

Understanding Consumer Trust in Technology-Mediated Services: A Conceptual Framework

Dr. Swati Patil

Associate Professor, Acropolis Faculty of Management and Research, Indore, India

Abstract-- How and why consumers come to trust technology-mediated services is a question that sits at the intersection of psychology, management, and information systems and one that has acquired fresh urgency as digital service delivery becomes the norm rather than the exception. This paper develops a conceptual framework for understanding consumer trust in technology-mediated services, weaving together insights from classical trust theory, technology acceptance research, and contemporary scholarship on service design and digital ethics. Building on Mayer et al.'s (1995) foundational model of trustworthiness, McKnight and Chervany's (2001) multidimensional typology, and Davis's (1989) Technology Acceptance Model, the framework organizes trust antecedents into five clusters: perceived competence and reliability, perceived benevolence and consumer orientation, perceived transparency and explainability, perceived risk and vulnerability, and institutional and regulatory assurances. Each cluster is examined through the lens of what makes technology-mediated service relationships genuinely different from conventional interpersonal or organizational ones including the opacity of automated decision-making, the ambiguity of accountability, and the peculiar dynamics of personalization at scale. The framework traces how trusting beliefs, once formed, shape behavioral outcomes including adoption intention, continued engagement, willingness to share personal data, and word-of-mouth advocacy. Crucially, these pathways are shown to be moderated by individual disposition to trust, prior experience with digital services, cultural orientation, and the stakes of the service domain. Theoretical contributions include a cleaner integration of institution-based and interpersonal trust constructs, while practical guidance is offered to service designers, managers, and policymakers invested in building technology-mediated services that people can genuinely rely on. Limitations are discussed and directions for future empirical inquiry are proposed.

Keywords-- consumer trust, technology-mediated services, technology acceptance, perceived transparency, service design, digital ethics, human-technology interaction, trust framework

I. INTRODUCTION

Something significant has shifted in how consumers encounter services. Across virtually every sector retail, banking, healthcare, logistics, entertainment the service encounter has been transformed by digital intermediation.

Consumers receive product recommendations calibrated to their browsing patterns, interact with automated support systems that handle routine queries, receive credit decisions from algorithmic assessors, and rely on platform interfaces that adapt in real time to inferred preferences. In each of these cases, the traditional dyadic encounter between a consumer and a human service provider has been partially or wholly replaced by interactions with systems whose inner workings are neither visible nor, for most consumers, readily comprehensible.

This transformation raises a question that sits close to the heart of service management: under these conditions, how do consumers come to trust? Trust, it has long been argued, is not merely a psychological nicety it is the mechanism that enables economic exchange under uncertainty, that makes vulnerability bearable, and that allows strangers to transact with one another (Mayer et al., 1995). In service contexts, trust does the work of reducing the cognitive burden of evaluation, sustaining engagement through moments of ambiguity or error, and motivating consumers to share the personal information that makes service personalization possible. Without it, even technically superior service systems struggle to deliver their value.

Despite a rich tradition of research on interpersonal and organizational trust, and a growing body of work on technology acceptance, a conceptual framework that squarely addresses trust in technology-mediated services integrating the structural features of digital service delivery with the psychological dynamics of consumer trust remains incomplete. Existing technology acceptance models were largely designed for deterministic software tools, and their application to contemporary service contexts leaves important questions unanswered: Why do some consumers extend trust readily to automated systems while others resist? What happens when a system behaves unexpectedly does trust collapse, or does it bend? How do regulatory environments and organizational reputation shape consumer confidence in systems whose operations they cannot directly observe?

This paper attempts to address these questions through a conceptual framework that draws on established theoretical traditions while attending carefully to the distinctive features of technology-mediated service delivery.

Specifically, the framework: (a) synthesizes classical trust theory and technology acceptance research into a coherent account of trust formation; (b) identifies five antecedent clusters that shape trusting beliefs in digital service contexts; (c) articulates how individual and cultural factors moderate the antecedent-trust relationship; and (d) traces the behavioral consequences of trust across a range of service-relevant outcomes. The paper is intended not as a final word on these questions but as a structured foundation for empirical researchers and design practitioners who need a conceptually grounded point of departure.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 reviews the theoretical foundations on which the framework is built. Section 3 presents the framework as a whole. Sections 4 through 6 develop the antecedent clusters, AI-specific trust determinants, and moderating variables in detail. Section 7 examines behavioral outcomes. Section 8 discusses theoretical and practical implications. Section 9 addresses limitations and future research directions before the conclusion.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Trust Theory

Any serious treatment of consumer trust must reckon with the intellectual architecture that Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) assembled in their integrative model of organizational trust. Their definition of trust as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712) remains among the most useful in the literature because it captures three elements that are often glossed over separately: the willingness to accept vulnerability, the grounding of that willingness in expectation rather than certainty, and the suspension of direct oversight. These three elements travel well beyond the interpersonal context in which the model was originally developed. When a consumer submits a financial application to an automated credit-scoring system, they are accepting vulnerability, relying on expectations about how the system will behave, and doing so without any realistic ability to monitor the process. Mayer et al.'s model, in other words, fits the technology-mediated case almost as naturally as it fits the manager-subordinate relationship for which it was devised.

The model's identification of three trustworthiness characteristics—ability, benevolence, and integrity—provides the conceptual vocabulary for analyzing why a given party is deemed trustworthy.

