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What drives consumers towards shared luxury services? A comparison of sequential versus simultaneous sharing

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ABSTRACT

This study extends the nascent literature on luxury services and shared luxury by delving into how consumers are drawn to shared luxury services (SLS). Through a multigroup analysis on survey data from 803 consumers, we investigate whether diverse motivations affect consumers' attitude and purchase intentions towards two different types of SLS reflecting different levels of sharing, namely *simultaneous* (i.e., when they are consumed in the presence of others – high sharing) and *sequential* (i.e., when they are consumed successively, without the concurrent presence of others – low sharing). Hedonism and environmental consciousness emerge as the main drivers of consumers' attitudes towards both forms of SLS. Additionally, perceived privacy risk, need for uniqueness and bandwagon effect appear to drive consumers' attitude towards simultaneous luxury. Overall, our findings advance knowledge vis-à-vis the changing nature of luxury services by highlighting the role of sharing level in shaping consumers' attitudes towards sharing economy offerings.

1. Introduction

The global luxury industry is estimated to reach \$1.5 trillion in 2023 setting a new record for the size of the sector whose customer base is predicted to expand from 400 million customers in 2022 to 500 million customers by 2030 (Bain, 2023). At the same time, the luxury services and experiences market are fast growing (Bain, 2023), with Market and Report (2022) indicating that “pent-up demand for new experiences will drive [further] interest” in the global luxury market. Responding to consumers' fast-growing appetite for dematerialized (liquid) high-end consumption (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2017; BCG, 2022), luxury brands are expanding into the services domain. Examples include the launch of restaurants by Dior and Gucci as well as LVMH Group's expansion into the hospitality industry with the launch of the Cheval Blanc brand and acquisition of Belmond properties. Despite the increasing demand for luxury services and experiences, the burgeoning literature on luxury marketing relies heavily on a goods-centric view (Wirtz, Holmqvist, & Fritze, 2020) whose premises are not always transferable to luxury services (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009). For instance, some features of services such as the lack of ownership and intangibility are hardly

investigated in the luxury literature though service provider performance without the transfer of ownership has important implications for the luxury context (Christodoulides, Athwal, Boukis, & Semaan, 2021; Wirtz et al., 2020). Comparatively, a limited stream of research investigates luxury services with the majority applying product-oriented luxury frameworks to understand dematerialized luxury experiences (Wang & Mattila, 2014; Wirtz et al., 2020).

Parallel to the growth of the luxury industry and increasing demand for luxury experiences, the sharing economy (SE) has expanded and is expected to be worth 600 billion USD by 2027 in the US alone (Statista, 2023). SE is defined as an economic system in which sharing platforms provide peer-to-peer access to tangible and intangible resources through either economic transactions or quid pro quo exchanges (Eckhardt et al., 2019). Two of the most notable and frequently referenced examples in the SE include Uber (ride-sharing) and Airbnb (accommodation-sharing). Numerous other business models have arisen, prioritizing the sharing of resources over traditional goods sales (Belk, 2014). These include new forms of luxury consumption in the SE such as rentals, co-ownership and pre-owned that challenge some of the tenets of traditional luxury (e.g., exclusivity) thus contributing to the democratization

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of luxury (Christodoulides et al., 2021). While an emerging stream of literature has hitherto investigated the challenges of luxury in a sharing context (Christodoulides et al., 2021), extant studies have focused predominantly on rented (e.g., Gong, Zhang, & Zhang, 2022; Pantano & Stylos, 2020) or pre-owned luxury products (Kessous & Valette-Florence, 2019) rather than on pure services. As such, scarce insights exist into how key elements of the SE could be integrated into the design of shared luxury services and experiences (Hellwig, Morhart, Girardin, & Hauser, 2015; Hu, 2021).

This research contributes to the intersection of three streams of literature, namely luxury consumption, experiences/services and the sharing economy. It builds on the embryonic luxury services literature (Holmqvist, Ruiz, & Peñalosa, 2020a; Wirtz et al., 2020) by focusing on shared luxury services (SLS); a special category of luxury services, defined as *access-based, consumer-to-consumer, extraordinary, and hedonic services/experiences, which are facilitated by digital platforms and depend on different levels of sharing* (Christodoulides et al., 2021; Wirtz et al., 2020). Examples of SLS range from shared luxury transportation such as UberYACHT (i.e., yacht sharing) and JetLuxe (i.e., private jet sharing) to shared luxury accommodation such as Airbnb Luxe and StayOne. Although scholars have recently distinguished between different levels of luxury sharing (Christodoulides et al., 2021), they have yet to address why consumers may be drawn to different SLS. Such an understanding would inform the deployment of optimal strategies by incumbent luxury brands wishing to embrace the SE and adding to their portfolio service offerings that are more experiential in nature; on the other hand, it could inform technology platforms wishing to upscale their offerings by introducing high-end services targeting luxury consumers. As yet, there are no insights on whether sharing makes consumers more or less prone to embrace SLS (Thomsen, Holmqvist, von Wallpach, Hemetsberger, & Belk, 2020; Holmqvist, Visconti, Grönroos, Guais, & Kessous, 2020b). A scarce understanding is also evident around whether the presence of other consumers (e.g., strangers) enhances consumers' attitude toward SLS or whether it discourages them from joining the shared luxury services space (Minami, Ramos, & Bortoluzzo, 2021). In response to the above identified gaps, we aim to address the following research questions: *What drives consumers toward SLS, and more importantly, what is the moderating role of sharing level in shaping consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions toward SLS?*

To shed light on these issues, this work investigates whether different consumer motivations (drawn from the SE and the luxury service literatures) shape their attitudes and purchase intentions towards two different types of SLS, namely *simultaneous* (i.e., when SLS are consumed in the presence of others) and *sequential* (i.e., when SLS are consumed successively, without the presence of other consumers). Our findings suggest some universal motives towards SLS as well as some type-specific ones (i.e., simultaneous and sequential SLS). This research contributes to the nascent literature on luxury services and experiences by conceptualizing SLS and operationalizing a model that combines consumer motivations from two different literature streams and the role of sharing. We also contribute to the sharing literature by mapping the impact of two levels of sharing on consumers' perceptions of luxury services and experiences (Hellwig et al., 2015). Our work also contributes to the emerging *competencies perspective* of luxury consumption that goes against the traditional *wealth-based perspective* by focusing on consumers' experiences, sustainability and preference for liquid forms of consumption rather than on signaling and exclusivity (Wang, 2022).

The paper is structured as follows. The literature review elaborates on the emerging luxury services and the different levels of sharing in luxury consumption. Then, the various consumer motivations behind shared luxury consumption are presented along with the corresponding hypotheses. The methodology, research design and data collection are described in the following part. The results of our multigroup analysis are presented and discussed. Finally, the discussion and managerial implications follow along with some limitations of the study and directions for future research.

2. Literature review

An emerging stream of literature looks into the evolving nature of new, digitalized/unconventional forms of luxury consumption in SE (Banister, Roper, & Potavanich, 2020; Pantano & Stylos, 2020; Malone, Tynan, & McKechnie, 2023). As part of this new stream, studies have begun to investigate the changing features of luxury consumption in a SE setting. For instance, recent work addresses how the idiosyncrasies of sharing consumption (e.g. temporality, lack of ownership, time-bounded consumption) are embedded in luxury products and how they affect consumers' experience with luxury and their self-identity perceptions (Thomsen et al., 2020; Holmqvist et al., 2020b). Studies also delve into the psychological drivers/tensions (e.g. hedonism, psychological ownership) of consumer perceptions of shared luxury (Wirtz et al., 2020) and investigate the motivations behind consumer engagement with collaborative types of luxury (Pantano & Stylos, 2020).

