

1 they build a parasocial relationship with its host (Horton & Wohl, 1956;
2 Vilceanu, 2025).

3 Research suggests that it is precisely the “human” dimension of a podcast—
4 verbal slips, hesitations, mistakes—that contributes to the formation of these
5 parasocial bonds and, by extension, to trust in the content (Maloney Yorganci &
6 McMurtry, 2024; Nadora, 2019). Machine-generated podcasts, produced, for
7 instance, using generative AI tools such as Google’s NotebookLM, lack this
8 quality, even as synthetic voices grow increasingly adept at mimicking natural
9 human speech patterns.

10 The propensity of AI-generated content to contain errors is well
11 documented, including the phenomenon of “hallucination”, the generation of
12 content that sounds plausible but does not hold up under scrutiny (Huang et al.,
13 2025; Xu et al., 2025). Studies show that awareness of this risk produces
14 strikingly divergent responses among listeners: from broad uncertainty and
15 deliberate avoidance of generative AI at one extreme, to a largely uncritical
16 acceptance driven in no small part by convenience at the other (Shao, 2025;
17 Gnambs et al., 2025; Schäfer et al., 2024).

18 Against this backdrop, the present exploratory study investigates whether
19 and how knowledge of an audio contribution’s provenance, as a product of
20 human authorship or as a machine-generated artefact, affects trust in its content.
21 Methodologically, the investigation draws on a quasi-experimental between-
22 subjects design based on a random sample.

23 We first discuss podcasting as a subject of inquiry by tracing its
24 technological development and terminological origins before describing the
25 current podcast ecosystem. We then narrow the focus to educational podcast use
26 and examine, on the one hand, how generative AI tools are transforming podcast
27 production, up to and including quasi-automated content generation, and, on the
28 other hand, how listeners’ prior attitudes and experiences with AI come into play
29 during reception, drawing on the concept of parasocial relationships. This
30 theoretical groundwork sets the stage for the presentation and discussion of our
31 own study, including its design, conduct, and findings.

32 33 34 **Podcasting**

35 36 *Technology and Origins*

37
38 Podcasting refers to the production and distribution of serial audio or
39 audiovisual content delivered online and available via RSS feed subscription
40 (Kluckhohn, 2009). Several defining characteristics set podcasts apart from
41 other audio formats. Their serial structure creates continuity and fosters ongoing
42 audience engagement. Online distribution enables global reach without recourse
43 to traditional broadcast infrastructure. And the RSS subscription model means
44 that new episodes are delivered automatically to subscribers, encouraging
45 regular listening habits (Linares et al., 2018).

1 Podcasts can be consumed across virtually any device (desktop computers,
2 laptops, tablets, and smartphones), with mobile devices offering the greatest
3 flexibility. Smartphones in particular enable on-the-go, incidental listening
4 unconstrained by time or place: while exercising, doing housework, traveling, or
5 commuting through the city (Hebbel-Seeger, 2009).

6 Although podcast-like concepts can be traced back to audio tutorials
7 distributed on portable cassette players such as the Sony Walkman (Palenque,
8 2016), the modern term derives from Apple’s “iPod,” a portable digital audio
9 player launched in 2001. This etymology reflects the medium’s roots in the
10 convergence of portable digital audio technology with internet distribution at the
11 turn of the millennium. “Pod” functions (among other readings) as an acronym
12 for “play on demand,” while “cast” comes from the second syllable of
13 “broadcasting” (Berry, 2006, 2016a).

14 The technological developments that have progressively lowered the
15 barriers to podcast production, a process now further accelerated by AI tools,
16 have, in conjunction with the global reach of online distribution, fuelled both
17 steady growth in supply and continued expansion of the audience (McKenzie,
18 2019; Rime et al., 2022; Ali et al., 2025). McKenzie’s (2019) analysis of global
19 science podcast output between 2004 and 2018 documents exponential growth
20 in both the number of shows and the total number of episodes; a trend that has
21 continued across genres ever since.

