

How to Recommend? User Trust Factors in Movie Recommender Systems

Shlomo Berkovsky, Ronnie Taib, Dan Conway

Data61, CSIRO, Australia

firstname.lastname@csiro.au

ABSTRACT

How much trust a user places in a recommender is crucial to the uptake of the recommendations. Although prior work established various factors that build and sustain user trust, their comparative impact has not been studied in depth. This paper presents the results of a crowdsourced study examining the impact of various recommendation interfaces and content selection strategies on user trust. It evaluates the subjective ranking of nine key factors of trust grouped into three dimensions and examines the differences observed with respect to users' personality traits.

Author Keywords

Recommender systems, user-system trust, presentation of recommendations, user study.

INTRODUCTION

The success of recommender systems, especially commercial ones, depends to a large extent on the user's uptake of the recommendations. There are several factors that can influence this uptake, e.g., the accuracy of the recommendations, their freshness, or their potential value for the user [10]. Although these variable have been studied extensively, factors related to *user-system trust* (will be referred hereafter as *trust*) have received less attention.

We argue that the degree of trust users put in the system plays an important role in the decision making process preceding the uptake of the recommendations [13]. Trust has been shown influential in the broad context of automation and interactions with decision support systems [16, 17, 11] and it has also been considered in the context of recommender systems [41]. For instance, it was found that accuracy and diversification of recommendations positively affect trust, which led to increased customer purchases [22]. Other works established that explanations [12], confidence displays [31], and system transparency [5] also contribute to user trust in recommender systems.

It is important to note that user-system trust consists of three layers [11]. Dispositional trust reflects the user's tendency to trust systems and encompasses cultural and demographic factors. Situational trust refers to more specific factors, like the performed task, system complexity, and user's workload. Lastly, learned trust encapsulates the experiential aspects, which develop as the user interacts with the system and forms the perception of its performance. Focussing on the learned trust in the context of recommendation agents, Benbasat and Wang extended models of human-human trust and identified five constructs of user-system trust: competence, integrity, benevolence, transparency, and intention to re-use [1].

In this work, we set out to investigate the dependencies between various aspects of recommendation interfaces and user-system trust. Note that our work does not deal with the recommendation algorithms selecting the items, but rather with the ways these items are recommended. That is, we assume an existing recommendation list and we study the trustworthiness of its presentation. Hence, the insights provided here are independent of the application domain and recommendation task, and they apply to recommendations of items that can be characterised by domain features, such as 'rating', 'popularity', 'category', or 'brand'.

We synthesise prior work on factors of trust in recommender systems [34, 41] and consider three broad dimensions of recommendations that potentially can affect trust: *presentation* - how the recommendation list is presented to users; *explanation* - what text accompanies the recommended items; and *priority* - what properties of the recommended items are deemed important by the system. We identify nine distinct, although partially interconnected, factors of trust and map them onto these three dimensions.

We report the results of a crowdsourced user study that compares the trust instilled by several variations of a movie recommender within each of the three dimensions. During the study, we present these variations to users and ask them to select their preferred one with respect to the constructs of trust. Then, we explain the mechanics of these variations to users and asked to justify their preferences. We analyse the results obtained in the user study and summarise the collected justifications, in order to identify the dominant factors impacting trust. We also present a thorough analysis of the differences

© 2017 Association for Computing Machinery. ACM acknowledges that this contribution was authored or co-authored by an employee, contractor or affiliate of a national government. As such, the Government retains a nonexclusive, royalty-free right to publish or reproduce this article, or to allow others to do so, for Government purposes only.

IUI 2017, March 13–16, 2017, Limassol, Cyprus.

© 2017 ACM ISBN 978-1-4503-4348-0/17/03 ...\$15.00.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/3025171.3025209>

observed across the users, specifically focussing on the Big Five personality traits [35].

In summary, our work surfaces several practical insights related to factors of trust in recommender systems. The contributions of this paper are two-fold. First, we identify the features of recommendations and their presentation that are trusted by users. Second, we uncover substantial user differences and link these to personality traits. We believe that our findings could be incorporated in practical recommender systems, in order to strengthen user-system trust and, in turn, increase the uptake of the recommendations.

RELATED WORK

The overview of related research is split into three parts. Initially, we briefly survey work on human-machine trust in general. Then, we turn to the more closely related work on user trust in recommender systems. Finally, we provide a very short overview of personality research.

Human-Machine Trust

The research in human-machine trust has a long history, ranging from Rouse's ideas of adaptive aiding [25] to later studies of trust in human-computer interaction. Various definitions of trust were proposed, but one of the most accepted ones, "*the attitude that an agent will help achieve an individual's goals in a situation characterised by uncertainty and vulnerability*", was coined by Lee and See [17]. This definition encapsulates the primary sources of variance – the user, the system, and the context –, and identifies uncertainty and vulnerability as the pre-conditions for trust. Trust can be inferred from both self-reported and behavioural measures and, importantly, is dynamic, with acquisition and extinction curves, subject to the user's experience of system performance [42, 43].

The interplay between system performance and trust has been studied in many prior works. Moray et al. investigated adaptive automation and found that the reliability of automated fault diagnosis and fault dynamics strongly affect subjective trust in the system and operator's confidence [19]. Schaefer and Scribner reviewed the changing dynamics of the human-vehicle trust and found significant relationships between system performance and trust, and stress level and trust [28]. Johnson et al. examined how automation errors affect user trust in actual and perceived reliability of automated decision aids. They found that the perceived system reliability is often lower than the actual one and that false alarms reduce user trust in the automation [14]. Sauer et al. investigated the effects of automation failures on trust and showed that automation bias (user tendency to follow the automated advice) and trust were high in stable reliability conditions, but dropped when users observed system failures [27].

Hoff and Bashir proposed three layers of variability in human-machine trust: dispositional trust, situational trust, and learned trust [11]. The first reflects the user's

natural tendency to trust machines due to, e.g., cultural, demographic, and personal factors, while the second refers to system- and task-specific factors, such as the the complexity and type of machine, the user's workload, perceived risks and benefits, and even user's mood. Finally, the learned trust encapsulates experiential aspects directly related to the system itself. This layer is further decomposed into initial learned trust, which consists of any knowledge of the system acquired before interaction, e.g., reputation or brand, and dynamic learned trust that develops as the user interacts with the system and experiences its characteristics related to accuracy, reliability, predictability and usefulness.

As suggested by these works, individuals exhibit differences in trust responses. Scott established that human-human trust was a character trait and developed an instrument detecting variations in propensity to trust [30], which are in essence, equivalent to Hoff and Bashir's dispositional layers, but in the human-machine realm. Studying these variations, Lee and Moray discovered differences between users in terms of their reliance on automation [16]. They found that automation is relied upon if user's trust in the machine exceeded their own confidence and manual control is taken in the opposite case. However, as both Lee and See [17] and Hoff and Bashir [11] claimed, individual differences are likely to be overcome by the experiential effects when the machine exhibits a steady behaviour.

Trust in Recommender Systems

Recommender systems offer a different type of automation and these differences, as well as their implications on trust, should be articulated. Firstly, the user's vulnerability in this case is inherently low, as recommenders are hardly used for critical decision making, e.g., in medicine, dangerous industrial processes or financial investments. Secondly, the level of user's background knowledge and domain expertise is often high. For example, when presented with a list of recommended movies to watch or products to purchase, the user is likely to be familiar with some of the movies or have already purchased similar items produced by other manufacturers. Thus, system errors and inconsistent behaviour are more evident. Thirdly, the success of the whole system depends to a larger extent on the uptake of the recommendations, such that the recommender takes a more pivotal role than just a decision support aid [24, 26].

