveling with Couchsurfing can be perceived as sharing the values of Couchsurfing, i.e. creating connections, offering kindness, and sharing their life.[17] This perceived similarity in shared values could lead to enhanced trusting beliefs (Doney & Cannon, 1997; Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987), as people tend to trust others who are similar to themselves (Ziegler & Golbeck, 2007). On sharing platforms, people engage with one another because of joint interests, beliefs, or values, and these similarities might aid trust building among community members. From the above, it is posited that:

H3: Social identification with a sharing platform relates positively to trust in other platform members.

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[17] Couchsurfing's values: www.couchsurfing.com/about/about-us

Expectations about a trustee can be grounded on different bases and can change over time. Taking only one base into account in this study would risk missing the diversity of trust in various settings (Rousseau et al., 1998). According to Rousseau et al.'s (1998) Model of Trust, a high level of calculus-based trust is associated with a low level of affect-based trust, and vice versa. They observe that variations in trust might be attributable to a tension between acting out of self-interest and acting out of the interests of a collective. In this study, it is assumed that users in the sharing economy who experience a high level of affect-based trust have a lower need for calculus-based trust. More specifically, users who believe that other users adhere to group norms are deemed to have less need for information about other actors (i.e. the platform, other platform users, and the transaction partner) to learn about the trustworthiness of the other or to sanction. Hence, the following is hypothesised:

H4a: SoC relates negatively to the need for information about other actors.

H4b: Social identification with other users relates negatively to the need for information about other actors.

H4c: Social identification with a sharing platform relates negatively to the need for information about other actors.

Figure 5.1 displays the theoretical constructs of this study and the underlying hypothesised relations.
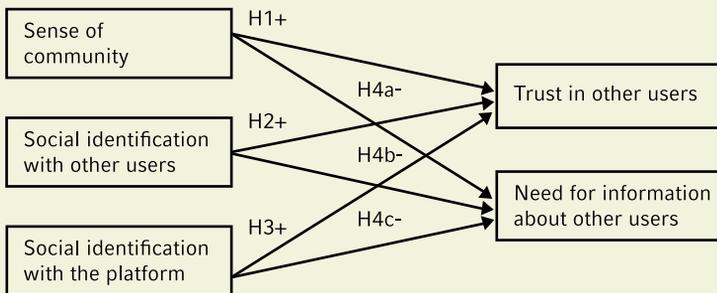
Figure 5.1. The Research Model

Differences between Platforms

The sharing economy is often portrayed as a social economy that distinguishes itself from traditional marketplaces because it is assumed to connect people, build relationships between them, and stimulate social cohesion (Schor, 2014). Discussing the sharing economy in such a broad manner would imply that sharing platforms across the board are quite similar. However, there is a large variety between platforms in the way they contain the social dimensions of sharing and how people feel connected to them (Habibi et al., 2016). There are platforms in which members feel a strong connection (e.g. Couchsurfing) and platforms with loosely linked members (e.g. Uber). It is therefore important to investigate differences between platforms in the way members feel connected to them, to understand how relational trust operates under varying conditions of SoC.

To this end, two sharing platforms, namely Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes, have been selected that fit within the previously stated definition of the sharing economy.[18] These two platforms are equivalent in the type of shared product (i.e. accommodation) but expected to differ in the nature of each user's relation with both the platform and other users. In this study, this difference between the platforms is believed to affect the experienced level of SoC and social identification. For reasons of conciseness, it is summarily hypothesised that:

> **H5:** The experienced level of SoC and social identification of SabbaticalHomes users is greater than that of Airbnb users.

There is a distinct role division between users on sharing platforms, namely that of providers and consumers; or, in the case of accommodation platforms, hosts and guests. Because there are no theoretical expectations a priori regarding possible differences between hosts and guests regarding their perceptions of SoC and social identification, a hypothesis is not formally proposed. Instead, the following research question is posed:

> **RQ1:** To what extent do SoC and social identification differ between hosts and guests?

METHOD

To test these hypotheses, an online survey design is adopted, as such designs are well-suited to testing personal beliefs and attitudes (De Leeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2008).

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[18] Airbnb: www.airbnb.com; SabbaticalHomes: www.sabbaticalhomes.com

Instrument Development

The survey was designed to gather data about the following constructs: SoC, social identification with other community members, social identification with the platform, need for information about other actors, and trust in other community members. Before the main questionnaire, a screening question was included to recognize users of the platform.