Ability concerns whether the trustee can actually do what is expected. Benevolence concerns whether the trustee is genuinely motivated by the trustor's interests rather than purely by self-interest. Integrity concerns whether the trustee adheres to principles the trustor can accept. These dimensions are analytically distinct: a capable service provider may be self-serving; a well-intentioned one may be incompetent; and that distinctness is valuable precisely because different design and communication choices map onto different dimensions.

McKnight and Chervany (2001) refined and extended this framework in ways that are particularly relevant for the present analysis. Their typology distinguished trusting beliefs (cognitive assessments of trustworthiness characteristics), trusting intentions (the willingness to depend), and trusting behaviors (actual acts of dependence), recognizing that the relationships among these are neither automatic nor unconditional. They also foregrounded institution-based trust—confidence derived not from direct assessment of a counterpart but from the structural arrangements, regulatory frameworks, and third-party guarantees that surround a transaction. In a world where consumers interact with systems whose developers they will never meet, institution-based trust is not a secondary consideration; for many consumers, it is the primary basis on which initial confidence is established.

Technology Acceptance and Its Limits

Davis's (1989) Technology Acceptance Model, with its central propositions that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use drive adoption intention, has been among the most empirically productive frameworks in the information systems literature. Its parsimony is both its strength and its limitation. The strength lies in the clarity of the core propositions; the limitation lies in the model's original focus on relatively straightforward workplace software tools contexts in which performance was reasonably observable, behavior was deterministic, and the relationship between user and system was essentially instrumental.

Subsequent extensions have addressed some of these limitations. Gefen et al. (2003) and Pavlou (2003) demonstrated the importance of trust as an antecedent to adoption in online and e-commerce contexts, showing that willingness to transact is not simply a function of perceived utility but is substantially shaped by relational and affective factors. The UTAUT framework (Venkatesh et al., 2003) incorporated social influence and facilitating conditions. TAM2 (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000) added subjective norms and cognitive factors such as job relevance and output quality. Each of these extensions enriched the model while retaining its fundamentally utilitarian orientation.



International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
Website: www.ijrdet.com (ISSN 2347-6435 (Online) Volume 15, Issue 06, June 2026)

What these extensions do not fully address are the properties that most sharply distinguish contemporary technology-mediated services from the software tools that motivated early acceptance research. Modern service systems are often probabilistic rather than deterministic; they produce outputs that vary across users and over time. They are frequently opaque; their decision logic is not exposed to users and, in the case of complex machine-learning models, may not be fully interpretable even by their developers. They are dynamic; they adapt based on accumulated data, meaning that their behavior today may differ from their behavior in three months. And they introduce a peculiar form of relational ambiguity: sometimes presenting as human-like interlocutors, sometimes operating silently in the background, sometimes hovering somewhere in between (Hancock et al., 2011). A conceptual framework adequate to these conditions needs to integrate trust theory more deeply than existing acceptance models have done.

What Is Distinctive About Technology-Mediated Services

It is worth being precise about what "technology-mediated" adds to the service context, because the answer shapes which theoretical constructs matter most. When a service encounter is fully mediated by technology—as when a credit application is processed by an automated scoring system, or when a medical symptom checker generates a preliminary assessment—several features of the encounter change in trust-relevant ways.

First, the locus of agency shifts. In a conventional service encounter, there is a human agent whose intentions, competence, and integrity can in principle be assessed through direct interaction and social cues. In a technology-mediated encounter, agency is distributed across the system architecture, the data on which it was trained, the engineers who designed it, and the organization that deployed it. Consumers may find it difficult to assign responsibility for outcomes, and that difficulty has consequences for how trust is calibrated and how it responds to failures (Wieringa, 2020).

Second, the transparency of the decision process changes. Human service providers, even when their reasoning is imperfect, can offer explanations. Automated systems can be designed to provide explanations, but the quality and accessibility of those explanations varies enormously, and for many consumers, the available explanations will be either absent or difficult to interpret (Arrieta et al., 2020; Gunning & Aha, 2019).

Third, the scale of personalization and the associated data requirements change the privacy calculus of the service relationship.

Technology-mediated services often depend on extensive data collection, and consumers are increasingly aware—even if imprecisely—that their behavior within service systems generates data that is used in ways they do not fully control (Zuboff, 2019). This awareness shapes how benevolence and integrity are assessed.

The Proposed Conceptual Framework

The framework proposed here treats consumer trust as a multidimensional psychological state that is shaped by characteristics of the service system and its surrounding context, channeled through the formation of trusting beliefs, and expressed in behavioral intentions and actions. It is organized around three analytical layers: antecedents, trust itself, and outcomes, with moderating variables operating across the antecedent-to-trust and trust-to-outcome relationships.

Overview and Structure

At the center of the framework sits the consumer's formation of trusting beliefs, understood in Mayer et al.'s (1995) terms as assessments of competence, benevolence, and integrity—adapted here to fit the structural features of technology-mediated services. These beliefs are not formed in a vacuum: they are shaped by five antecedent clusters, each capturing a distinct dimension of what makes a service system worthy of trust. These clusters are: (1) perceived competence and reliability; (2) perceived benevolence and consumer orientation; (3) perceived transparency and explainability; (4) perceived risk and vulnerability; and (5) institutional and regulatory assurances. The first three correspond broadly to the ability, benevolence, and integrity dimensions of Mayer et al.'s model, with modifications appropriate to the technology-mediated context. The fourth and fifth add considerations that are not captured by that model alone.

