The Influence of Experiential Grounding on Attributions of Initial Trustworthiness at Work

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THE INFLUENCE OF EXPERIENTIAL GROUNDING ON
ATTRIBUTIONS OF INITIAL TRUSTWORTHINESS AT WORK

a dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

**The Influence of Experiential Grounding on
Attributions of Initial Trustworthiness at Work**

by

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An important and basic question, highly-relevant to managerial practice, which has been only partially asked and answered in the organizational literature, concerns the development of initial trust among co-workers. In this dissertation, I develop and test the theoretical idea that individual reflection upon affectively-charged work experience will have considerable influence on present attributions of initial trustworthiness to co-workers. The theory is primarily based in the scholarly literature on attribution theory, affective forecasting and trust concepts. Empirical results from testing across three distinct vignette-based scenarios show that the *valence of relevant indirect experience* is significantly and positively related to the *level of initially attributed trustworthiness*. Two experiential indicators, *relational self-efficacy* and *organizational identification*, are also found to be situationally and positively related to the *level of initially attributed trust*. The discussion details important implications for scholarship and management practice.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION

To Carla Ryder Roussin, my trusted teammate for life

To Janie Roussin, my little bright light

To my two new baby boys, I hope that I have finished this project well before your birth

To my mother, Margaret Roussin, the best student in the family

To my father, Richard Roussin, chief engineer and family problem-solver

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CHAPTER 1:
AN INTRODUCTION TO THEORY AND FINDINGS

"Research has shown that people's perceptions—and to an even greater extent, their judgments and inferences—are guided by their internal representations of previous experience (which psychologists variously call schemata, theories, beliefs, hypotheses, or, during an occasional fit of clarity, expectancies)"
                    -Daniel T. Gilbert, 1998

"Meet the new boss, same as the old boss."
                    -Pete Townshend, 1971

An original and continuing focus of the science concerning human behavior in organizations is an interest in understanding the cognitive, behavioral and environmental antecedents to productive work behaviors (e.g. March & Simon, 1958; Simon, 1957; Weber, 1958; Weick, 1979). One thread of this organizational social science is dedicated to the understanding of forces behind cooperation and teamwork in organizations, and within this thread the organizational literature on trust has grown significantly over the past several decades (Kramer, 1999). The work of theorists and empirical researchers on trust in organizations primarily either defines the concept of trust (e.g. Luhmann, 1988; Mayer et al, 1995; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998), explores the development of trust within organizations (e.g. Butler, 1983; Deutsch, 1960; Robinson, 1996), or examines important organizational outcomes of trust (e.g. Costa, Roe, & Taillieu, 2001; Jones & George, 1998; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; McAllister, 1995).

The focus of my theorizing and research in this dissertation project is to advance the literature on initial interpersonal trust development in organizations (e.g. McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998; Serva & Fuller, 2004) by integrating ideas from the organizational and social psychological trust literature with ideas from the academic literature on attribution theory (e.g. Gilbert, 1998) and social cognition in organizations (e.g. Weick, 1979). Specifically, I am

interested in exploring the role of trust-relevant individual experience, or "experiential grounding," in initial trust development, a dynamic that has up to now been left out of seminal work on the topic.

In this dissertation I explore the relevance of the basic and important idea of experiential-grounding to the perception and attribution of initial trustworthiness within organizations. I define experientially-grounded attributions as those attributional processes that include reflection upon the salient, collected experience of the observer as a reference for evaluating and explaining the behavior of newly-encountered others. For example, upon meeting her new colleague, Kevin, who is animatedly telling jokes in the break room, Jill is reminded of a former coworker with whom she shared a negative relationship. Therefore, Jill attributes Kevin with a low initial level of trustworthiness. Although Jill is generally a trusting person in new relationships (i.e. she has a high disposition-to-trust), her evaluation is informed by experience more than disposition.

I theorize concerning the individual, experience-based cognitive inputs that influence the evaluation and attribution of trustworthiness in a newly-encountered individual in the workplace. I seek to advance existing theory on initial trust attribution that currently under-theorizes the role of specific personal experience as an explanatory factor in the development of initial trust (e.g. McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998). Guided primarily by past and current research into attribution theory and person-perception (e.g. Gilbert, 1998), my theory explains aspects of both *how* and *why* dispositionally-similar, but experientially different, individuals will perceive an "identical" target (e.g. person or situation) differently and consequently attribute different levels of initial trustworthiness to that target. Since initial attributions often serve as reference points,

or "anchors," for subsequent attributions (Quattrone, 1982), this theory has important implications for cooperation and performance within organizations.

I have designed my theorizing and research around a few related research questions: Do references to one's collection of experience with work relationships inform the direction of initial trust evaluations in ways that existing theories do not predict? Is such "experiential-grounding" more influential than disposition-to-trust in predicting initial trust outcomes? I expect the answer to these questions to be "yes," and accordingly my theorizing includes several hypotheses concerning causal relationships between individual experience-related factors and initial trust-attributional outcomes.

Empirical results from hypothesis testing show that the valence of specific and personally-relevant trust-related experience does strongly and generally influence initial trust evaluations in organizations, and that this influence accounts for nearly a third of the explained variance in initial trust outcomes. Empirical results also show that two generalized "experiential indicators," *relational self-efficacy* and *organizational identification*, are also significantly and positively related to the level of *initially attributed trustworthiness*, however this is true only in situations in which those particular indicators are salient to the perceiver. *Initially attributed trustworthiness* is supported as a mediator of the relationship between *relevant indirect experience* and level of *intended cooperation*. Empirical results also reveal initial evidence that the influence of *relevant indirect experience* on *initially attributed trustworthiness* is likely strongest in mid-career individuals. Analysis of control variables reveals the surprising finding that older and more highly-educated individuals generally attribute less initial trust to others, while younger and less-educated individuals generally attribute more initial trustworthiness.

CHAPTER 2:
AN EXPERIENTIAL THEORY OF INITIAL TRUST DEVELOPMENT

"We choose flavors of ice cream and vacation destinations---even our careers
and our mates---by predicting how our choices will affect our future happiness."
-Loewenstein & Schkade, 1999

The majority of this chapter is dedicated to the development of new theory; however the first section of the chapter includes a foundational review of theory and empirical research on interpersonal trust and initial trust in organizations. Included in this brief first section are succinct reviews of scholarship on the concept of interpersonal trust within organizations, the development of such trust, and most importantly the concept and development of *initial* trust within organizations. Supporting literatures from social psychology relevant to the aforementioned topics are also briefly discussed.

Review of Relevant Scholarship on Trust and Initial Trust

Definition of Trust. There are many competing definitions of trust in the literature on organizations (Kramer, 1999). Nearly all definitions describe trust and trustworthiness in terms of the desire for risk avoidance by individuals in their necessary professional interactions with others. In developing one widely-cited definition of trust in organizations, Mayer et al (1995) featured both the concepts of vulnerability and shared reliance, which seems apropos given the highly-interdependent nature of most workplace environments.

Trust is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another
party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action
important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that
other party."   - Mayer et al (1995: 712)

Trust Development. Given the preponderance of recent evidence for interpersonal trust as a productive and valuable social enzyme in work environments (e.g. Kramer, 1999), interest in

the psychology of trust development has increased for organizational researchers. These researchers have identified a number of characteristics in potential trustors that are cognitive inputs to an individual's appraisal and attribution-making process --- with specific focus on those factors that are antecedent to positive-trusting attributional outcomes. These factors include the mood of the observer (Schwartz, 1990), perceived threat to one's salient social identity, values or goals (Barber, 1983; Butler, 1983; Deutsch, 1960; Sitkin & Roth, 1993; Mayer, et al, 1995; Jones & George, 1998), both intrinsic (Farris et al, 1973; Mayer et al, 1995; Rotter, 1967; Rotter, 1980) and learned (e.g. culturally-derived) disposition-to-trust (Creed & Miles, 1996; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998), and the observer's perception of situational familiarity (Flanagan, 2003; McAllister, 1995; Robinson, 1996; Jones & George, 1998; Rempel et al, 1985; Gabarro, 1978) and situational importance (Mayer et al, 1995; Staw et al, 1981). Many of these factors are discussed in greater detail in the ensuing section on theory development.

Initial Trust Development. Although initial trust attributions are an important antecedent to subsequent positive trust attributions between individuals (e.g. McAllister, 1995), there is currently only a small body of literature explicitly focusing on initial (e.g. McKnight et al, 1998; Serva & Fuller, 2004) and "swift" or rapid (e.g. Meyerson et al, 1996) trust development between (or among) coworkers. However, loosely-related to this theorizing, there is a fast-growing body of academic research and theory exploring initial trust development between sales entities (e.g. websites, salespeople) and potential customers (e.g. McKnight, Choudhury, Kacmar, 2002).

Initial trust between coworkers has been called "paradoxical" by some theorists, particularly those who assume that interpersonal trust between individuals originates at a low-level (or zero-level) and builds over time (e.g. McKnight et al, 1998, p. 473; Rempel, Holmes, &

Zanna, 1985; Zand, 1972). However, this thinking is contradicted quite strongly by the fact that high-levels of initial trust are commonly evidenced in the initially-cooperative behavior of many new team members and colleagues in organizational settings (Meyerson et al, 1996), and academic research has revealed evidence that individuals will regularly develop high-levels of initial trust and exhibit high-trust behaviors despite a lack of direct trust-history with one another (Kramer, 1994; McKnight et al, 1998, p. 473).

In the one significant example of theorizing concerning the psychology of initial trust in the organizational literature, McKnight et al (1998, p. 474) say that, "*Initial* trust between parties will not be based on any kind of experience with, or firsthand knowledge of, the other party." Their theorizing instead posits that environmental factors (institution-based trust) and two cognitive processes (categorization and illusions of control) will potentially accompany, and even overshadow, an observer's disposition-to-trust as predictor(s) of initial trust outcomes – although there is no empirical support for their model as of yet. My theorizing, described in the next section of this dissertation, offers an alternate (and largely complementary) explanation, focusing on relevant indirect experience as a significant driver of initial trust development. It is unclear as to just how "initial" McKnight et al's (1998) concept of initial trust is – they state that their theory applies only to "new encounters between people" but that it excludes "experiential processes (e.g. observing the trustees' behavior)." The theory developed in the next section here does include the initial observation of trustee behavior by the trustor/perceiver; as such behavior is intrinsic to organizational environments, an important component of attribution theories in social psychology, and seems most productive for organizational theory. Accordingly, I offer this alternate definition of initial trust in organizations: *Initial trust is an internal attribution of*

trustworthiness made in response to a first dependent work interaction. It will not be based on

any previous direct experience with, or firsthand knowledge of, the other party.

Although attribution theories (e.g. Jones and Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1971; Quattrone, 1982; Trope, 1986) originated and have primarily developed in the social psychology literature, these theories are regularly advanced and tested in a number of academic fields, including the academic literature on organizations (e.g. Bunderson, 2003; Zardkoohi, 2004). Attribution theories have proven to be valuable tools for trust researchers to better model and understand both the trust-development process and its perceptive, attributional and behavioral outcomes (e.g. Korsgaard et al. 2002; Kruglanski, 1970; Ferrin and Dirks, 2003).

Attribution theories highlight the relative importance of *initial* social attributions, which are self-biased and largely sub-conscious "dispositional inferences" that the observer makes about a target for the purpose of reducing ambiguity in work or social environments (e.g. Gilbert, 1998). These first impressions (e.g. *Fred is untrustworthy*) serve as attributional "anchors," which may later be adjusted only if the observer has the free cognitive resources, occasion and tendency to do so (e.g. Quattrone, 1982). For example, if I initially perceive and label my co-worker Roderick's behavior as indicating his general lack of trustworthiness, even if Roderick behaves in trust-inspiring ways in the future, I am likely to refer back to my initial attribution and adjust my impression from that starting point – Roderick is now "less untrustworthy." According to such anchoring theories, cognitively busy individuals are the least likely individuals to revisit and revise such anchored attributions (Gilbert, 1998: p. 132). This theorizing is particularly relevant to business-organizational analyses of initial trust development, considering how tightly-packed the cognitive schedules of managers and workers

have become in the face of pressures to squeeze more productivity from fewer organizational resources.

Initial Trust and Performance Outcomes. For organizational researchers and theorists, initial trust development is a compelling topic primarily due to the relationship of trust with performance-related outcomes. Research on trust-related behavioral outcomes explores interpersonal trust as an antecedent condition to cooperation, teamwork, and ultimately heightened productivity --- with those who trust specific others (e.g. teammates, supervisors, and subordinates) being more likely to risk their own self-interest through the sharing of sensitive information, emotions, and attitudes (e.g. Costa et al, 2001; Jones & George, 1998; Kramer, 1999; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Mayer et al, 1995; McAllister, 1995; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). The exploration of trust-related behavioral outcomes in organizations (including studies focused on both positive and negative outcomes) is a potentially broad field, and new studies continue to emerge across a wide spectrum of organizational and institutional settings (e.g. Kramer, 1999; Mayer, 2005).

Trust vs. Distrust in Organizations. Although there is no specific scholarly work contrasting *initial* trust and distrust in organizations, theorists have recently spent significant energy on the question of whether generalized trust and distrust occupy a single conceptual continuum, or if the two concepts are instead separate, somewhat-independent, and even co-existing in significant quantity within the same complex dyadic relationship (e.g. Lewicki, McCallister, & Bies, 1998). These researchers "define trust in terms of *confident positive expectations regarding another's conduct*, and distrust in terms of *confident negative expectations regarding another's conduct* (Lewicki, McCallister, & Bies, 1998: p. 439)." Although distrust is considered to be a functional response in particular social applications, as in

certain customer-to-sales representative or competitor-to-competitor interactions, this study considers a single distrust→trust continuum, with high-trust as an *organizationally*-beneficial phenomena (in that it encourages positive and productive behaviors between co-workers), and on distrust (i.e. low-trust) as an alternately and equally damaging phenomena to organizational productivity.

Explication of a New Experiential Theory of Initial Trust Development

The remainder of this chapter, although also referential to existing theory and research, unfolds an explanation and illustration of a new experiential theory of initial trust development within organizations, along with the development of a number of specific research hypotheses which are tested and discussed in subsequent chapters of this dissertation.