SoC was measured using the psychological sense of brand community scale (six items) developed by Carlson et al. (2008). Questions were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree". To examine whether respondents viewed users of the sharing platform as a collective, or whether they made a distinction between guests and hosts, respondents were asked who they had in mind when answering the questions about SoC.

Next, social identification with other community members was measured with Bergami and Bagozzi's (2000) two-item measure. The first item asked the respondents to what extent they identified with other users on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "not at all" to (7) "very much". The second item consisted of a visual scale of eight pairs of circles depicting the level of overlap between the respondents' identity and that of other community members. Respondents were asked which pair of circles reflected best their perceived overlap with the identity of other users. He, Li, and Harris's (2012) measure for brand identification (five items) was adapted to measure social identification with the platform using a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree".

From e-commerce literature regarding the measurement of calculus-based trust (e.g. Chen, 2009; Hernandez & Santos, 2010), no suitable items could be retrieved for this study's context. To be more specific, earlier studies measured calculus-based trust with items concerning the reputation of the website or by using items related to the context of wholesalers and distributors. Therefore, we designed a scale for calculus-based trust based on its definition, which registers respondents' perceived importance of their need for information about other actors through several information sources (i.e. reputation, reviews, profile picture, profile text, verification, contact with the platform) for booking an apartment (if the respondent was a guest) or for receiving a booking request (if the respondent was a host). The questions were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) "very unimportant" to (7) "very important". The dependent variable, trust in other community members, was measured using Pavlou and Gefen's (2004) 3-item scale.

Previous research was used to control for several attributes, namely personality-oriented attributes (i.e. education, sex) (Lamberton & Rose, 2012), experience-

based attributes (use of the platform) (D. Kim, Ferrin, & Rao, 2008; Mittendorf, 2016), trust in the platform (Möhlmann, 2016), and disposition to trust (Yamagishi & Yamagishi, 1994).

To make the survey applicable in the Dutch context, the 5-stage back-translation process as proposed by Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin and Ferraz (2000) was applied. The first four stages are aimed at acquiring the best possible translation of the original items. The final stage consists of pretesting the prefinal version of the survey in two steps. First, two cognitive interviews were conducted to test whether the questions fulfilled their intended purposes (Willis & Artino, 2013). Second, the prefinal version of the survey was administered to 54 Airbnb users to assess construct validity.

In order to facilitate the interpretation of latent constructs, factor analysis was applied. Before starting the factor analysis, sampling adequacy was checked using the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin criterion (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. A value of KMO ≥ 0.50 and a significant Bartlett's test indicate an adequate sample (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). (The items "The verification of the host", "The possibility to contact the X Help Centre", and "The possibility of compensation of damages from X", were eliminated. These are not conceptually less related to the factor *Need for information about other actors* but are more institutional safeguards and considerably reduced the internal consistency of the measure.) Extracted factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 and variables with an item-loading greater than 0.40 were used to obtain a clear factor structure (Hair et al., 2014). Finally, to assess the reliability of the measures, Cronbach's alpha (α) for internal consistency was used, therewith applying a threshold of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2014). The Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 was not quite reached for Airbnb, but this scale was maintained for the consistency of the measurement with the SabbaticalHomes platform. For the last platform, the scale showed sufficient consistency. The results for the exploratory factor analysis of both platforms and the overall sample are presented in Table 5.1.

Data Collection and Measurement

Airbnb users are hard to reach because the platform is fairly new, users form a small part of the total population, and probability sampling is not possible without cooperation from Airbnb itself (Guttentag, Smith, Potwarka, & Havitz, 2017). Therefore, the use of a nonprobability sampling approach was deemed necessary. To bolster and diversify the sample, various sampling techniques were used. Invitational messages to join the survey were sent via online messenger services, Dutch Facebook groups of Airbnb users, alongside calls on Twitter and LinkedIn using relevant hashtags. Also, a professional blogger on the sharing economy was approached to include the survey link in his newsletter. Although the sampling techniques were non-random, the use of different sampling