22 The podcasting ecosystem today is dominated by a relatively small number
23 of major platforms. Spotify and Apple Podcasts together command roughly two
24 thirds of the global market, each holding approximately one third of listeners
25 (Gohil, 2025), effectively constituting a duopoly. Figures for the German market
26 confirm Spotify’s leading position, with Apple Podcasts, the media libraries of
27 Germany’s public broadcasters, and Audible trailing at some distance
28 (Gattringer, 2024). Data from our own podcast production studies broadly mirror
29 this distribution, with Spotify and Apple Podcasts running neck by neck
30 (Hebbel-Seeger, 2021; Hebbel-Seeger & Strauß, 2022; Hebbel-Seeger & Horkey,
31 2026).

32 For producers, podcasts offer a wide range of value-creation and impact
33 possibilities, from brand communication and marketing to educational media.
34 Beyond content distribution, they also serve as platforms for self-presentation
35 and, much like social media, for interaction with audiences and even co-creation:

36
37 *“Podcasting is not simply a new way to distribute audio recordings; it’s a form*
38 *of expression, interaction, and community building” (Geoghegan & Klass,*
39 *2007, p. 167).*
40

41 For listeners, podcasts accordingly address needs for entertainment and
42 learning, and provide a platform for identification. Contemporary podcasting is
43 thus far more than a distribution channel; it creates spaces for identity formation,
44 community building, and sustained engagement between producers and
45 audiences alike.

46
47

1 *Podcasts as an Educational Medium*

2
3 The relative ease of podcast production and distribution, combined with the
4 flexibility of how and when they can be consumed, makes the medium attractive
5 for informal learning as much as for organized educational settings. This
6 flexibility extends beyond time and place: listeners can consume content whole
7 or in segments, replay episodes as often as needed, and adjust playback speed;
8 an affordance that matters because learners vary considerably in the time and
9 repetition they require to acquire and consolidate material (Hebbel-Seeger,
10 2021).

11 By allowing learners to set their own pace, podcasts support self-regulation
12 and self-efficacy (Erabo et al., 2024). According to Enríquez et al. (2023),
13 podcast-based learning enables students to take ownership of their learning
14 process (p. 898); a shift that the authors associate not only with greater autonomy
15 but also with motivational benefits.

16 Evans (2008) finds that students particularly value the time savings when
17 reviewing material and the situational flexibility that podcasts afford. A study by
18 Meden et al. (2024) suggests these potential benefits do translate into practice:
19 analyzing survey data from over 600 podcast listeners, the authors conclude that
20 more than half of respondents learn in a self-directed and deliberate way, while
21 around a third learn incidentally. Yet podcasts do not realize their educational
22 potential automatically. Engzell et al. (2025) show that successful integration
23 into higher education depends substantially on how well educators embed
24 podcasts within their pedagogical frameworks. Drawing on their findings, the
25 authors also offer practical guidance on podcast design: effective educational
26 podcasts are entertaining, run roughly 20–30 minutes, and combine analytical
27 commentary with concrete, application-oriented examples; observations that
28 align with Blumers’s (2025) expert-interview-based study.

29 These advantages notwithstanding, podcasts in educational contexts come
30 with real limitations. Unlike written texts, they do not incorporate inline
31 references or citations; sources are typically relegated to show notes or
32 supplementary materials, making it difficult for listeners to evaluate the quality
33 of evidence in real time. Moreover, podcasts generally lack the quality assurance
34 mechanisms of established educational media (peer review, editorial oversight
35 and so on) owing to their informal character (Shaw et al., 2025). This places a
36 particular responsibility on educators who use third-party podcasts in their
37 teaching to vet the material carefully.

38 Accessibility presents a further challenge. The frequent absence of
39 transcripts or audio descriptions effectively excludes listeners with hearing
40 impairments or those who prefer or need text-based formats (Chelsey, 2021;
41 Mohale, 2024); though this limitation is gradually being eroded by the improving
42 quality and accessibility of external speech-to-text tools in the generative AI era.
43 Additionally, research points to the risk that podcasting may reinforce digital
44 inequalities, as access and use vary with technological literacy, internet
45 connectivity, and device availability (Kakhki et al., 2025; Galily et al., 2024).

1 Beyond reception, there is growing interest in podcast production by students
2 as a pedagogical activity in its own right. Research shows that such settings
3 productively develop communication skills, teamwork, research competencies,
4 and media literacy, while simultaneously encouraging more active engagement
5 with the subject matter at hand (Hernandez-Lopez & Mendoza-Jimenez, 2025).
6 This dimension is, however, beyond the scope of the present study, which is
7 exclusively concerned with reception effects.