The idea that individual experience directly influences perception and decision-making in unique ways is well-established in both science and philosophy. Visionary philosophers Kant and Hegel both possessed the viewpoint that individuals do not see the world "as it is," but instead construct a view of the world *based on a combination of personal knowledge and experience* (Gilbert, 1998: 121). In more current terms, attribution theories in social psychology describe how individuals make sense of their environment in largely self-satisfying ways by forming dispositional (internal attributions) and situational (external attributions) inferences explaining the behavior of encountered individuals. One of the general assumptions of attribution theories is that individuals are by nature in a near-perpetual state of attempting "to know about each other's temporary states and enduring dispositions," for the purpose of ambiguity reduction and self-protection (Gilbert, 1998: 41), and in the determination of future decision-making and action. In the workplace, where individuals acting as employees are forced

to pursue goals through continuous contact, coordination and negotiation with one another, the attributional process is most certainly in constant motion.

In attempting to identify the source of the behaviors exhibited by others, individuals often "go beyond" the information that is literally available to them (e.g. Hamilton et al, 1990), cognitively "filling in the blanks" in an effort to create sense out of disorder. Reflecting upon relevant personal experience in the momentary appraisal of another is one example of this "going beyond." A large and growing research into affective forecasting within person-perception reveals strong evidence that individual-perceivers reflect both consciously and sub-consciously upon past affective experiences (e.g. with forming relationships) during evaluations of current decision alternatives such as with whom to form a partnership (e.g. Fredrickson, 2000; Fredrickson and Kahneman, 1993; Loewenstein and Schkade, 1999; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, and Diener, 2003). Further research into the impact bias in person-perception reveals evidence that those past affective experiences that were most extreme in valence (i.e. highly positive or negative) are most likely to be recalled during reflection and therefore influence attributional outcomes (e.g. Brown and Kulik, 1977; Gilbert, Driver-Linn, and Wilson, 2002; Wilson and Gilbert, 2003).

Social perceivers translate personal experience into *expectancy* in an effort to predict social outcomes. Research in social attribution-making reveals that reflection on a range of personally-relevant knowledge and experience, including experience with similar-looking, acting or feeling individuals, is a core element of social evaluation and attribution-making (e.g. Kunda & Thagard, 1996; Gilbert, 1998: p. 116; McClelland & Rumelhart, 1986; Rumelhart & McClelland, 1986; Read, 1987; Read & Marcus-Newhall, 1993; Shultz & Lepper, 1996). This work is echoed in the organizational literature, where Karl Weick theorized that different

individuals, seemingly provided with the same social information, may draw different impressions of an observed individual, action or environment – for the reason that their individual cognitive "sensemaking" processes are influenced by divergent perspective and experience, among other factors (Weick, 1975; Weick, 1995; Weick, 2005). In addition to the aforementioned work from social cognitive science, more recent theory and research concerning the influence of individual *experientially grounded* rationality on perceptive outcomes in organizational settings (e.g. Roussin, 2008) lends mechanistic clarity to Weick's existing theorizing.

Details of the Experientially-Grounded Model and Theory of Initial Trust

This section describes the detail of a theory of the experiential grounding of initial trust in organizational settings. Like McKnight et al (1998), I define initial trust evaluations as those that are not "based on any kind of experience with, or firsthand knowledge of, the other party." These moments are very common in organizations, and occur in a variety of contexts – the introduction of a new manager, the addition of a new team member, and the arrival of an external consultant or auditor in one's work environment are but a few examples that affect nearly all employees within organizations on a regular basis.

In this section, I first briefly theorize concerning specific attributional processes and the "mental calculus" of initial trust attributions, and then define a theoretical framework which describes the influence of experientially-grounded elements on the level of initially attributed trustworthiness. Finally, I theorize concerning the specific influence of each aspect of the framework on the level of initially attributed trustworthiness, while offering hypotheses for empirical testing. The results of such testing are described in the subsequent chapters of this dissertation.

The "Mental Calculus" of Experientially-Grounded Initial Trust Attributions

As theorized here, the output of an experientially-grounded initial trust evaluation is an attribution of high or low trustworthiness to an observed individual. This attribution is a trust-related causal explanation (to oneself) for the observed individual's behavior in the observed work situation (*e.g. I have discovered a fellow-employee whom I have not met looking through my desk drawers. This reminds me of similar untrustworthy behavior. This person is untrustworthy, too*). Attributions of this type are *internal* attributions (i.e. dispositional inferences) made by the observer concerning the observed "other." If the "other" is being observed for the first time by the observer (i.e. there is no trust-related history between observer and observed) then this dispositional attribution becomes the observer's "anchored" impression of the other --- an impression that may be subject to future adjustment, but likely not wholesale revision (Quattrone, 1982). There is also a chance that an observer would make an *external* attribution in addition to, or in place of, an internal attribution. In such a case the observer would be evaluating situational factors as explanations for the observed behavior (e.g. *The unknown individual is looking through my desk drawers solely because a loud, distracting noise is coming from one of my desk drawers. Whoops, that's my watch alarm. In this individual's place I may do the same.*).

Generally, cognitive scientists agree that attributions developed in a busy social environment are largely *internal*, and are made hastily out of necessity for the observer, who requires immediate attributional results for decision-making. Attributions are neither entirely conscious nor entirely sub-conscious, but involve aspects of both layers of cognition. Using only readily available information (e.g. combining what they currently *see* with what they currently *know*) as cognitive inputs, the observer infers a dispositional conclusion from observed behavior(s), leaving correction of these hasty and important conclusions for a later moment when

things aren't so busy (which may never happen in a busy organizational environment). This process has been described by scientists in an extended (and sometimes coordinated) effort to determine the specific "mental calculus" of social attribution-making (see Gilbert, 1998 for a very thorough review).

Attribution is typically described as primarily a two-stage cognitive process (e.g. Jones & Davis, 1965; Trope, 1986), with the first stage being when a social observer first identifies and *categorizes* the social action(s) of an observed actor. Trope (1986) found evidence that this categorization process is driven by three types of cues – situational, behavioral, and prior – with "prior" cues representing existing information (e.g. direct experience) relating to the observed actor. In the words of this theory concerning only *initial* (trust) attributions, "prior" cues can be substituted with indirect experiential cues (i.e. self-directed comparison with similar-relevant others). This first stage of categorization is followed by a second stage during which the observer rapidly constructs an associated attribution, or dispositional *inference*, concerning the actor herself. Recently cognitive scientists combined these traditional and widely-accepted ideas with Quattrone's concept of subsequent situational correction of attributions (Quattrone, 1982) to form a three stage model of social attribution (e.g. Gilbert, Pelham, & Krull, 1988).

Figure 1: A Multi-Stage Model of Initial Trust Attribution, Intention and Behavior
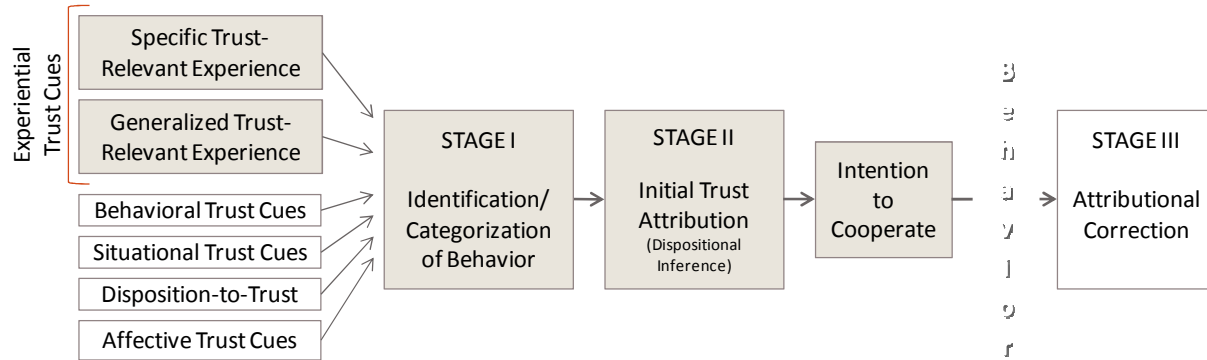
Figure 1 depicts such a three-stage process model specific to attributions of initial trust. As the model indicates, and as this theory will describe in detail, there are two types of experiential trust cues that guide the identification and categorization of observed behavior, those cues consisting of *specific trust-relevant experience* and those consisting of *generalized trust-relevant experience*. Specific trust-relevant experience is behavior from the observer's past that is recalled in association with the current on-going action. *"Ah, I've seen this behavior before – my former co-worker DAVE did this!"* Such experience with similar "others," being often affectively-charged, perfectly fits the requirements of the hurried social decision maker – it is cognitively at-the-ready and can inform a rapid attributional conclusion. In contrast, generalized trust-relevant experience represents an individual's collective, or aggregated, experience with trusting or relating. *E.g. "I can't normally trust people at work and I'm not going to trust this new person either."*

Figure 2: A Model of Experientially Grounded Initial Trust Development
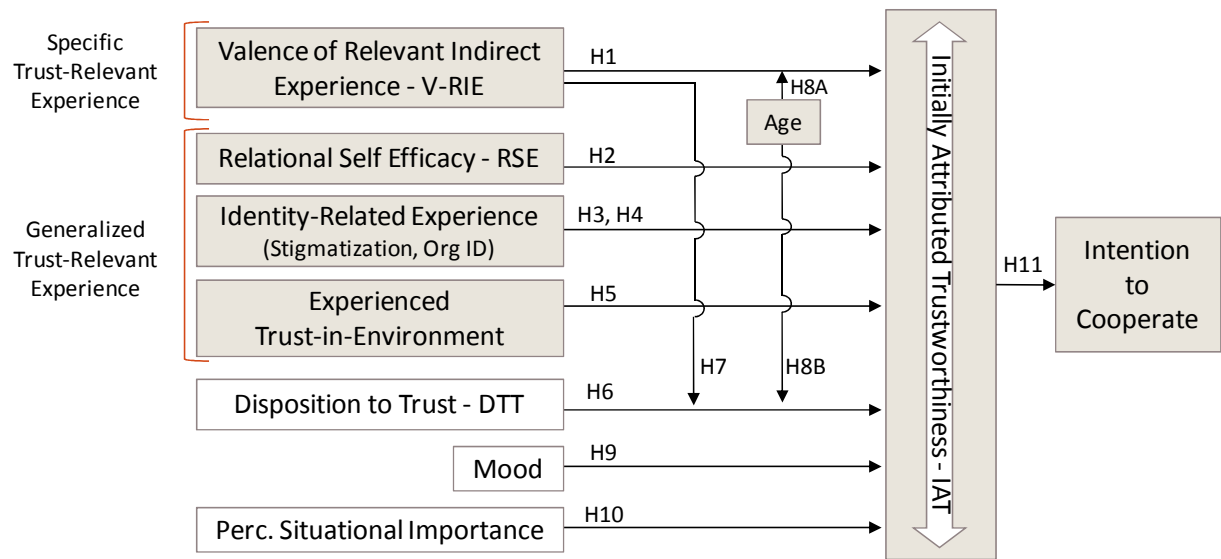
Figure 2 depicts a model of experientially-grounded initial trust development. The model introduces the experiential factors that are theoretically causes of variance in initial trust attributional outcomes, along with an individual's disposition-to-trust, as originally theorized in the organizational trust literature by Mayer et al (1995). Like McKnight et al (1998), I also propose that there are influences (in this case experiential influences) that interact with disposition as influencers of initial trust outcomes. I theorize that those individuals with larger bodies of experience with workplace interactions (as in older and longer-tenured employees) will rely more on experience than disposition than others in forming ideas of initial trust. I also consider three established indicators of the collective positive-negative valence of an individual's at-work experiences as indicators of the likely result of a given experiential recall – these being individual *relational self-efficacy*, *perceived stigmatization* and *organizational identification*. Two of these indicators are theorized to reveal the presence of positive (self-efficacy) or negative (perceived stigmatization) experiential bases in an individual, while the third (organizational identification) is theorized to reveal the absence of negative, frame-breaking experiences

associated with one's organizationally-derived identity. The model also includes the influence of mood and situational importance on the level of initially attributed trustworthiness.

The Role of Specific Trust-Relevant Experience in the Theory

In this section I theorize concerning an aspect of specific trust-relevant experience (as specified in Figure 2) and its influence on initial trust-attributional outcomes in far greater detail.

Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience ("V-RIE"). When faced with a lack of direct history of interdependence with an encountered individual (e.g. past direct interactions) in the workplace, individual employees will instead be automatically prompted to conduct largely sub-conscious cognitive searches for experiences with similar (i.e. relevant in their estimation) others from their past --- inevitably the search is either successful or not, and if successful the memories that are conjured include either positive or negative experiences and associated positive or negative affect. As just mentioned, these cognitive "searches" and resulting influence on the level of initially attributed trustworthiness ("IAT") are largely sub-conscious, as described in much of the social psychology literature on attribution-making, however cognitive scientists acknowledge that attributional systems are likely very complex, and composed of both conscious and sub-conscious elements (Gilbert, 1998) – with individuals who are less cognitively-busy handling more processing at the conscious level than others. As discussed, research on the impact bias in person perception suggests that highly positive or negative experiences are more likely to be salient than less affectively-intense experiences and are therefore more likely to influence social perception and decision-making (Brown and Kulik, 1977; Gilbert, Driver-Linn, and Wilson, 2002; Wilson and Gilbert, 2003). Such comparisons with previous experience play a key role in the attributional process, with individuals that resemble previously observed others in positive ways being far more positively evaluated than other targets (Flanagan, 2003;

McAllister, 1995; Robinson, 1996; Jones & George, 1998; McAllister, 1995; Rempel et al, 1985; Gabarro, 1978; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). Likewise, observed individuals who resemble poorly regarded others from the observer's past are evaluated poorly in-kind. For example, I am more likely to be upset by a coworker's particular behavior (e.g. avoidance), and attribute that coworker with negative dispositional traits (e.g. low trustworthiness) if I have been harmed by similar behavior in the past, or if there is no obvious situational reason (e.g. a recent death in the family) for the coworker's behavior.