Table 5.1. Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis

Construct items	Airbnb (n = 190)			Sabbatical Homes (n = 232)			Adapted from
	Factor loading	KMO, Bartlett measure (p)	α	Factor loading	KMO, Bartlett measure (p)	α	
Trust in other community members		0.70, 0.001	0.87		0.73, 0.001	0.91	(Pavlou & Gefen, 2004)
You can rely on X users to do what they say	0.71			0.79			
X users are generally honest	0.88			0.87			
X users are generally reliable	0.88			0.91			
Sense of community		0.93, 0.001	0.96		0.73, 0.001	0.95	(Carlson et al., 2008)
I feel a strong bond with other X users	0.88			0.80			
I find it very easy to bond with other X users	0.82			0.86			
I feel a sense of connection with other X users	0.93			0.92			
I feel a sense of friendship with other X users	0.86			0.88			
Using X gives me a sense of community with other users	0.92			0.89			
I feel a sense of belonging with other X users	0.90			0.89			
Social identification with other users		0.50, 0.001	0.70		0.50, 0.001	0.79	(Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000)
To what extent do you identify with other X users?	0.64			0.74			
Could you indicate the level of overlap between you and other users?	0.64			0.74			
Social identification with the platform		0.85, 0.001	0.85		0.84, 0.001	0.88	(He et al., 2012)
If someone criticizes X, it feels like a personal insult	0.80			0.76			
I am very interested in what others think about X	0.45			0.72			
X's successes are also my successes	0.81			0.81			

Construct items	Airbnb (n = 190)			SabbaticalHomes (n = 232)			Adapted from
	Factor loading	KMO, Bartlett measure (p)	α	Factor loading	KMO, Bartlett measure (p)	α	
When someone recommends X, it feels like a personal compliment	0.87			0.88			Constructed by the authors
If X were to receive negative press, I would feel ashamed	0.70			0.70			
Need for information about other actors (guest version) Suppose you want to book an apartment using X. How important would the following aspects be to you?		0.68, 0.001	0.70		0.73, 0.001	0.75	
The number of stars of an apartment*	0.54			-			
The reviews about the apartment written by other guests	0.71			0.66			
The host's profile picture	0.42			0.47			
The host's profile text	0.48			0.77			
The reviews about the host written by other guests	0.74			0.77			
The verification of the host (e.g. email address, telephone number, or social media profile)	Eliminated			Eliminated			
The possibility to contact the X Help Centre	Eliminated			Eliminated			
Need for information about other actors (host version) Suppose you receive a booking request through X. How important would the following aspects be for you to accept the booking?		0.63, 0.001	0.67		0.78, 0.001	0.75	Constructed by the authors
The written reviews about the guest	0.42			0.68			
The guest's profile picture	0.71			0.63			
The guest's profile text	0.68			0.77			
The verification of the guest (e.g. email address, telephone number, or social media profile)	Eliminated			Eliminated			
The possibility to contact the X Help Centre	Eliminated			Eliminated			
The possibility of compensation of damages from X*	Eliminated			-			

Notes:
1. X stands for the name of the platform.
2. Items with an * were not included in the SabbaticalHomes survey, because these items were not applicable in the context of SabbaticalHomes.
3. Items of the control variables can be provided by the authors upon request.

techniques was intended to reduce possible sample bias in the study. This way of sampling concurs with that of other studies on Airbnb users (e.g. Guttentag, 2016; Mittendorf, 2016).

Because in this study nonprobability sampling techniques were used, the general representativeness of the sample was assessed using demographic characteristics of the Dutch Airbnb community (Airbnb, 2016). According to Airbnb, the average age of a host is 41; in the present study, this figure was 37.97. Furthermore, 56% of Airbnb hosts are female versus 55.79% of the respondents in the Airbnb case in this study. Comparison of the sample characteristics with Airbnb population data reveals large similarities, indicating that the results may be generalizable, keeping in mind the selectivity of the sampling frames.

Table 5.2. Sample Characteristics of Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes

Characteristics	Airbnb (n = 190)	SabbaticalHomes (n = 232)	Pooled Sample (N = 422)
Sex			
Male	44.21% (84)	28.32% (66)	35.55% (150)
Female	55.79% (106)	70.35% (163)	63.74% (269)
Other		1.33% (3)	0.71% (3)
Age	M = 37.97	M = 57.66	M = 48.80
	(SD = 12.17)	(SD = 12.92)	(SD = 15.94)
Highest level of education			
Non-university education	34.74% (66)	11.21% (26)	21.80% (92)
University education	65.26% (124)	88.79% (206)	78.20% (330)
In what capacity have you used the platform?			
As a guest	73.16% (139)	25.00% (58)	46.68% (197)
As a host	5.26% (10)	57.76% (134)	34.12% (144)
Both	21.58% (41)	17.24% (40)	19.19% (81)
Have you more often been a guest or a host?			
Guest	14.63% (6)	20.00% (8)	17.28% (14)
Host	78.05 (32)	57.50% (23)	67.90% (55)
About as often	7.32% (3)	22.50% (9)	14.81% (12)
Total times used the platform in the last 5 years			
0–4 times	47.89% (91)	65.52% (152)	57.58% (243)
≥5 times	52.11% (99)	34.48% (80)	42.42% (179)
Total time using the platform			
0–2 year	61.05% (116)	50.00% (116)	54.98% (232)
≥3 years	38.95% (74)	50.00% (116)	45.02% (190)
Recommend the platform			
0–5	11.05% (21)	0.86% (15)	8.53% (36)
6–7	28.42% (54)	10.35% (24)	18.48% (78)
8–9	60.52% (115)	83.19% (193)	72.99% (208)
Who did you have in mind most when answering questions about SoC?			
Guests	42.63% (81)	39.66% (92)	41.00% (173)
Hosts	17.89% (34)	22.41% (52)	20.38% (86)
All users	39.47% (75)	37.93% (88)	38.63% (163)

In collaboration with the owner of SabbaticalHomes, a random sample of 1,539 SabbaticalHomes users were invited by email to join the survey, resulting in 232

completed surveys. This represents a response rate of 15.07%, which is above that of similar studies (e.g. 8.4%, Petrovčič, Petrič, & Lozar Manfreda, 2016). Unfortunately, it was not possible to compare respondent characteristics with population data, because SabbaticalHomes does not keep track of user data.

Data collection for both platforms occurred online from October to December 2017. In total, 237 surveys were received for Airbnb, of which 47 were only partially completed and therefore eliminated, leaving a final sample of 190. For SabbaticalHomes, 295 surveys were collected, of which 232 were fully completed. A priori power analysis for linear multiple regression showed a power level of 0.99 for a sample size of 190, an anticipated effect size of 0.42, and a probability level of 0.05 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The samples for both platforms reached the threshold of 190 respondents, indicating that the probability of making a type-two error is smaller than 0.01 for both studies.

Table 5.3. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Key Constructs

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
1. Sense of community	1	0.74	0.59	0.52	0.05	4.55	1.57
2. Social identification with other users	**0.65**	1	0.52	0.44	0.05	4.54	1.48
3. Social identification with the platform	**0.68**	**0.50**	1	0.46	0.16	3.53	1.49
4. Trust in other users	**0.41**	**0.37**	**0.29**	1	0.06	5.51	1.13
5. Need for information about other actors	**0.02**	**0.04**	**-0.01**	**0.28**	1	5.04	1.29
Mean (M)	**3.26**	**3.78**	**2.46**	**4.78**	**5.42**	-	-
Standard deviation (SD)	**1.60**	**1.33**	**1.27**	**1.10**	**0.92**	-	-

Note: Airbnb (bold, lower diagonal and last two rows), SabbaticalHomes (upper diagonal and last two columns).

RESULTS

As can be seen in Table 5.2, 55.79% of Airbnb respondents and 70.35% of SabbaticalHomes respondents were female. Airbnb respondents were on average 37.97 years old (SD = 12.16 years), and SabbaticalHomes respondents were on average 57.66 years old (SD = 12.92 years). For both platforms, most respondents had obtained a university education (Airbnb: 65.26%; SabbaticalHomes: 88.79%). Concerning Airbnb, 73.16% of the respondents used the platform as a guest; the corresponding proportion for SabbaticalHomes was 25.00%. Regarding total frequency of use, 47.89% of Airbnb users used the platform 0–4 times; the corresponding figure for SabbaticalHomes users was 65.52%. As to total time using the platform, 61.05% of Airbnb users used the platform for up to 2 years, and for SabbaticalHomes the figure was 50.00%. People were quite satisfied with both platforms: 60.52% (Airbnb) and 83.19% (SabbaticalHomes) would likely recommend it to a friend or colleague (indicating the likelihood with 8 or higher on a 10-point scale). Finally, when answering questions about SoC, respondents had in mind mostly guests (Airbnb: 42.63%; SabbaticalHomes: 39.66%) and all users (Airbnb: 39.47%; SabbaticalHomes: 37.93%).