For these reasons, there is a need to better understand the factors contributing to the formation and sustainability of user trust in recommender systems¹. This line of research can be traced back to the work of Xiao and Benbasat, who proposed a conceptual model for trust formation in user interaction with eCommerce recommendation agents [40]. Here, it was shown that the processes contributing to the formation of cognitive and

¹We focus on user-system trust and disregard the whole body of algorithmic work on user-to-user trust for recommendations. We refer an interested reader to [21] and [36].

emotional trust occur primarily at the initial interactions and drop significantly at subsequent interactions, when the trust perception stabilises. Trust was found to be an important factor, influencing both the perceived usability of the recommender [5] and the uptake/adoption of the recommendations [22]. However, which characteristics of the recommender can influence user trust?

Many characteristics have been studied individually and we will taxonomise these into several dimensions. The first refers to the *recommendations* themselves, i.e., the items included in the recommendation list. Panniello et al. studied the impact of context on trust and customer purchases in an eCommerce environment [22]. Amongst others, they investigated the impact of increasing the accuracy and diversity of the recommendation list and found that both have a positive effect on trust, which indirectly also increases the volume of customer purchases. Another factor of recommendations that can instil user trust in the system is familiarity. Although it was validated that familiar recommendations strengthen user trust in a recommender [33], further investigation of Komiak and Benbasat established that the familiarity with the recommendations affects the perceived benevolence and integrity of the system, but does not change the perceived competence [15].

Turning to the recommendation's *presentation* facet, we look beyond the general appeal of the interface design [33], but rather focus on the way the information is presented to the users. Pu and Chen conducted a user study, which found that organisation-based recommendation interfaces effectively build trust, increase user intention to re-use the system, and reduce the cognitive effort required for the decision making [23]. The study of Shani et al. focussed on the impact of confidence displays, such as thumbs-up icons or star ratings, on user trust [31]. It was found that confidence displays are perceived helpful, sustain user trust, and help users identify relevant recommendations. Finally, the inclusion of a humanoid agent in the system interface was found to increase system credibility and instil user trust [38].

Recommendations are often accompanied by persuasive text, aiming to increase the recommendation uptake, which we refer to as the *explanation* [34]. The simplest form of explanation is, perhaps, the mere product information, which has been found to positively affect user trust and perceived usefulness of the recommendations [32]. More complex type of explanation, highlighting the benefits of the recommended items and their fit to the customer's needs, has not only been found to increase the trust of users, but to also boost their perceived domain knowledge [7]. Lastly, the factor that reflects the reasons for a recommendation from a system (or algorithmic) perspective, can be considered as system transparency. The studies of Cramer et al. [5] and Tintarev and Masthoff [34] found that transparency is also an important contributor to user-recommender trust.

In summary, a number of prior works touched upon various potential factors of trust. While their individual contributions to trust have been established, to the best of our knowledge, there is no existing work comparing their impact. That is, designers of practical recommender systems do not have evidence supporting which factors lead to the highest user trust levels. Thus, in this work we set out to analyse the perceived value of these factors and understand the reasons for the preference towards certain factors.

Personality Traits

As part of this analysis, we establish user differences with respect to their personality traits. Thus, we include a brief overview of research on human personality. Psychological research has long attempted to grapple with the concept of stable long-term mental characteristics, which shape human behaviour, and can be measured and compared between people. These ideas can be traced back to the Greek philosophers and have been validated more recently in numerous works [18]. Human personality manifests in various ways, including in the way people interact with automated systems in general [6, 37], with recommender systems more specifically [39, 35], and with each other through social media [29].

Many different personality models have been proposed, with the current literature being dominated by the Big Five model converged on by Costa and McCrae [4], and backed by an extensive volume of empirical results ever since. This model, derived from large scale factor analysis, posits five underlying dimensions of personality: *openness*, *conscientiousness*, *extraversion*, *agreeableness*, and *neuroticism* (sometimes addressed through the inverse construct of stability). Each construct of the model is treated as a continuum, on which people score from low to high, and various instruments have been devised in order to derive standardised and normally distributed measurements across participants [8].

While some of the most commonly used personality inventory tools are quite long and can include up to hundreds of questions, Gosling et al have developed a briefer instrument, consisting of only 10 questions – two questions per each of the Big Five traits – named the Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) [9]. TIPI demonstrates high test-retest reliability and more than adequate correlations with the longer and more widely deployed tools.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODOLOGY

In this section we present the dimensions and factors of trust considered in this work, and then briefly outline the design and participants of the user study that was conducted.

Dimensions and Factors

As explained earlier, various factors related to the recommendation lists and their presentation were found to influence the level of trust the users put in a recommender

Presentation	Debrief
Genre	This recommender groups movies by genre
Human	This recommender is based on a human preference
Star	This recommender favours movies popular in IMDb
Explanation	Debrief
Persuasive	This recommender focuses on awards and accolades received by the movies
Personalised	This recommender tries to match the movies you said you liked
IMDb	This recommender favours high ranking movies in IMDb
Priority	Debrief
Quality	This recommender focuses on movies with high IMDb scores
Diversity	This recommender favours a diversity of genres
Familiarity	This recommender favours relatively recent movies

Table 1. Dimensions, factors, and debrief texts.

A	B	C
<p>Drama</p> <p>Schindler's List (1993)</p> <p>The Godfather (1972)</p> <p>Titanic (1997)</p> <p>Comedy</p> <p>Groundhog Day (1993)</p>	<p>My picks of the week:</p> <p>Groundhog Day (1993)</p> <p>Inception (2010)</p> <p>Schindler's List (1993)</p>	<p>Groundhog Day (1993)</p> <p>★★★★★</p> <p>Inception (2010)</p> <p>★★★★★</p> <p>Schindler's List (1993)</p> <p>★★★★★</p> <p>Se7en (1995)</p> <p>★★★★★</p> <p>Shrek (2001)</p> <p>★★★★★</p>

Figure 1. *Presentation* dimension: genre (A), human (B), star (C).

system. We examined these factors and grouped them into three dimensions, namely, *presentation*, *explanation*, and *priority*, each including three different instantiations that we refer to as factors. The considered dimensions and factors are described in Table 1.

The *presentation* dimension considers three ways to present the recommendations. These are: item grouping according to a certain domain feature (here, grouping according to the genre of the movies), use of a humanoid agent that presents the recommendations (here, just an image of a person along with a first-person text), and numeric scores communicating the quality of the recommended items (here, aggregated star rating of the movie). The *explanation* dimension refers to the text that accompanies the recommended items. The variations of this dimension include persuasive explanations that highlight the advantages of the items (here, awards,

A	B	C
<p>Avatar (2008)</p> <p>Highest grossing movie of all times with more than \$2.7 Billion world wide gross</p> <p>One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest (1975)</p> <p>Starring Jack Nicholson - the most nominated male actor in the Academy's history</p> <p>Seven Samurai (1954)</p> <p>Most acclaimed non-English movie filmed in 1954 with a 100% rating on Rotten Tomatoes</p>	<p>Avatar (2008)</p> <p>Because you liked The Prestige (2006)</p> <p>One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest (1975)</p> <p>Because you liked Goodfellas (1990)</p> <p>Seven Samurai (1954)</p> <p>Because you liked How to Train Your Dragon (2010)</p> <p>The Lord of the Rings: The Return of the King (2003)</p> <p>Because you liked The Lion King (1994)</p>	<p>Avatar (2008)</p> <p>Average rating: 7.9 Number of votes: 870K</p> <p>One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest (1975)</p> <p>Average rating: 8.7 Number of votes: 665K</p> <p>Seven Samurai (1954)</p> <p>Average rating: 8.7 Number of votes: 225K</p> <p>The Lord of the Rings: The Return of the King (2003)</p> <p>Average rating: 8.8 Number of votes: 1.2M</p>

Figure 2. *Explanation* dimension: persuasive (A), personalised (B), IMDb (C).