Trusting beliefs connect to behavioral outcomes through two partially distinct pathways. The cognitive-calculative pathway runs through assessments of utility, risk, and institutional competence: consumers who believe a service is reliable, backed by credible governance, and likely to serve them well calculate a positive trust-to-adoption relationship. The affective-relational pathway runs through the sense of being genuinely cared for: consumers who feel that a service is oriented toward their interests, that it treats them fairly, and that it handles their information with genuine respect, develop a warmer and more resilient form of trust that sustains engagement and motivates advocacy.



International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
Website: www.ijrdet.com (ISSN 2347-6435 (Online) Volume 15, Issue 06, June 2026)

Four moderating variables individual disposition to trust, prior experience with technology-mediated services, cultural orientation, and service domain stakes shape both how strongly antecedents generate trusting beliefs and how strongly those beliefs translate into behavior.

Their inclusion acknowledges that the trust process is not uniform across consumers or contexts, and that a framework aspiring to generalizability must account for this heterogeneity explicitly.

III. ANTECEDENTS OF CONSUMER TRUST

Perceived Competence and Reliability

At its most fundamental, trust in a service system begins with a judgment about whether the system is capable of doing what it is supposed to do. This is the ability dimension of Mayer et al.'s (1995) model translated into a service context, and it encompasses several interrelated assessments: whether the system produces accurate or appropriate outputs, whether it performs consistently across conditions, and whether it degrades gracefully when it encounters situations near the edges of its competence.

One important nuance is that consumer judgments of competence do not necessarily track technical performance closely. Consumers assess competence through the lens of their own subjective experience whether an output "felt right," whether the system responded in ways that seemed sensible, whether errors were acknowledged and handled responsibly. They also draw on indirect signals: the reputation of the organization offering the service, the reviews and endorsements of peers and experts, and the confidence conveyed by the design and communication of the service itself. This means that technically superior systems can be trusted less than technically inferior ones if they do a poor job of communicating their capabilities, and that overconfident representations of competence tend to produce sharp trust reductions when the inevitable errors occur what researchers in human-automation interaction call overtrust collapse (Parasuraman & Manzey, 2010; Lee & See, 2004).

For service designers, the implication is not simply to maximize technical performance but to calibrate consumer expectations accurately and to handle service failures in ways that demonstrate competence through recovery, not just through initial accuracy. A system that errs occasionally but handles those errors with transparency and responsiveness may ultimately generate more durable trust than one that performs flawlessly in ordinary conditions but responds poorly when things go wrong.

Perceived Benevolence and Consumer Orientation

Competence is necessary but not sufficient. Consumers also need to believe that the service is designed and operated with their genuine interests in mind that the motivation behind it is not purely organizational self-interest, but includes meaningful concern for consumer welfare. This is the benevolence dimension of the trust framework, and it takes on a particular texture in commercial technology-mediated services because the organizational incentive structure is often not perfectly aligned with consumer interest.

Personalization is the site where this tension is most visibly played out. When a service tailors recommendations to a consumer's apparent preferences, this can be experienced as attentiveness evidence that the service is paying attention to what the consumer actually needs. Awad and Krishnan (2006) found that consumers do indeed interpret personalization as a form of care, and that this interpretation supports both trust and satisfaction. But personalization depends on data collection, and consumers increasingly understand if sometimes only vaguely that their behavioral data is commercially valuable. When they perceive that personalization is primarily a mechanism for more effective commercial extraction rather than genuine service enhancement, the apparent attentiveness inverts into something more like surveillance, and benevolence perceptions suffer accordingly. Zuboff's (2019) "surveillance capitalism" captures the extreme of this dynamic, but subtler versions of the same perception are widely reported in consumer research on digital services.

One structural signal of genuine consumer orientation is meaningful human oversight: the degree to which consequential automated decisions are subject to review by human agents who can be held accountable for outcomes. Services that build in such oversight particularly for decisions with significant consequences for consumers signal that organizational actors take responsibility for system behavior and are genuinely invested in fair outcomes, not merely in operational efficiency (Dietvorst et al., 2015).

Perceived Transparency and Explainability

Transparency is a term that appears frequently in discussions of digital service governance, but it is worth unpacking because it covers several distinct things that have different implications for trust. Operational transparency concerns what data a system uses and how it processes information to arrive at outputs. Outcome transparency concerns whether and how the system communicates the basis for its outputs to the user.



International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
Website: www.ijrdet.com (ISSN 2347-6435 (Online) Volume 15, Issue 06, June 2026)

Organizational transparency concerns the governance structures, accountability mechanisms, and decision-making processes that surround the service system (Wieringa, 2020). Each of these dimensions can vary independently: a service might be organizationally transparent publishing detailed reports on its governance while remaining operationally opaque at the point of the consumer interaction.

Explainability is the dimension of transparency that has attracted the most attention in recent policy and research discourse, and with good reason. A system that can tell a consumer why it produced a particular output why a loan application was declined, why a particular product was recommended, why a diagnostic probability was calculated as it was provides the consumer with a basis for evaluating the decision that goes beyond simple acceptance or rejection of the output. Even consumers who do not fully understand a technical explanation derive some benefit from its availability: it signals that the system operates according to intelligible principles, that there is something to be explained, and that the organization is willing to be accountable for how its system reasons (Tintarev & Masthoff, 2011).

The challenge is that genuine explainability is technically demanding, and the explanations that are easiest to generate are not always the most useful. A model that arrives at a credit score through hundreds of interacting variables cannot truthfully be summarized in a sentence. Designers of consumer-facing systems face a genuine dilemma between accuracy and accessibility, and the resolution of that dilemma matters for trust: oversimplified explanations that misrepresent how a system actually works can be discovered and, when they are, they damage trust more severely than the absence of explanation would have done.