8 9 *Emotional Proximity and Trust*

10
11 Because the spoken word in a podcast lacks the source references and
12 citations that anchor credibility in academic written texts, the affective
13 dimension of trust takes on particular weight in how listeners evaluate what they
14 hear. Alongside institutional signals, such as a podcast's affiliation with a
15 university, listeners may be guided by recommendations from people they know
16 or from influencers (Ao et al., 2023; Sardar & Vijay, 2025), by ratings and
17 reviews (Sung et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022), or by algorithmically curated
18 suggestions (Li et al., 2024). But above all, trust in a podcast is anchored in its
19 host (Mayer et al., 2024).

20 Repeated exposure, perceived similarity, and personal self-disclosure on the
21 part of the host generate an emotionally meaningful bond with listeners, who
22 come to attribute friendship, trustworthiness, and credibility to that person
23 (Brinson & Lemon, 2022). When hosts share personal thoughts and emotional
24 reactions, or directly address their audience, they activate a relational schema
25 that fosters intimacy and trust. The perceived authenticity and communicative
26 immediacy of the podcast medium encourages listeners to identify with the host
27 and reduces the sense of social distance, even in the absence of any real feedback
28 channel. Hosts' emotional states and dispositions are experienced vicariously by
29 listeners, who gradually begin to perceive them not as distant media personalities
30 but as people they personally know.

31 Repeated listening, particularly to high-frequency podcasts, integrates the
32 podcast into everyday life, turning the host into an omnipresent social reference
33 point, and deepening what listeners experience as an emotional bond,
34 accompanied by growing trust (Dibble et al., 2016).

35 Vilceanu (2025) provides systematic evidence for the central role of the
36 podcast host in building and sustaining parasocial familiarity and trust, and for
37 the relationship between listening time and bond strength, through an analysis of
38 over 12,000 listener reviews. Despite the inherently one-sided, mediated
39 communication structure, listeners consistently develop feelings of closeness,
40 trust, and connection toward hosts.

41 Strikingly, it is not flawless articulation that makes a host seem credible or
42 trustworthy, but rather the authenticity conveyed by uncertainty, verbal slips,
43 and mistakes. Maloney Yorganci & McMurtry (2024) identify seven authenticity
44 markers that promote parasocial relationships, one of which is explicitly
45 "Imperfection": hosts who stumble, digress, or err come across as more human
46 and approachable. Spontaneity and personal admissions create the sense of really

1 knowing the host, while ordinariness and perceived similarity foster feelings of
2 friendship.

3 Nadora (2019) grounds this in the podcast’s character as a “de-
4 professionalized” medium (ibid., p. 4) in which hosts function as “ordinary
5 experts” (ibid., p. 17; Tolson, 2010) whose imperfections are precisely what
6 make them relatable. Moments of ambiguity, self-correction, and reflexivity are
7 not merely tolerated by listeners; they actively strengthen the parasocial bond.

8 The choice of listening device also plays a role. Consuming podcasts
9 through headphones heightens the sense of immersion and presence compared
10 with loudspeaker listening (Liebermann et al., 2022), which in turn affects
11 perceived proximity to the host. And the content of a podcast rarely feels entirely
12 foreign to listeners: it tends to connect with their personal experience—whether
13 through intrinsic interest or through an extrinsic framing in a school or university
14 context:

15
16 *“Podcasts are listened to in an intimate setting (headphones), utilising an intimate*
17 *form of communication (human speech). Furthermore, in many cases podcasts are*
18 *presented by people from within a listener’s own community of interest or by*
19 *people s/he may already have a relationship with via social media, and are*
20 *frequently recorded in a podcaster’s own personal or domestic space” (Berry,*
21 *2016b, p. 666).*

22 23 *Podcast Production and AI*

24
25 Conventional podcast production typically involves four phases: (1) concept
26 development and scripting, (2) audio recording, either in-person or online, (3)
27 post-production, which may involve editing the raw recording as well as
28 integrating external material, and (4) distribution, including publishing on
29 relevant platforms and promoting via social media.

30 Since 2022, the rapid advancement of generative AI has substantially
31 expanded what is possible in podcast production (Desmedt et al., 2025). The
32 range of available tools runs from AI-assisted aids that support human creators
33 at specific points in the workflow all the way to fully autonomous systems
34 capable of generating audio content from text prompts alone.