Table 5.4. Multiple Regression Analyses for Explaining Trust in Other Users

	Airbnb (M1)	Airbnb (M2)	SabbaticalHomes (M1)	SabbaticalHomes (M2)	Pooled sample
Sense of community		0.110 (0.067)		0.115* (0.052)	0.106** (0.041)
Social identification with other users		0.057 (0.067)		0.062 (0.053)	0.062 (0.042)
Social identification with the platform		-0.056 (0.075)		-0.027 (0.047)	-0.021 (0.041)
Trust in the platform	0.426*** (0.064)	0.359*** (0.071)	0.674*** (0.054)	0.602*** (0.059)	0.498*** (0.043)
Disposition to trust	0.235*** (0.069)	0.214*** (0.070)	0.168*** (0.045)	0.135** (0.045)	0.151*** (0.037)
Age	-0.003 (0.006)	-0.004 (0.006)	-0.005 (0.004)	-0.004 (0.004)	-0.001 (0.003)
Sex	0.057 (0.137)	0.075 (0.136)	-0.109 (0.110)	-0.102 (0.107)	-0.005 (0.084)
Education	-0.127 (0.148)	-0.083 (0.151)	0.008 (0.165)	-0.058 (0.162)	0.005 (0.102)
Years using the platform	0.179 (0.148)	0.158 (0.148)	-0.073 (0.117)	-0.107 (0.114)	0.031 (0.091)
Times used the platform	0.322* (0.143)	0.247 (0.148)	0.366** (0.122)	0.294* (0.122)	0.247** (0.090)
Constant	1.267* (0.528)	1.345* (0.531)	0.877 (0.489)	0.947 (0.486)	0.952** (0.323)
Observations	190	190	232	232	422
R-squared	0.329	0.351	0.532	0.564	0.503
Mean VIF	1.11	1.49	1.14	1.56	1.60

*Note: Standard errors in parentheses. *** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05*

Table 5.5. Multiple Regression Analyses for Explaining Need for Information about Other Actors

	Airbnb (M1)	Airbnb (M2)	SabbaticalHomes (M1)	SabbaticalHomes (M2)	Pooled sample
Sense of community		-0.016 (0.067)		-0.025 (0.087)	-0.060 (0.056)
Social identification with other users		0.008 (0.067)		0.003 (0.088)	0.015 (0.052)
Social identification with the platform		-0.027 (0.075)		0.220* (0.079)	0.113* (0.056)
Trust in the platform	0.117 (0.063)	0.132 (0.071)	0.071 (0.089)	-0.045 (0.099)	-0.009 (0.059)
Disposition to trust	0.034 (0.068)	0.040 (0.070)	0.057 (0.074)	0.027 (0.075)	0.082 (0.051)
Age	-0.010 (0.006)	-0.009 (0.006)	0.010 (0.007)	0.007 (0.007)	-0.009 (0.004)
Sex	0.140 (0.135)	0.138 (0.136)	-0.015 (0.180)	-0.032 (0.178)	-0.011 (0.115)
Education	-0.070 (0.155)	-0.089 (0.151)	0.069 (0.270)	0.079 (0.270)	-0.093 (0.140)
Years using the platform	0.304* (0.146)	0.307* (0.148)	-0.349 (0.191)	-0.368 (0.189)	-0.059 (0.124)
Times used the platform	-0.148 (0.141)	-0.126 (0.148)	-0.196 (0.200)	-0.320 (0.203)	-0.100 (0.124)
Constant	4.947*** (0.520)	4.898*** (0.531)	4.482*** (0.801)	4.945*** (0.808)	5.512*** (0.443)
Observations	190	190	232	232	422
R-squared	0.067	0.069	0.031	0.069	0.032
Mean VIF	1.11	1.49	1.14	1.56	1.60

*Note: Standard errors in parentheses. *** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05*

The descriptive statistics of the key constructs are presented in Table 5.3 for Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes separately.

Tests of Hypotheses

Table 5.4 shows the regression results of trust in other users as reflected in the independent and control variables. Table 5.5 displays the regression results for the need for information about other actors. Tests for multicollinearity for both dependent variables indicated that a very low level of multicollinearity was present (the highest observed Mean VIF was 1.60).

H1 stated that SoC has a positive influence on trust in other users. The results show that, for Airbnb, SoC is positively, but not significantly, related to trust (b = 0.110; p = 0.102). SoC was found to have a positive and significant effect on trust in other users for SabbaticalHomes (b = 0.115; p = 0.029). When both samples were combined, the effect of SoC on trust was also positive and significant, thereby providing some support for H1.