A	B	C
<p>12 Angry Men (1957)</p> <p>Crime, Drama IMDB Rating: 8.9</p> <p>Forrest Gump (1994)</p> <p>Drama, Romance IMDB Rating: 8.8</p> <p>Pulp Fiction (1994)</p> <p>Crime, Drama IMDB Rating: 8.9</p> <p>Schindler's List (1993)</p> <p>Biography, Drama, History IMDB Rating: 8.9</p>	<p>Black Cat, White Cat (1998)</p> <p>Comedy, Crime, Romance IMDB Rating: 8.1</p> <p>In the Name of the Father (1993)</p> <p>Biography, Drama, History IMDB Rating: 8.1</p> <p>Kill Bill: Vol. 1 (2003)</p> <p>Action IMDB Rating: 8.1</p> <p>Les Diaboliques</p>	<p>12 Years a Slave (2013)</p> <p>Biography, Drama, History IMDB Rating: 8.1</p> <p>Guardians of the Galaxy (2014)</p> <p>Action, Adventure, Sci-Fi IMDB Rating: 8.1</p> <p>Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows (2011)</p> <p>Adventure, Drama, Fantasy IMDB Rating: 8.1</p>

Figure 3. *Priority* dimension: quality(A), diversity (B), familiarity (C).

star actors, or box office figures), personalised explanations that list the reasons for recommending the items (here, list of similar movies in the same genre liked by the user), and factual explanation (here, average score and number of votes on IMDb). Lastly, the *priority* dimension deals with the properties of the recommendation list that the system deems important. These are quality (here, top-scoring IMDb movies), diversity (here, movies that cover as many genres as possible), and familiarity (here, recently released movies).

Study Design and Participants

We conducted a crowdsourced user study comparing these dimensions and factors. Each study session was divided into three phases. During the *profiling* phase, first, basic demographic data of the participants was collected, and then, we administered the TIPI inventory, in order to collect the participants' Big Five personality traits [35]. Finally, the participants selected a number of movies they already watched and liked, which were used to tailor the personalised explanations.

	rating	genres	year
List A	8.99	9	1989
List B	8.10	14	1989
List C	8.10	9	2013

Table 2. Characteristics of the lists in Figure 3: IMDb rating, number of genres, release year.

Construct	Simple phrasing
Competence	<i>I think the recommender most knowledgeable about movies is...</i>
Integrity	<i>The recommender that provides most honest and unbiased suggestions is...</i>
Benevolence	<i>The recommender that reflects my interests in the best way is...</i>
Transparency	<i>I understand the best the reasons for the suggestions provided by...</i>
Re-use	<i>For selecting my next movie to watch, I would like to use...</i>
Overall	<i>Out of these recommenders, the most trustworthy one is...</i>

Table 3. Constructs of trust and their phrasing.

During the *ranking* phase, the participants were shown a page with three lists of movies generated by three different recommenders denoted A, B, and C. Such a page covers a single dimension with its three factors embodied by the recommenders. Sample outputs for each dimension are shown in Figures 1-3. The participants went through nine such pages, i.e., three repeats for each dimension. Note that in the presentation and explanation dimensions the lists contained the same items and only the presentation or explanation of the items varied. However, in the priority dimension the lists were visualised in the same way but their content varied according to the system priority.

It should be highlighted that some factors listed in Table 1 may be interconnected, e.g., high-scoring IMDb movies may cover many genres, boosting quality and diversity at the same time. Since the recommendation lists used in the study were pre-compiled, we controlled for the differences between the factors. For example, Table 2 specifies the characteristics of the lists shown in Figure 3: average IMDb rating (for quality), number of genres covered by the list (for diversity), and average year of release (for familiarity). As can be seen, in any given list the value of one factor stands out and differs from the other lists, while two other factors are comparable.

In order to counter-balance potential rank-order effects or spurious input, the order of the dimensions and the order of the recommenders in each page were randomised. Hence, across the nine pages we essentially implemented a factorial design [3]. The same randomisation was used for all the participants to allow consistent between-user analysis. In each page, the participants were asked to select either A, B, or C, and indicate their preferred list with respect to each of the constructs of trust. Although

Total Participants = 102	
Gender	Female (43%), male (53%), not declared (4%)
Age	18 to 30 (40%), 31 to 40 (31%), 41 to 50 (21%), 51 to 60 (7%), over 60 (1%)
IT Literacy	very high (44%), high (46%), low (10%), very low (0%)

Table 4. Distribution of the study participants.

such selections do not communicate scores, selecting, for instance, A among three options {A,B,C} indicates that the participant ranks A higher than B and C alike. The constructs were phrased in a simple language (see the right column of Table 3) inspired by the operationalisation proposed by Benbasat and Wang [1], and these can be considered as independent sub-measures of trust.

During the *debrief* phase, three more pages were shown to the participants, one per each dimension. However, this time a short message explaining in simple terms the factor that had been used by the recommender was attached to each recommendation list. These messages are listed in the right column of Table 1. Considering this new knowledge, the participants were asked to select again their preferred recommender with respect the same constructs of trust and also to provide a free text justification for their selection.

This study² was implemented as a Web-based application and participants recruited via the CrowdFlower crowdsourcing platform. Crowdsourcing generally bolsters participation volumes, but increases the risk of collecting spurious data, whereby participants provide imprecise information [20]. Hence, payments were granted half on completion of the task and half as a bonus after we verified the collected data. In total, we retained the data of 102 participants. 20 more participants were rejected on the basis of too short session completion times (under 5 minutes, twice shorter than times observed in trials), consistent patterns of preferences (AAA.. or ABCABC..), conflicting preferences (AAA.. and then BBB.. for the same factor), or meaningless or repetitive debrief phase answers. In general, we observe an acceptable distribution of participants in terms of gender, age, and IT literacy (see Table 4).

RESULTS

In this section we report and analyse the results of the user study. We first present the findings of the ranking and debrief phases, followed by the user personality analyses.

Preference towards Factors of Trust

²Conducted under formal CSIRO low-risk ethics approval. An information sheet was shown to the participants, who could only proceed after providing their consent.

	Competence	Integrity	Benevolence	Transparency	Re-use	Overall
<i>Presentation</i>						
Genre	49.0%**	62.0%**	50.3%**	50.7%**	61.0%**	51.7%**
Human	22.3%	14.0%	20.0%	14.3%	11.0%	18.0%
Star	28.7%	24.0%	29.7%	25.0%	28.0%	30.3%
<i>Explanation</i>						
Persuasive	54.4%**	27.5%	31.5%	29.2%	30.5%	33.2%
Personalised	13.8%	41.3%**	22.8%	37.2%	35.9%	28.2%
IMDb	31.9%	31.2%	45.6%**	33.6%	33.6%	38.6%
<i>Priority</i>						
Quality	49.3%**	43.6%**	46.3%**	48.6%**	41.9%**	44.9%**
Diversity	17.6%	20.3%	20.3%	19.3%	20.6%	23.0%
Familiarity	33.1%	36.1%	33.4%	32.1%	37.5%	32.1%

Table 5. User preference towards trust factors. The dominant factor for each construct is in bold. Significance levels are as follows: $p < 0.05$ is marked by * and $p < 0.01$ – by **.