35 Post-production, phase 3, typically accounts for a disproportionate share of
36 the overall effort: beyond content-level editing, it encompasses noise reduction,
37 level adjustment, and speech optimization (Hebbel-Seeger & Strauß, 2022). AI-
38 powered tools have made these steps considerably faster and more accessible in
39 recent years (Bruns, 2008; Zou et al., 2026).

40 Tools such as Adobe’s Podcast Enhanced Speech¹ and Descript² employ
41 deep neural networks, based in particular on transformer architectures and
42 diffusion models, to eliminate background noise in real time and bring speech
43 recordings close to studio quality. Descript additionally enables transcript-based
44 editing: audio is automatically transcribed, and changes made at the text level

¹ <https://podcast.adobe.com/>

² <https://web.descript.com/>

1 are applied directly to the audio file. Further powerful features include automatic
2 loudness normalization, AI-assisted removal of filler pauses, and voice-cloning
3 functionality that allows corrections to be made without re-recording (the so-
4 called “Overdub” feature).

5 Beyond recording and post-processing, large language models such as
6 ChatGPT, Claude, or Gemini can support the substantive and editorial work
7 surrounding an episode, conducting research on topics or guests, drafting
8 interview questions, generating show notes and episode descriptions, and
9 producing visuals for promotional use.

10 Text-to-speech tools such as ElevenLabs³ can then be used to give a voice
11 to LLM-generated scripts (Hasanabadi, 2023), making it possible to render a
12 dialogue between multiple AI-generated conversational voices as a finished
13 audio file.⁴ The quality of synthetic voices has now reached a level at which lay
14 listeners can barely distinguish them from human recordings; a phenomenon
15 discussed in the literature through constructs such as “naturalness,” “human-
16 likeness,” and “eeriness” (Abdulrahman & Richards, 2022).

17 The integration of LLMs into editorial workflows is not without
18 controversy, however. It sits in tension with journalistic quality standards: while
19 generative AI tools promise efficiency gains and scalability, they also increase
20 the risk of homogenized content and factual hallucinations (Bender et al., 2021),
21 demanding at minimum a critically curated approach from producers.

22 The current high-water mark of AI integration in podcast production is
23 represented by systems that generate complete, dialogic podcast episodes from
24 prompts or linked documents. The most prominent example is Google’s
25 “NotebookLM,”⁵ first released in mid-2024 and continuously updated since.
26 NotebookLM analyzes user-supplied documents—local or linked—combines
27 them with information from its trained knowledge base, and produces a two-
28 person dialogue between a synthetic female and a corresponding male voice in
29 podcast format, simulating natural conversational dynamics including follow-up
30 questions and moderating transitions.

31 This kind of content generation draws on several interlocking technologies:
32 an LLM to produce a script from the source documents (Sigurgeirsson & King,
33 2023), a text-to-speech system to synthesize natural-sounding voices
34 (Hasanabadi, 2023), and prosodic models to simulate conversational features
35 such as emphasis, pauses, and affective tone (Wang & Székely, 2024).

36 The output of such a process need not stand alone; it can also be combined
37 with recordings of real speakers in a mash-up format.⁶

³<https://elevenlabs.io/>

⁴Episode 101 of the German-language podcast “LectureCast” illustrates this approach: text outputs generated via prompts from the LLMs ChatGPT, Claude, and Gemini were each assigned synthetic voices, and the resulting audio files were combined into a multi-voiced discussion in a single audio file (<https://open.spotify.com/episode/5kFIqI0ICWkdBcZNCsh8W3?si=qDRzhh-CT6SjUiIOCgpMaw>).

⁵<https://notebooklm.google/>

⁶Episode 114 of the German-language podcast “LectureCast” provides an example: a conversation recorded between two human participants was supplemented by dialogue passages generated

1 **Trust in Artificial Intelligence**

2
3 *“The rise of generative artificial intelligence (GenAI) marks a turning point in the*
4 *development of human cognition. Machines are no longer limited to retrieving*
5 *information; they simulate thinking, produce fluent responses, and generate*
6 *seemingly original content—tasks that were once considered uniquely human”*
7 *(Gerlich, 2025, p. 932; Translation from German).*

8
9 As the surface differences between human and AI-produced podcasts
10 continue to blur, the question of trust takes on new dimensions. It confronts
11 podcast producers who draw on generative AI to varying degrees, and it
12 confronts listeners for whom the reception of partially or fully AI-generated
13 content brings an additional variable into play: their own prior experiences with
14 and attitudes toward artificial intelligence. What was once a matter of trust
15 rooted in human authenticity now competes with a closeness technically
16 constructed by generative AI, and with a broader stance toward the technology
17 itself.