The second hypothesis stated that social identification with other users is associated positively with trust in other users. Social identification with other users did not have a significant result for either platform (Airbnb: b = 0.057; p = 0.399; SabbaticalHomes: b = 0.062; p = 0.243). Therefore, H2 is not supported.

H3 stated that social identification with the platform would increase trust in other users. However, no significant effect was found for either platform (Airbnb: b = -0.056; p = 0.455; SabbaticalHomes: b = -0.027; p = 0.563), and therefore H3 is not supported.

Hypothesis 4a claimed that there is a negative relation between SoC and the need for information about other actors. No significant negative effect was found for either platform (Airbnb: b = -0.016; p = 0.813; SabbaticalHomes: b = -0.025; p = 0.777); hence, H4a is not supported.

The relation between social identification with other users and the need for information about other actors was not significant for either platform (Airbnb: b = 0.008; p = 0.903; SabbaticalHomes: b = 0.003; p = 0.970). Consequently, H4b is not supported.

Finally, the postulated effect between social identification with the platform and the need for information about other actors was not negatively significant for either platform (Airbnb: b = -0.027; p = 0.715; SabbaticalHomes: b = 0.220; p = 0.006). Therefore, H4c is not supported.

For both platforms, various control variables (i.e. age, sex, education, years using the platform) had no significant impact on trust in other users, whereas other controls did have a significant effect (i.e. trust in the platform (Airbnb: b = 0.359; p = 0.001; SabbaticalHomes: b = 0.602; p = 0.001), disposition to trust (Airbnb: b = 0.214; p = 0.003; SabbaticalHomes: b = 0.135; p = 0.003), and times used the platform (SabbaticalHomes: b = 0.294; p = 0.017)). Regarding the need for information about other users, there was a significant effect only for number of years using the platform (Airbnb: b = 0.307; p = 0.039).

Differences between Platform Type and Role Type on Independent Variables

A two-way analysis of variance was conducted for two independent variables (i.e. platform type, role type) on three dependent variables (i.e. SoC, social identification with other users, social identification with the platform). Type of platform included two levels (i.e. Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes), and role type also consisted of two levels (i.e. guest and host). Respondents were coded as guests if they indicated that they used the platform as a guest, if they more often used the platform as a guest, and if they used the platform about as often as a guest or a host. Hosts were identified if they answered that they used the platform in the capacity of host and more often as a host.

All effects on SoC were statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level (platform type: $F(1, 418)$ = 15.73, p = 0.001; role type: $F(1, 418)$ = 53.89, p = 0.001; platform type by role type: $F(1, 418)$ = 16.11, p = 0.001). This indicates a significant difference between role type (guests: M = 3.29, SD = 1.60; hosts: M = 4.73, SD = 1.50) and platform type (Airbnb: M = 3.26, SD = 1.60; SabbaticalHomes: M = 4.55, SD = 1.58). The interaction effect was also significant ($F(1, 418)$ = 16.11, p = 0.001), indicating that there is a significant difference in SoC between role type and platform type. This implies that, as expected, SoC is stronger at SabbaticalHomes than at Airbnb and that SoC is stronger for hosts than for guests.

Platform type and role type had a significant effect on social identification with other users (platform type: $F(1, 418)$ = 7.08, p = 0.008; role type: $F(1, 418)$ = 20.86, p = 0.001; platform type by role type: $F(1, 418)$ = 2.96, p = 0.09). This indicates a significant difference between platforms (Airbnb: M = 3.78, SD = 1.33; SabbaticalHomes: M = 4.54, SD = 1.48) and role type (guests: M = 3.79, SD = 1.39; hosts: M = 4.65, SD = 1.41) on social identification with other users. Both independent variables showed significant main effects on social identification with the platform (platform type: $F(1, 418)$ = 8.92, p = 0.003; role type: $F(1, 418)$ = 87.66, p = 0.001; platform type by role type: $F(1, 418)$ = 5.78, p = 0.017), indicating a significant difference between platforms (Airbnb: M = 2.46, SD = 1.27; SabbaticalHomes: M = 3.53, SD = 1.49) and role type (guests: M = 2.35, SD = 1.15; hosts: M = 3.84, SD = 1.45) on social identification with the platform. Also,

a significant interaction effect was found between platform type and role type on social identification with the platform, implying that social identification is stronger at SabbaticalHomes and for hosts.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

This study originated out of an interest in the role of SoC in the sharing economy and the extent to which it influences trust between community members. SoC, social identification with other users, and social identification with the platform were therefore posited to be positively related to trust in other community members. Another question examined was whether affect-based trust had a negative relation with calculus-based trust, as suggested by the literature (Rousseau et al., 1998). To investigate how these presumed relations held up in different contexts, two comparable but different sharing platforms, i.e. Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes, were compared. Further, to consider the different roles (i.e. hosts and guests) that people may have on accommodation platforms, the question of whether the results differed between the two roles was explored. Support was found for several hypotheses and for significant differences between platforms and between hosts and guests.