We start with the results of the ranking phase and combine individual user preferences in order to rank the factors of trust. Table 5 shows the relative portion of preferences towards each factor with respect to each of the constructs. We use the Binomial test for all dominant factor significance testing and denote the significance level of $p < 0.05$ with * and $p < 0.01$ with **.

Presentation

The *presentation* factors are clearly dominated by the genre grouping presentation. It achieves between 49.0% and 62.0% of user votes and its superiority over the human and star rating presentations is strongly significant. Note the dominance of the genre grouping with respect to the integrity and intention to re-use constructs, where it receives more than 60% of votes, highlighting that genre grouping is seen by the users as perceiving their interests and that they are inclined to see it deployed.

Explanation

Not all trust constructs converge for the *explanation* factors. 54.4% of users consider the persuasive explanation to be most competent (strongly significant), presumably because the facts it cites about movies make it appear knowledgeable. However, the personalised explanation is preferred with respect to the integrity (41.3%, strongly significant), transparency (not significant), and intention to re-use (not significant) constructs. For these, the users rightfully perceive the personalised explanation to better reflect their interests and best clarify the reasons for the recommendations. They also indicate that they would prefer to use this type of explanation in the future. Lastly, the IMDb explanation is preferred with respect to benevolence (45.6%, strongly significant) and overall trust (not significant), indicating that the score information from IMDb is considered the most honest and objective explanation. In summary, the type of explanation to be used in a recommender depends on the desired effect on the user. For example, persuasive explanation is suited to support the competence facet, while displaying IMDb scores will promote the honesty and objectivity facets.

Priority

In the *priority* factors, like in the presentation factors, we observe a clear dominance of a single factor. This time, quality-based prioritisation of the recommendation lists substantially outperforms the diversity and familiarity prioritisations. The former receives between 41.9% and 49.3% of user votes, and its dominance throughout all the constructs of trust is strongly significant. Again, this indicates that the IMDb scores are perceived by the users as the most trusted criterion for recommending movies.

Impact of the Debrief

Next, we compare the results obtained during the ranking phase with those of the debrief phase, where the mechanisms underpinning each factor in the recommendation list were clearly articulated. This analysis allows us to unveil possible hidden biases and investigate the impact of the debrief information.

Pairwise comparisons of the distributions of user selections for each factor with respect to each construct are shown in Figure 4. Each graph covers a dimension and each pair of columns covers a factor, where the left column corresponds to the votes collected during the ranking phase (all three repeats) and the right column – to those collected during the debrief phase. Being categorical data, we use the χ^2 test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction at $Q_e = 0.1$ to assess significance between the distributions [2], based on normalised vote counts, since the ranking and debrief phases have different sample sizes. Differences that are found to be statistically significant after the correction are denoted with *.

Presentation

We observe a consistent increase in preference towards the star-based *presentation* and this primarily comes at the detriment of the genre grouping. Considering the constructs individually, the debrief was found to cause a significant change in all the constructs. Aggregating all the constructs of trust into one number, we observe a drop of 6.8% in the preference towards the genre grouping and an increase of 4.6% in the star presentation. This is particularly pronounced in the overall perceived trust,

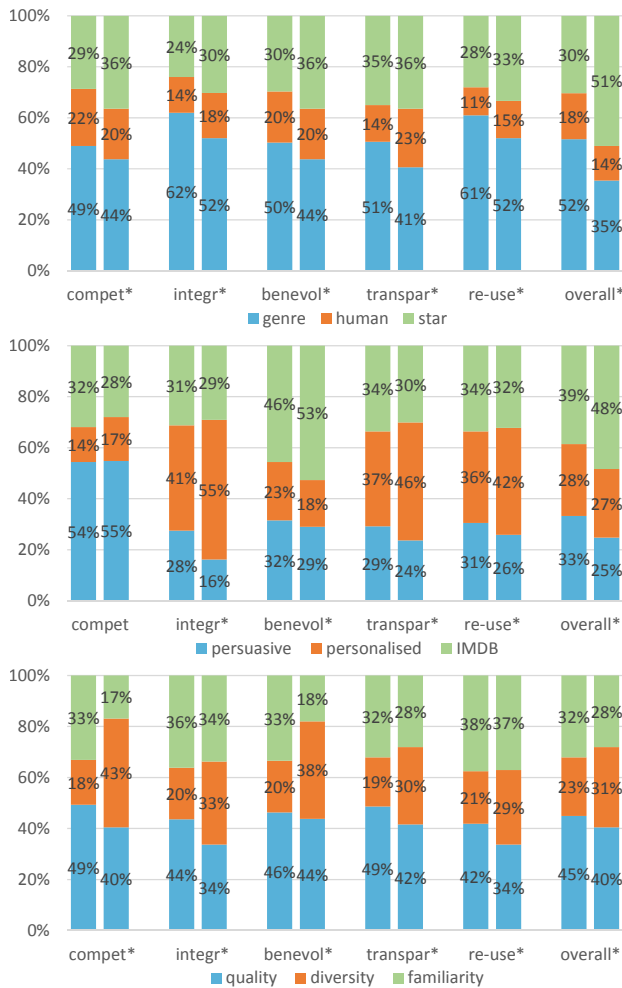


Figure 4. Ranking phase vs. debrief phase results (left and right of column pairs, respectively): presentation (top), explanation (middle), and priority (bottom). Significant differences are marked by *.

where the genre grouping dropped by 16.3% and star presentation increased by as much as 20.7%.

Despite this, after the debrief most users still consider the genre grouping to be the most trusted presentation with respect to most constructs, which can be explained by some of the qualitative input collected alongside their selection. User responses such as “*it’s easier to make a choice*” and “*not too much info overload*” supported the assertion that grouping by genre made selection cognitively less demanding [23]. Other responses focused on the lack of curatorial input in the genre grouping as a positive, leading to increased trust: “*the recommendations by genre are unbiased, which to me makes them also the most reliable*”.

However, for the overall trust construct itself, mentioning IMDb as the source of the ratings substantially boosted the stakes of the star-based presentation, making it the most preferred factor. Numerous qualitative justifications mentioned the crowd nature of the ratings

and expressed trust in the emergent score from many raters, e.g., “*it’s based on large numbers of votes and data*” and “*takes into account the opinions of many*”.

Explanation

The differences in *explanation* preferences were smaller than in the presentation dimension and we observed no change of dominant factors with respect to the constructs (bold factors in Table 5), although the distribution of answers did change. The main observation is the increase of personalised explanations (observed for all the constructs but benevolence and overall trust) and a decrease of persuasive explanation (all but competence). The change in all the constructs except for competence was found to be significant. The observed aggregated increase in preference towards the personalised explanation is 4.6% and this primarily comes at the detriment of the persuasive explanation, which dropped by 4.0%. However, the persuasive explanation retains the top competence rank, and qualitative input suggests that users perceive this factor as having more information than the others, e.g., “*this one provides the most information*” and “*this shows how the movie performed, the only one conveying actual knowledge about the movie*”.

The most substantial changes were observed in the integrity construct: the preference towards personalised explanations increased by 13.5%, while persuasive explanations dropped by 11.4%. This trend makes sense, as the debrief clarified that the personalised explanations had been tailored to the movies already watched and liked by the users, which is directly linked to the integrity construct of trust. Qualitative responses highlight the feelings of appreciation that the user was being accommodated by the system: “*this list is about me, because it considers what movies I like*” and “*this list is based on what I like specifically, so it best represents my interests by far*”.