18 This is a particularly interesting tension because, as noted above, trust in
19 human communicators does not appear to hinge on the absence of error, quite
20 the contrary. With AI-generated content, the dynamics are different. LLMs are
21 prone to hallucination: they produce output that sounds coherent and plausible
22 but cannot be factually verified (Huang et al., 2025). This appears to be a
23 structural feature rather than an incidental flaw. Xu et al. (2025) demonstrate that
24 LLMs cannot learn all computable functions and will therefore inevitably
25 hallucinate when used as general-purpose problem-solvers. Shao (2025) puts the
26 hallucination rate in benchmark tests at between 5% for general queries and up
27 to 29% for specialized technical questions.

28 Whether this represents a high or low error rate relative to human
29 performance is a question we set aside here. What seems safe to assume is that
30 all users of generative AI have encountered incorrect outputs at some point, from
31 which, in principle, a healthy skepticism ought to follow. In practice, however,
32 generative AI tools are comparatively easy to access and use, and the fluency
33 and apparent authority of their responses make the output convincing enough for
34 many users to encourage surface-level processing at the expense of epistemic
35 vigilance.

36
37 *“What intensifies this development further is the growing trust in GenAI systems.*
38 *This trust, which is often characterized by speed, coherence, and convenience, is*
39 *rarely based on a thorough understanding of how these systems function. The more*
40 *users trust the results of GenAI, the less inclined they are to question them. In this*
41 *way, they relinquish the burden of verification and assessment, replacing analysis*
42 *with acceptance. Under these conditions, trust is not the result of careful*
43 *deliberation, but a shortcut around it” (Gerlich, 2025, p. 933; Translation from*
44 *German).*

45

with NotebookLM (<https://open.spotify.com/episode/61TyUZRYq5f4EHvPPN4o5w?si=XOYa5K2jRxKxevnbI26qTw>).

1 People tend to use AI systems even when they harbour diffuse anxieties or
2 general unease about them. Chen et al. (2025) describe this as “intermittent
3 neutralization”, a process in which acceptance, rejection (driven, for example,
4 by data protection concerns), and information illusions blend into a cognitive
5 dissonance that progressively dampens initial skepticism.

6 Survey data bear this out. A survey of over 30,000 consumers and
7 employees across eleven European countries finds that non-users are markedly
8 more skeptical than users: 74% of non-users express concerns about data misuse,
9 compared with 62% of users; and while 57% of generative AI users trust it to
10 deliver reliable results, only 33% of non-users share that confidence
11 (Corduneanu et al., 2024).

12 A similar disconnect between self-assessed knowledge and actual attitudes
13 emerges in Scantamburlo et al. (2023). Drawing on survey data from 4,006
14 people across eight European countries (Germany, France, Italy, the
15 Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain, and Sweden), they find that half of
16 respondents hold a positive attitude toward AI despite consistently low self-rated
17 AI competence. This aligns with Gnambs et al. (2025), whose analysis of 1,098
18 German adults finds broad acceptance of AI use even among people with little
19 hands-on experience.

20 A more differentiated picture emerges when AI use is examined by context.
21 Schäfer et al. (2024), drawing on telephone interviews with 1,037 young adults
22 in Germany, find, in contrast to the studies cited above, considerable skepticism
23 toward generative AI in scientific contexts, even as general trust in science
24 stands at a comparatively high 56%. Lack of accuracy, bias, and the potential for
25 abuse in pseudoscientific applications are identified as the main risks associated
26 with using generative AI in scientific communication.

29 **How Knowledge of AI Provenance Shapes Podcast Reception**

30
31 Credibility and trust in podcasts rest, beyond external markers, primarily on
32 the perceived authenticity of the host: imperfections, spontaneity, and personal
33 self-disclosure that listeners read as signs of approachability and humanity.
34 These authenticity signals stabilize parasocial relationships and constitute the
35 foundation of trust in the content conveyed. Generative AI can now simulate
36 these signals convincingly enough that listeners often cannot distinguish
37 synthetic voices from human recordings.