Perceived Risk and Vulnerability

Trust and risk occupy a peculiar theoretical relationship. They are not simply opposites high trust does not mean zero perceived risk, and low trust does not necessarily mean high perceived risk. Rather, risk is the condition that makes trust meaningful: it is because outcomes are uncertain, and because the trustor is vulnerable to the trustee's behavior, that the question of trust arises at all (Mayer et al., 1995; Luhmann, 1979). In technology-mediated services, consumer vulnerability takes several distinct forms.

Privacy risk the possibility that personal data will be disclosed, misused, or monetized in ways the consumer has not consented to is among the most salient concerns consumers associate with digital services (Malhotra et al., 2004; Dinev & Hart, 2006).

Performance risk the chance that the service will make errors with negative consequences looms larger in some domains than others: misidentifying a music preference is recoverable; misdiagnosing a medical symptom or miscalculating a credit score is considerably less so. There is also a less-discussed form of risk that is specific to service systems that present as human-like interlocutors: the psychological discomfort of interacting with something that mimics human social behavior without possessing the genuine subjectivity, accountability, or reciprocity that human relationships entail (Mori et al., 2012; Hancock et al., 2011).

Perceived risk functions in the framework both as a direct negative influence on trusting beliefs and as a moderator that amplifies the importance of other antecedents. In low-risk service contexts, modest competence signals may be sufficient to sustain engagement; in high-risk contexts, the bar for competence, transparency, and institutional assurance rises substantially. This asymmetry has important design implications: services that operate in high-stakes domains should invest disproportionately in the antecedents of trust, not merely meet the threshold adequate for low-stakes contexts.

Institutional and Regulatory Assurances

Many consumers who interact with technology-mediated services do not have the technical knowledge, time, or inclination to form detailed competence assessments from first principles. They rely, instead, on the structural arrangements that surround the service: the regulatory framework governing its operation, the certifications it carries, the reputation of the organization behind it, and the third-party oversight mechanisms that are supposed to hold it accountable. This is McKnight and Chervany's (2001) institution-based trust, and in technology-mediated service contexts it plays a role that individual-level trust assessments alone cannot fully substitute for.

Regulatory environments matter in this respect because they determine what structural assurances are available to consumers. In jurisdictions with robust data protection law, consumers can draw some confidence from the knowledge that services face legal consequences for data misuse, regardless of their subjective assessment of organizational intent. Industry self-regulatory mechanisms codes of conduct, ethical certification schemes, independent audit programs play a similar structural role, though their effectiveness depends on the rigor of their standards and the credibility of their enforcement (Floridi et al., 2018; European Commission, 2021).



International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
Website: www.ijrdet.com (ISSN 2347-6435 (Online) Volume 15, Issue 06, June 2026)

The absence of credible institutional oversight does not simply leave consumers without a source of structural assurance; it increases their dependence on organizational self-presentation marketing communications, brand reputation that is more susceptible to manipulation and more vulnerable to disconfirmation.

IV. TECHNOLOGY-SPECIFIC TRUST DETERMINANTS

Fairness and Non-Discrimination

One dimension of trustworthiness that classical trust frameworks did not need to address in depth, because it was less structurally salient in interpersonal or even organizational relationships, is the fairness of automated decision processes. When services use automated systems to allocate outcomes—credit, insurance pricing, diagnostic attention, content visibility—consumers may experience or suspect that these allocations are systematically skewed in ways that disadvantage certain groups. Research has shown that such perceptions, whether or not they are technically accurate, significantly affect trust and willingness to engage (Binns et al., 2018).

What makes this dimension distinctive is that fairness and competence are analytically independent: a system can be highly accurate on average while being systematically inaccurate for particular sub-populations, and consumers who belong to those sub-populations may correctly perceive that the system does not serve them as well as it serves others. The trust implications of this independence are significant: aggregate performance metrics, of the kind that organizations typically use to communicate system quality, do not adequately address individual or group-level fairness concerns. Communicating about fairness—what the service does to detect and mitigate differential performance, what recourse consumers have if they believe they have been treated unfairly—requires a different kind of transparency than competence signaling does.

V. DATA PRIVACY AND STEWARDSHIP

The relationship between data practices and consumer trust in technology-mediated services is not simply a matter of privacy policy compliance. Consumers bring to digital service encounters a complex set of attitudes about what constitutes appropriate data collection and use—shaped by their general privacy orientations, their prior experiences with digital services, their awareness of publicized data incidents, and their (often imperfect) mental models of how digital services work. These attitudes do not map neatly onto regulatory definitions of permissible data processing. Privacy calculus theory (Dinev & Hart, 2006) frames consumer data sharing as a trade-off: the perceived benefits

of sharing better recommendations, more personalized service, smoother interactions weighed against the perceived privacy costs. Trust in the service organization moderates this calculation: consumers who trust the service to handle their data responsibly are more willing to share, generating better service experiences, which in turn can reinforce trust. This virtuous dynamic runs in reverse when trust is damaged: privacy incidents or revelations of unauthorized data use can produce rapid and severe trust withdrawal, with effects that extend well beyond the specific incident to shape attitudes toward the service and similar services more broadly.

What this suggests for service design is that privacy is not simply a compliance matter but a trust matter—and that the way organizations communicate about data practices, respond to privacy concerns, and handle incidents has first-order consequences for the relational foundation on which their service rests.