> *Hypothesis 1: The more positive the valence of an employee/observer's relevant indirect experience (V-RIE), the greater the level of initially-attributed trustworthiness.*

The Role of Generalized Trust-Relevant Experience in the Theory

In this section I discuss the three aspects of generalized trust-relevant experience specified in Figure 2 and their theoretical role in the influence of initial trust attributional outcomes. These are Relational Self-Efficacy ("RSE"), Perceived Social Stigmatization, and Organizational Identification ("OrgID"). Each aspect is discussed at length and specific research hypotheses are developed and presented.

Relational Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy is an accumulative indicator of the positive-negative valence of an individual's body of experience with behavioral attempts at task completion (Bandura, 1977). As originally theorized by Bandura (e.g. 1977, 1997), an individual's degree of self-efficacy is a self-evaluation of task-related competence developed through a variety of individual experience(s). Self-efficacy is developed through experience, in that once a particular behavior (e.g. interdependent interaction with a new individual) is executed with a successful outcome; self-efficacy concerning that behavior will be increased (Bandura, 1977, 1997). Bandura (1977) called this *mastery experience*, but also believed that *vicarious experience* (experience gained through observation of others) could build self-efficacy in the

observing individual. Given general success across a variety of tasks, Bandura believed that high self-efficacy would become more generalized in the individual. Although most often associated with its influences on self-perception and performance, self-efficacy has also been theorized (with empirical support) to alter perceptions of risk associated with other individuals and experienced situations (e.g. Kallmen, 2000).

Here I define the concept of relational self-efficacy ("RSE") as a self-evaluation of one's own ability to perform a *cooperative* behavior successfully. This distinct relational aspect of self-efficacy, heretofore undifferentiated in the scholarly work on the topic, concerns individual perceptions of competence (or alternately the likelihood of success) associated only with relational development, growth and outcomes resulting from cooperative efforts. This would include success with interdependent problem-solving, task execution, and other types of relational work activity. This would purposefully exclude, however, the portion of self-efficacy derived from and associated with isolated (i.e. individual-only) task-based successes. Furthermore, I am only theorizing concerning an individual's RSE in work environments (under the now common belief that self-efficacy can vary across context, e.g. work vs. family, for the same individual). Occupational self-efficacy (e.g. Schyns & von Collani, 2002) is a construct that has been developed and tested specifically for such purposes.

RSE can be conceptualized as a predictor and cause of initial-trust attributional outcomes. Bandura (e.g. 1977, 1997) theorizes that individuals with high levels of self-efficacy are far more likely to perceive future (or present) opportunities and interactions as holding potential for personal success rather than failure---for the simple reason that these individuals have experienced success more often than failure and have greater expectancy of repeating such success. In doing so, Bandura is effectively explaining how self-efficacy alters both the content

and outputs of the attributional process – with the implied mechanism behind this influence being momentary cognitive scans of the individual's salient experience with success and failure associated with a particular category of task. In the specific case of individuals with high levels of *relational* self-efficacy assessing the initial trustworthiness of another, the observing (high RSE) individual has theoretically experienced success more often than failure with relational efforts at task success. Such successful relational efforts by definition involve the efficient and consistent sharing of sensitive (i.e. honest) information---behavior that is characteristic of high-trust interpersonal relationships (e.g. Jones and George, 1998; McAllister, 1995). Thusly, I theorize that individuals who have positive experience related to trust-intensive, cooperative behaviors (i.e. those with high RSE) will generally attributed higher-levels of initial trust in highly-relational work settings. This theoretical statement coincides with findings from the aforementioned literature on affective forecasting, which show a significant relationship between an individual's past affective experiences and expected affective outcomes of future experiences (e.g. Fredrickson, 2000; Fredrickson and Kahneman, 1993; Loewenstein and Schkade, 1999; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, and Diener, 2003). Individuals with very high or very low levels of relational self-efficacy have likely experienced particularly intense (or extended) reinforcement of their relational competence (or lack thereof). Theorizing and research on the impact bias in affective forecasting would indicate that such extreme affective experience (i.e. either highly positive or negative) will be most influential on present and future moments of person perception (Brown and Kulik, 1977; Gilbert, Driver-Linn, and Wilson, 2002; Wilson and Gilbert, 2003).

> *Hypothesis 2: The greater the level of relational self-efficacy (RSE) in an employee/observer, the greater the level of initially-attributed trustworthiness (IAT).*

Identity-Related Indicators of Individual Experience. Social identity has been theorized as an individual's answer to the questions, "Who am I?" and "How should I act and perceive in

my role and situation (March, 2005)?" Social identity also encompasses personal ideas about the nature of an individual's experience with specific group membership (e.g. Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje, 1997, 1999), with those individuals that identify most closely with a group being more likely to perceive themselves as being more similar and more emotionally-close to other group members, or the "ingroup," and less close to "outgroup" members (e.g. Frey and Tropp, 2006; Doosje, Ellemers, and Spears, 1995).

Below I theorize concerning the influence of two experientially-derived aspects of social identity on initial trust evaluations. I theorize that both organizational identification and perceived stigmatization at work can be interpreted as generalized "indicators" of an individual's quality (i.e. positive/negative) of experience with workplace relationships. Like self-efficacy, social identities develop through either personal or vicarious exposure to (i.e. experience with) the condition of "being" (or adopting, or shedding) a particular social identity. Because individuals can hold several overlapping, or even conflicting, social identities at one time (e.g. Elsbach, 1999; Ashforth, 2007), the temporary salience of a particular social identity can determine the relative influence of that identity on attributional processes at a given moment in time (March, 2005). I theorize that this temporarily salient social identity is also accompanied by the temporarily salient set of trust- and organization-relevant memories available for experiential recall and comparison with ongoing behaviors.

Perceived Stigmatization. A growing body of research within social psychology suggests that the perceived stigmatization of an aspect of one's social identity in a social or work environment influences perceptive and attribution processes in significant ways (e.g. Crocker and Major, 1989; Crocker, Voelkl, Testa and Major, 1991), with stigmatized individuals behaving and perceiving social environments in more self-protective ways than others. Related

research also suggests that perceived stigmatization of one's social identity group serves to make the strength of identity with the group more salient, and therefore more influential on social perception (e.g. Crocker, Major, & Steele, 1998; Jones et al, 1984). Frey and Tropp (2006) nicely summarize the specific influence that perceived stigmatization has on trust-relevant perception and attribution in social environments:

> "The recognition that one's group is stigmatized often leads to a focus on how others view one's group (Pinel, 1999) in an attempt to predict how one will be viewed and treated. As such, contexts in which people's group identities are stigmatized (e.g., women in mathematics) can become threatening due to the possibility that their behavior will be interpreted in terms of negative stereotypes associated with their group (Spencer, Steele, & Quinn, 1999; Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002). Thus, stigmatized group identities can lead people to expect to be viewed in terms of their group membership rather than to be perceived on the basis of their individual characteristics." - Frey and Tropp (2006; p. 269)

In the organizational literature, recent research suggests that individuals that identify closely with stigmatized ethnic background, illness group or sexuality group have been theorized to evaluate the risk inherent in such environments differently than others for self-protective reasons (Clair, Beatty, and MacLean, 2005). These individuals perceive greater risk involved with their behavior in work settings than others, and as a result often participate in less genuine ways than others, for example by misrepresenting the stigmatized aspect of their ethnic, medical or personal background. Following this research, I theorize that perceived stigmatization is a reliable indicator of the general positive-negative valence of an individual's at-work experiences with interpersonal risk-taking, with stigmatized individuals having generally more negative experiences in organizational settings (both leading up to and reinforcing the perceived stigmatization), and therefore a greater risk of associating newly-encountered individuals and behaviors with negatively-regarded others.

Hypothesis 3: The greater the extent to which an employee/observer identifies with a perceived stigmatized social group, the lesser the level of initially assigned trustworthiness (IAT).

Organizational Identification ("OrgID"). McKnight et al (1998; p. 480) theorize that employees evaluate others according to a cognitive "unit grouping" principle when evaluating initial trustworthiness, with those who share common organizational memberships (among other commonalities) being generally evaluated as being more initially trustworthy. More generally, the degree to which an individual identifies strongly with a particular organization, ethnicity, or other social group has been theorized as being influential to perceptive processes and outcomes (e.g. Albert & Whetten, 1985; Gergen, 1991; March, 2005). Organizational identity researchers have found evidence that strongly identified individuals have greater social attraction to other ingroup members (Frey and Tropp, 2006; Hogg & Hardie, 1992; Hogg, Hardie & Reynolds, 1995).

Organizational researchers have found evidence that individuals who identify strongly as organizational members tend to make more positive attributions to other members and targets that reaffirm organizational membership (e.g. Dutton et al, 1994). I theorize that this pattern of perception and behavior is due to an individual's lack of highly negative "frame-breaking" (e.g. Goffman, 1981) experiences as an organizational member. Frame-breaking experiences would be defined as any experience or event that changes an individual's social identity with a group from "in" to "out" (or visa-versa). For example, a large layoff that includes several of an individual's closest friends could lead that individual to become disidentified with the organization. Individuals with high-levels of organizational identification, having a lack of negativity associated with such identification, will therefore be more likely to associate initial within-organization interactions with positively-regarded others in the evaluation of initial trust.

Hypothesis 4: The greater an employee/observer's level of identification (OrgID) with their current employing organization, the greater the level of initially attributed trustworthiness (IAT).

Experienced Trust-in-Environment. Researchers have theorized that cultural dynamics (e.g. what are considered to be "normal" behaviors) of an individual's immediate work environment which are experienced and learned through socialization can influence the trust-attributional process. Specifically, the behaviors of a person's manager or leader, including a leader's tendency to emphasized shared values (Creed & Miles, 1996), focus on common incentives (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998), and exhibit behavioral integrity (Davis and Rothstein, 2006; Simons, 2002) and trusting behaviors themselves (Creed & Miles, 1996) have been theoretically linked with changes in individual attitudes and tendencies to attribute trustworthiness to others in a particular work environment.

Hypothesis 5: The greater an employee/observer's experience of trust in their current work environment (Experienced Trust-in-Environment), the greater the level of initially attributed trustworthiness.

Controlling for the Classically-Theorized Predictor: Disposition to Trust

Researchers have theorized that individuals are dispositionally different in their tendency to trust others due to a combination of basic nature and early childhood development influences (e.g. Farris et al, 1973; Mayer et al, 1995; McKnight et al, 1998; Rotter, 1967); with those individuals who possess a greater disposition-to-trust being less likely to perceive a stable other as presenting a significant social risk, and therefore more likely to attribute a newly encountered individual with higher levels of trustworthiness. Disposition-to-trust is defined as an individual's perception of the general trustworthiness of others. An individual's benevolence has been associated with greater disposition-to-trust, with more benevolent and humanistic individuals having more-trusting views of work and social environments (Mayer et al, 1995; Rotter, 1980).

Disposition-to-trust is the existing "benchmark" theoretical antecedent to initial trust outcomes, however empirical support for the link between disposition-to-trust and level of attributed trust is "mixed" (McKnight et al, 1998; p. 477). Therefore, I do not take the disposition→initial trust relationship for granted but rather include it as a part of the active theorizing and hypothesis testing in this project. Subsequently disposition is the subject of the next research hypothesis, with subsequent hypotheses focusing on my experientially-focused advancements to this existing dispositional theory and research.

> *Hypothesis 6: The greater an employee/observer's disposition-to-trust, the greater the level of initially attributed trustworthiness (IAT).*

Moderating Influence of V-RIE on the Disposition-to-Trust → IAT Relationship

I theorize here that V-RIE, besides directly influencing initial trust attributional outcomes, will also moderate the relationship between disposition-to-trust (DTT) and the level of initially attributed trustworthiness (IAT). As explained by Jaccard and Turrisi (2003), "an interaction effect is said to exist when the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable differs depending upon the value of a third variable, called the moderator variable." Theorizing on both affective forecasting and specifically on the impact bias explains how one's experiential associations with an initially-encountered co-worker could influence the relationship between an employee's DTT and the level of IAT. As discussed, affective forecasting theory (e.g. Fredrickson, 2000; Fredrickson and Kahneman, 1993; Loewenstein and Schkade, 1999; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, and Diener, 2003) describes how individuals make use of personally-relevant past affective events in order to forecast near-future affective outcomes associated with available decision choices – and subsequent theory on the impact bias in person-perception (Brown and Kulik, 1977; Gilbert, Driver-Linn, and Wilson, 2002; Wilson and Gilbert, 2003) describes how the most affectively-extreme events from one's past are most influential on

present and future moments of perception. In particular, strongly negative events from one's past are theoretically most influential to current moments of evaluation and decision-making.

Betrayal of trust has been proven to be a jolting moment to those employees who experience it, and therefore represents a strong negative memory. Employees are fundamentally more sensitive to (and affected by) highly-negative acts of trust betrayal than they are to more positive acts of trust building (Elangovan and Shapiro, 1998; Kramer, 1999; Robinson, 1996; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Schoorman, Mayer and Davis, 2007). Relationships characterized by betrayal take exceedingly long time to heal (if they ever do heal) even in the presence of positive behaviors (e.g. Kramer, 1999; McAllister, 1995; Robinson, 1996). I theorize that in such cases where an employee-observer has a highly-negative experiential association (V-RIE) to a new co-worker that the DTT effect on IAT outcomes will be affected – with generalized dispositional influences being subjugated by stronger and more specific experiential influences in a particular moment of initial trust attribution. In contrast, where V-RIE is more positive (and not signaling "Danger!") in a moment of initial trust attribution, dispositional influences will not be dominated as completely by experiential associations.

Hypothesis 7: Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience (VRIE) is hypothesized to positively moderate the Disposition-to-Trust to Initially Attributed Trustworthiness (DTT→IAT) relationship.

Moderating Influence of Age on the *V-RIE→IAT* and *DTT→IAT* Relationships

Older employees generally have fundamentally-larger bodies of experience with work-specific relationships, interactions and outcomes than younger employees, leading to the theoretical proposition that experiential-grounding will be a greater influencing factor on initial trust evaluations in older and longer-tenured employees than in others. However, there is evidence in both the academic psychology and management research that older individuals will

be less likely to make use of experiential-grounding in evaluating and attributing initial trust than others for a variety of both biological and developmental reasons.