In parallel, the emerging luxury services and experiences stream has only recently begun to explore how the idiosyncratic features of luxury services and experiences (e.g. intangibility) affect consumer responses in terms of value, perceived risk and purchase intentions (Kemper et al., 2022). The implications of service idiosyncrasies (e.g. variability of service provider performance) have yet to be investigated in this stream, despite the differences between goods (material) and services (dematerialized) luxury consumption (Wirtz et al., 2020). For instance, dematerialized luxury experiences lack the power to convey wealth and status compared to physical ones, which are more visible and easily comparable (Mrad, Karimi, Toth, & Christodoulides, 2022). Despite the growth of the luxury services market, work in this area relies on a product-centric view, where scholars apply traditional luxury frameworks to understand luxury services (e.g. fine dining) (Wang & Mattila, 2014; Wirtz et al., 2020) and identify different perspectives from socio-cultural narratives through which consumers obtain their goals for luxury services (e.g. wealth-based vs competencies-based) (Wang, 2022). However, new unconventional and digitalized forms of luxury "*emphasise the subjective and consumer-centric nature of luxury experiences as an individually defined construct that varies greatly depending on one's reference point*" (Malone et al., 2023, p. 2), rendering the insights of the luxury good literature unsuitable for luxury services (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009).

Despite previous studies attempting to unravel how various SE features (e.g. access-based consumption, temporality) affect shared luxury (Thomsen et al., 2020), limited insights exist around the impact of sharing as an element affecting consumers' experience with different levels of shared luxury. Surprisingly, scarce insights exist into whether these different levels of sharing make consumers more (or less) prone to embrace SLS, despite its dominance as a key feature of most SE luxury offerings and of the broadening concept of luxury (Hellwig et al., 2015; Hu, 2021).

2.1. Consequences of sharing for luxury consumption

Prior work in marketing has used the term "sharing" as part of different phenomena such as access-based consumption, collaborative consumption and commercial sharing (Lamberton & Rose, 2012; Eckhardt et al., 2019). Whereas Belk (2014) defines sharing via the development of social relationships and non-monetary transactions, the SE reality indicates sharing as a more commercial peer-to-peer activity that enables access-based, time-bound consumption of one's assets and resources to others (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2017; Eckhardt et al., 2019). Prior work in the SE has attempted to embed sharing into service offerings. Wei, Jung, and Choi (2022) identify *commercial sharing services* as systems that bestow customers with benefits while "*ownership remains with the resource provider*" and for which "*users have to coordinate the distribution and acquisition of the resource*" (p. 116). Moreover, Schaefer, Wittkowski, Benoit, and Ferraro (2016) conceptualize *on-demand services* that allow customers to temporarily access certain features of a

product for an additional fee after the initial purchase has been made.

However, researchers have yet to map the diverse consequences that different levels of sharing might generate for consumers' experience with SLS. Such consequences include the varied levels of perceived control and flexibility that consumers experience in different sharing contexts (Scaraboto & Figueiredo, 2022); the diverse privacy and security perceptions that consumers have for shared luxury platforms; and, the availability (or lack of) of social support when interacting with other members in these platforms (Nadeem, Juntunen, Shirazi, & Hajli, 2020). At the same time, sharing often results in different types of participation behaviors among consumers (e.g. forced participation) and, consequently, in different co-creation potential for consumers. Sharing might also increase heterogeneity during the cocreation of experiences (e.g. sharing luxury accommodation) with others (communal vs transactional co-creation logic – Scaraboto & Figueiredo, 2022).

In a shared luxury context, scholars have so far looked into personality traits, consumer motivations, and socioeconomic criteria to identify distinct clusters of sharing consumers (i.e. idealists, opponents, pragmatists, and normatives) (Hellwig et al., 2015). For instance, Christodoulides et al. (2021) identify different forms of shared luxury consumption and uncover two levels of shared luxury among consumers (i.e. simultaneous vs sequential). Guzzetti, Crespi, and Belvedere (2021) suggest various utilitarian and recreational motivations for vintage and second-hand luxury products whereas Pantano and Stylos (2020) look into consumer motivations to engage with luxury garment renting in a C2C context. Though these studies shed light on the motives behind luxury consumption in collaborative/sharing contexts, they do not acknowledge how the different resources being shared (e.g. space) from consumers could affect their experience with these offerings. Moreover, past work looks into pre-loved/second-hand luxury products, without exploring whether the same motivations hold for shared luxury services (Wirtz et al., 2020). To address these gaps, we investigate consumer motivations towards two predominant types of SLS with different levels of sharing: simultaneous (high-sharing context) vs sequential (low-sharing context).

2.2. Simultaneous SLS

Simultaneous SLS is a high-sharing context and exists when SE luxury offerings (services and experiences) are consumed concurrently with other consumers in the same space. Examples of simultaneous luxury include renting a room in an Airbnb host's luxurious villa or sharing a private jet experience with other passengers. In this high-sharing context, luxury consumption remains highly dependent on the quality of peer-to-peer exchanges and interactions (i.e. consociality), especially among strangers, as well as the reduced spatial and psychological proximity among consumers and hosts during their interactions.

Rooted in the servuction framework, research in services has previously explored the role of other consumers in affecting customers' shopping experience (McGrath & Otnes, 1995). Customer co-presence can affect value creation during service provision and consumers are more likely to exhibit extra-role citizenship behaviors when socializing with other consumers (Esmark & Noble, 2018). Physical proximity and consociality among consumers may result in both favorable (e.g. attachment, warmth) and unfavorable (e.g. territorial behaviors, competition for resources) evaluations during service encounter (e.g. Xu, Shen, & Wyer, 2012). For instance, overcrowding reduces customers' sense of control and adversely affects their service experience (spatial spillovers - Colm, Ordanini, & Parasuraman, 2017). Simultaneous luxury sharing could also deliver social and environmental benefits to consumers and facilitate socialization and relationship-building by enabling C2C communication (Chung, Ko, Joung, & Kim, 2020).

"Stranger sharing" is also a dominant element of simultaneous luxury as platform-based exchanges occur between strangers (Eckhardt et al., 2019). When consumers cocreate experiences with strangers, there is increased uncertainty on whether informal regulation

mechanisms (e.g. reviews) can reduce peer opportunistic behaviors or align consumers' different consumption goals. Stranger sharing could affect perceived psychological proximity and feelings of interpersonal connectedness among consumers (Dubois, Bonezzi, & De Angelis, 2016) as they often have to navigate tensions that emerge from interactions with strangers (Scaraboto & Figueiredo, 2022). Due to the interactive nature of simultaneous SLS, consumers are more likely to engage in forced participation behaviors and more heterogeneous cocreation experiences (Nadeem et al., 2020). The consequent higher levels of interpersonal trust required might make it more challenging for customers to enjoy intimate, luxury experiences (e.g. sharing a luxury home with strangers) (Sundararajan, 2019).

Moreover, stranger sharing increases perceived performance risk of SE offerings (Hong, Kim, & Park, 2019) and affects the valence of the WOM shared from customers (Dubois et al., 2016). This increased performance risk of simultaneous sharing goes against the error-free and rooted-in-perfectionism consumer expectations of traditional luxury offerings (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005). Stranger sharing could also damage consumer privacy perceptions of shared luxury experiences (i.e. control over or regulation of scrutiny, surveillance, or unwanted access – p. 244, Margulis, 2003). The lack of physical or online privacy has been associated with disruptive psychological consequences among consumers (e.g. stress, anxiety) (Margulis, 2003) and goes against the impeccable character of in-store luxury experiences.

2.3. Sequential SLS

Sequential SLS occurs when consumers experience SE luxury offerings sequentially without other consumers' presence, indicating a more exclusive use of such services, but less exclusive than traditional luxury ownership. Unlike, simultaneous luxury, sequential luxury represents a low-sharing context as it incorporates the "sharing" element in the production but not in the consumption of platform-based luxury service offerings. Sequential sharing is viewed as more compatible and in tune with traditional luxury than simultaneous sharing (Christodoulides et al., 2021). Typical platform-based service offerings in this category include renting a luxury designer handbag (albeit not a pure service), private luxury transportation or accessing a helicopter flight experience with no other passengers on board (Pantano & Stylos, 2020).