VI. THE QUALITY OF HUMAN-TECHNOLOGY INTERACTION

As conversational interfaces, intelligent assistants, and socially responsive service agents become more prevalent, the quality of the interaction between consumer and system assumes increasing importance as a trust determinant. Interaction quality in this sense encompasses several things: whether the system responds in ways that are contextually appropriate; whether it uses natural language in ways that feel fluent rather than stilted; whether it handles emotional content in consumer messages with appropriate sensitivity; and whether it accurately signals the limits of its own knowledge and competence rather than projecting false confidence.

There is a design paradox lurking here that service designers should take seriously. Systems that present as highly human-like that use natural conversational register, that appear to "remember" past interactions, that express something resembling concern for the consumer's wellbeing may generate higher initial engagement and trust. But they also import, implicitly, the normative expectations that attach to human relationships: expectations of genuine understanding, of real accountability, of reciprocal care. When these expectations are violated—when the "caring" assistant gives a generic response that clearly does not reflect understanding of the consumer's situation, or when the "attentive" agent fails to recall something it appeared to know—the trust damage can be disproportionate to the objective severity of the failure, because the violation is experienced as a form of deception rather than mere technical limitation (Hancock et al., 2011; Fogg, 2002).



International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
Website: www.ijrdet.com (ISSN 2347-6435 (Online) Volume 15, Issue 06, June 2026)

VII. MODERATING VARIABLES

Individual Disposition to Trust

Not everyone enters a new service relationship with the same baseline inclination to trust. Disposition to trust the stable individual tendency to believe that others, including organizational and technological others, can generally be relied upon has been consistently shown to moderate the relationship between trustworthiness signals and actual trusting beliefs (McKnight et al., 2002). High-trust-disposition individuals are more willing to extend initial confidence to an unfamiliar service based on limited evidence, and they tend to interpret ambiguous system behavior in charitable terms. Low-trust-disposition individuals require more and stronger signals before forming positive trusting beliefs, and they are quicker to interpret ambiguity as cause for concern.

This individual difference has practical consequences. Services that target consumer segments with systematically lower trust dispositions perhaps because those segments have historical reasons for wariness about institutional systems should not simply apply the same trust-building strategy and expect equivalent results. The investment required to achieve comparable levels of consumer confidence will be higher, and the signals that are most credible to high-disposition-trust consumers (brand reputation, marketing communications) may be less effective than more verifiable structural assurances (regulatory compliance, independent audits, transparent performance records).

Prior Experience With Digital Services

Experience with technology-mediated services shapes trust through at least two mechanisms. First, it builds familiarity consumers with more extensive prior experience tend to develop more accurate mental models of how digital services work, which allows them to calibrate their trust beliefs more precisely and to interpret system behavior with greater sophistication. Second, it generates a track record accumulated experiences of whether services have, in fact, been competent, fair, and appropriately oriented toward consumer interests. A consumer who has had uniformly positive prior experiences may extend trust to new services more readily; one who has had significant negative experiences may carry those into new relationships as heightened vigilance or generalized skepticism.

It should not be assumed that greater experience always produces higher trust. Research on algorithm aversion (Dietvorst et al., 2015) suggests that witnessing an automated system make errors can produce disproportionately severe trust reduction relative to equivalent errors by human service providers.

If prior experience includes salient failures, it may produce a more guarded consumer who demands stronger competence signals and more explicit accountability than a less experienced consumer would require.

Cultural Orientation

Culture shapes trust in ways that matter considerably for service design, particularly when services are deployed across national or regional contexts with meaningfully different cultural profiles. Hofstede's (1980) dimensional framework offers a useful initial vocabulary: consumers from high-uncertainty-avoidance cultures may place greater weight on formal institutional assurances and regulatory compliance as bases for trust; those from high-power-distance cultures may extend trust differentially depending on whether the service is associated with recognized authority; those from collectivist cultures may be more heavily influenced by social consensus and peer adoption in forming their trust assessments.

These patterns have direct implications for how trust-building strategies need to be adapted across markets. An approach to communicating system competence that works well in a low-uncertainty-avoidance market informal, example-based, relying on consumer experience as the test of quality may be insufficient in a high-uncertainty-avoidance context where formal certifications and regulatory backing carry much more weight. Similarly, privacy communication that resonates with the individualist consumer's sense of personal control may not address the collectivist consumer's concern about community-level data implications. Cross-national validation of trust frameworks, and cross-culturally sensitive service design, are important directions for future work in this area.

Service Domain and Stakes

The domain in which a service operates, and the associated consequences of service failure, substantially moderate both how consumers evaluate trust antecedents and how strongly their trust beliefs translate into behavior. In low-stakes hedonic contexts entertainment recommendations, social media curation, aesthetic personalization perceived competence and enjoyable interaction quality may be sufficient to sustain engagement, and consumers may be relatively tolerant of errors. In high-stakes utilitarian contexts financial advice, medical information, legal guidance, employability assessment the threshold for trusting beliefs is higher, the weight of institutional assurance and transparent accountability is greater, and the consequences of trust violations are more severe and more lasting.



International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
Website: www.ijrdet.com (ISSN 2347-6435 (Online) Volume 15, Issue 06, June 2026)

One particularly important stake-related phenomenon is what might be called trust contagion across domains: a significant failure in a high-stakes service context can erode consumer confidence not only in the specific service but in technology-mediated services in the same domain more broadly, and sometimes in technology-mediated services in general. The domain-specificity of trust damage, and the conditions under which it spills across domain boundaries, is an important and underexplored question.