Psychological research consistently points out general changes in cognitive processing tendencies with age, including declines in memory processing and recall (e.g. Craik, 1977; Salthouse, 1991) and ability and willingness to engage in immediate and "effortful" cognitive processing (e.g. Spotts, 1994). Since experiential grounding in initial trust is at its core an active cognitive exercise involving memory recall and the building of cognitive associations, the tendency to perform such cognitive gymnastics would accordingly decline over time – leading older individuals to instead rely more on basic dispositional outlooks in shaping initial trust evaluations.

Other research and theory into individual development provides evidence that over time, and particularly in later career stages, individuals develop a greater appreciation for individual differences and greater comfort and patience with ambiguity (e.g. Torbert, 2004) in work and relationships. This work would indicate that older individuals would be potentially less likely to rely on specific experiential grounding in shaping attributions of initial trust – and perhaps more likely to rely on dispositional tendencies. In summary, both the psychology and management literatures show evidence that experiential grounding in initial trust development will peak at mid-career and mid-age when both experience and cognitive abilities are significant (and development still incomplete), and then decline in later time periods.

Hypothesis 8A: Age will have curvilinear, inverted u-shaped, moderating effect on the V-RIE→IAT relationship.

Hypothesis 8B: Age will have a curvilinear, u-shaped, moderating effect on the DTT→IAT relationship.

Situational Factors in the Model

Mood. According to Russell (2003; p. 145), "At the heart of emotion, mood, and any other emotionally charged event are states experienced as simply feeling good or bad, energized or enervated. These [affective] states influence reflexes, perception, cognition, and behavior and are influenced by many causes internal and external…." Researchers have indeed established a clear and powerful empirical connection between the mood of a perceiver and outcomes of attributions to an observed individual, with happy people being more likely to attribute positive traits to others than unhappy people (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). The same research also shows that happy perceivers also feel more positively than unhappy people about themselves, various inanimate objects, and their future. Mood may also affect the speed of the attributional process. Researchers have found evidence that a negative mood slows down the attributional process, leading the perceiver to make more deliberate, complex and causal attributions (Gannon, Skowronski, & Betz, 1994). According to Russell, mood functions as a continuous "assessment of one's current condition" and influences decision-making and perception in that a person will seek to maintain or improve one's mood (Russell, 2003: p. 148).

Some emotion and mood theorists believe that upon the scanning of social environments, individuals subconsciously consult a hierarchy of experientially-grounded values and goals to understand if the immediate environment holds personalized threats, boons, or a combination of the two, before an associated emotional change occurs (e.g. anger, confusion, and elation) and is experienced by the observer (Ortony, Clore & Collins, 1988). Citing evidence that mood and emotion serve as important directing mechanisms for cognition and behavior (e.g. Weiner, 1980, 1986), other researchers have found evidence that specific emotions (e.g. anger vs. fear) direct attributional processes and outcomes in very different ways (Lerner and Keltner, 2000) – with

angry individuals more likely to predict positive future outcomes and fearful individuals more likely to predict negative future outcomes.

Hypothesis 9: Mood has a positive relationship with the level of initially attributed trustworthiness.

Perception of Situational Importance.   The power of the situational context, as internalized by an observer, in determining emotional and attributional outcomes is significant. Much research and theory on attribution theory focuses on situational stimuli, and "the situation," under various definitions, has also been the subject of extensive research into person-perception and attribution-making (Jones and Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1971; Quattrone, 1982; Trope, 1986). One element of "the situation" that is particularly relevant to moments of trust attribution is the observer's perception of the *importance* of the ongoing situation.

Organizational researchers have found evidence that threatening situations lead to reduced cognitive capacity in individuals, and specifically a tendency in individuals to reduce attributional complexity (Staw et al, 1981). Mayer et al (1995: 726-727) identify "the stakes involved" as an important situational factor affecting trust-based attributional processes and argue that the "interpretation of the context of the relationship will affect both the need for trust and the evaluation of trustworthiness" in the other individual. So it holds that in situations of perceived importance the standards for positive attributions of trustworthiness are raised significantly by the observer. For example, an experienced doctor may attribute an intern as trustworthy to treat the burn wound of an average patient, but the same intern may not be trusted with the otherwise-identical treatment of that same doctor's wife.

Hypothesis 10:   The extent to which an employee perceives a situation as important has a negative relationship with the level of initially attributed trustworthiness (IAT).

The Link between Initial Trust and Behavioral Intention-to-Cooperate

Researchers exploring trust-related behavioral outcomes in organizations have found significant evidence of positive trust attributions as antecedent to productive behaviors including high-quality communication, cooperation, and teamwork (e.g. Costa et al, 2001; Jones & George, 1998; Kramer, 1999; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Mayer et al, 1995; McAllister, 1995; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998).

Theorists concerned with trust in work team environments believe that a greater preponderance of positive trust attributions in workgroups will be accompanied by greater levels of positive behaviors, including greater levels of help-seeking, free exchange of knowledge, high involvement in group goals and activities, and subjugation of personal needs and ego for the common good. These behaviors, in turn, are theorized to greatly increase realized levels of interpersonal cooperation and teamwork (Jones and George, 1998). In limited empirical testing, these theories have begun to be upheld (e.g. Costa et al, 2001).

> *Hypothesis 11: The level of initially attributed trustworthiness (IAT) from an employee toward a target has a positive relationship with the level of intended cooperation with that target. Furthermore, IAT will mediate the relationship between V-RIE and level of behavioral intention to cooperate.*

CHAPTER 3:
METHODS

I have no knowledge of myself as I am, but merely as I appear to myself.
-Immanuel Kant

In this dissertation study I developed and utilized a vignette-based and anonymous survey design to assess relationships between experiential, dispositional, contextual, and situational factors and initial trust evaluations in workplace settings. Analysis was planned and conducted using the principles and methods of quantitative data analysis. This methods chapter is organized into four sections, describing (in order) a *rationale for the use of a survey design and self-reported measures*, the *research participants and procedures*, specific *instrumentation and measurements*, *analytic strategy*, and finally a brief discussion of intentional *methodological boundary conditions* for this study.

Use of Survey Design and Self-Reported Measurements

Survey-based research designs have the advantage of facilitating rapid data collection from a broad sample which includes significant geographic and demographic diversity. However, one widely acknowledged criticism of survey methods concerns the fact that surveys measure "self reports" of phenomena or behaviors rather than the behaviors themselves. For this research, I chose to make use of a survey design, and associated self-reported measures purposefully and for a number of reasons. In this study I am concerned with explaining and exploring dynamics of the perceived-self and perceived-other(s), as opposed to the "true scientific self" that may be associated with studies making use of neuro-scientific methods in lab environments. I am interested in understanding how individual employees self-describe their trust-relevant ideas, perceptions, and intentions.

Making this survey and data collection process entirely anonymous was also a deliberate choice. Although an anonymous survey (with no name or tracking information on the survey) prevents the popular technique of "circling back" with participants to clarify responses and improve response rates, it also *ensures* the safety of participants, and therefore encourages honesty concerning sensitive topics and social judgments. In fact, surveys in general have been considered by methodologists to encourage greater honesty concerning sensitive topics than face-to-face interview methods, which stimulate greater self-consciousness in many participants (Knudsen, Pope, & Irish, 1967; Moser & Kalton, 1972). To avoid significant non-response bias, often associated with anonymous survey designs, the data collection process was "sponsored" by a high-level organizational leader at each research site – with this leader taking responsibility for pre-notification to employees concerning the research (including a brief explanation of the research and "permission" to take the time to participate during work hours) as well as distribution of the survey directly to employees, who upon possession of the printed survey could then read the survey cover letter and proceed (or not) as desired.

Participants and Procedures

Participants. The research sample includes 215 participants from nine active business organizations across diverse industries, with participation from between ten and sixty-three individuals from each organization. Participating organizations were from the professional services, community services, distribution, manufacturing and insurance industries and featured diversity in geography, age, income, education and gender among other characteristics. Participating organizations represent a combination of random and convenience sample. Most organizations and sponsoring executives were known to this researcher before the study, with organizations diversely-located in the Southeastern, Northeastern, and Midwestern United States.

With one exception ("GED Learning Center" – *all names of the organizations shown in this dissertation are pseudonyms*) the organizations are "for profit" ventures, although one of the remaining eight ("Pure Values") organizations describes itself as being "mission-driven" with an explicitly socially-conscious business plan and operations. In each organizational case, either an intact subset of the organization (e.g. an entire department or office location within a larger organization) or the entire intact organization (in the case of smaller organizations) participated in the research – with an average response rate of 64% and a minimum response rate of 42% (see table 1 below for details). This design ensured that the response group was appropriately representative of the sampled population, allowing for analysis of the sample as a whole and also for limited and preliminary cross-organizational analysis (although such analysis is not a central concern of this research).

Table 1: Sampled Organizations and Response Rates*

STUDY RESPONSE RATES

	Type	Response	# Received	# Distributed
Stedman Insurance	All organization	71.67%	43	60
Distribution Allied	All organization	68.67%	57	83
Jones, Jones and Jones	All organization	64.29%	9	14
Pure Values	All organization	51.43%	36	70
Henley Industries	Regional office	48.00%	24	50
GED Learning Center	All organization	88.89%	8	9
Defense Industries	Workgroup	66.67%	8	12
Tech Marketing	Workgroup	62.50%	20	32
Promotions, Inc.	Regional office	41.67%	10	24
TOTAL		64.01%	215	354

*All organization names have been changed. Any similarity to actual organizations is unintended.

Procedures. In each case a senior executive of the company (the President or CEO in four of the nine organizations) or managing executive of the work-group or division allowed on-site distribution of the anonymous survey and recommended, but did not require, that all employees complete the survey during normal work hours. Response in all cases was simultaneously confidential, anonymous and strictly voluntary. In return for participation, the

senior executives were offered aggregated data concerning the cognitive makeup and trust-attributional tendencies of their workforce. This offer of aggregated data was also made available to individual participants in the research (this was explained in the survey cover letter).

This study's author coordinated the administration of an on-site employee survey at each of the nine participating organizations. Data collection procedures were functionally identical at all of the locations. Coordination involved the recruitment and securing of sponsorship for the research through a senior executive at each organization, who committed to the research, provided a timeline for data collection, and also provided the number of employees who would be offered the voluntary survey. This executive then took responsibility for two major activities critical to the data collection. First, the executive selected a "point person" who was responsible for receiving the package of printed surveys (sent from the researcher through overnight package delivery), distributing the surveys (by placing them directly in the hands of participating employees), and setting-up a secure location for the collection of completed surveys. This individual also returned the surveys through pre-paid overnight package delivery back to this researcher for data collection. Secondly, the sponsoring executive crafted an e-mail notifying employees of the research (and its anonymous and confidential nature), naming the researcher, permitting that 30 minutes of paid work time be allocated to the survey, and recommending that employees take part in an effort to "help the researcher with his important research." This explicit sponsorship of the research, including allowance of paid time, and assurances of the confidentiality and anonymity of the research was critical to counteraction of non-response bias (in this researcher's opinion). In all cases this notification took place, followed by distribution of the survey, completion of the survey by approximately 40-90% of the intended sample, and then return of the completed surveys through pre-paid overnight package delivery.

Once received, the surveys were first numbered and then previewed for incompleteness or absurdity (e.g. obviously insincere responses, joke responses, silly patterns of multiple choice responses). Approximately 1-2% of responses were then considered invalid and those were subsequently removed from the study (with actual paper surveys saved). After numbering and screening, the remaining completed surveys were entered directly into the SPSS data editor by this researcher. Next, those items that had been reverse-coded, or that required other transformation, were recoded to ready the data for analysis.

Survey Instrument

The written survey-questionnaire instrument (Appendix A) had a total of 109 items and captured information from respondents including self-reported measurements of experientially-grounded cognitive profiles (including relational self-efficacy, organizational identification, and experienced trust-in-environment), disposition-to-trust, interpretations of workplace scenarios, reactions to the same scenarios and individual demographics among other measures. To capture cognitive profile information I made use of validated scales where they were available (detailed below where applicable) to capture individual data. To capture interpretations of workplace scenarios, I provided respondents with three brief vignettes describing fictional workplace scenarios and interactions (e.g. a design-your-own-job assignment from a newly-hired boss). Respondents then responded to both Likert-scale and open-ended questions concerning their impression of the trust and risk factors inherent in each setting, as well as their hypothetical behavioral responses to each scenario. Likert-type items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") to 5 ("Strongly Agree"). Other items included a number of yes/no questions, a number of open-text responses, and demographic data, which was captured using typical multiple-choice questionnaire items at the conclusion of the survey instrument. Finally, a

graphical "circumplex" picture (see survey in appendix to view the picture) was utilized to collect information on current mood and arousal levels, as well as affective forecasts in response to each scenario. Each of these types of measures is described in more detail below.

Vignette-Based Scenarios

The actual text of each of the three vignette-based scenarios along with the rationale for each scenario is detailed below. I gave each of the scenarios titles for my own reference – no descriptive titles appeared in the survey instrument to avoid any unintended swaying of the perception of participants. In my notes the first scenario was titled "The Empowering New Boss," the second scenario was titled "The Saucy New Teammate," and the third was titled "Pamela: The Set-up Artist." Initially four scenarios were selected from a longer list of scenario ideas, and each of the four "finalist" scenarios was fully-written and pre-tested along with the rest of the survey content to a sample of 40 pre-test participants. Ultimately, one scenario ("The Group-Therapy Consultant") was removed to reduce the average time of survey completion.

Scenario Rationales. Each scenario was developed to optimize its potential to deliver particular context (i.e. a new *boss* interaction vs. a new *peer-colleague* interaction) to the participating observer-employee, and accordingly to elicit focused trust-relevant associations and reactions. Appendices C through H, containing qualitative reactions to the "characters" in each scenario, provide strong qualitative evidence that the three scenarios did in fact elicit interpretations and reactions that were simultaneously colorful, emotional and diverse in nature across the participants. I made the decision to implement three scenarios, rather than the traditional single scenario, under my assumption that certain "trust laws" that have been considered to be generalized in the organizational literature (e.g. high *disposition-to-trust* leads to high *initial trust* levels) may actually apply differently across contexts.