In sequential luxury, consumers often experience the lack of ownership and time-bound access to such services but in a more exclusive and private atmosphere (Christodoulides et al., 2021). In this case, consumers have a higher level of control over the service and experience less heterogeneity in the delivery of such services; hence, the potential for cocreation with other consumers is limited (Scaraboto & Figueiredo, 2022). Although there are socially distant interactions and no presence of other consumers in sequential luxury consumption, scholars suggest that prior consumers' use of the service in a sharing setting could affect the experience of subsequent users (Hong et al., 2019). For instance, the state prior users leave the product (e.g. misuse) can influence customers' behavioral intentions and evaluations of the service (Schaefer et al., 2016). Sequential sharing practices have received criticism as they are considered to undermine the essence of sharing (pseudo-sharing – Belk, 2014) through mask business relationships under the disguise of communal sharing (Minami et al., 2021). They are also viewed as less environmentally responsible, due to their negative effect on consumption at the macro-level (Geissinger, Laurell, Öberg, & Sandström, 2019).

Given the distinct features that these two types of SLS possess, we point to the SE and the luxury literature to outline the potential motivations that might lead consumers to choose one level of SLS over the other (see Table 1).

3. Hypotheses development

The *collaborative consumption* literature identifies various consumer

Table 1
Features of different sharing levels.

<i>Simultaneous SLS</i>	<i>Sequential SLS</i>
Increased cocreation opportunities	Reduced cocreation opportunities
Less control over the interaction with others	More control over the delivery of the service
High availability of social support/consociality	Low availability of social support/consociality
Lower privacy and security perceptions	Higher privacy and security perceptions
Increased participative behaviors required	Reduced participative behaviors needed
Higher heterogeneity in the cocreation of SLS	Low heterogeneity in the cocreation of SLS

motivations for participating in the SE (Akbari, Foroudi, Khodayari, Fashami, & Shahriari, 2021). Scholars widely highlight financial benefits as the main driver of consumers' participation in the SE and their willingness to increase the utility of their idle resources (Akbari et al., 2021). Often, consumers might have more altruistic motivations, including socializing, novelty-seeking and sustainable consumption triggers as well as driven from hedonic (e.g. fun) or psychological benefits (e.g. social belonging) when joining the SE (Pantano & Stylos, 2020). Interestingly, "resistance and anxiety about sharing with strangers" emerges as a key inhibiting factor of consumers' participating in SE services (Akbari et al., 2021). Evidence shows that when there is a higher level of sharing, consumers' evaluations shift from more to fewer tangible attributes. Consumers at a higher sharing level care more about social interactions and increasing economic value than consumers at a lower sharing level (Hu, 2021).

On the other hand, the *luxury* literature suggests interpersonal motivations for luxury products and services such as the need for snobbery (Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012), the desire for popularity; personality traits like the need for uniqueness and materialism (Wiedmann, Hennigs, & Siebels, 2009); socially-driven motivations that elicit a sense of superiority over one's peers and thus induce an upward social comparison process and a heightened sense of privacy that is believed to enhance consumers' sensory gratification (Mandel, Petrova, & Cialdini, 2006). Luxury services offer consumers extraordinary, hedonic, and exclusive experiences (Wirtz et al., 2020) as well as a sense of status and escapism into the aesthetic and authentic world of luxury (Holmqvist et al., 2020b). Prior evidence indicates that an experiential thinking style drives the in-store purchase of luxury services and that consumers' experiential, functional and symbolic value orientation enhances their emotional reactions to luxury brand experiences (Mrad et al., 2022).

As the above evidence indicates, scarce insights exist as to which the dominant consumer motives are in a SLS context and how they differ based on the level of sharing (i.e., simultaneous versus sequential). The heterogeneous nature of SLS, due to their sharing and luxury features, could potentially be driven by a wider mix of (often conflicting) motivations that drive consumers' attitude and purchase intentions. At the same time, the experiential and dematerialized nature of SLS render consumers' experience different from traditional luxury products (Han et al., 2017; Malone et al., 2023).

To accommodate these diverse consumer motivations, we draw on two groups of consumers motivations: motivations from work in luxury consumption/luxury services (i.e., need for status, high quality consciousness, need for unique experiences, perfectionism) (Thomsen et al., 2020; Holmqvist et al., 2020a); motivations from the SE literature (i.e., environmental consciousness perceived privacy risk, shared hedonism) (Elgaaid-Gambier, Bertrandias, & Bernard, 2020), as they relate to SLS. Next, we first present consumer motivations that derive from the SE literature, then the ones from luxury consumption.

3.1. SE motivations

Work in the SE suggests *environmental consciousness* as a key enabler

of consumers' participation in sharing activities (Ek Styvén & Mariani, 2020). At the same time, *perceived privacy* becomes an increasing concern for consumers (Etter, Fieseler, & Whelan, 2019), who report increasingly lower levels of trust, especially in app-based services, which are the backbone of SE services (McKinsey, 2020). *Hedonism* is also important as the inner gratification is widely linked to luxury experiences (Mrad et al., 2022).

Environmental consciousness focuses on the importance of environmental issues for consumers along with their willingness to tackle environmental problems (Amatulli, De Angelis, Korschun, & Romani, 2018; Sipilä, Alavi, Edinger-Schons, Dörfer, & Schmitz, 2021). Luxury scholars have long emphasized the importance of environmental consciousness in luxury consumption and provide burgeoning evidence for the compatibility between luxury and CSR/sustainability (e.g. Torelli, Monga, & Kaikati, 2012) suggesting that a fit between them may result in more favorable consumer attitudes towards luxury products. More recently, a limited number of studies shed light on tensions and cognitive dissonance that consumers perceive between CSR and luxury (Amatulli, De Angelis, Pino, & Guido, 2020; Sipilä et al., 2021). Consumers often perceive a discrepancy between the lifestyle values and status-seeking symbolizations of luxury and the environmental protection, equality and frugal consumption that CSR communication signals (Sipilä et al., 2021), which often results in increased skepticism towards CSR activities and reduced loyalty intentions towards luxury brands (Torelli et al., 2012; Amatulli et al., 2018). On the contrary, environmental concerns are one of the key drivers of consumer participation in the SE, with scholars indicating environmental consciousness as a key feature of differentiation among various consumer segments in SE (e.g. "collaborative consumers" – Lutz & Newlands, 2018).

As a high-sharing context, simultaneous SLS arguably represent a more sustainable and SE-friendly way of experiencing luxury than a sequential one. As consumers co-experience luxury in the same space with others, the resulting increased spatial proximity could lead to enhanced perceptions of a more environmental-friendly way of accessing and using services. Moreover, increased spatial proximity in the consumption of simultaneous SLS is associated with a lower perceived environmental footprint among consumers (Elgaaid-Gambier et al., 2020). On the contrary, in the case of sequential shared luxury, consumer footprint concerns are more likely to arise due to the higher perceived exclusivity associated with it. Therefore, we hypothesize:

H1 – The higher the consumers' environmental consciousness, the more favorable their attitudes are towards simultaneously (vs. sequentially) shared luxury.

Perceived privacy risk reflects the degree to which consumers perceive a potential for loss/breach associated with the release of their personal information (Malhotra, Kim, & Agarwal, 2004). Increased privacy risk is associated with negative attitudinal and behavioral consumer responses, including reduced trust and information disclosure with apps as well as lower intentions to install and use new apps (e.g. Smith, Dinev, & Xu, 2011). Scholars also identify the multidimensional nature of consumer privacy with evidence widely suggesting the predominant role of interactional and informational forms of privacy in a SE context (Malhotra et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2011). Interactional privacy reflects consumer control over interactions and relationships with others whereas informational privacy reflects their ability to control the gathering and dissemination of personal information (Castañeda, Montoso, & Luque, 2007).