38 Fully or partially machine-generated podcasts are no longer a future
39 scenario, they are a present media reality. The question of how listeners respond
40 when they know (or do not know) that a podcast was machine-generated is
41 therefore less a technological matter than one belonging to educational media
42 studies and communication psychology.

43 Human expertise as expressed in educational podcasts now competes
44 directly with AI. Tolmeijer et al. (2022) find that participants rated AI as more
45 capable than humans on the tasks studied, and that with experience participants

1 grew more willing to follow an AI’s advice or accept its decisions over a human
2 expert’s:

3
4 *“Our results indicate that people perceive AI to be more capable than humans for*
5 *the given tasks, but place somewhat higher moral trust in humans. The capable*
6 *trust in AI is apparent in participant reliance behavior: as they do more missions,*
7 *they are more likely to take an AI’s advice or accept an AI’s decision than a human*
8 *expert’s” (Tolmeijer et al., 2022, p. 2).*

9
10 At the same time, studies point to context-specific skepticism toward
11 generative AI outputs that appears particularly pronounced in scientific and
12 educational settings (Schäfer et al., 2024). Prior experience with AI moderates
13 attitudes toward it, suggesting that reactions to AI-generated educational
14 podcasts are shaped less by the technology per se than by listeners’ prior
15 knowledge and expectations.

16 Against this background, the present study addresses two research questions:

- 17
18 (1) Does it matter to podcast listeners whether they know the episode was
19 produced by a human or by AI; and if so, does this knowledge alter
20 perceived credibility, trust, and evaluations of content quality?
21 (2) To what extent do individual AI attitudes and usage experience moderate
22 these effects?
23

24 Drawing on the theoretical considerations and empirical findings reviewed
25 above, we derive two research hypotheses:

- 26
27 (H1) Knowledge of a podcast’s provenance as human-made or AI-
28 generated affects credibility and trust in content quality: listeners who
29 know the content is AI-generated will attribute higher credibility to it
30 and trust it more than listeners who believe they are consuming a
31 human-produced episode.
32 (H2) The extent of participants’ own AI use and their personal attitude
33 toward generative AI tools modulates the strength of the effect posited
34 in H1: the greater the prior experience and the more positive the
35 baseline attitude toward AI, the greater the trust in content identified
36 as AI-generated.
37

38 *Methods*

39
40 To test these hypotheses we opted for a quasi-experiment (Behi & Nolan,
41 1996) structured as a between-subjects design (Charness et al., 2012).
42 Participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups, both of which
43 received the same audio contribution as the treatment stimulus but differed in
44 what they were told about its origin. One group was explicitly informed that the
45 episode was AI-generated; the other received no such information and was left

1 to assume they were listening to a conventionally produced, human-authored
2 audio contribution.⁷

3 The audio contribution was generated using Google’s NotebookLM on the
4 basis of a text by Hebbel-Seeger & Vohle (forthcoming). It was subsequently
5 manually trimmed to 5 minutes and 28 seconds to minimize participant burden
6 and reduce dropout risk. The resulting episode features a “human-sounding”
7 synthetic female speaker and a comparably natural-sounding synthetic male
8 speaker discussing the content of the source publication; a format modeled on
9 the expert-dialogue podcast structure common in educational podcasting.

10 The random sample was drawn from the personal networks of two students.
11 The topic selected for the audio contribution, AI-generated videos in higher
12 education, was chosen because it is directly relevant to the participants’ lived
13 experience and can reasonably be assumed to hold some intrinsic interest for
14 them.

15 The quasi-experiment was conducted online over 23 days at the end of 2025.
16 Participants accessed it individually, at a time and place of their choosing, and
17 were asked to listen to the audio contribution and then complete a questionnaire
18 about it.

19 *Results*

20
21
22 A total of 60 valid responses were collected: 38 from women and 22 from
23 men, the majority of whom were under 30 years of age. Fifty participants held
24 at least a general university entrance qualification. This educational profile likely
25 accounts for the high level of familiarity with generative AI that participants
26 reported: 52 rated their familiarity as “high” or “very high,” while only 7
27 expressed uncertainty or said they were “not very familiar,” and just 1 indicated
28 no familiarity at all. Interest in AI was widespread: 42 participants described
29 themselves as personally interested to varying degrees, 13 were undecided, 4
30 reported little interest, and only 1 reported none.