"Scenario 1 – The Empowering New Boss," is an initial boss-subordinate interaction in which the boss is also the "empowering type," a trait-style that I have heard described by others as alternately appreciated, ignored, or detested dependent upon the experience or point-of-view of the perceiver. Appendices C and D contain actual participant responses to the "boss," and illustrate a very diverse set of experiential associations and reactions to the "boss" character. On a 1-5 scale of perceived trustworthiness (discussed in much more detail below), participants on average rated the boss as a 3.179 (s.d. = .682). Below is the actual text of scenario 1.

Scenario 1:
*Your current boss leaves your company to take a position somewhere else. A month later a replacement, who you have never met, is hired. In your first meeting together, your new boss tells you that you will not continue on with your existing job duties, but you will instead be required to "design your own job" based on what **you** think will work best for both you and the company. Your new boss asks you to take two days to write a "three or four page description" of your new job for review.*

"Scenario 2 – The Saucy New Teammate," is an initial interaction between peers which is special in that the newly-encountered individual is also the participant's newly-assigned and permanent teammate (this will be a highly interdependent work relationship).   This new teammate also has an apparent type (the "sarcastic type") which in my own experience is neither universally praised nor reviled (Perceived Trustworthiness: Mean = 2.912, S.D. = .718). Appendices E and F contain actual participant responses to the "saucy teammate," and also illustrate a very diverse set of experiential associations and reactions to the "saucy teammate" character. Below is the actual text of scenario 2.

Scenario 2:
Your company is struggling financially, and you are forced to leave your existing job for one in another division. On your first day, you seek out some work-related information from a new co-worker (who you have never met). Your co-worker grins wildly, then yells loudly (in earshot of the entire office) -- "Do I even know you?! What do I look like, a help desk!?," then laughs hysterically before calming down and seriously answering

your question. When the answer does arrive it is clear and to the point. An hour later you find out from your supervisor that this person will be your assigned "work partner," and that you will work on most tasks together as a team. At three o'clock this afternoon you are meeting with your new teammate to get acquainted and to develop a plan for working together.

Finally, "Scenario 3 – Pamela: The Set-Up Artist," is another peer-to-peer interaction, but this time one that has more potential for rivalry (or in the eyes of some, more potential for friendship! – see Appendices G and H). Again, our "character" has an apparent type, this time the "pro-active (or maybe presumptuous) interventionist." And, once again, this is interpreted very differently by various participants (Perceived Trustworthiness: Mean = 2.973, S.D. = .681). Appendices G and H contain actual participant responses to "Pamela," and once more illustrate a very diverse set of experiential associations and reactions. Below is the actual text of scenario 3.

Scenario 3:
You decide to take a managerial job with a prestigious company that offers you more pay and responsibility, including the direct management of a number of employees. You feel that your new company has a number of fairly serious problems, but that by using your skills and experience you can help to bring about a number of positive changes. Upon arriving at the office on your first day, you are surprised by a note on your door, signed "Pamela" (a name that you do not recognize), directing you to a large conference room where every manager in the office appears to have gathered. Pamela (you now realize that you have definitely never met her) greets you with a smile and remarks that she has set this gathering up as a favor to you in your effort to "get to know everyone." You notice from her introduction that you have the same job title. Pamela further remarks that she "wishes someone had done this for me when I started here," and then announces loudly to the gathered crowd that you will make a speech discussing your background and your "plans to improve the company" in your new position. Your new boss is away on a vacation, and you see no one in the room that you recognize.

Measurements

Table 2 (below) includes means, standard deviations, inter-item reliabilities (where relevant for scales), and inter-item correlations between all study variables. The next sub-sections detail each of the specific measures.

Table 2: Correlations and Inter-Item Reliabilities for all Analyses

Table 2: Correlations and Inter-Item Reliabilities

Correlations and Inter-item Reliabilities[1]

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. IAT – Scenario 1	3.179	0.682	(.821)					
2. IAT – Scenario 2	2.912	0.718	.266*	(.770)				
3. IAT – Scenario 3	2.973	0.681	.371**	.267**	(.880)			
4. Age (3 Categories)	2.131	0.817	-.205**	-.238**	-.131	---		
5. Education Level	4.266	1.612	-142*	-.082	-.205**	.102	---	
6. Ethnicity (White Y/N)	0.173	0.379	.010	.104	.133	-.104	-.245**	---
7. Legitimate Authority	.3380	0.474	.052	.036	-.079	.075	.230**	-.112
8. Disposition-to-trust	3.018	0.538	.195**	.057	.095	.119	.100	-.066
9. Relational Self-Efficacy	3.886	0.618	.106	.171*	.071	-.036	.051	.050
10. Exp. Trust-In-Environment	3.866	0.681	.185**	.058	.090	-.054	.007	.036
11. Organizational Identification	3.822	0.733	.218**	.116	.047	-.005	.076	-.039
12. V-RIE – S1	3.116	0.663	.407**	.044	.215**	-.071	.085	.069
13. V-RIE – S2	2.767	0.768	.142*	.458**	.252**	-.085	-.260**	.171
14. V-RIE – S3	2.870	0.613	.198**	.120	.554**	.005	-.128	.196**
15. Perc. Sit. Importance – S1	3.664	0.636	-.398**	-.117	-.241**	.015	.317**	-.182**
16. Perc. Sit. Importance – S2	3.684	0.569	-.141*	-.274**	-.048	.012	.036	-.085
17. Perc. Sit. Importance – S3	3.130	0.680	-.141*	-.035	-.110	-.023	-.062	-.010
18. Incoming Mood Level	4.116	1.297	.199**	.007	.029	.064	.045	-.102

Variable	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
7. Legitimate Authority	---							
8. Disposition-to-trust	.144*	(.794)						
9. Relational Self-Efficacy (Ego)	.059	.041	(.704)					
10. Exp. Trust-In-Environment	.024	.199*	.162*	(.870)				
11. Organizational Identification	.271**	.148*	.126	.295**	(.805)			
12. V-RIE – S1	.053	.186*	.021	.057	.103	---		
13. V-RIE – S2	-.044	.021	.161*	-.020	-.079	-.048	---	
14. V-RIE – S3	-.047	.069	.004	.037	-.025	.198**	.233**	---
15. Perc. Sit. Importance – S1	.070	-.061	.129	.034	.053	-.143*	-.104	-.218**
16. Perc. Sit. Importance – S2	-.016	-.124	.027	-.099	-.037	.007	-.165*	.029
17. Perc. Sit. Importance – S3	-.060	-.114	.024	-.039	-.060	.069	.037	-.019
18. Incoming Mood Level	.083	.179**	.083	.255**	.271**	.077	-.123	.060

Variable	15	16	17	18
15. Perc. Sit. Importance – S1	(.500)			
16. Perc. Sit. Importance – S2	.170*	(.314)		
17. Perc. Sit. Importance – S3	.109	.367**	(.557)	
18. Incoming Mood Level	-.148	-.093	-.080	---

[1] Figures in parentheses indicate inter-item reliabilities.   **p<.01   *p<.05

Measurements - Independent Variables

Valence of relevant indirect experience ("V-RIE").   For each of three vignettes participants indicated whether the "character" (a new boss, a new teammate, and a new colleague, respectively) in each vignette reminded them of either a specific individual, or a specific type of individual, from their experience.   Participants could also indicate that the described individual reminded them of neither a specific individual nor a general type from their past. If an association was made, participants were encouraged to briefly describe the individual (or "type") in an open-text response area (see Appendices C-H).   In addition to capturing the specific content of an association, the emotional valence of associations with specific individuals or types was captured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 ("Very Negative") to 5 ("Very Positive"). Individuals with no conscious association from memory for a given "character" were defaulted to a 3 ("Neutral").

Relational self-efficacy ("RSE").   In developing a new scale to measure the specific aspect of individual self-efficacy related to relational work (i.e. interdependent work with others), I first assembled a set of 11-items derived from the existing 20-item occupational self-efficacy scale (Schyns & von Collani, 2002), rewording items to measure only self-perceptions of relational (in)security and competence. Sample scale items in this newly-developed relational self-efficacy scale (see Table 3 for the complete set) include *"I am able to work well with coworkers that I have only recently met," "When I work together with a co-worker; we usually achieve our goals,"* and *"When something doesn't work in my relationships with coworkers, I can usually find a solution."*   The Schyns and von Collani (2002) scale is the more widely-applied of two work-related self-efficacy scales (the other is Speier & Frese, 1997).   The occupational self-efficacy scale is a rewording and integration of two generalized self-efficacy

scales (Sherer et al., 1982, Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) which has been specifically developed

for use in organizational settings.

Table 3: Principal Components Analysis* of 11 Relational Self-Efficacy Items

	COMPONENT		
	RSE Ego	RSE Skill	RSE Self
Component Eigenvalue:	1.656	3.407	1.132
Items and Loadings:			
72. When I work on a project with others, I usually do not feel successful. (R)	**.742**	.194	-.029
75. Collaborating with others is something that I am not good at. (R)	**.624**	.102	.024
79. I often feel insecure about working with others. (R)	**.766**	.169	-.002
81. Having to work with other people makes me less efficient. (R)	**.700**	.124	.237
71. I am able to work well with coworkers that I have only recently met.	.065	**.641**	.207
74. When I work together with a co-worker; we usually achieve our mutual goals.	.277	**.739**	-.044
76. In most cases I can find a way to work with others in an effective manner.	.249	**.708**	-.060
78. When something doesn't work in my relationships with coworkers, I can usually find a solution.	.108	**.754**	-.179
80. If I have trouble with a coworker, I usually know how to fix the problem.	.066	**.640**	.001
73. As far as my job is concerned, I am a rather self-reliant person.	-.081	-.098	**.786**
77. I am more effective solving problems by myself than in a group.	.267	.057	**.803**

*Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis   Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Combined into a single 11-item scale, RSE has an inter-item Cronbach alpha (reliability)

score of .7223. I used principle components analysis to further explore potential multi-

dimensionality in the RSE construct, with results represented in Table 3. Principal components

analysis clearly revealed three independent factors (latent underlying variables), each with an

eigenvalue of over one (the typical threshold). Table 3 also details the content of each item,

groups the items by component, and provides the component name based on the interpretation of

each component.   One factor (RSE_Ego), composed of four items, had a clear affective

component (i.e. related to how relational work historically makes the individual *feel*) and was

interpreted as level of *in-security* (all four items were reverse-coded) concerning relational work.

The affective quality makes this component relevant to highly affective trust evaluations, and

therefore of most interest for this research. Accordingly, this factor serves as the RSE variable in

all subsequent quantitative analyses. Another factor (RSE_Skill), composed of five items, was

interpreted as self-perception of personal *skill level* with relational work. A third factor (RSE_Self), composed of two items, is interpreted as a personal comparison of solitary work vs. relational work as productivity options. These latter two factors were dropped from further analysis for the purposes of this research.

To establish discriminant validity between *relational (occupational) self-efficacy* and the more traditional measure of *occupational self-efficacy*, I also captured from participants the 8-item short-form of the occupational self-efficacy scale (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). Sample scale items in the occupational self-efficacy scale include *"Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations in my job,"* and *"I do not feel prepared to meet most of the demands in my job."* Principal components analysis revealed that RSE and occupational self-efficacy are indeed different constructs. Table 4 (below) shows SPSS factor analysis output revealing RSE items and self-efficacy items loading on different underlying factors – there is absolutely no "intermingling" of items from the two originating scales. This is an important finding, and lends support to the complementary consideration of RSE and occupational self-efficacy in ongoing organizational research.

Table 4: Principal Components Analysis of RSE vs. Occupational Self-Efficacy

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Q93_Self Efficacy Indicator	**.742**	.160	.039	.008	.190
Q94_Self Efficacy Indicator	**.783**	.107	-.015	.194	.002
Q95_Self Efficacy Indicator	**.583**	.138	.054	-.386	-.137
Q96_Self Efficacy Indicator	**.545**	.001	.169	-.208	.328
Q97_Self Efficacy Indicator	**.431**	.183	.114	-.461	-.020
Q98_Self Efficacy Indicator	**.625**	.354	.138	-.250	-.092
Q71_Rel SE Indicator	.000	**.642**	.033	.154	.262
Q74_Rel SE Indicator	.241	**.662**	.305	-.084	.080
Q76_Rel SE Indicator	.002	**.710**	.240	-.060	.171
Q78_Rel SE Indicator	.273	**.673**	.123	-.156	-.010
Q80_Rel SE Indicator	.275	**.594**	.104	.009	-.195
Q72_Rel SE Indicator	-.060	.270	**.727**	-.065	.048
Q79_Rel SE Indicator	.147	.122	**.737**	-.004	.217
Q75_Rel SE Indicator	.086	.135	**.643**	.043	-.125
Q81_Rel SE Indicator	.091	.099	**.663**	.248	.235
Q73_Rel SE Indicator	-.067	-.035	-.011	**.739**	-.214
Q77_Rel SE Indicator	-.006	.051	.297	**.720**	.100
Q99_Self Efficacy Indicator	-.040	.154	.036	.098	**.823**
Q100_Self Efficacy Indicator	.204	.045	.216	-.231	**.704**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Perceived Stigmatization. Due to a small relative sample size of individuals who perceived themselves as stigmatized (see analytical note in subsequent chapter), a straight-forward single-item (yes/no) was used to measure this concept. Item #54 in the survey instrument (see Appendix) asks the participating employee if they are a member of a stigmatized group in their current workplace.

Organizational identification ("OrgID"). To measure organizational identification I used a popular and validated scale developed by Ashforth & Mael (1989). Sample scale items include, "*When I talk about my company, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'*" and *"When someone praises my company, it feels like a personal compliment."* The resulting scale (OrgID) has an inter-item Cronbach alpha (reliability) score of .805.