In a simultaneous SLS context, where strangers (both consumers and hosts) are present in the consumption of the service, interactional privacy concerns are more likely to arise than in sequential shared luxury. These concerns are due to the increased uncertainty and need for interpersonal trust when consumers interacting with strangers as well as the increased reliance they have on informal regulation mechanisms (e.g. reviews) to assess others (Nadeem et al., 2020). In a simultaneous context, consumers' ability to maintain control of their informational

privacy is decreased. Hence, as an increased part of their personal life becomes visible to others, this might generate perceptions of autonomy loss, restrained expression and increased surveillance perceptions (Planger & Montecchi, 2020). Therefore,

H2 – The higher the consumers' privacy risk, the more favorable their attitude towards sequentially (vs. simultaneously) shared luxury.

Hedonism derives from the motivational goal of inner pleasure or gratification and is confirmed as one of the key drivers of consumers' engagement with new apps (Smith et al., 2011). Hedonic-oriented consumers tend to seek more fun, arousal, variety, and surprise through consumption (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). This study looks into shared hedonism, defined as the consumer's pursuit for experiential enjoyment towards shared luxury offerings and not as their aggregate trait/state towards wider consumption (Tussyadiah, 2016). The luxury literature suggests that consumers who desire hedonism tend to have more favorable attitudes toward luxury services (Holmqvist et al., 2020a, 2020b). This is due to the stronger emotional rewards that luxury consumption offers through its features including increased exclusivity, adventurousness and rarity (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999). When it comes to shared luxury consumption, consumers seeking hedonism are more likely to favor sequentially shared over simultaneously SLS.

Sequentially shared luxury offers a more exclusive, controlled and private context for consumers to experience such services and allows them to easier fantasize the luxury benefits promised by the brand (e.g. exclusiveness, privacy, enabling them to experience higher levels of luxury value (Mandler, Johnen, & Gräve, 2020). On the contrary, a high-sharing context, (i.e. simultaneous sharing) is more likely to limit consumers' ability to express their pleasure and emotional arousal, due to the reduced control over the interaction outcome with others and the increased heterogeneity of the service delivery due to the presence of others (especially strangers). The increased fear of judgement and of willingness to share their emotional state in the presence of others might make it harder for consumers to open up and experience fun and arousal (Hellwig et al., 2015). Hence, we hypothesize:

H3 - The higher consumers' need for hedonism, the more favorable their attitude towards sequentially (vs. simultaneously) shared luxury.

3.2. Luxury motivations

The luxury literature has identified a wide range of motivations for luxury consumption and our focus lies on four potential drivers of SLS (i.e. need for uniqueness, need for status, social conformity, and perfectionism). As luxury purchases remain inextricably linked to status consumption, consumers strive to enhance their social standing through symbolic consumption; hence, need for status remains highly relevant for SLS (Balabanis & Stathopoulou, 2021). Need for uniqueness also potentially plays a central role in SLS, as consumers are in pursuit of differentiating themselves from others and enhance their self-image via dematerialized experiences (Shukla, Rosendo-Rios, & Khalifa, 2022). Third, as consumers are driven by the desire to conform with their social context, higher levels of conformity allude to the tendency to engage in luxury consumption (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005). Last, perfectionism is important due to luxury consumers' inclination towards impeccable quality in the services they experience.

Consumer *need for uniqueness* involves pursuing distinctiveness from others through purchases that showcase their uniqueness (Tian, Bearden, & Hunter, 2001). While everyone may have a need to feel dissimilar to others, some are more motivated to achieve uniqueness than others (Irmak, Vallen, & Sen, 2010). Consumers with a higher need for uniqueness generally behave in ways that make them feel distinct and opt for luxury products in order to enhance their social image (Tian et al., 2001). However, Amaldoss and Jain (2005) posit that consumers, on many occasions, may choose a unique product or service merely for the sake of being different from other consumers rather than to signal

their wealth and social status.

In this regard, prior work shows that consumers are more attracted and care more about luxurious and unique experiences than conspicuous consumption and the signaling of luxury products and services (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003; Yang & Mattila, 2014). For example, luxury services are viewed as exclusive and extraordinary experiences (Wirtz et al., 2020). More importantly, Wang (2022) differentiates between the way consumers experience luxury (competencies-based vs wealth-based perspective). Consumers engaging in competencies-based consumption generally seek intrinsic benefits by enjoying luxury features as opposed to extrinsic ones such as status signaling. Their choices are more focused on experiences and novelty rather than conspicuous products. Literature also shows that consumers are happier when they spend their money on experiences such as vacation abroad rather than material possessions such as fashion apparel (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). Consumers also experience less regret with how they spent their money and appoint more hedonic value when they spend their money on life experiences (Nicolao, Irwin, & Goodman, 2009). This experiential consumption perspective is very unique in its nature and resistant to disadvantageous comparisons such as comparisons among products (Yang & Mattila, 2014). In simultaneous sharing, even though co-experiencing services along with other consumers in the same space may be a high sharing context, this reduced spatial and psychological proximity with strangers provides a competence-based, novel and unique way of experiencing luxury. Thus, we posit that:

H4 - The higher the consumers' need for uniqueness, the more favorable their attitude towards simultaneously (vs. sequentially) shared luxury.

Researchers have widely used *need for status* to explain consumers' status consumption decisions such that the higher the need for status, the more consumers are likely to engage in status consumption (Han, Nunes, & Drèze, 2010). Work in conspicuous consumption reports that consumers display lavish possessions to signal their wealth and gain social status only when such products have substantial signaling value. In this regard, several factors may affect the signaling value of luxury consumption such as brand logo prominence, consumption by members of the in-group, nonconformity concerns, and public (vs. private) consumption (Berger & Ward, 2010; Han et al., 2010; Bellezza, Gino, & Keinan, 2014). Thus, status cannot be effectively communicated if the status signal is unobservable to others. Consistent with this idea, Carter and Gilovich (2012) assert that consumers are more likely to compare material possessions and less likely to compare experiential services because material possessions are more publicly visible in nature and experiential services are less conspicuous than products.

Consumers with a high need for status prefer choices that can effectively communicate and signal this desired status (Carter & Gilovich, 2012). In a sharing context, sequential sharing, where access to luxury services is more exclusive, offers a better avenue for signaling wealth to others than simultaneous sharing, where consumers generally share experiential services. In a similar vein, in services, the presence of others adversely impacts wealth signaling, while sequential sharing implies ownership, which facilitates social elevation. Hence, we hypothesize:

H5 - The higher the consumers' need for status, the more favorable their attitude towards sequentially (vs. simultaneously) shared luxury.

One social need that influences luxury purchases is consumers' desire to conform with their social environment and peers (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005). In this regard, some consumers perceive more value from a product or service as the number of other consumers buying the product or engaging with the service increases. In a sharp contrasting comparison to the Snob and Veblen effects, scholars reaffirm the idea of consumer conformity by examining the "bandwagon" effect in a luxury consumption setting (Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012). This effect states that consumers buy a luxury product simply because it is popular and desired by others. In our context, the behavior that other consumers

display plays an important role in attitude formation and decision making. Luxury values in this case are reinforced and co-created through the complex interactions between consumers. Consumers with high levels of conformity have a higher tendency to display their luxury purchases (Rose, Shoham, Kahle, & Batra, 1994) and thus, are more prone to engage in luxury consumption for publicly consumed services. Through the higher levels of physical proximity as well as the increased co-creation and interaction with others, simultaneous sharing offers highly conforming consumers the public affirmation they desire when choosing services. This high-sharing context provides an audience to that luxurious consumption and satisfies the need to belong and conform with others. Thus, we hypothesize:

H6 - The higher the consumers' need for conformity, the more favorable their attitudes are towards simultaneously (vs. sequentially) shared luxury.