31 The two experimental groups were comparable on age, gender, educational
32 level, AI familiarity, and personal interest in AI. Differences in response patterns
33 can therefore be attributed primarily to whether participants knew (Group 1) or
34 did not know (Group 2) that the audio they had listened to was AI-generated or
35 not.

36 Differences first emerged on the question of host trustworthiness.
37 Participants who believed they had listened to a human-produced episode rated
38 the hosts as less trustworthy than those in Group 1 who knew the voices were
39 synthetic. A similar pattern appeared in assessments of expertise: participants
40 aware of the AI provenance rated the hosts’ expertise higher than those who
41 assumed human speakers. Across both groups, women were more skeptical than
42 men, consistently rating hosts as less trustworthy and less knowledgeable.

43 Participants who assumed real human protagonists also expressed lower
44 confidence in the accuracy of the content and a greater perceived need to verify

⁷Data collection and preparation were carried out with the assistance of *Aylin Smokovic* and *Benita Off*.

1 it compared with Group 1. The gender difference recurred here as well: women
2 attributed less trust to the content and saw a greater need for fact-checking.

3 Because the data were not normally distributed, group differences were
4 tested using the non-parametric Mann–Whitney U test. Only one measure
5 reached significance: participants who had been told the content was AI-
6 generated indicated a significantly lower need to verify it ($p = 0.0386$). This
7 constitutes above-chance support for H1, the hypothesis that listeners attribute
8 greater credibility to audio identified as AI-generated, at least along this
9 particular dimension. Exploration of H2 was not possible given the near-absence
10 of within-group variance on AI attitudes and experience.

11 *Discussion*

12
13
14 The finding that knowing a podcast is AI-generated reduces rather than
15 increases the perceived need to verify its content appears, at first glance, to cut
16 against the AI disclosure literature. Based on a meta-analysis of 13 studies
17 spanning multiple domains, Schilke & Reimann (2025) conclude that disclosing
18 AI use consistently reduces trust, even if the effect is attenuated for people with
19 positive attitudes toward AI or a basic trust in generative technology, it does not
20 disappear. Wang & Huang’s (2024) meta-analysis of experimental studies in
21 news research similarly finds that articles labeled as AI-generated are perceived
22 as less credible than human-authored ones. Koning & Voorveld (2025) add
23 evidence from advertising research showing that AI disclosure significantly
24 reduces trust and brand attitudes.

25 Our result diverges from this first cluster of findings but connects with a
26 second, more nuanced one. Huschens et al. (2023) show that LLM-generated
27 and human-authored texts are rated as equivalent in terms of competence and
28 trustworthiness, with AI-generated texts even perceived as clearer and more
29 appealing; a finding that converges with ours, despite the difference in media
30 format. Li et al. (2025) further demonstrate that AI labels have no significant
31 effect on perceived credibility in their experiment, and that the effect is strongly
32 moderated by prior experience and content type. Particularly relevant for
33 educational contexts is their finding that participants with more prior AI
34 experience rate non-commercial, informational, and educational content as
35 highly credible even when it carries an AI label; consistent with the education
36 level and AI affinity of our sample.

37 Gallegos et al. (2026) add that AI labels change perceptions of authorship
38 without reducing the persuasive impact of content—supporting the view that AI
39 disclosure does not automatically trigger a trust deficit but operates in a context-
40 dependent way. In educational settings in particular, an AI label may actually
41 activate a kind of “competence heuristic”, as generative AI tools are widely
42 perceived by younger, more highly educated users as capable and factually
43 reliable (Corduneanu et al., 2024). Gerlich (2025) puts this dynamic succinctly:
44
45

1 *“Trust in GenAI ... reflects a profound shift in epistemic preferences. Users are*
2 *increasingly willing to trust AI, not merely because it performs well, but because it*
3 *appears less prone to error than human alternatives” (p. 935; Translation from*
4 *German).*

5
6 Taken together, our findings point to an experience-driven evaluation of AI
7 outputs that aligns with Tolmeijer et al. (2022), whose work informed our
8 hypothesis formulation, and resonates with Alieto et al. (2025), who similarly
9 find that people tend to regard generative AI output as a less error-prone
10 knowledge source and engage with it accordingly uncritically.