First, SoC has a positive influence on trust in other users. This effect is significant only for SabbaticalHomes; this is in line with the prediction that SoC would be especially important for SabbaticalHomes. It should be realized that the effect size of the effect of SoC does not differ significantly for Airbnb and SabbaticalHomes. So, it cannot be excluded that the effect of SoC on trust has a similar size in Airbnb as in SabbaticalHomes. Still, SoC adds more to trust for SabbaticalHomes because the experienced SoC is larger on this platform, as previously seen. The overall effect of SoC concurs with the theoretical predications in this study and leans on the institutional embeddedness of the transaction and internalized norms of community members. Institutional embeddedness refers to the contextual property of a situation in which organizations can shape behaviour by sanctioning and can serve as a signal of a trustee's individual properties (Riegelsberger et al., 2005). In the case of SabbaticalHomes, membership of the community serves as an incentive for the trustee, because untrustworthy behaviour could result in exclusion from the platform and tarnish his or her reputation in the academic community at large.

Regarding internalized norms, community members can act according to certain social norms prevalent in a group (e.g. generalized reciprocity). When communities become more interconnected and a SoC develops, social norms on how to behave become more ingrained. Knowing that a trustee desires to act in accordance with a social norm ensures that a trustor views a trustee

as trustworthy. In the case of sharing communities, a community member who experiences a SoC might believe that other members adhere to certain community norms and thus trust them.

Second, neither type of social identification has a negative significant effect on trust in other users. Previous research has shown that social identification especially leads to trust within close homogeneous groups with a salient social identity (Portes, 1998; Stolle, 1998). The findings of this study seem to suggest that the researched sharing communities are both rather loose heterogeneous groups without a salient social identity and that intragroup trust is thereby limited.

Third, this study shows that affective factors (i.e. SoC and social identification) do not lead to a lower need for calculus-based trust. The need for information on other users that is rooted in calculus-based trust did not decrease when users felt more connected with the community or identified themselves with others on the platform. This suggests that, when users feel affect towards the community, calculus-based trust is still an important foundation on which to establish trust in others. In that sense, affect-based and calculus-based trust are not communicating vessels but rather two separated constructs when it comes to trusting strangers. Alternative issues that might be behind the lack of a strong relation between these types of trust might be, first, that the measure of calculus-based trust is rather noisy (internal consistency is not that high) and therefore less related to other variables or second – and more substantively – that affect-based trust increases the need for information about the other not because of calculus-based trust, but because users are more interested in who the other person is.

Fourth, in this study, there is a significant difference between sharing platforms regarding SoC and social identification. The indications are that sharing platforms whose users share a similar background have higher levels of SoC and social identification than sharing platforms that do not. This finding could be explained by the *homophily effect* (McPherson et al., 2001) (i.e. people tend to associate and form bonds with others who are similar to them) and suggests that niche platforms, aimed at a particular target group (i.e. SabbaticalHomes), are more likely to form close and trusting communities compared to more general sharing platforms (i.e. Airbnb), thereby enhancing trust. This could also explain the emergence and success of niche platforms such as Misterbnb (aimed at the gay community), Noirbnb, and Innclusive (both aimed at travellers of colour).

Finally, significant differences, both within and across platforms, have been found between hosts and guests in their experience of SoC, social identification with other users, and social identification with the platform, suggesting a structural effect. This result may be explained by the fact that hosts view transactions on

the sharing platforms as a communal relation, whereas guests seem to adhere to a market-exchange perspective. This concurs with previous research (e.g. Guttentag et al., 2017; So, Oh, & Min, 2018), which found that cost saving was a top motivation for Airbnb guests.

Another possible explanation for the difference between hosts and guests is that it might be attributable to a difference in commitment between hosts and guests. To earn an income, hosts advertise their listing on a continuous basis and consequently might be more committed to the platform. Their commitment could result in higher levels of SoC and social identification with other users and with the platform, as they are more actively engaged with the platform. Future research could investigate the reasons why hosts and guests differ regarding their SoC.