Experienced trust-in-environment. I use the psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999; 2004) scale developed by Edmondson and Woolley (2003) and a three-item scale related to perceived leadership behavioral integrity (e.g. Davis and Rothstein, 2006; Simons, 2002) for use in measuring the degree of trust-socialization in an individual's general work environment. Combined together, the resulting scale has a very high inter-item reliability of .8702 (referenced in Table 2). Factor analysis reveals the scale as uni-dimensional, with all items loading onto a single factor (Eigenvalue = 4.49) that explains 49.9% of the variance in the data. The resulting scale captures aspects of perceived leader-member trust and leader trust-related (integrity) behaviors, as well as group psychological safety. Sample scale items in the psychological safety scale include, "*If I make a mistake in my job, it is often held against me,*" and "*If I had a problem in this company, I could depend on my manager to be my advocate.*" Sample scale items in the behavioral integrity scale include, "*If my manager makes a commitment, he/she is likely to keep it.,*" and "*My manager's actions often do not match his/her words.*"

Mood. To measure mood I use a derivative of Russell's (1980) "circumplex" model, which captures aspects of both mood (i.e. positive-negative valence) and arousal (i.e. low-high). Although this construct captures measurement of both arousal (on a 1-5 scale) and positive-negative mood valence (on a 1-6 scale) simultaneously (see the appendix for the measurement itself) I only use the mood variable in subsequent analyses. Respondents were also encouraged

to freely describe their understanding of the reason for their current mood in an open-text response area. There are four separate and identical measurements of mood in the survey – one to measure mood entering the survey, and three for affective forecasts related to the hypothetical action and outcome of each scenario.

Perceived situational importance. To measure the respondent/observer's perception of the importance of the situation represented in each initial-trust scenario I developed a 3-item scale, customized slightly to fit each scenario, and inspired by research on conditional trust and threat-rigidity (Mayer et al, 1995; Staw et al, 1981). The resulting scale had relatively low alpha scores (see table 2) of .500, .314, and .557 for the three scenarios respectively. Items include "*There is very little risk for you associated with this task,*" and "*This situation must be handled well or your work life will suffer.*"

Disposition-to-trust ("DTT"). To measure DTT I combine an eight-item scale developed by Mayer & Davis (1999) which captures general attitudes about the trustworthiness of generalized "others" in society with a three-item benevolence scale (McKnight, Choudhury & Kacmar, 2002). The resulting scale has an inter-item Cronbach alpha (reliability) score of .794 (table 2). Sample scale items in the DTT scale include, "*Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do,*" and "*These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you.*" Sample items in the benevolence scale include, *"Most of the time, people care enough to try to be helpful, rather than just looking out for themselves."*

Dependent Variables – Measures

Initially Attributed Trustworthiness ("IAT"). These scale items (derived from Mayer, 1995) capture whether the participant has an initial "willingness to be vulnerable" to the character(s) in a given scenario. Inter-item reliability scores were .821 (Scenario 1), .770

(Scenario 2), and .880 (Scenario 3). As is typical in trust studies, the items were written to match the specific object of each scale item to the character in the vignette just considered by the participant. For example, sample items include *"Pamela probably has your best interests at heart," "Your new co-worker's behavior was a purposeful attempt to embarrass you," and "You can trust your new boss to treat you fairly."*

Level of Intention to Cooperate. There are two measures of behavioral intention to cooperate. The first is a binary measurement of intended cooperation specific to each scenario, with "0" representing intention not to cooperate and "1" representing intention to cooperate with the featured "character" in each scenario. If the participant indicates an "I'm not sure" response, this is coded as ".5" in the data set. Participants also provided free text responses describing what behavior they would be likely to exhibit in reaction to a particular scenario. In a subsequent phase of this research these responses will be coded for degree of intended cooperation and also captured as qualitative data to add richness to the discussion of the behavioral implications of this study for employees and managers.

Control Variables

Age. This is an ordinal measure with three ascending categories of age – "29 and younger," "30-39," and "40 and older."

Legitimate Authority. This is a binary measurement, with those individuals who supervise employee(s) in the regular course of their work represented by a "1" and those that do not represented by a "0."

Education Level. This is an ordinal measure with seven ascending categories of educational experience, ranging from "some high school" to "graduate or professional degree."

Ethnicity. This is a binary measurement, with those individuals who self-categorize as "White" represented by a "0" and all others represented by a "1."

Analytical Approach

To reduce and later validate the scale measurements described above I made use of three analytical techniques – principal components analysis, factor analysis and inter-item reliability analysis (i.e. Cronbach's Alpha). All hypotheses, including main effects and interactions, were tested using either OLS regression or ANOVA. I also made use of basic descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations. In the testing of mediator-moderator relationships, I made use of the structured analysis method developed by Baron and Kenney (1986). Analytical tools used included SPSS and UCINet (Borgatti, Everett, and Freeman, 2002). The specific application of all analytical methods and tools is described in greater detail in the ensuing analysis and results sections.

Methodological Boundary Conditions

Intentional methodological boundary conditions of this research include the intended focus on initial trust development between colleagues in organizational environments only. Although the methods and outcomes of this research may seem somewhat generalizable to other applications or settings (e.g. initial trust between students and teachers) this is not my intention. Also, this research is intended to address development of *initial* trust only, and not more general trust development.

CHAPTER 4:
RESULTS OF TESTING FOR THE INFLUENCE OF EXPERIENTIAL
GROUNDING ON INITIAL TRUST ATTRIBUTIONS

This chapter presents results from the testing of hypotheses 1-6, 9 and 10 (with

exceptions noted). The chapter is organized into three sections, including a description of the

research sample, explanation of testing specifics, and most importantly testing of specific

research hypotheses. There is also a brief discussion of potentially important control effects.

Description of the Sample

There were 215 total participants in this research, each of them an employee from one of

nine participating organizations. In an earlier chapter, Table 2 presented descriptive statistics, bi-

variate correlations, and inter-item reliabilities for the key variables used in this study.

Subsequent results chapters also refer to this sample description.

Tables 5 (Scenario 1), 6 (Scenario 2) and 7 (Scenario 3) report the OLS regression results

for the models referenced in this chapter of the study. There are four models represented in each

table, each corresponding with the identical OLS regression analyses performed on data from

each of the three research scenarios. In all tables, the four regression models follow the

following format:

> **Model 1** *Enter "Stable" Controls.* The five "stable" control variables (Age, Gender, Education Level, Ethnicity, Legitimate Authority) are entered into the model first.
>
> **Model 2** *Enter "Classic" Predictor-Indicator.* The classically-theorized antecedent to initial trust (Disposition-to-Trust) is added in Model 2.
>
> **Model 3** *Enter Experiential Indicators.* Three indicators of the quality of collective individual experience are entered into the model next. These are Relational Self-Efficacy ("RSE"), Experience Trust-in-Environment, and Organizational Identification ("OrgID").

Model 4   *Enter Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience (V-RIE).* The primary independent variable of focus, V-RIE, is added in model 4. Two "situational" indicators/controls are also added in model 4. These are Perceived Situational Importance and Participant Mood.

Table 5 – OLS Regression Results, Scenario 1 ("The Empowering New Boss")

OLS Regression[2] -- Dependent Variable: Initially Attributed Trustworthiness[++]

	Model 1: (N=208)	Model 2: (N=208)	Model 3: (N=208)	Model 4: (N=208)
CONTROLS:				
Age	**-.202***	**-.222****	**-.205***	**-.186****
Gender	-.030	-.046	-.065	-.047
Education Level	**-.145**	**-.159**	**-.161**	**-.102***
Ethnicity	-.045	-.037	-.046	-.113*
Legitimate Authority	.098	.071	.026	.013
CLASSIC PREDICTORS:				
Disposition-to-trust		.231****	.190***	.091
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATORS – ROUND 1:				
Relational Self-Efficacy			.071	**.111***
Experienced Trust-In-Environment			.091	.089
Organizational Identification			**.161**	**.136**
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATORS – ROUND 2:				
Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience[++]				**.329****
OTHER/SITUATIONAL INDICATORS:				
Perceived Situational Importance[++]				**-.335****
Incoming Mood				.041
n	208	208	208	208
R^2	.069	.121	.169	.409
R^2-adj.	.047	.094	.131	.373
ΔR^2	---	.051	.048	.240
F	**3.032**	**4.614****	**4.489****	**11.308****
Δ F	---	**11.724****	**3.848***	**26.573****

* $p<.10$ ** $p<.05$ *** $p<.01$ **** $p<.001$

[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.

[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.

[2] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.2), indicating no significant collinearity in the model.

Table 6 – OLS Regression Results, Scenario 2 ("The Saucy New Teammate")

OLS Regression[2] -- Dependent Variable: Initially Attributed Trustworthiness[++]

	Model 1: (N=211)	Model 2: (N=211)	Model 3: (N=209)	Model 4: (N=209)
CONTROLS:				
Age	**-.216***	**-.225****	**-.214***	**-.193****
Gender	-.062	-.068	-.090	-.049
Education Level	-.055	-.060	-.069	.035
Ethnicity	.067	.070	.061	.002
Legitimate Authority	.075	.063	.031	.018
CLASSIC PREDICTORS:				
Disposition-to-trust		.097	.086	.025
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATORS – ROUND 1:				
Relational Self-Efficacy			**.162**	.092
Experienced Trust-in-Environment			-.017	-.018
Organizational Identification			.095	**.124***
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATORS – ROUND 2:				
Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience[++]				**.408****
OTHER/SITUATIONAL INDICATORS:				
Perceived Situational Importance[++]				**-.200****
Incoming Mood				.020
n	209	209	209	209
R^2	.070	.079	.115	.323
R^2-adj.	.047	.052	.075	.282
ΔR^2	---	.009	.036	.208
F	**3.074**	**2.907***	**2.885***	**7.828****
ΔF	---	2.000	**2.694**	**20.170****

* p<.10   **p<.05   ***p<.01 ****p<.001

[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.

[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.

[2] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.2), indicating no significant collinearity in the model.

Table 7 – OLS Regression[2] Results, Scenario 3 ("Day 1: The Set-up Artist")

OLS Regression[2] -- Dependent Variable: Initially Attributed Trustworthiness[++]

	Model 1: (N=204)	Model 2: (N=204)	Model 3: (N=204)	Model 4: (N=204)
CONTROLS:				
Age	-.103	**-.115***	-.109	**-.118****
Gender	.048	.039	.031	.036
Education Level	**-.180****	**-.188*****	**-.195*****	**-.141****
Ethnicity	.081	.086	.080	-.038
Legitimate Authority	-.012	-.025	-.038	-.051
CLASSIC PREDICTORS:				
Disposition-to-trust		**.132***	**.121***	.055
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATORS – ROUND 1:				
Relational Self-Efficacy			.061	.074
Experienced Trust-in-Environment			.038	.040
Organizational Identification			.035	.059
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATORS – ROUND 2:				
Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience[++]				**.551*****
OTHER/SITUATIONAL INDICATORS:				
Perceived Situational Importance[++]				-.093
Incoming Mood				-.034
n	204	204	204	204
R^2	.064	.083	.091	.382
R^2-adj.	.041	.055	.049	.343
ΔR^2	.064	.018	.008	.291
F	**2.740***	**2.970*****	**2.161***	**9.872*****
ΔF	---	**3.922***	0.582	**30.100*****

* $p<.10$ **$p<.05$ ***$p<.01$ ****$p<.001$

[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.

[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.

[2] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.2), indicating no significant collinearity in the model.

Control Effects

Relationships between the control variables and the dependent variable vary across the three scenario-models.

Age. Age has an enduring negative and significant relationship with the dependent variable throughout the models in both scenario 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss")* and scenario 2 (*"The Saucy New Teammate"*), with employees in higher age categories tending to attribute less initial trust in these scenarios. There is also a marginally significant negative relationship between Age and the dependent variable in scenario 3 (*"Pamela: The Set-up Artist"*; p<.10).

Gender. There is no significant relationship between Gender and the dependent variable in any of the scenarios.

Education Level. Level of education has an enduring negative and significant relationship with the dependent variable in both scenario-model 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss")* and scenario-model 3 (*"Pamela: The Set-up Artist"),* with employees in higher education categories tending to attribute less initial trust in these scenarios. However, there is no significant relationship between Education Level and the dependent variable in scenario-model 2 (*"The Saucy New Teammate"*).

Ethnicity. There is a marginally-significant negative relationship (p<.10) between ethnicity (a 0-1 binary variable where 1 indicates a "non-white" self-classification) in the full model (model 4) of scenario 1, indicating that non-white individuals attribute less trust to the "empowering new boss." Otherwise, there is no significant relationship between Ethnicity and the dependent variable in the other two scenarios.

Legitimate Authority. There is no significant relationship between Legitimate Authority and the dependent variable in any of the scenario-models.

Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience (V-RIE) Effects on IAT (Hypothesis 1)

Hypothesis 1 predicts that in an initial interaction, where a relevant, indirect experiential reference exists for an observed behavior, the positive-negative valence of this reference will have predict the initial trust-attributional outcome, where a positive association will lead to a greater level of initially-attributed trust. As illustrated in model 4 in tables 5, 6 and 7, this hypothesis receives strong support in all three scenarios ($p<.001$), indicating that specific past experience that an employee considers relevant to a newly-encountered individual is highly influential on trust evaluations of the new individual. Specifically, if a recalled experience (e.g. another individual or type of individual from the employee's past) is considered to be more positive, then more trust is likely to be attributed. Likewise, if a recalled experience is more negative, then less trust is likely to be attributed.

The strength of the effect of the relative indirect experience variable on the dependent variable did vary somewhat by scenario as evidenced by differences in standardized beta coefficients. Scenario 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss"*) had a beta of .329 ($p<.001$), Scenario 2 (*"The Saucy New Teammate"*) had a beta of .408 ($p<.001$), and Scenario 3 (*"Pamela: The Set-up Artist"*) had a beta of .551 ($p<.001$). These values indicate that recalled experience explained more variance in initial trust outcomes in Scenario 3 than in the other two scenarios, although all three of the values (and corresponding variance explained) are high.

Also of significant note is the increase in R^2 (the percentage of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables) associated with Model 4 as compared with Model 3. Increases are .24, .21, and .29 (i.e. an additional 24%, 21%, and 29% of variance explained in the model), with half or more of that increase attributable to the situation-specific V-RIE variable in each model based on an analysis of beta values. The addition of the

situational importance variable was also important in contributing to this increase, but only in scenarios 1 and 2.