Priority

The most pronounced change driven by the debrief was observed in the *priority* dimension. Here, the quality prioritisation was dominant for all the constructs in the ranking phase, but in the debrief phase it was dominant only with respect to benevolence, transparency, and overall trust. Changes were significant for all the constructs considered. Aggregating the constructs, we observe a consistent and significant increase of 12.5% in preference towards the diversity prioritisation, balanced by drops of 6.4% and 6.1% for the familiarity and quality prioritisations, respectively. The greatest changes in preference are observed for competence and benevolence, where the diversity prioritisation increased by as much as 25.1% and 17.9%, while familiarity dropped by 16.2% and 15.4%, respectively. Notably, diversity becomes the dominant prioritisation with respect to competence, while familiarity performs on par with quality in the integrity construct and even surpasses it in intention to re-use.

	Low-trait			High-trait		
	thr_l	users	\overline{score}	thr_h	users	\overline{score}
Extraversion	3.0	32	2.19	4.5	36	4.93
Agreeableness	2.5	36	2.03	4.0	33	4.30
Conscientious.	4.0	31	3.66	6.0	37	6.41
Neuroticism	2.5	38	2.33	4.0	35	5.11
Openness	4.0	30	3.68	6.0	30	6.30

Table 6. Characterisation of the low and high personality trait groups: low/high threshold, number of users, and mean trait score.

When reviewing these findings, we hypothesise that these changes can be attributed to the identical presentation of the three recommendation lists, the content of which solely reflects the prioritisation. This might not have been clear in the ranking phase, while the debrief actually attracted user attention to the subtle differences between the lists and triggered the changes in preferences. Qualitative input illustrates the reasons for the user choices during debrief. For example, a user explains their vote for familiarity through the integrity construct, “*popular recently released movies are always the first I watch*”. Likewise, the substantial increase in preference towards diversity in the competence construct is evidently illustrated by comments like “*different genres allow for a wider experience with films and culture, so this leads to most knowledge*” and “*they have a broader knowledge of films, rather than picking what is necessarily the most recent or highest rated*”.

Analyses of Personality Traits

We turn now to the analysis of how trust perception varies across different types of users. During the initial profiling phase, we collected data about the users’ personality traits through the TIPI inventory tool and calculated the scores of the Big-Five personality traits [9]. Following this, the users were split into *high* and *low* groups with respect to each of the five traits. The thresholds for the high and low scoring groups were adjusted for each trait, in order to balance the sample sizes for the analysis. Table 6 shows the low- and high-trait group thresholds (on a 7-Likert scale of TIPI), number of users in each group, and the mean score of the relevant trait for each group.

Figures 5-9 show pairwise comparisons of the ratios of user preferences for each dimension and factor, with respect to all trust constructs, during the ranking phase only. Each pair of columns presents the low-trait group on the left and the high-trait group on the right. In the following sub-sections we analyse the differences observed between the low- and high-scoring groups for each trait. The discussion primarily focuses on the aggregated trust scores calculated across all the constructs. Significance results are based again on the χ^2 test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction at $Q_e = 0.1$, conducted between the normalised vote counts received in the two groups considered. As earlier, statistically significant differences are marked by *.

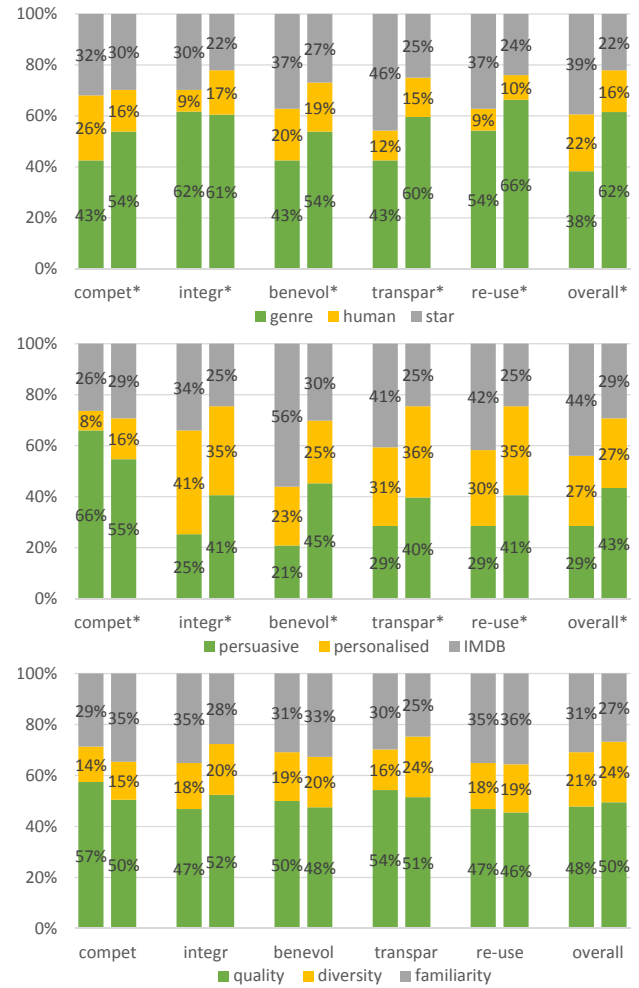


Figure 5. Low- vs high-extraversion users: presentation (top), explanation (middle), and priority (bottom). Significant differences are marked by *.

Extraversion

Looking at the top graph in Figure 5 referring to the *presentation* dimension, the main differences between the low- and high-extraversion users correspond to an aggregated 8.4% increase for the genre grouping and the corresponding 9.0% decrease for the star-rating presentation. These differences are found to be significant in all the constructs of trust. We posit that the increase of the genre grouping reflects the tendency of high-extraversion people to seek stimulation in a breadth of activities, which the genres indirectly reflect. Conversely, reliability is important for low-extraversion people, so they put more trust into the star-ranking presentation.

Turning to the middle graph about *explanation*, we observe an 8.6% increase in aggregated preference towards persuasive explanations, at the detriment of IMDB-based explanations, which drops by 11.0%. These differences are again significant across all the constructs of trust. We relate these changes to the enthusiastic and outgoing nature of high-extraversion people, which is fuelled by

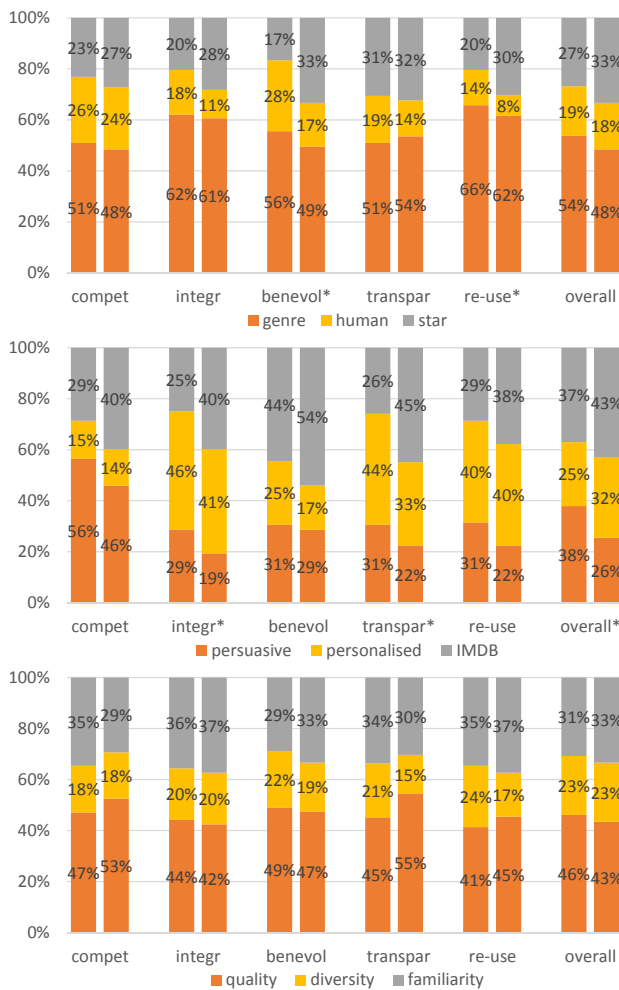


Figure 6. Low- vs high-agreeableness users: presentation (top), explanation (middle), and priority (bottom). Significant differences are marked by *.

the exciting tone of the persuasive explanations. Again, low-extraversion people trust more the reliability of the IMDb explanations based on thousands of votes. No statistically significant differences are observed in the *priority* dimension, as shown in the bottom graph.