VIII. BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES OF CONSUMER TRUST

Adoption Intention

The relationship between trust and adoption intention has been extensively documented, particularly in the e-commerce and online service literatures (Gefen et al., 2003; Pavlou, 2003). Trust reduces perceived risk, elevates perceived utility, and lowers the psychological cost of engaging with an unfamiliar service system. The present framework adds a nuance to this well-established relationship: the magnitude of the trust-to-adoption effect is not constant across service contexts, but is proportional to the perceived stakes of the service. In low-stakes contexts, the adoption decision is largely driven by utilitarian assessments of value and ease; trust becomes a dominant driver primarily where the potential costs of misplaced confidence are substantial. This domain-conditioned effect of trust on adoption has implications for how organizations should allocate their trust-building investments: resources spent demonstrating trustworthiness in low-stakes contexts may yield smaller adoption gains than equivalent investments in high-stakes ones.

Continued Engagement and Loyalty

There is an important and often underappreciated distinction between the trust that motivates initial adoption and the trust that sustains continued engagement. The two may draw on related but distinct antecedents. Initial trust is often formed under conditions of uncertainty and information scarcity: consumers rely heavily on institutional assurances, brand reputation, and the surface features of the service interface. Maintenance trust develops through accumulated experience, and it is tested by the moments when service systems behave unexpectedly, err, or fail to meet the expectations they have generated. Research suggests that perceived transparency and the handling of errors become more important determinants of continued engagement over time, as consumers develop the experiential base to form more nuanced assessments of system behavior (Lee & See, 2004).

For service organizations, this distinction suggests that the investment in trust needs to be ongoing rather than front-loaded. Building initial confidence through credible signals of competence and institutional assurance is necessary but not sufficient; maintaining confidence requires consistent transparency about system behavior and limitations, and responsive handling of the service failures that will, inevitably, occur.

Willingness to Share Personal Data

A behavioral outcome that is distinctive to data-dependent technology-mediated services is the consumer's willingness to share personal information with the service system. This is consequential because the quality of personalized services generally improves with data availability, creating a direct connection between consumer data-sharing behavior and service performance. Consumers who trust the service are more likely to share data; better data supports better personalization; better personalization reinforces competence and benevolence perceptions; and strengthened trust perceptions further increase data-sharing willingness. This positive feedback loop means that trust is not merely an outcome of service quality but a direct input to it, and that eroding trust through data misuse or privacy incidents does not simply affect consumer sentiment—it degrades the data supply on which service quality depends.

Advocacy and Social Influence

Consumers who develop strong and positive trusting relationships with technology-mediated services do not simply continue using them; they talk about them. Word-of-mouth advocacy—recommending a service to others, sharing positive experiences, defending the service against criticism—is among the most commercially valuable outcomes of consumer trust. In the framework proposed here, advocacy is most strongly predicted by benevolence-based trusting beliefs: consumers who feel that a service is genuinely oriented toward their interests, that it treats them fairly, and that it handles their data with respect are more likely to represent it positively to others than consumers who merely find it technically competent. This distinction matters for communication strategy: messages that emphasize technical performance may drive adoption but may not generate the relational warmth that motivates advocacy.

IX. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Theoretical Contributions

This framework makes several contributions to the theoretical conversation about trust and technology-mediated services.



International Journal of Recent Development in Engineering and Technology
Website: www.ijrdet.com (ISSN 2347-6435 (Online) Volume 15, Issue 06, June 2026)

The first is integrative: by connecting classical trust theory, technology acceptance research, and emerging scholarship on digital service design and governance, the framework provides a more complete account of how trust forms, develops, and produces behavioral consequences in technology-mediated service contexts than any single strand of this literature can offer on its own. The explicit treatment of institution-based trust alongside individual-level trusting beliefs addresses a gap in technology acceptance research, which has historically focused on individual psychology while treating organizational and regulatory context as background conditions rather than trust-relevant variables.

Second, the framework's distinction between formation trust and maintenance trust introduces a temporal dimension that is largely absent from the cross-sectional studies that dominate the technology acceptance literature. This distinction has testable implications: the relative weights of different antecedents should shift over the consumer relationship lifecycle, with institutional assurance and surface competence signals more important early, and transparency and error handling more important later. Longitudinal research designs are needed to test these propositions.

Third, the explicit treatment of moderating variables particularly cultural orientation calls for more contextually sensitive research approaches. Much of the trust and technology acceptance literature has been conducted with student or university-affiliated samples in Western contexts; the generalizability of its findings to other consumer populations and cultural contexts is an open and important question.

Practical Implications for Service Design

For organizations designing and deploying technology-mediated services, the framework generates several concrete implications. On competence signaling: rather than relying on aggregate performance claims that consumers may not be able to verify, organizations should invest in transparent, accessible performance metrics accuracy rates, error frequencies, comparison benchmarks that support genuine consumer assessment rather than requiring consumers to simply take competence on faith. Where service errors occur, the way they are handled acknowledged, explained, and addressed is as important for trust maintenance as the absolute error rate.

On transparency design: the framework supports investment in layered explanation interfaces that provide varying levels of detail about system behavior, calibrated to the needs and literacy levels of different consumer segments.

Such layering requires genuine investment in explanation quality not simply the generation of plausible-sounding accounts, but the development of explanations that accurately reflect system behavior and help consumers make better-informed decisions about whether and how to rely on the service.

On data stewardship: privacy commitments should be treated as a fundamental design constraint, not an afterthought addressed in policy disclosures that consumers rarely read. Organizations that embed meaningful data minimization, transparent consent mechanisms, and genuine accountability for data practices into their service architecture rather than simply satisfying regulatory minimums will build a more resilient form of consumer trust than those that treat privacy compliance as a box-ticking exercise.