Relational Self-Efficacy Effects – Hypothesis 2

As discussed in the methods section, RSE is a measurement of *individual level of self-efficacy concerning relational work* that is statistically distinct from generalized self-efficacy and occupational self-efficacy. Hypothesis 2 predicted that individuals with greater RSE levels would attribute greater levels of initial trust. In line with this hypothesis, in all three scenario-models the signs of the standardized beta coefficients for RSE are positive (see Model 3 in tables 5, 6 and 7). The effect, however, is only significant (p<.05) in one of the three scenario-models (*"Scenario 2 -- The Saucy New Teammate"*). This was an expected result, as this second scenario involved the assessment of an interdependent work partner and therefore represented the most "relational" of the three.

Perceived Stigmatization Effects – Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted that employees with a greater level of perceived stigmatization will attribute lesser levels of initial trustworthiness to targets. *For results of testing hypothesis 3, see the separate analytical note on the subject later in this document.*

Organizational Identity Effects – Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 predicted that employees with greater OrgID levels would attribute greater levels of initial trust. In line with this hypothesis, in all three scenario-models the signs of the standardized beta coefficients for OrgID are positive (see Model 3 in tables 5, 6 and 7). The effect, however, is significant (p<.05) only in one of the three scenario-models (*"Scenario 1 -- The Empowering New Boss"*), lending conditional support to hypothesis 4. As described in the methods section, this is the only scenario of the three involving the initial perception of a

hierarchical superior (i.e. "the boss"), with the other scenarios involving initial perception of hierarchical peers.

Experienced Trust-in-Environment – Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 predicted that employees with a greater Experienced Trust-in-Environment will attribute greater levels of initial trustworthiness to targets. There is no evidence to support this hypothesis in any of the scenario-models.

"Classic" Effects – Disposition-to-Trust – Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 predicted that employees with greater disposition-to-trust ("DTT") will generally attribute more trust to newly encountered targets. There is conditional support for this hypothesis, with strong support for the hypothesis in one scenario and marginal support in another. Referring to model 2 for each scenario, there is a significant positive relationship between DTT and the dependent variable in scenario 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss"*; p<.001). There is a positive and marginally-significant relationship between DTT and the dependent variable in scenario 3 (*"Pamela: The Set-up Artist"*; p<.10). There is no significant relationship between DTT and the dependent variable in scenario 2 (*"The Saucy New Teammate"*). NOTE – Hypotheses 7-8B are tested in the subsequent chapter(s).

Mood – Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 predicted that there will be a positive significant relationship between mood and attributed level of initial trust – observers with more positive affective states will attribute greater initial trust to newly encountered targets, while observers with more negative emotional states will attribute less initial trust to newly encountered targets. There is no support for hypothesis 9 in the analysis (see Model 4 in tables 5, 6 and 7) in this chapter.

Perceived Situational Importance – Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 predicted that the greater the level of perceived situational importance relevant to a trust attribution, the lower the level and quality of initially-attributed trust to the observed target. There is strong support for this hypothesis in both scenario-models 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss"*; p<.001) and 2 (*"The Saucy New Teammate"*; p<.001), with a significant and negative effect in both scenarios. The interpretation of these results is that employees who perceived scenarios 1 and 2 as highly-important attributed less trust to the "empowering new boss" and the "saucy new teammate." Conversely, employees who perceived these scenarios as less-important attributed more trust to both "characters." There was no situational importance effect in scenario-model 3.

CHAPTER 5:
RESULTS OF TESTING FOR HYPOTHESIZED INTERACTION EFFECTS

This chapter presents results from the testing of the hypothesized interaction effects in hypotheses 7, 8A and 8B. Also included is a brief explanation of notable control effects. For a detailed description of the research sample, refer to chapter 4.

Does Experience Moderate the Influence of Disposition-to-Trust on IAT Outcomes?

This section presents results from the testing of hypothesis 7, which predicts that V-RIE will moderate the relationship between DTT and IAT. Specifically, hypothesis 7 predicts that V-RIE will positively moderate the DTT→IAT relationship. This hypothesis is tested according to the principles of a hierarchically well-formulated ("HWF") interaction model where all lower-order components of the highest-order interaction term are included in the model (Jaccard and Turrisi, 2003: p. 65). To avoid collinearity the DTT and V-RIE variables were both mean-centered. Table 8 (below) shows the result of the testing of hypothesis 7, with the tested model including control effects (age, gender, education, ethnicity, legitimate authority), the relevant main effects, and the interaction term of focus (DTT * V-RIE).

Table 8 depicts the full-model results of testing hypothesis 7 across all three scenarios (for control-only models refer to the previous analysis chapters), and indicates that there is no evidence of interaction and there is therefore no support for hypothesis 7. There is also no general consistency to the direction of the DTT*V-RIE interaction term, with positive interaction terms in scenario 1 and scenario 3, and a negative interaction term for scenario 2.

Table 8 – The Moderating Influence of V-RIE on DTT→IAT Relationship

OLS Regression[2] -- Dependent Variable: Perceived Trustworthiness[++]

	Scenario 1: *"The Empowering New Boss"*	Scenario 2: *"The Saucy New Teammate"*	Scenario 3: *"Pamela: The Set-up Artist"*
CONTROLS:			
Age	**-.191*****	**-.203******	**-.133****
Gender	-.057	-.016	.046
Education Level	**-.196*****	.051	**-.130****
Ethnicity	-.075	.008	-.026
Legitimate Authority	.060	.049	-.020
Disposition-to-trust (DTT)	**.158****	.070	.075
V-RIE[++]	**.381******	**.444******	**-.549******
DTT*V-RIE[++]	.028	-.092	.005
N	210	211	206
R[2]	.263	.272	.361
R[2]-adj.	.234	.243	.335
F	**9.016******	**9.467******	**13.959******

* p<.10   **p<.05   ***p<.01 ****p<.001

[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.

[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.

[3] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.5), indicating no collinearity in the model.

Does Age Have Curvilinear Moderating Influence on Key Study Relationships?

The next sections present results from the quantitative examination and testing of hypotheses 8a and 8b. To illustrate the depth of variation, if not significance, in both controls and main effects across the three age categories the first analyses shown here are comparative (by age group) OLS regressions represented in side-by-side results tables, with a separate table for each analytical scenario (see tables 10-12 below). Besides providing depth to the analysis of age-related differences in the key relationships, these side-by-side analyses also either lend support to (or contradict) hypotheses 8a and 8b. Next, for relationships that still appear statistically-promising, OLS interaction testing follows in table 13.

Does the V-RIE effect on IAT peak at middle age and then drop off?

Hypothesis 8a predicts an inverted u-shaped moderating effect of age on the V-RIE→IAT relationship, or more plainly that middle-aged employees will be more influenced by

experiential associations in attributing initial trust than both younger and older employees. As a first step in testing this hypothesis, Tables 10 (Scenario 1), 11 (Scenario 2) and 12 (Scenario 3) depict three side-by-side OLS regression models each, divided by age group. The three age groups are "29 and younger," "30-39 years old," and "40 and older."

Table 10 – Age Group Differences in the V-RIE→IAT and DTT→IAT Relationships (Scenario 1)

OLS Regression[2] – Dependent Variable: Initially Attributed Trustworthiness[++]

	29 Years and Younger	30-39 Years Old	40 Years and Older
CONTROLS:			
Gender	-.104	**-.205****	.016
Education Level	.098	-.165	**-.315*****
Ethnicity	-.015	-.003	**-.214****
Legitimate Authority	-.033	.099	.044
CLASSIC PREDICTOR:			
Disposition-to-trust	-.011	**.262****	.147
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATOR:			
Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience[++]	**.336****	**.486******	**.353*****
N	58	67	83
R^2	.131	.404	.268
R^2-adj.	.030	.346	.211
F	1.302	**6.903******	**4.698******

* p<.10   ******p<.05   *******p<.01   ********p<.001
[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.
[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.
[2] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.2), indicating no collinearity in the model.

Table 11 – Age Group Differences in the V-RIE→IAT and DTT→IAT Relationships (Scenario 2)

OLS Regression[2] – Dependent Variable: Initially Attributed Trustworthiness[++]

	29 Years and Younger	30-39 Years Old	40 Years and Older
CONTROLS:			
Gender	-.179	.001	-.031
Education Level	**.388****	.015	-.021
Ethnicity	.167	-.028	-.030
Legitimate Authority	.087	-.023	.090
CLASSIC PREDICTOR:			
Disposition-to-trust	.069	.121	-.047
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATOR:			
Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience[++]	**.531*****	**.628*****	**.374*****
N	58	67	84
R[2]	.275	.402	.142
R[2]-adj.	.191	.343	.075
F	**3.288*****	**6.842*****	**2.143***

* $p<.10$ **$p<.05$ ***$p<.01$ ****$p<.001$

[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.

[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.

[2] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.2), indicating no collinearity in the model.

Table 12 – Age Group Differences in the V-RIE→IAT and DTT→IAT Relationships (Scenario 3)

OLS Regression[2] – Dependent Variable: Initially Attributed Trustworthiness[++]

	29 Years and Younger	30-39 Years Old	40 Years and Older
CONTROLS:			
Gender	-.085	**.186****	-.012
Education Level	-.026	-.074	**-.223****
Ethnicity	-.154	.073	-.035
Legitimate Authority	.061	**-.163***	-.025
CLASSIC PREDICTOR:			
Disposition-to-trust	-.030	-.028	**.246****
EXPERIENTIAL INDICATOR:			
Valence of Relevant Indirect Experience[++]	**.668*****	**.655*****	**.349*****
n	58	65	81
R^2	.436	.523	.229
R^2-adj.	.371	.474	.167
F	**6.691*****	**10.765*****	**3.716*****

* p<.10   **p<.05   ***p<.01   ****p<.001

[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.

[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.

[2] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.2), indicating no collinearity in the model.

The effect sizes (i.e. standardized beta coefficient) of the V-RIE variable seem to indicate a potential curvilinear relationship across age groups in this initial analysis, with the 30-39 group effect sizes for the V-RIE variable being somewhat higher than the other two groups in both scenarios 1 and 2. The analysis of scenario 3 shows similar V-RIE effect sizes between the "29 and younger" and the 30-39 group, but an apparent sharp drop in the V-RIE effect size between the 30-39 group and the "40 and older" age group.

Is their statistical significance to these interesting differences in beta coefficients, indicating evidence of a curvilinear moderating relationship? The answer is "no" in all cases. Table 13 shows no confirmatory evidence that the V-RIE effect in any age group is significantly different than that in the other two groups (using regression analysis with dummy interaction terms for *age_group*V-RIE* in the "30-39" and "40 and older" age groups). Because this

analysis essentially splits the sample into three parts (reducing degrees of freedom and the likelihood of significant findings), a greater sample size would be preferable to explore this issue appropriately and in full.

It is notable to point out that these results in table 13 clearly show evidence that employees become less initially-trusting as they age. In both scenarios 1 and 2, employees in the 30-39 and 40+ age groups attributed significantly less trust than others. In scenario 3, this was only true for employees in the 40+ age category.

Table 13 – The Moderating Influence of Age on the V-RIE→IAT Relationship

OLS Regression[2] -- Dependent Variable: Perceived Trustworthiness[++]

	Scenario 1: *"The Empowering New Boss"*	Scenario 2: *"The Saucy New Teammate"*	Scenario 3: *"Pamela: The Set-up Artist"*
Gender	-.057	-.031	.049
Ethnicity	-.067	.017	-.047
Education	**-.185*****	.051	**-.144****
Legitimate Authority	.055	.050	-.023
DTT	**.160****	.048	.063
V-RIE[++]	.353***	.325***	.629****
MidAge Y/N (Age 30-39)	**-.142***	**-.174****	-.009
OlderAge Y/N (Age 40+)	**-.235*****	**-.257*****	**-.156****
INTERACTIONS:			
MidAge*V-RIE [++]	.055	.124	-.035
OlderAge*V-RIE [++]	.000	.095	-.118
N	210	211	206
R[2]	.265	.273	.373
R[2]-adj.	.228	.237	.341
F	**7.215*****	**7.559*****	**11.664*****

* p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01 ****p<.001
[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.
[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.
[3] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were low (< 3.5) indicating no significant collinearity in model.

Does the DTT effect vary by age group? (Hypothesis 8b)

Hypothesis 8b predicts a u-shaped moderating influence of age on the DTT→IAT relationship, or more plainly that the youngest and oldest employees will be more influenced

than others by disposition-to-trust in attributing initial trust. Tables 10-12 show no support for hypothesis 8b.

However, the tables do show important situational differences between DTT effects across the three age groups. In Scenario 3, older employees had the highest (and only significant) DTT effect by a wide margin (along with the lowest V-RIE effect). In Scenario 1 there was no support, as the 30-39 year old participants were actually more influenced by *both* DTT and V-RIE compared with other age groups.

Control effects by Age-Group and Scenario

Scenario 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss"*). There are three notable significant effects among control variables in the age-based analysis of scenario 1 (see table 10). The first is a gender effect where women in the "30-39" age group are significantly ($p<.05$) less trusting than men when confronted with "the empowering new boss." This effect does not hold in the younger and older age groups. The other two significant effects are in the "40 and older" age group, where both education level ($p<.01$) and ethnicity ($p<.05$) are significantly and negatively related to the dependent variable. The interpretation of these results are that both more highly-educated and non-white employees are less initially-trusting toward "the empowering new boss," but only in the "40 and older" age group.

Scenario 2 (*"The Saucy New Teammate"*). There is one notable significant effect among control variables in the age-based analysis of scenario 2 (see table 11). In only the youngest age group ("29 and younger") there is a positive and significant ($p<.05$) relationship between education level and initial trust outcomes. The interpretation of these results is that more highly-educated employees in the "29 and younger" age group are more initially-trusting

toward "the saucy new teammate." This is not the case, however, in the two older age groups, where there is no significant effect between education level and the dependent variable.

Scenario 3 (*"Pamela: The Set-up Artist"*). As with scenario 1, there are three notable significant effects among control variables in the age-based analysis of scenario 3 (see table 12). The first is an education level effect where more highly-educated employees in the "40 and older" age category are significantly ($p<.05$) less trusting than less highly-educated employees when confronted with "Pamela: The Set-up Artist." This effect does not hold in the two younger age groups. The other two significant effects are in the "30-39" age group, where both gender ($p<.05$ – positive) and ethnicity ($p<.10$ – negative) are significantly related to the dependent variable. The interpretation of these results are that women are *more* initially-trusting and those with more legitimate authority are *less* initially-trusting toward "Pamela," but only in the "30-39" age group.