Perfectionism (or high-quality consciousness) measures consumers' quest for the very best and excellent overall quality in products and services (Wiedmann et al., 2009). Consumers with high levels of perfectionism are generally more careful and systematic when shopping (Sproles & Kendall, 1986) and engage in more analytical search of information to find products with superior quality (Iyer, Babin, Eastman, & Griffin, 2022). Previous studies have shown that perfectionist consumers have more favorable attitudes towards luxury brands as they perceive those brands to have excellent quality with superior product characteristics and performance than non-luxury products (e.g. Vigneron & Johnson, 1999). Literature on price-quality relationship shows that high prices generally provide an impression of better products and services as they associate this high price with better quality (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005).

In a low sharing context such as sequential sharing, the experience of luxury services is more exclusive than that of simultaneous sharing. This type of sharing offers a closer and more compatible experience with traditional luxury (Christodoulides et al., 2021) where prices are also higher than those in a simultaneous sharing context. Here, consumers experience the luxury services without the presence of others to share the consumption experience and the cost of the service. Moreover, consumers with a high need for perfectionism are more likely to be

drawn towards sequentially shared luxury as the concurrent presence of others may compromise the faultless experience expected from luxury consumption (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005). Therefore, we hypothesize:

H7 - The higher the consumers' perfectionism, the more favorable their attitude towards sequentially (vs. simultaneously) shared luxury.

3.3. Attitude

Consumer positive predisposition and strength of their beliefs about owning and using the product (or a product category) are widely thought to drive their share of wallet and purchase intentions towards this product (Vigneron & Johnson, 1999; Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Amatulli et al., 2018). Hence, we argue that consumers' intention to purchase either sequential or simultaneous shared luxury services will be higher when they have a more positive attitude towards them. Hence,

H8 - The more favorable the consumers' attitude towards simultaneously and sequentially shared luxury, the higher their spending intentions towards them.

The conceptual framework of the study is presented below (Fig. 1). [Insert Fig. 1].

4. Methodology

4.1. Data collection

To test our hypotheses, a US-based sample of 803 participants was collected from the Prolific online panel. Such panels have been extensively used by scholars as they offer an acceptable sampling frame for testing relationships among variables (Peer, Brandimarte, Samat, & Acquisti, 2017). Prolific is a fast-growing platform for online recruitment of participants to research projects gaining popularity in academic research (e.g. Winterich, Nenkov, & Gonzales, 2019). Previous research showed that compared to other data collection platforms, Prolific provides a more diverse participant database and a higher data quality (Peer et al., 2017). In addition, United States was selected due to the increasing popularity and high penetration levels of sharing economy

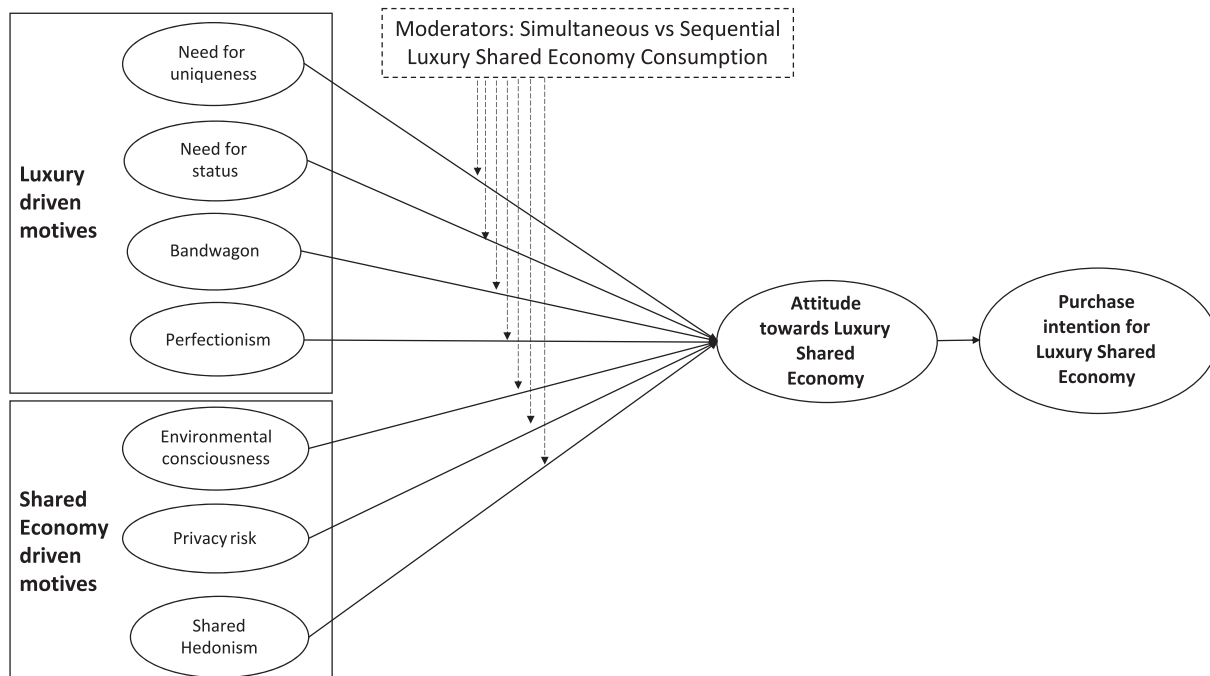


Fig. 1.

services in the past decade, as 72 % of Americans have used at least a service from the SE (Pew Research Centre (2016), 2016). The survey was conducted in September 2021, after the lockdown restrictions were lifted and people resumed their normal daily activities.

Consistent with the democratic nature of shared luxury (e.g. wider accessibility), we opted for a more inclusive sample that did not solely focus on traditional luxury consumers. Then, participants were first asked to evaluate the luxury-focused motives (i.e. need for uniqueness, need for status, bandwagon effect, perfectionism). Then, they were provided with a definition of shared luxury based on Christodoulides and their colleagues (2021), and were asked to evaluate the SE-focused motives (i.e. environmental consciousness, privacy concerns, shared hedonism).

Participants were first presented with one of two contexts that described either a luxury simultaneous service or a luxury sequential service and were asked about their attitude and purchase intentions towards each of the two types of SLS. Within these two contexts, one of two different luxury services was presented to participants: a holiday luxury accommodation or a luxury car service. A detailed description of all luxury services offered was provided in both scenarios. Participants were asked to imagine that they would rent a luxury accommodation (or a luxurious Chauffeur service for a trip day) from a hypothetical digital sharing platform (offered by other consumers; i.e. 'OneLuxStay' for accommodation and 'LuxCarBnB' for transportation) providing the same quality of service as a five-star hotel (or a premium taxi company). In the sequentially shared context, participants were informed that the entire luxury accommodation (Chauffeur service) is available for rent and that this service has been rented before by other guests. In the simultaneously shared luxury context, participants were informed that only one room (seat) is available for rent and that they need to share all the other facilities of the accommodation, other than the bedroom, (or all Chauffeur services) with other guests indicating that strangers had already booked the other rooms (seats). In total, 401 participants completed the survey for the simultaneously shared luxury service and 402 for the sequentially shared luxury one. Of the sample, 50.9 % were male and 49.1 % were female, ages ranged between 18 and 87 years (average age = 33.96 years, SD = 11.81), 62.4 % of them had university education (a bachelor's degree and above) and 43.4 % of them earn more than \$75 k annually.