Agreeableness

The differences between low- and high-agreeableness users are shown in Figure 6. In the *presentation* dimension, the main changes relate to a 6.7% increase for star-ranking and 4.8% drop for human presentations. These changes are found to be significant for benevolence and intention to re-use. This is in line with the characterisation of high-agreeableness people as cooperative, compliant, and trusting, so they would rely on the wisdom-of-the-crowds communicated through the star rating. However, note that little change is observed for the genre presentation, which remains dominant in both groups.

More substantial changes in preferences are observed in the *explanation* dimension. Here, we witness a 10.6% increase for the IMDb-based explanations, whereas both

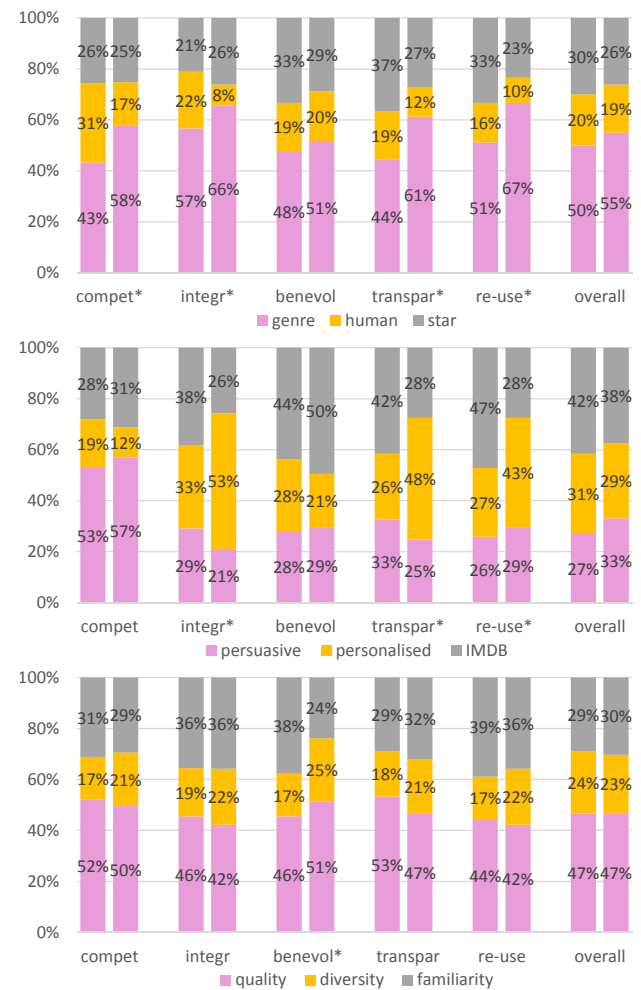


Figure 7. Low- vs high-conscientiousness users: presentation (top), explanation (middle), and priority (bottom). Significant differences are marked by *.

persuasive and personalised explanations drop by 6.5% and 4.1%, respectively. These changes are significant with respect to the integrity, transparency, and overall trust constructs. Similarly to the above star-ranking increase, the increase in IMDb explanation can be explained by the tendency of high-agreeableness people to get along with others, accept their opinion, and potentially compromise their own interest; hence, the drop in personalised explanations. Again, no significant differences are observed in the *priority* dimension.

Conscientiousness

Figure 7 shows the differences observed between the low- and high-conscientiousness users. The main difference in the *presentation* dimension relates to a 9.9% increase for the genre grouping, mostly on the account of a 6.7% drop in human presentation. The changes are significant with respect to competence, integrity, transparency, and intention to re-use. Our finding aligns with the organised and orderly nature of high-conscientiousness people, who appreciate the grouping of the movies according to

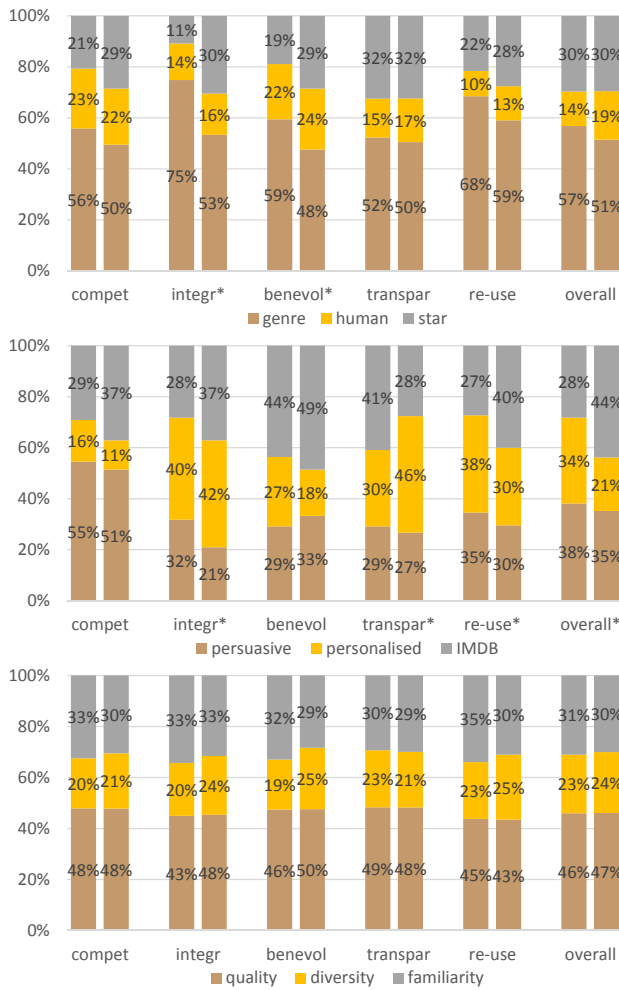


Figure 8. Low- vs high-neuroticism users: presentation (top), explanation (middle), and priority (bottom). Significant differences are marked by *.

their genres. On the other hand, the human presentation receives less trust, presumably due to the more impulsive nature of following such recommendations, which is uncommon for high-conscientiousness people.

Surprising results are obtained in the *explanation* dimension, where personalised explanations increase by 7.4%, while IMDb-based explanations drop by 6.2%. This trend is significant for integrity, transparency, and intention to re-use. We find this result somewhat counter-intuitive, as high-conscientiousness people would naturally be expected to trust the reliability of the IMDb explanations, which aggregate thousands of opinions. We hypothesise that personalised explanations, clearly linking the recommendations to past movies liked by the user, may instil more trust than the IMDb explanations.

Conscientiousness groups exhibit a significant difference in the *priority* dimension. We observe a 4.1% increase for the diversity prioritisation, with minor drops in quality- and familiarity-based prioritisations. These changes are significant for the benevolence construct, which may be



Figure 9. Low- vs high-openness users: presentation (top), explanation (middle), and priority (bottom). Significant differences are marked by *.

related to the more balanced coverage of genres offered by the diversity prioritisation. Despite this increase, diversity remains the least trusted factor in this dimension, which is dominated in both groups by the quality prioritisation.