Policy Implications

The framework highlights the systemic importance of regulatory and institutional environments in enabling consumer trust at scale. Individual organizations can invest in trust-building practices, but the structural conditions that make those practices credible enforceable data protection standards, mandatory transparency disclosures for high-stakes automated decisions, independent audit mechanisms require public intervention. The risk-based architecture of the European Union's AI Act, which imposes stricter obligations on automated systems used in high-stakes contexts, reflects an approach broadly consistent with the framework's proposition that institutional assurances are most critical where consumer vulnerability is greatest. Whether or not this specific regulatory model proves to be the right one, the underlying principle that the institutional environment should be calibrated to the stakes of the service domain has general validity.

X. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Several limitations of the present paper should be honestly acknowledged. Most fundamentally, the framework is conceptual rather than empirical: its propositions are theoretically grounded and logically coherent, but they have not been tested against consumer data. The framework is offered as a foundation for empirical research, not as a substitute for it.

The literature on which the framework draws is predominantly Western, and many of the empirical studies on which its propositions rest were conducted with convenience samples students or digitally active adults in North America and Western Europe that are not representative of the global consumer population.

The cross-cultural moderating variables identified in the framework have themselves been underresearched in digital service trust contexts; their effects should not simply be inferred from Hofstede's dimensional framework but should be investigated directly in specific service contexts and consumer populations.

The framework also treats trust as a relatively stable psychological state at any given moment, whereas emerging research suggests that consumer trust in technology-mediated services may be more dynamic and volatile than this representation implies subject to rapid revision in response to salient incidents, media coverage, or shifts in the broader social discourse about digital service governance. Capturing these dynamics requires methodological approaches longitudinal surveys, experience sampling, event study designs that are rarely used in the technology acceptance literature.

The social embedding of trust deserves more attention than the framework gives it. Consumers do not form trust beliefs in isolation; they are embedded in social networks whose members share information about service experiences, in media environments that shape collective narratives about the trustworthiness of digital service providers, and in institutional contexts that confer or withdraw legitimacy from particular service practices. A fully adequate account of technology-mediated service trust will need to incorporate these social dynamics, which the present framework treats as background rather than as structural variables.

Finally, the framework focuses on service contexts in which consumers are directly aware of their interaction with a technology-mediated system. There are important service contexts — fraud detection, content moderation, logistics optimization in which automated systems affect consumer outcomes without the consumer's direct awareness. The trust dynamics of these "background" systems, and the question of what trust even means in such contexts, represent a theoretically interesting frontier that the present framework does not address.

XI. CONCLUSION

Trust is not a problem to be solved but a relationship to be built and rebuilt, through each interaction that confirms or challenges the expectations on which confidence rests. In technology-mediated service contexts, building that relationship is genuinely difficult: the systems consumers interact with are often opaque, their accountability structures are diffuse, and the data practices that underpin their operation are frequently misunderstood or not understood at all. Yet the difficulty of the task does not diminish its importance.

Services that fail to generate genuine consumer trust will struggle to realize their value, no matter how technically sophisticated they are, because consumers who do not trust a service will not engage with it fully, will not share the data it needs to serve them well, and will not recommend it to others.

The framework proposed in this paper is an attempt to give that task a clearer conceptual shape to identify the dimensions of trustworthiness that matter in technology-mediated service contexts, the individual and cultural factors that moderate how those dimensions are assessed, and the behavioral pathways through which trust manifests in service engagement. It is a beginning, not an end: the propositions it generates need empirical testing across diverse contexts and consumer populations, and the framework itself will need refinement as the landscape of technology-mediated services continues to evolve.

What seems unlikely to change is the fundamental importance of the question. As long as services are delivered through systems whose workings consumers cannot fully observe or control, the conditions under which those consumers can reasonably extend their confidence will remain a matter of both scholarly and practical urgency. The hope expressed in this paper is that a more rigorous conceptual foundation will help researchers, designers, and policymakers build services that earn the trust they seek.

REFERENCES

- [1] Arieta, A. B., Díaz-Rodríguez, N., Del Ser, J., Bennetot, A., Tabik, S., Barbado, A., García, S., Gil-López, S., Molina, D., Benjamins, R., Chatila, R., & Herrera, F. (2020). Explainable artificial intelligence (XAI): Concepts, taxonomies, opportunities and challenges toward responsible AI. *Information Fusion*, 58, 82–115. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inffus.2019.12.012>
- [2] Awad, N. F., & Krishnan, M. S. (2006). The personalization privacy paradox: An empirical evaluation of information transparency and the willingness to be profiled online for personalization. *MIS Quarterly*, 30(1), 13–28. <https://doi.org/10.2307/25148715>
- [3] Bhattacharjee, A., & Sanford, C. (2006). Influence processes for information technology acceptance: An elaboration likelihood model. *MIS Quarterly*, 30(4), 805–825. <https://doi.org/10.2307/25148755>
- [4] Binns, R., Van Kleek, M., Veale, M., Lyngs, U., Zhao, J., & Shadbolt, N. (2018). "It's reducing a human being to a percentage": Perceptions of justice in algorithmic decisions. *Proceedings of the ACM CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3173574.3173951>
- [5] Davenport, T., Guha, A., Grewal, D., & Bressgott, T. (2020). How artificial intelligence will change the future of marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 48(1), 24–42. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-019-00696-0>
- [6] Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology. *MIS Quarterly*, 13(3), 319–340. <https://doi.org/10.2307/249008>