4.2. Measures

We measured the variables based on pre-established scales from the literature on a 7-point Likert scale (1 – Strongly disagree to 7 – Strongly agree) with the exception of consumer attitudes which was measured using a semantic differential scale (e.g. unfavorable-favorable, bad-good). We gauged need for uniqueness and need for status based on Yang and Mattila (2014). We assessed bandwagon effect based on the measure suggested by Kastanakis and Balabanis (2012). We adapted the measurement of perfectionism from Sproles and Kendall (1986) and Sproles and Sproles (1990). We measured environmental consciousness from Hamari, Sjöklint, and Ukkonen (2015). We adapted the measurement of privacy risk from Lee, Chan, Balaji, and Chongg (2018). To measure shared hedonism, we used Lee and Hwang (2011) and Peng and Chen (2019) scale. To measure attitude towards luxury shared economy we relied on MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) and assessed it on a 7-point semantic differential scale. Lastly, we adapted the measurement of purchase intentions from Tok, Chen, and Chu (2021).

4.3. Measurement model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using a robust maximum likelihood process was performed on all variables through AMOS (v27). High inter-correlated error terms indicated that some items were redundant, and thus the scale could be simplified to improve fit. The full measurement model shows a good fit ($\chi^2(398) = 931.143$, $p < .001$;

comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.973; Tucker–Lewis index [TLI] = 0.968; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.041; standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = 0.037). Reliability and validity statistics of the scales used, as well as the loadings of the items appear in Tables 2 and 3. As Table 3 shows, the reliability of the constructs is established, with Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) being greater than 0.7 and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) exceeding the recommended 0.5, in line with the recommended thresholds (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). Discriminant validity among constructs was also assessed and reported in Table 2. Based on the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the square root of AVEs for each construct were all higher than the correlation of each construct with the other ones, indicating discriminant validity is supported (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

In line with Kock, Berbekova, and Assaf (2021), we employed both procedural (survey design, methodological and psychological separation) and statistical controls (Harmann's test, marker variable and unmeasured latent method construct) to measure Common Method Variance (CMV). The survey was designed providing clear instructions, ensuring that the responses will remain anonymous and kept the survey items as concise as possible. Methodological separation was designed by including both likert-type and semantic differential scales in the study. Additionally, by separating the dependent and the independent constructs in the survey we aimed to achieve psychological separation, concealing the causal link between independent and dependent constructs. To control for the existence of CMV we first conducted Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The test showed that one factor explained 30.39 % of the variance, which is much lower than the 50 % threshold, suggesting that CMV does not cause a problem in the sample (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, we used the 'marker variable' approach (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) to assess if CMV was a problem asking respondents the following: "To what extent was COVID-19 a topic of discussion with your friends and family in the last week?" (in a 7-Likert scale from '1-Not at all' to '7-Very much'). After performing a partial correlation, the significance of the adjusted correlations between all variables was not affected, showing that CMV is not a concern in our data.

Finally, we performed the unmeasured latent method construct (ULMC) by modeling a latent variable in our CFA model through Amos (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Comparing the baseline model (without the common latent factor) with the ULMC model (with the common latent factor) we did not detect a significant change in the fit, indicating that CMV is not an issue (Baseline model: $\chi^2(397) = 931.100$; ULMC model: $\chi^2(938) = 931.143$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 0.043$, $\text{Df} = 1$, $p > .05$). We also checked the differences between all path coefficients between the two models which varied between 0.002 and 0.01 (< 0.2), again indicating CMV is not a concern in our data. Multigroup CFA was then employed to estimate measurement invariance (Kline, 2015). Comparisons between fit statistics for the configural, metric, and scalar invariance models across the two groupings are presented in Table 4 (simultaneous and sequential). All models produced acceptable fit indexes; based on Cheung and Rensvold (2002) criterion of changes in the CFI index ($\Delta \text{CFI} < 0.01$), metric ($\Delta \text{CFI} = 0.001$) and scalar invariance ($\Delta \text{CFI} = 0.002$) are supported.

5. Results

Structural equation modeling (SEM) and multigroup analysis were employed to test the hypothesized relationships, using Amos (v27). The structural model provides a good fit overall ($\chi^2(405) = 1081.317$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.965; TLI = 0.960; SRMR = 0.058; RMSEA = 0.046), and also for the two groups individually: the simultaneously shared luxury group ($\chi^2(405) = 762.701$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.965; TLI = 0.960; SRMR = 0.053; RMSEA = 0.047) and the sequentially shared luxury group ($\chi^2(405) = 807.511$; $p < .001$; CFI = 0.955; TLI = 0.948; SRMR = 0.076; RMSEA = 0.050). To test the moderating effect of the two groups

Table 2
Intercorrelation matrix, reliability and validity.

	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE	Intent	Attitude	Privacy Risks	NfU	NfS	Env. Con.	Badwagon	Hedonism	Perfectionism
Intent	0.961	0.961	0.892	0.945								
Attitude	0.963	0.964	0.871	0.790***	0.933							
Privacy Risks	0.895	0.898	0.748	-0.058	-0.049	0.865						
NfU	0.890	0.891	0.671	0.280***	0.182***	0.058	0.819					
NfS	0.891	0.892	0.734	0.419***	0.289***	-0.023	0.469***	0.857				
Env. Con.	0.874	0.874	0.635	0.435***	0.305***	0.045	0.274***	0.414***	0.797			
Badwagon	0.783	0.785	0.549	0.328***	0.259***	0.071†	0.394***	0.406***	0.471***	0.741		
Hedonism	0.920	0.923	0.749	0.524***	0.396***	-0.030	0.283***	0.545***	0.423***	0.418***	0.865	
Perfectionism	0.850	0.853	0.659	0.143***	0.064†	0.042	0.054	0.277***	0.188***	0.175***	0.240***	0.812

NfS = need for status; NfU = need for uniqueness; Env. Con. = environmental consciousness.

(simultaneous vs sequential) on the effects of the relationships, a multiple group analysis was performed. We compared the unconstrained model with the constrained one, where structural parameters were set equal across the two groups, and we found significant differences ($\Delta\chi^2 = 63.503$, $\Delta df = 8$, $p < .001$). Table 5, shows the results of the hypothesized relationships with the moderating effects.

Based on the above results, the impact of environmental consciousness on consumers' attitude is positive and significant for both types of sharing ($\beta_{sim} = 0.204$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{seq} = 0.191$, $p < .001$), however, there are no significant differences between the two groups ($\Delta\beta = 0.013$, $p > .05$) rejecting H1. This finding highlights the importance of environmental consciousness as a universal motivation for luxury consumption in a SE setting. H2 is confirmed, as results show that the relationship between perceived privacy risk and consumer attitude is negative and significantly stronger for simultaneous ($\beta_{sim} = -0.119$, $p < .01$) than for sequential luxury consumption ($\beta_{seq} = -0.015$, $p > .05$; $\Delta\beta = -0.104$, $p < .05$), where consumer privacy is more compromised due to the presence of other customers.

The relationship between shared hedonism and consumer attitude is positive for both simultaneous and sequential luxury consumption. H3 is confirmed, with results indicating that this effect is significantly stronger in simultaneously shared luxury ($\beta_{sim} = 0.333$, $p < .001$) than in the sequential one ($\beta_{seq} = 0.232$, $p < .001$; $\Delta\beta = 0.101$, $p < .05$). Although hedonic-oriented consumers have a favorable attitude in both contexts, they seem to enjoy more SE offerings when they share it with other customers. Regarding H4, the relationship between need for uniqueness and consumer attitude is significant and positive in the simultaneously shared luxury ($\beta_{sim} = 0.144$, $p < .001$) but non-significant in the sequential context ($\beta_{seq} = -0.107$, $p > .05$); this relationship is significantly different ($\Delta\beta = 0.251$, $p < .01$), confirming H4. The expected prevalence of need for status on consumer attitude towards sequential and simultaneous sharing, was not confirmed, rejecting H5 ($\beta_{sim} = 0.010$, $p > .05$; $\beta_{seq} = 0.080$, $p > .05$). Presumably, consumers might prefer to experience luxury in the conventional setting of luxury, outside the sharing economy, as they might feel that their status signaling might not be effectively conveyed by shared luxury services.