Neuroticism

The comparisons of low- and high-neuroticism users are shown in Figure 8. In the *presentation* dimension, we observe a 7.2% increase in preference towards star ratings, at the detriment of a 8.5% decrease in the genre presentation. This result is significant with respect to the integrity and benevolence constructs. We link this result to the worrying nature of high-neuroticism people and their general inclination to avoid frustration, boosting trust in the more reliable star-rating presentation.

More moderate, although statistically significant changes are observed in the *explanation* dimension. Here, the aggregated preference towards the IMDb-based explanations increases by 3.6%, while persuasive explanations drop by 2.9%. These findings are sig-

nificant for the integrity, transparency, intention to re-use, and overall trust constructs. We explain these findings again by the more reliable nature of the IMDb explanations, which may reduce the perceived risk of frustration for high-neuroticism people. No significant differences are observed in the *priority* dimension.

Openness

Finally, Figure 9 compares between the low- and high-openness groups. We observe an increase of 7.7% for the genre grouping and drops for both star-ranking (4.4%) and human (3.3%) presentations. However, note that the change is significant for the intention to re-use construct only. The increase for genre may be able to be explained by the preference for variety and lack of focus common to high-openness people. Thus, the range of genres in this presentation can indirectly support their desire to experience diverse things. On the contrary, low-openness people are more comfortable with the more traditional star ranking of the movies.

In the *explanation* dimension, we observe an increase of 7.5% for the persuasive, and drops of 4.2% and 3.2% for the IMDb-based and personalised explanations, respectively. This finding is harder to explain, although the significant difference obtained in transparency hints that information in the persuasive explanations potentially resonates with the curiosity of the high-openness people. On the contrary, IMDb explanations driven by the wisdom-of-the-crowds may seem too restrictive for high-openness people and, as such, their preference towards this explanation drops.

Significant differences between the two groups are also observed in the *priority* dimension. Here, preference towards the familiarity prioritisation decreases by as much as 9.3%, mostly at the detriment of an aggregated 6.8% increase for the quality prioritisation. These changes are found to be significant for the benevolence and overall trust constructs. We attribute this finding to the desire of high-openness people to explore outside of the mainstream embodied by the familiarity prioritisation. That said, the quality of the recommendations is still important, which explains the observed trade-off.

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS AND DISCUSSION

In this work we investigated a number of recommendation presentation factors that can potentially instill user trust. We surveyed prior literature to extract nine factors of trust, which were grouped into three dimensions. We then designed and conducted a crowdsourced user study that experimentally compared the power of these factors. This paper presents a thorough analysis that highlights several dominant factors and explores differences related to users' personality.

Our study brings several operationalisable findings to the foreground. The first refers to the presentation dimension, where *genre-based grouping of the recommended items was the most trusted presentation factor*. In the

ranking phase this was preferred by the users with respect to all the constructs of trust, with the ratio of votes towards genre grouping hovering around the 50-60% mark. Although the debrief pulled some votes to other presentations, genre grouping still remained the dominant factor. The users commended its organised structure, which helped them to identify desired items in an easier way. This finding re-affirms the results of [23] and suggests that, beyond movie genres, system designers should consider grouping the recommended items according to the available salient domain features, in order to increase the levels user trust.

Another important finding manifests in the priority dimension. In line with earlier results of [22], *quality prioritisation of the recommendation lists was found to be the most trusted* in the ranking phase, outperforming diversity and familiarity. This dominance was observed with respect to all the studied constructs of trust, with quality prioritisation attracting between 40% and 50% of votes. However, in the debrief phase quality remained the most trust factor only in three constructs, while the preference towards diversity and familiarity increased significantly. We explain this by the subtle differences between the recommendation lists, which become apparent only if explicitly explained to the users. The lack of a clear winner in this dimension suggests that different users may prefer different prioritisations of the recommendation lists. Thus, system designers should pay attention to these preferences of the users and consider how to align them with their business goals.

In the explanation dimension, different factors were preferred for different constructs of trust. The personalised explanations were perceived to be most trusted with respect to integrity, transparency, and intention to re-use. On the contrary, IMDb-based explanation were most trusted with respect to benevolence and overall trust, and persuasive explanations were preferred with respect to the competence construct. Interestingly, exactly the same preferred factors were observed both in the ranking and debrief phases of the study. Qualitative user feedback highlights the individual nature of the personalised explanations, which naturally instils high levels of trust. We believe, the findings we present here should play an important role when considering the intended effect of the recommender system, e.g., to provide pure user-centred recommendations recommendation (benevolence is a priority) or to bring users back to the system again (intention to re-use is a priority).

Following this, we delved deeper into differences in trust perception driven by user's personality traits. We considered the traits of the Big Five model and compared between groups of users exhibiting high and low trait scores. Multiple statistically significant differences were observed in all the traits, with as much as 12 and 8 factors of trust (across all three dimensions considered) being significantly different in the extraversion and conscientiousness traits, respectively. Since the differences

between the studied prioritisations were subtle, the most pronounced changes between the groups were observed in the presentation and explanation dimensions. This allows us to conclude that the levels of trust instilled by the presentation of the recommendation list and the explanation of items are user-dependent and may vary substantially across different types of users. Thus, system designers should consider boosting trust by *adjusting the presentation and explanation of recommendations to the user's personality traits*, while the prioritisation of the recommendation list requires less attention.

In summary, this work establishes the levels of trust instilled by various presentation, explanation, and prioritisation strategies in movie recommender systems. Being collected from a large pool of participants across multiple countries and supported by qualitative feedback, these results provide solid evidence for recommender systems researchers and practitioners alike, informing the design of future systems. Our study was independent of the underlying recommendation method; thus, it assumed that the recommendation lists already existed and dealt with the trust instilled by the presentation of the list. Although our study considered the domain of movies only, we believe that similar findings may be obtained in other domains, where the items can be characterised by well-defined features. For example, movie genre grouping may be replaced by presentation of cameras according to their manufacturer or IMDb explanation could translate into the number of hotel reviews on TripAdvisor instead.

The conducted analysis, which relies on six distinct constructs of trust, uncovered that the notion of user trust in recommender systems is complex and multi-dimensional. As such, system designers may need to steer their choices based on the desired effect of the system. It is reasonable to assume that higher levels of trust indirectly boost the uptake of the generated recommendations. That said, other perceived aspects of the system, e.g., integrity or transparency, may be manipulated by the designers through a careful application of strategies impacting user trust. In a practical recommender system, performance metrics affected by these aspects may be as important as the recommendations themselves. For example, a restaurant recommender may be willing to be seen objective and free of vendor biases, such that it may prioritise the benevolence construct of trust. Likewise, a research paper recommender may wish to be seen knowledgeable and, therefore, prioritise the competence construct. Not only does our work show practical ways to boost benevolence and competence of a recommender systems, but it also highlights how these properties of the system are perceived by different types of users.

Several open questions that require further attention arise from our work. The first refers to the dependencies between the trust factors examined. For example, consider a recommender that prioritises items according to their quality, groups them by genre, and also pro-

vides personalised explanations to users. How would the combined trust in such a recommender compare to the trust levels instilled by its individual factors? The second is about the intricate relationship between trust and recommendation uptake. We assumed that these are directly related, but this correlation may vary across recommendation tasks and application domains. Hence, a deeper look into this assumption would be beneficial. The third refers to the generalisation of our findings. As the results were obtained in the domain of movies, further studies will be required to establish their validity in other application domains. Finally, while we endeavoured to synthesise as wide as possible range of prior works, the list of factors investigated in this work may not be exhaustive. In the future, we plan to design, implement, and evaluate novel factors, or even dimensions, aiming to instil trust in recommender system users.