Implications

The present study has several theoretical and practical implications. From a theoretical perspective, this study can be used to elucidate the mechanisms by which trust is created in the sharing economy and, consequently, three specific contributions can be formulated. First, as shown in this study, in addition to the calculus-based trust measures (e.g. reputation) (Ert et al., 2016) discussed in the literature, trust in the sharing economy is also affect-based. Affect-based trust does not, however, substitute the need for calculus-based trust in the initial stage of trust building; rather, both trust bases are complementary. Second, trust in the sharing economy is still under-researched, and much of the existing research focuses on calculus-based trust mechanisms (e.g. reputation, reviews, profile pictures) (ter Huurne et al., 2017), leaving affect-based trust unexplored. In order to work towards a model of trust for the sharing economy, affect-based trust should be taken into account. Third, a SoC can occur for sharing communities like it can for more traditional communities, such as neighborhoods and sporting clubs. In that sense, sharing communities are examples of what Duyvendak and Hurenkamp (2004) call *light communities*. Light communities are groups of which individuals can easily become a member and leave if they want to (e.g. volunteering organizations, schools), as opposed to *heavy communities* of which one cannot easily become a member or leave if one wants to (e.g. the family, certain religions). This would fit in a larger trend of people informally organizing themselves instead of pursuing *radical individualization* (Hurenkamp & Duyvendak, 2008). Lastly, the exploration of possible antecedents of SoC is advocated to understand how SoC comes to be on sharing platforms (e.g. expected benefits and community participation) (Tonteri, Kosonen, Ellonen, & Tarkiainen, 2011).

From a practical stance, this study generates several managerial suggestions. A significant difference in SoC has been found between hosts and guests across platforms; this is more explicit on the platform with low social identification

between members (i.e. Airbnb). This finding should be taken into account, for example, in the elaboration of a marketing strategy. It could be that hosts are more responsive than guests to messages that emphasize SoC. On the other hand, a low level of SoC among guests could give reason to put more effort into enhancing guests' level of SoC. So, platform owners could target hosts with the message that the community is strong and consists of members that help one another. Guests, on the other hand, could be targeted by emphasizing that the platform consists of many people like themselves, and that they are connected to kindred spirits.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study has some limitations that need to be addressed. First, a nonprobability sample was used to recruit Airbnb users, making it difficult to generalize the results to the Airbnb population. However, a comparison between the sample characteristics and the Airbnb population data shows large similarities, indicating that the results may be generalizable. Second, the Airbnb sample in this study included only Dutch Airbnb users, and this may cause a possible bias in the data. Lastly, the measures of need for information on others were new measures developed for this study and might need some further consideration. One might question whether the need for information refers only to concerns about the trustworthiness of the other, or might also be related to genuine interest in who the other person is. This alternative interpretation would lead to other theoretical predictions. In future research, these two dimensions should be disentangled, possibly leading to more consistent measurement scales.

This study opens new directions for future research. It would be interesting to investigate whether the results would differ in other countries because of varying trust levels between countries, and thus make a cross-cultural comparison. Furthermore, this study could be extended by researching SoC on different types of sharing platforms, varying in type of product or service offered (e.g. ride sharing, running errands) and commercial orientation (e.g. Uber, Couchsurfing). The level of perceived risk could vary between products, thus impacting the amount of trust needed to successfully complete a transaction (Mayer et al., 1995). Next, platforms with a commercial orientation probably have a low level of SoC, and trust is less likely to be developed between users. Also, it would be interesting to gain more insight into how an individual's need for information about other actors moderates the perceived importance of, for example, ratings in a consumer's decision. This would shed light on how different levels of calculus-based trust affect the importance of trust cues (e.g. ratings, reviews) to choose a particular product.

CONCLUSION

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first undertaken to investigate the relation between SoC and trust in the sharing economy. SoC is an important concept used in sharing platforms' marketing strategies to reduce perceptions of stranger danger and has been associated with positive community outcomes. Thus, it is important to take its influence on trust into consideration in any research on trust in the sharing economy. The results show that SoC affects trust and, additionally, that the level of SoC differs significantly between platforms and between people's roles on the platform. This study provides valuable insights for future research on trust in the sharing economy and accordingly sheds light on an emerging global phenomenon.