Our findings also confirm H6, as the effect of bandwagon behavior on consumer attitude is positive only for simultaneously shared luxury ($\beta_{sim} = 0.122$, $p < .05$) but not for sequentially shared luxury ($\beta_{seq} = -0.049$, $p > .05$), with a significant difference between the two groups ($\Delta\beta = 0.170$, $p < .05$). Results also indicate that the relationship between perfectionism and attitude is non-significant in both groups ($\beta_{sim} = -0.055$, $p > .05$; $\beta_{seq} = 0.081$, $p > .05$), rejecting H7. Individuals who look for excellence in overall quality acquired by the service consumed, do not seem to be interested in any of these types of shared luxury. Similarly, to the effect of need for status, when individuals are looking for excellent quality they might prefer more conventional types of luxury, which are not shared with other consumers. Last, H8 is confirmed, as the relationship between attitude and purchase intentions is significant and positive for both contexts ($\beta_{sim} = 0.870$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{seq} = 0.621$, $p < .001$). This effect is significantly stronger in the simultaneously shared luxury

compared to the sequential one ($\Delta\beta = 0.249$, $p < .05$).

To control for the effect of COVID-19 in our dataset, we included the following item at the end of the survey: "To what extent has COVID-19 affected your responses to the questions in this survey?" (1 = Not at all, 7 = Very much). Results show that more than 80 % of our respondents indicated that COVID-19 had not affected their responses. Moreover, results also indicate that the mode = 1 revealing that the majority of our respondents were not affected by COVID-19 when answering the survey.

6. Discussion

This work expands on the emerging stream of research on luxury services by focusing on a growing category of luxury services, namely SLS. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this is the first study to conceptualize the phenomenon, thus adding to the nascent literature on shared luxury (Christodoulides et al., 2021) that has so far focused on shared luxury goods rather than on shared immaterial luxury services (e.g., Gong et al., 2022; Pantano & Stylos, 2020). Specifically, we draw on three main streams of literature (luxury consumption, sharing economy and experiences/services) to derive and test a model of drivers of consumers' attitudes toward SLS emphasizing the moderating role of sharing level. Our findings reveal some significant differences regarding the motivations that drive consumers' attitude and purchase intentions toward SLS depending on the sharing level (i.e. sequential versus simultaneous), thus highlighting the significance of this classification for SLS.

Our findings first reveal that consumers' attitude towards SLS is driven by a diverse mix of motivations, both from the luxury and SE literatures, which extend prior work on the changing nature of luxury in the SE towards more sustainable and inclusive offerings (Thomsen et al., 2020; Wirtz et al., 2020). Irrespective of sharing level, hedonism and environmental consciousness are consistently the main factors shaping consumers' attitudes towards SLS. This departs from work in luxury suggesting that personal luxury dimensions (e.g. hedonism) evoke a less positive effect than interpersonal luxury dimensions (e.g. uniqueness) (e.g. Mandler et al., 2020). This is in line with earlier qualitative research suggesting that hedonism lies at the core of shared luxury (Christodoulides et al., 2021) allowing consumers to enhance their hedonic benefits via value hedonism, hedonistic egoism, and hedonic escalation. This work further complements research on goods-dominant forms of shared luxury such as second-hand luxury products where environmental factors were omitted as drivers (e.g., Kessous & Valette-Florence, 2019). Our findings demonstrate that environmental sustainability is one of the main determinants of attitudes and purchase intentions when it comes to SLS. Perhaps in a shared luxury context where there is a physical product, other motivations may be more dominant such as need for (product) perfection and need for status (due to product conspicuousness).

More importantly, our findings support the distinction between simultaneously and sequentially shared luxury and empirically confirm that consumers are drawn to these alternative levels of SLS by different

Table 3
Items, loadings and reliability.

	Whole sample	Simultaneous	Sequential
<i>Environmental consciousness (Cronbach's alpha = 0.874; CR = 0.874; AVE = 0.635)</i>			
Using shared luxury means thinking about the environment	0.848	0.842	0.855
Using shared luxury reduces the consumption of natural resources	0.762	0.771	0.753
Using shared luxury is a sustainable mode of consumption	0.781	0.808	0.753
Using shared luxury means thinking about others and the community	0.794	0.795	0.791
<i>Privacy risk (Cronbach's alpha = 0.895; CR = 0.898; AVE = 0.748)</i>			
There are privacy risks to participate in shared luxury	0.918	0.913	0.925
There is a potential privacy loss participating in shared luxury	0.913	0.914	0.910
There are a lot of privacy-related uncertainties that could not have been foreseen while participating in shared luxury	0.754	0.746	0.763
<i>Shared Hedonism (Cronbach's alpha = 0.920; CR = 0.923; AVE = 0.749)</i>			
I would use shared luxury for the pure enjoyment of it	0.805	0.804	0.808
Using shared luxury would give me a lot of pleasure	0.905	0.929	0.880
Consuming shared luxury would truly feel like an escape	0.860	0.867	0.855
I would enjoy being immersed in exciting shared luxury experiences	0.889	0.891	0.885
<i>Need for uniqueness (Cronbach's alpha = 0.890; CR = 0.891; AVE = 0.671)</i>			
When a product or brand I own becomes popular among the general public, I begin to use it less	0.807	0.820	0.793
I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general public	0.833	0.837	0.827
As a rule, I dislike products or brands that are customarily bought by everyone	0.784	0.791	0.778
The more commonplace a product or brand is among the general public, the less interested I am in buying it	0.851	0.850	0.854
<i>Need for status (Cronbach's alpha = 0.891; CR = 0.892; AVE = 0.734)</i>			
I am interested in new products or brands with status	0.802	0.769	0.840
I would buy a product or brand because it has status	0.878	0.859	0.899
I would pay more for a product or brand if it had status	0.889	0.898	0.877
<i>Bandwagon (Cronbach's alpha = 0.783; CR = 0.785; AVE = 0.549)</i>			
Shared luxury is approved by everyone	0.788	0.778	0.802
Shared luxury is recognized by many people	0.684	0.664	0.701
Shared luxury is chosen and used by most people	0.747	0.739	0.753
<i>Perfectionism (Cronbach's alpha = 0.850; CR = 0.853; AVE = 0.659)</i>			
Getting excellent quality is very important to me	0.785	0.750	0.808
In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality	0.849	0.805	0.872
I make special effort to choose the very best quality products	0.800	0.779	0.810
<i>Attitude towards Shared Luxury (Cronbach's alpha = 0.963; CR = 0.964; AVE = 0.871)</i>			
Bad - Good	0.944	0.940	0.936
Negative - Positive	0.924	0.938	0.873
Unappealing - Appealing	0.922	0.936	0.859
Unfavorable - Favorable	0.943	0.941	0.923

Table 3 (continued)

	Whole sample	Simultaneous	Sequential
<i>Purchase Intention for Shared Luxury (Cronbach's alpha = 0.961; CR = 0.961; AVE = 0.892)</i>			
I would consider buying an option such as the one described	0.937	0.951	0.902
There is a strong likelihood that I would use a service such as the one described	0.935	0.944	0.913
I would purchase an option similar to the one described	0.962	0.964	0.953

motives (Pantano & Stylos, 2020; Guzzetti et al., 2021). Specifically, the need for uniqueness emerges as a significant driver of consumer attitudes towards simultaneously shared luxury, but not for sequentially shared one. This is due to the presence of other individuals who co-create unique luxury experiences allowing consumers to experience moments of luxury (Holmqvist et al., 2020a) on a collective basis. While need for status is a well-established motive for luxury consumption (e.g., Han et al., 2010), our data shows that in the context of shared luxury, it does not drive consumers' attitudes towards shared luxury services. This important finding contributes to recent conceptual work on luxury competencies that present an alternative perspective of luxury consumption to wealth-based consumption (Wang, 2022). Specifically, our findings demonstrate that SLS deviate from a traditional wealth-based perspective of luxury consumption that focuses *inter alia* on signaling, exclusivity and conspicuousness and, instead, appear to be more suited for competencies-based consumers (Wang, 2022) who are more into extraordinary experiences, sustainability, inconspicuousness and liquid forms of consumption (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2017).