REFERENCES

1. I. Benbasat and W. Wang. Trust in and adoption of online recommendation agents. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, 6(3), 2005.
2. Y. Benjamini and Y. Hochberg. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Methodological)*, pages 289–300, 1995.
3. L. M. Collins, J. J. Dziak, and R. Li. Design of experiments with multiple independent variables: a resource management perspective on complete and reduced factorial designs. *Psychological methods*, 14(3):202, 2009.
4. P. T. Costa and R. R. McCrae. Four ways five factors are basic. *Personality and individual differences*, 13(6):653–665, 1992.
5. H. S. M. Cramer, V. Evers, S. Ramlal, M. van Someren, L. Rutledge, N. Stash, L. Aroyo, and B. J. Wielinga. The effects of transparency on trust in and acceptance of a content-based art recommender. *User Modeling and User-Adapted Interaction*, 18(5):455–496, 2008.
6. A. Dillon and C. Watson. User analysis in HCI - the historical lessons from individual differences research. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 45(6):619–637, 1996.
7. A. Felfernig and B. Gula. An empirical study on consumer behavior in the interaction with knowledge-based recommender applications. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on E-Commerce Technology, CEC*, page 37, 2006.
8. A. N. Finnerty, B. Lepri, and F. Pianesi. Acquisition of personality. In *Emotions and Personality in Personalized Services*, pages 81–99, 2016.
9. S. D. Gosling, P. J. Rentfrow, and W. B. Swann. A very brief measure of the big-five personality

- domains. *Journal of Research in personality*, 37(6):504–528, 2003.
10. A. Gunawardana and G. Shani. Evaluating recommender systems. In *Recommender Systems Handbook*, pages 265–308. 2015.
11. K. A. Hoff and M. Bashir. Trust in automation: Integrating empirical evidence on factors that influence trust. *Human Factors*, 57(3):407–434, 2015.
12. D. Holliday, S. M. Wilson, and S. Stumpf. User trust in intelligent systems: A journey over time. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Intelligent User Interfaces, IUI*, pages 164–168, 2016.
13. A. Jameson, M. C. Willemsen, A. Felfernig, M. de Gemmis, P. Lops, G. Semeraro, and L. Chen. Human decision making and recommender systems. In *Recommender Systems Handbook*, pages 611–648. 2015.
14. J. D. Johnson, J. Sanchez, A. D. Fisk, and W. A. Rogers. Type of automation failure: The effects on trust and reliance in automation. In *Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting*, volume 48, pages 2163–2167, 2004.
15. S. Y. Komiak and I. Benbasat. The effects of personalization and familiarity on trust and adoption of recommendation agents. *Management Information Systems Quarterly*, pages 941–960, 2006.
16. J. D. Lee and N. Moray. Trust, self-confidence, and operators’ adaptation to automation. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 40(1):153–184, 1994.
17. J. D. Lee and K. A. See. Trust in automation: Designing for appropriate reliance. *Human Factors*, 46(1):50–80, 2004.
18. S. Matz, Y. W. F. Chan, and M. Kosinski. Models of personality. In *Emotions and Personality in Personalized Services*, pages 35–54. 2016.
19. N. Moray, T. Inagaki, and M. Itoh. Adaptive automation, trust, and self-confidence in fault management of time-critical tasks. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, 6(1):44, 2000.
20. S. Nowak and S. M. Rüger. How reliable are annotations via crowdsourcing: a study about inter-annotator agreement for multi-label image annotation. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Multimedia Information Retrieval, MIR*, pages 557–566, 2010.
21. J. O’Donovan and B. Smyth. Trust in recommender systems. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Intelligent User Interfaces, IUI*, pages 167–174, 2005.
22. U. Panniello, M. Gorgoglione, and A. Tuzhilin. Research note - in CARSs we trust: How context-aware recommendations affect customers’ trust and other business performance measures of recommender systems. *Information Systems Research*, 27(1):182–196, 2016.
23. P. Pu and L. Chen. Trust building with explanation interfaces. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Intelligent User Interfaces, IUI*, pages 93–100, 2006.
24. P. Pu, L. Chen, and R. Hu. A user-centric evaluation framework for recommender systems. In *Proceedings of the ACM Conference on Recommender Systems, RecSys*, pages 157–164, 2011.
25. W. B. Rouse. Adaptive aiding for human/computer control. *Human Factors*, 30(4):431–443, 1988.
26. A. Said, S. Berkovsky, E. W. D. Luca, and J. Hermanns. Challenge on context-aware movie recommendation: Camra2011. In *Proceedings of the ACM Conference on Recommender Systems, RecSys*, pages 385–386, 2011.
27. J. Sauer, A. Chavallaz, and D. Wastell. Experience of automation failures in training: effects on trust, automation bias, complacency and performance. *Ergonomics*, pages 1–14, 2015.
28. K. E. Schaefer and D. R. Scribner. Individual differences, trust, and vehicle autonomy a pilot study. In *Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting*, volume 59, pages 786–790, 2015.
29. J. Schrammel, C. Köffel, and M. Tscheligi. Personality traits, usage patterns and information disclosure in online communities. In *Proceedings of the British Computer Society Conference on Human-Computer Interaction, BCS-HCI*, pages 169–174, 2009.
30. C. L. Scott. Interpersonal trust: A comparison of attitudinal and situational factors. *Human Relations*, 33(11):805–812, 1980.
31. G. Shani, L. Rokach, B. Shapira, S. Hadash, and M. Tangi. Investigating confidence displays for top-*N* recommendations. *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology*, 64(12):2548–2563, 2013.
32. R. R. Sinha and K. Swearingen. Comparing recommendations made by online systems and friends. In *Proceedings of the Workshop on Personalisation and Recommender Systems in Digital Libraries*, 2001.
33. K. Swearingen and R. Sinha. Interaction design for recommender systems. In *Designing Interactive Systems*, volume 6, pages 312–334, 2002.

34. N. Tintarev and J. Masthoff. Explaining recommendations: Design and evaluation. In *Recommender Systems Handbook*, pages 353–382. 2015.
35. M. Tkalcic and L. Chen. Personality and recommender systems. In *Recommender Systems Handbook*, pages 715–739. 2015.
36. P. Victor, M. D. Cock, and C. Cornelis. Trust and recommendations. In *Recommender Systems Handbook*, pages 645–675. 2011.
37. A. Vinciarelli and G. Mohammadi. A survey of personality computing. *IEEE Transactions on Affective Computing*, 5(3):273–291, 2014.
38. Y. D. Wang and H. H. Emurian. An overview of online trust: Concepts, elements, and implications. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 21(1):105–125, 2005.
39. W. Wu, L. Chen, and L. He. Using personality to adjust diversity in recommender systems. In *Proceedings of the Conference on Hypertext and Social Media, HT*, pages 225–229, 2013.
40. S. Xiao and I. Benbasat. The formation of trust and distrust in recommendation agents in repeated interactions: a process-tracing analysis. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Electronic Commerce, ICEC*, pages 287–293, 2003.
41. K. H. Yoo, U. Gretzel, and M. Zanker. Source factors in recommender system credibility evaluation. In *Recommender Systems Handbook*, pages 689–714. 2015.
42. K. Yu, S. Berkovsky, D. Conway, R. Taib, J. Zhou, and F. Chen. Trust and reliance based on system accuracy. In *Proceedings of the Conference on User Modeling Adaptation and Personalization, UMAP*, pages 223–227, 2016.
43. K. Yu, S. Berkovsky, R. Taib, D. Conway, J. Zhou, and F. Chen. User trust dynamics: An investigation driven by differences in system performance. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Intelligent User Interfaces, IUI*, 2017.