- [7] Dietvorst, B. J., Logg, J. M., & Logg, J. (2015). Algorithm aversion: People erroneously avoid algorithms after seeing them err. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 144(1), 114–126. <https://doi.org/10.1037/xge0000033>
- [8] Dinev, T., & Hart, P. (2006). An extended privacy calculus model for e-commerce transactions. *Information Systems Research*, 17(1), 61–80. <https://doi.org/10.1287/isre.1060.0080>
- [9] European Commission. (2019). Ethics guidelines for trustworthy AI. High-Level Expert Group on Artificial Intelligence. <https://digital-strategy.ec.europa.eu/en/library/ethics-guidelines-trustworthy-ai>
- [10] European Commission. (2021). Proposal for a regulation laying down harmonised rules on artificial intelligence (Artificial Intelligence Act). COM/2021/206 final. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52021PC0206>
- [11] Floridi, L., Cows, J., Beltrametti, M., Chatila, R., Chazerand, P., Dignum, V., Luetge, C., Madelin, R., Pagallo, U., Rossi, F., Schaefer, B., Valcke, P., & Vayena, E. (2018). An ethical framework for a good AI society: Opportunities, risks, principles, and recommendations. *Minds and Machines*, 28(4), 689–707. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11023-018-9482-5>
- [12] Fogg, B. J. (2002). Persuasive technology: Using computers to change what we think and do. Morgan Kaufmann.
- [13] Gefen, D., Karahanna, E., & Straub, D. W. (2003). Trust and TAM in online shopping: An integrated model. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(1), 51–90. <https://doi.org/10.2307/30036519>
- [14] Glikson, E., & Woolley, A. W. (2020). Human trust in artificial intelligence: Review of empirical research. *Academy of Management Annals*, 14(2), 627–660. <https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2018.0057>
- [15] Gunning, D., & Aha, D. (2019). DARPA's explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) program. *AI Magazine*, 40(2), 44–58. <https://doi.org/10.1609/aimag.v40i2.2850>
- [16] Hancock, P. A., Billings, D. R., Schaefer, K. E., Chen, J. Y. C., de Visser, E. J., & Parasuraman, R. (2011). A meta-analysis of factors affecting trust in human-robot interaction. *Human Factors*, 53(5), 517–527. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018720811417254>
- [17] Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Sage.
- [18] Lee, J. D., & See, K. A. (2004). Trust in automation: Designing for appropriate reliance. *Human Factors*, 46(1), 50–80. https://doi.org/10.1518/hfes.46.1.50_30392
- [19] Luhmann, N. (1979). *Trust and power*. Wiley.
- [20] Malhotra, N. K., Kim, S. S., & Agarwal, J. (2004). Internet users' information privacy concerns (IUIPC): The construct, the scale, and a causal model. *Information Systems Research*, 15(4), 336–355. <https://doi.org/10.1287/isre.1040.0032>
- [21] Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(3), 709–734. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1995.9508080335>
- [22] McKnight, D. H., & Chervany, N. L. (2001). What trust means in e-commerce customer relationships: An interdisciplinary conceptual typology. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, 6(2), 35–59. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10864415.2001.11044235>
- [23] McKnight, D. H., Choudhury, V., & Kacmar, C. (2002). The impact of initial consumer trust on intentions to transact with a web site: A trust building model. *Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, 11(3–4), 297–323. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0963-8687\(02\)00020-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0963-8687(02)00020-3)
- [24] Mori, M., MacDorman, K. F., & Kageki, N. (2012). The uncanny valley. *IEEE Robotics & Automation Magazine*, 19(2), 98–100. <https://doi.org/10.1109/MRA.2012.2192811>
- [25] Parasuraman, R., & Manzey, D. H. (2010). Complacency and bias in human use of automation: An attentional integration. *Human Factors*, 52(3), 381–410. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018720810376055>
- [26] Parasuraman, R., & Riley, V. (1997). Humans and automation: Use, misuse, disuse, abuse. *Human Factors*, 39(2), 230–253. <https://doi.org/10.1518/001872097778543886>
- [27] Pavlou, P. A. (2003). Consumer acceptance of electronic commerce: Integrating trust and risk with the technology acceptance model. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, 7(3), 101–134. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10864415.2003.11044275>
- [28] Shrestha, Y. R., Ben-Menahem, S. M., & von Krogh, G. (2019). Organizational decision-making structures in the age of artificial intelligence. *California Management Review*, 61(4), 66–83. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0008125619862257>
- [29] Tintarev, N., & Masthoff, J. (2011). Designing and evaluating explanations for recommender systems. In F. Ricci, L. Rokach, B. Shapira, & P. B. Kantor (Eds.), *Recommender systems handbook* (pp. 479–510). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-85820-3_15
- [30] Venkatesh, V., & Davis, F. D. (2000). A theoretical extension of the technology acceptance model: Four longitudinal field studies. *Management Science*, 46(2), 186–204. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.46.2.186.11926>
- [31] Venkatesh, V., Morris, M. G., Davis, G. B., & Davis, F. D. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, 27(3), 425–478. <https://doi.org/10.2307/30036540>
- [32] Westin, A. F. (1967). *Privacy and freedom*. Atheneum.
- [33] Wieringa, M. (2020). What to account for when accounting for algorithms: A systematic literature review on algorithmic accountability. *Proceedings of the ACM Conference on Fairness, Accountability, and Transparency (FAccT '20)*, 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3351095.3372833>
- [34] Zuboff, S. (2019). The age of surveillance capitalism: The fight for a human future at the new frontier of power. *Public Affairs*.