Consumers with a need to conform and adopt luxury services that are approved and demanded by the masses (Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012) are more likely to be enticed to simultaneously than sequentially shared luxury services. This is due to the concurrent presence and participation of other consumers in the shared luxury experience who appear to attest to SLS' popularity. While the quest for quality excellence and perfectionism is a motive for luxury consumption in a traditional non-shared context (e.g., Stathopoulou & Balabanis, 2019; Wiedmann et al., 2009), our findings indicate that perfectionism is not a significant driver for SLS. This may be due to the concept of sharing that arguably detracts from the perfectionism of the experience thus pushing consumers with high quality consciousness more in the direction of traditional than shared luxury.

Consistent with the broader literature on SE albeit in a non-luxury context, environmental consciousness was a key determinant of attitudes also in the case of SLS for both sequential and simultaneous types of sharing – and not more so for simultaneous sharing, as originally postulated. This may be due to both levels of sharing being perceived as environmentally sustainable compared to traditional forms of luxury. In line with the relevant hypothesis, privacy concerns were found to lead to less favorable attitudes towards simultaneously shared luxury given that the participation of others, often strangers, in the luxury service/experience may jeopardize one's sense of privacy. This is particularly relevant for an increasingly important and growing segment of luxury buyers (known as inconspicuous consumers) who enjoy privacy in their luxury consumption (Eastman, Iyer, & Babin, 2022; Iyer et al., 2022).

Though a significant determinant of attitudes for both levels of shared luxury, hedonism - contrary to our hypothesis - was found to be a stronger driver for simultaneous than for sequential sharing. It was originally postulated that the concurrent consumption of the luxury service/experience with other consumers could potentially be unappealing for hedonic consumers. In fact, the experiential nature of shared luxury and participation of other consumers in the co-creation of the SLS appears to draw consumers with a hedonic motivation more to simultaneous than to sequential sharing. Moreover, this research extends

Table 4
Measurement Invariance.

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Model comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI
<i>Simultaneous vs Sequential</i>									
1. Configural invariance	1411.464	796	0.968	0.031	0.0437				
2. Metric invariance	1449.527	818	0.967	0.031	0.0443	1 vs 2	38.063*	22	0.001
3. Scalar invariance	1516.346	840	0.965	0.032	0.0444	2 vs 3	66.819***	22	0.002

Table 5
Results of the hypothesized effects.

	Whole Sample β	Simultaneous SE β	Sequential SE β	$\Delta\beta(\text{sig.})$
Envir. Consciousness → Attitude (H1)	0.148 ***	0.204***	0.191**	0.013
Perceived privacy risk → Attitude (H2)	-0.049	-0.119**	-0.015	-0.104*
Shared Hedonism → Attitude (H3)	0.297 ***	0.333***	0.232***	0.101*
Need for Uniqueness → Attitude (H4)	0.024	0.144**	-0.107	0.251**
Need for Status → Attitude (H5)	0.061	0.010	0.080	-0.070
Bandwagon → Attitude (H6)	0.052	0.122*	-0.049	0.170*
Perfectionism → Attitude (H7)	-0.054	-0.055	0.081	-0.136
Attitude → Purchase Intention (H8)	0.795 ***	0.870***	0.621***	0.249*

what we know about luxury by demonstrating that need for status, which is a well-established driver of luxury in traditional contexts, is not influential in shaping consumers’ attitudes and subsequently their behavior toward SLS.

Our work contributes to the growing literature around how sharing affects dematerialized forms of consumption (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2017). Our findings not only validate existing features of different sharing types in a novel context (e.g. spatial proximity, stranger sharing) but also propose new features (e.g. privacy, sequential access) that researchers should incorporate into their conceptualizations. We also advocate that the level of sharing (low vs high) and the features of different sharing levels (e.g. see Table 1) affect how consumers formulate preferences towards luxury services. This way, we expand prior work that attempts to theorize the features of different levels of sharing by mapping their relevance for shared luxury consumption. Last, we extend previous work on consumer sharing (López-López, Ruiz-de-Maya, & Warlop, 2014) by suggesting that consumers enjoy shared luxury offerings more when they share them with other customers (strangers) than when they access them sequentially.

6.1. Managerial contributions

The findings of our research have significant implications for established and new luxury brands that wish to tap into the opportunities provided by the SE. Consumers do not appear to be in need for status when consuming SLS, which is often used as a segmentation basis or trigger in the marketing communications of luxury brands. Rather than highlight the status of these experiences, SLS need to appeal to consumers’ environmental consciousness and stress the hedonistic value of the experience on offer. For instance, their communications should highlight the environmental sustainability of SLS vis-à-vis traditional luxury services and visually demonstrate the pleasure and escapism facilitated by such experiences.

Second, in designing their service blueprints or experiences for the SE, luxury companies are advised to consider the level of sharing involved. SLS built around simultaneous sharing should further promote the experiences as unique and unparalleled (e.g., compared to

traditional luxury services). In addition to this, simultaneously shared luxury should promote the popularity and approval of such luxury experiences, for example, by using credible figures such as key luxury influencers as endorsers in social media campaigns. These strategies would allow digital players and technology platforms to extend their services into the premium/luxury space and gain a competitive advantage vis-à-vis traditional luxury companies. As long as traditional luxury firms continue to play the status game and are reluctant to let go of control, it will be difficult for them to succeed in this space where the co-creation of experiences resulting in enhanced hedonism is vital.

7. Limitations and directions for future research

Like any research this study is not free of limitations. Shared luxury includes *inter alia* co-ownership, second-hand and product-service economy and on-demand economy (Eckhardt et al., 2019). This study has focused solely on the latter, specifically on shared luxury services/experiences in the form of accommodation and transportation. Other researchers may wish to extend the findings of this research by seeking to understand the drivers of consumer adoption for other forms of shared luxury and/or in other sectors. In addition to this, the data was collected from consumers in a singular context that was deemed appropriate for this inquiry (i.e., the USA). While COVID-19 restrictions had been lifted in the US when the study data was collected and the majority of respondents indicated that COVID-19 had not affected their responses, this evidence was based on a self-reported measure. Future research is encouraged to replicate the findings in the post-COVID-19 era.

Future research should further address the impact of various situational and contextual factors on consumers’ adoption of SLS, including the perceived intangibility of the service, their psychological connection with the platform and the type of services (e.g. services with low vs high signaling value). Researchers should also examine strategies through which such offerings can increase the share of wallet of SLS among traditional luxury consumers. Scholars may finally look at the moderating role of culture specifically of its most relevant dimensions (e.g., indulgence, power distance, individualism-collectivism) in the adoption of simultaneously (vs. sequentially) shared luxury. Shared luxury is potentially appealing to segments that go beyond traditional luxury consumers (e.g., it is potentially more accessible). As such, our sample was not limited to traditional luxury consumers. Future research may investigate different drivers for traditional consumers versus aspirational luxury consumers who may become more easily introduced to luxury in the SE than in a more conventional context.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Achilleas Boukis: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **George Christodoulides:** Writing – original draft, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Rania W. Semaan:** Writing – original draft, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Anastasia Stathopoulou:** Validation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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