11 The cross-group pattern of greater skepticism among women, lower trust in
12 hosts, higher perceived need for fact-checking, mirrors findings in the literature
13 on gender differences in AI perception. Borwein et al. (2026), drawing on a large
14 North American sample, show that women consistently rate AI risks higher than
15 men, a pattern attributed to general risk aversion and lower exposure to the
16 purported benefits of AI. Aldasoro et al. (2024) similarly report, on the basis of
17 the Survey of Consumer Expectations, that the “Gen-AI gender gap” in
18 generative AI use is explained primarily by lower self-assessed knowledge,
19 reinforced by greater data protection concerns and lower baseline trust in AI
20 providers. This structural female skepticism toward generative AI offers a
21 plausible account of the pattern observed here, though the sample size precluded
22 a formal significance test.

23 24 *Limitations*

25
26 The present study offers initial empirical evidence of differential reception
27 effects tied to awareness of AI provenance in an educational podcast, but several
28 methodological constraints must be kept in mind when interpreting the results.

29 The sample size of $n=60$ imposes strict limits on statistical power. Several
30 substantively plausible group differences, on host trustworthiness and perceived
31 expertise, for instance, fail to reach significance, which is most readily explained
32 by the combination of a small sample and modest effect sizes. A larger
33 replication study is needed before robust conclusions can be drawn.

34 The sample is also markedly skewed in terms of age and educational
35 attainment, which is reflected in the high levels of AI familiarity participants
36 reported. This limits the external validity of the findings and leaves open whether
37 the observed patterns would generalize to other populations, older listeners or
38 those less comfortable with AI, for example, especially given that prior research
39 consistently shows AI-related attitudes and trust judgments to be strongly
40 moderated by experience and background knowledge.

41 The homogeneity of the sample on AI familiarity and attitudes also meant
42 that H2, the hypothesis that AI usage and attitudes moderate trust in AI-
43 generated content, was simply not empirically tractable. Testing it properly
44 would require a sample with substantially greater variance on these dispositions.
45 Finally, because this is a quasi-experiment, complete randomization in group
46 assignment was not achieved. While the groups appear comparable on the key
47 variables, a selection effect cannot be ruled out.

1 **Conclusion and Outlook**

2
3 Starting from the question of how awareness or ignorance of AI provenance
4 shapes the reception of an educational podcast, the present study brings together
5 three research domains, podcast research, educational media, and generative AI,
6 that have not previously been examined in this combination. As an exploratory
7 study, it delivers an initial empirical foothold, even if most of the measured items
8 produce group differences that fall below the threshold of significance. We take
9 this less as a limitation than as an invitation to pursue the questions it raises.

10 The most pressing next step is a replication with substantially larger and
11 more diverse samples, one that would permit reliable significance testing and
12 enable the investigation of moderating effects. Of particular interest is the
13 question of whether and how individual AI attitudes, prior usage experience, and
14 general trust in science shape the reception of AI-generated educational content;
15 a question that the present study could not address due to insufficient variance
16 and sample size.

17 The quasi-experimental design also invites extension in multiple directions.
18 The degree of AI involvement could be varied systematically, from fully AI-
19 generated audio, to AI-written scripts with human voices, to entirely manually
20 produced podcasts, to test whether trust judgments respond more to the binary
21 “human or AI” distinction or to the degree of AI involvement. In this regard, the
22 model of “calibrated trust” developed by Hebbel-Seeger & Vohle (forthcoming),
23 with reference to Lee & See (2004) and Ayoub et al. (2022) in the context of
24 academic video use, offers a potentially useful methodological orientation. A
25 longitudinal design would also be valuable for examining whether trust
26 judgments shift over time as exposure to AI-generated educational content
27 accumulates, including in light of the “intermittent neutralization” dynamic
28 discussed in Section 3 (Chen et al., 2025).

29 More broadly, the study suggests that the provenance of an educational
30 medium is not a neutral piece of information. It shapes listeners’ attitudes and
31 expectations in ways that have practical implications for how AI-supported
32 educational offerings are designed and communicated. For higher education
33 didactics, a set of concrete follow-up questions arises: how does transparency
34 about AI involvement affect learning behavior; the depth at which content is
35 processed, the willingness to engage with it critically, the nature and extent of
36 that engagement? These questions are as important as they are underexplored.

37 38 39 **References**

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