CHAPTER 6:
RESULTS OF TESTING FOR IAT AS MEDIATOR
OF V-RIE AND LEVEL OF INTENDED COOPERATION

This chapter briefly discusses results from testing to determine if initial trustworthiness mediates the relationship between Relevant Indirect Experience and Behavioral Intentions. Hypothesis 11 predicts that employees who attribute greater initial trust to newly encountered targets will intend more positive work behaviors immediately subsequent to the positive trust attribution. In addition, the hypothesizing and model predict *IAT* as a mediating variable between V-RIE and Intended Cooperation in work settings.

To test for mediation, I make use of the structured analysis method developed by Baron and Kenney (1986). The steps of this method are summarized below (steps are displayed as paraphrased in the website -- http://davidakenny.net/cm/mediate.htm#BK).

Step 1: Show that the initial variable (V-RIE) is correlated with the outcome (Level of Intended Cooperation). *Use Y as the criterion variable in a regression equation and X as a predictor (estimate and test path c). This step establishes that there is an effect that may be mediated.*

Step 2: Show that the initial variable (V-RIE) is correlated with the mediator (IAT). *Use M as the criterion variable in the regression equation and X as a predictor (estimate and test path a). This step essentially involves treating the mediator as if it were an outcome variable.*

Step 3: Show that the mediator (IAT) affects the outcome variable (Level of Intended Cooperation). *Use Y as the criterion variable in a regression equation and X and M as predictors (estimate and test path b). It is not sufficient just to correlate the mediator with the outcome; the mediator and the outcome may be correlated because they are both caused by the initial variable X. Thus, the initial variable must be controlled in establishing the effect of the mediator on the outcome.*

Step 4: To establish that M completely mediates the X-Y relationship, the effect of X on Y controlling for M (path c') should be zero. *The effects in both Steps 3 and 4 are estimated in the same equation.*

To improve the robustness of the mediation testing, I repeat the test using the Baron and Kenny (1986) four steps for all three scenarios. If results from all three scenarios agree, this is a robust finding. If results disagree, this lends support to the idea that mediation may be situationally-dependent.

Table 14 contains the results of the mediation-testing OLS regression models for all three scenarios. Results from mediation testing of all three scenarios agree. There is very strong support for Hypothesis 11 in the OLS regression results, both for the direct relationship between IAT and Intended Cooperation and also for IAT as a mediator of the relationship between V-RIE and Intended Cooperation.

As depicted in table 14, "Step 1" results show a positive and significant relationship between V-RIE and Intended Cooperation in all three scenarios, with the largest effect in Scenario 3 ($p<.001$) and the weakest in Scenario 2 ($p<.10$). "Step 2" testing reveals a significant positive relationship ($p<.001$ for all models) between V-RIE and IAT in all models. Finally, "Step 3 and 4" testing reveals a positive and significant relationship between Initial Trustworthiness and Intended Cooperation (Scenario 1 -- $p<.01$; Scenario 2 -- $p<.05$; Scenario 3 -- $p<.001$), while the mediation control variable, V-RIE, is not significant in the model and features a very low standardized beta coefficient. Accordingly, all of the requirements are satisfied to declare IAT as a mediator between V-RIE and Intended Cooperation.

Table 14 -- Mediation Testing Results

STEP 1 -- OLS Regression[3] – Dependent Variable: Intended Cooperation[++]

	SCENARIO 1	SCENARIO 2	SCENARIO 3
CONTROLS:			
Age	.038	-.015	-.209****
Gender	-.026	-.144**	-.080
Education Level	-.149**	-.140*	-.259****
Ethnicity	.008	.050	-.009
Legitimate Authority	.074	.087	-.007
Disposition-to-trust	.137*	-.027	-.021
INDICATOR:			
***V-RIE*[++]**	***.144***	***.126***	***.218*****
n	210	210	205
R^2	.067	.087	.199
R^2-adj.	.035	.056	.171
F	2.088**	2.766***	7.033****

STEP 2 -- OLS Regression[3] – Dependent Variable: Initially Attributed Trustworthiness[++]

	SCENARIO 1	SCENARIO 2	SCENARIO 3
STABLE CONTROLS:			
Age	-.190***	-.208****	-.133**
Gender	-.055	-.026	.046
Education Level	-.194***	.047	-.130**
Ethnicity	-.076	.014	-.025
Legitimate Authority	.058	.053	-.020
Disposition-to-trust	.155**	.058	.075
INDICATOR:			
***V-RIE*[++]**	***.388*****	***.454*****	***.549*****
n	210	211	206
R^2	.262	.264	.361
R^2-adj.	.237	.239	.338
F	10.317****	10.447****	16.032****

STEPS 3 & 4 -- OLS Regression[3] – Dependent Variable: Intended Cooperation[++]

	SCENARIO 1	SCENARIO 2	SCENARIO 3
CONTROLS:			
Age	.079	.024	-.170***
Gender	-.014	-.139**	-.091
Education Level	-.107	-.148**	-.225****
Ethnicity	.025	.048	-.002
Legitimate Authority	.061	.077	-.003
Disposition-to-trust	.103	-.038	-.041
INDICATOR:			
***Initially Attributed Trustworthiness*[++]**	***.218*****	***.187***	***.281*****
MEDIATION CONTROL:			
V-RIE[++]	*.059*	*.041*	*.063*
n	210	210	205
R^2	.102	.113	.250
R^2-adj.	.067	.078	.219
F	2.878***	3.211***	8.195****

* $p<.10$ ** $p<.05$ *** $p<.01$ **** $p<.001$
[1] Standardized beta coefficients are reported. All tests of significance are two-tailed, except for tests of difference between betas.
[++] Variable is specific to each analytical scenario.
[3] All VIF (variance inflation factor) values were very low (< 1.2), indicating no collinearity in the model.

As a final analysis note concerning hypothesis 11, scenario 3 (*"Pamela: The Set-Up Artist"*) had the largest effect size of the IAT→Intended-Cooperation relationship, and the entire model explained twice the variation in the dependent variable (cooperation) when compared with the other two scenarios.

CHAPTER 7:
AN ANALYTICAL NOTE CONCERNING PERCEIVED
STIGMATIZATION AND INITIAL TRUST ATTRIBUTIONS

This "analytical note" briefly discusses results from testing of hypothesis 3 to determine if those employees who identify with groups that they perceive to be stigmatized attribute less initial trust than others. This is a "note" rather than a full results chapter because, of the 215 respondents in this research, there were only nine employees who perceived themselves as stigmatized. This small proportion changed the analysis plan, eliminating a hypothesis, preventing the creation of a meaningful stigmatization scale, and altering the statistical method of testing H5 from OLS regression to an independent samples t-test. Still, the presented results are notable and in one astounding case, statistically significant despite the limited sample size.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that, "having a larger body of negative experience within organizations to draw from, observers with greater levels of identification to perceived stigmatized social groups will be more likely to associate negative experience with an initial interaction, and will subsequently attribute lower levels of trustworthiness to newly encountered targets."

Table 15: T-Test and Descriptives Output for Perceived Stigmatization and IAT

Group Statistics

	Are You Stigmatized?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scenario 1 -- IAT	No	203	3.1980	.66498	.04667
	Yes	9	2.6222	.86281	.28760
Scenario 2 -- IAT	No	204	2.9142	.69036	.04833
	Yes	9	2.9444	1.26106	.42035
Scenario 3 -- IAT	No	199	2.9581	.67372	.04776
	Yes	9	3.2222	.72648	.24216

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tail)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	Lower	Upper
Scenario 1 -- IAT	Equal variances assumed	1.429	.233	2.510	210	**.013**	.5758	.22945	.12349	1.028
	Equal variances not assumed			1.976	8.427	.082	.5758	.29137	-.0902	1.242
Scenario 2 -- IAT	Equal variances assumed	4.096	**.044**	-.123	211	.902	-.0302	.24534	-.5139	.45340
	Equal variances not assumed			-.071	8.213	**.945**	-.0302	.42312	-1.002	.94111
Scenario 3 -- IAT	Equal variances assumed	.223	.637	-1.147	206	**.253**	-.2641	.23032	-.7182	.18999
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.070	8.634	.314	-.2641	.24683	-.8261	.29789

Results of an independent samples t-test (along with relevant descriptive statistics) for all three scenarios are depicted above in Table 15. The dependent variable in each case is the level of initial trustworthiness attributed to each of the three scenario-based "characters," and the single comparison factor is presence in either the un-stigmatized ("0" or "No") or stigmatized ("1" or "Yes") group – a single item from the survey instrument (see Appendix A). Levene's test for equality of variance determines whether the assumption of equal or unequal variances is of interest in each case. The results of Levene's test indicate that unequal variances are only assumed in scenario 2 (indicated by the bolded text in Table 15).

Despite the small number of individuals who self-categorized as being stigmatized, there was a significant difference between the mean level of trustworthiness in the two groups for scenario 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss,"* p=.013), with the stigmatized group attributing less trust to the "new boss" and his "empowering" approach. Notably, the stigmatized group mean was 2.622, below the neutral point on the IAT scale which was derived from several 5-point Likert items. In contrast, the un-stigmatized group mean was 3.198. This result also receives marginal support from the independent samples t-test assuming unequal variances for scenario 1 (*"The Empowering New Boss,"* p=.082).

Because statistical significance is less likely when comparing small samples, the direction of mean differences can lend support to theorizing and guide future research and expectations. Turning attention to the direction of mean differences in the dependent variable for scenarios 2 and 3, the "stigmatized" group was surprisingly not universally the less-trusting group. Although means were nearly identical in scenario 2, the "stigmatized" group was the more initially-trusting group in scenario 3 (*"Pamela: The Set-Up Artist"*).

CHAPTER 8:
DISCUSSION

This discussion chapter contains an overview of the significant findings of the study, a consideration of the findings in light of existing research on initial trust, implications of this study for current theory, research and practice, a careful examination of findings that fail to support (or only partially support) the hypothesized relationships, limitations of the study that may affect validity or generalizability, and recommendations for further research.

Collectively, the results of this study powerfully suggest that there is a generalized tendency in individual employees to reference and be influenced by previous experience when making current initial trust evaluations. The results further suggest that experience has both *specific* and *accumulative* effects on initial trust attribution-making – with specific effects characterized by in-the-moment comparison with previously encountered "others" (and associated affect) that are situationally-relevant to the perceiver, and with accumulative effects involving primarily sub-conscious comparisons with a particular body (*e.g. accumulated efforts at relational working-together -- RSE*) or category (*e.g. accumulated encounters with other organizational members*) of trust-relevant experience. To my knowledge, this is the first study that has either theoretically or empirically examined the consequences of individual experiential grounding on initial trust attribution-making (or on any organizationally-relevant attribution-making). Importantly, this theory and results are largely consistent with, and complementary to, the McKnight et al (2002) AMR paper which suggests a role for "cognitive" and "categorization" processes in initial trust development; in that this theory and testing supports the critical role of cognition and lends specificity in the form of experiential-grounding as a

cognitive-attributional input. Specific results and implications of this study are discussed in the following sub-sections.

V-RIE generally and strongly influences initial trust

Important findings and advancements. The most important results from this study involve the influence of recalled experience and associated affect on current initial trust attribution-making. Unlike any other independent variable, V-RIE (valence of relevant indirect experience) is universally and strongly significant in all tested samples and scenarios. In all cases (scenarios), the valence of recalled experience with relevant "others" predicted the level and direction of initial trust outcomes. Models that included V-RIE as a predictor explained 30-40% of variance in the level of IAT – an increase of 20-30% over previous significant model(s). These results profoundly indicate that although employees upon first meeting have no direct trust-relevant experience with one another – there is general and significant importance to the interactions that employees have had with personally-relevant others, both inside and outside the workplace.

As illustrated in the theory development and supported by empirical results, employees appear to automatically execute appraisal and attributional processes that involve reviewing past trust-relevant affective experiences in an effort to make attributional choices that will optimize their affective present and future. Appendices C through H, containing the actual experiential associations that employee-participants made to each scenario, provide mechanistic clarity and additional support to this theoretical explanation and the corresponding scholarly literature on attribution theory (e.g. Gilbert, 1998) and affective forecasting (e.g. Fredrickson, 2000; Fredrickson and Kahneman, 1993; Loewenstein and Schkade, 1999; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, and Diener, 2003). There is also initial qualitative evidence in Appendices C-H that employees

exhibit evidence of the impact bias (e.g. Brown and Kulik, 1977; Gilbert, Driver-Linn, and Wilson, 2002; Wilson and Gilbert, 2003), a tendency to reflect on the most extreme affective events from experience that are relevant to the attribution-at-hand, although there is not the right type of data available in this study (i.e. data describing just how affectively-extreme a particular association is) to make this claim definitively.

Below are several examples from the data revealing the affective dimension of many actual experiential associations from this study. *Participants indicated specifically who (or alternately what specific "type" of individual) from their experience that the character in the scenario reminded them of. Participants could also indicate that they were not spedifically reminded of anyone or any type of individual.*

A relative. With the best intentions calls attention to me at a family gathering to ask about my "status" -- dating, work, etc... in front of everyone. *(Referring to Scenario 3, "Pamela: The Set-Up Artist")*

Former boss - seems like she was putting him on the spot and hoping he was embarrassed. *(Referring to Scenario 3, "Pamela: The Set-Up Artist")*

A had a friend in college who would see me on campus and shout in the crowded cafeteria "(My name) has no penis!" He was the kind of guy you just couldn't get rid of. I like eccentric people. *(Referring to Scenario 2, "The Saucy New Coworker")*

I have a current associate who, in the past, was manipulative and would be outwardly demeaning in public work situations. *(Referring to Scenario 2, "The Saucy New Coworker")*

Former associate - marketing analyst. She would provide no assistance or support to marketing team. She saw herself as a resource to the VP and nobody else. *(Referring to Scenario 2, "The Saucy New Coworker")*

Former boss. Several transient bosses exhibited the same naive behavior. They did not last long. *(Referring to Scenario 12, "The Empowering New Boss")*

> Former boss. Strong leader. Open-minded to better ways of running the business. *(Referring to Scenario 12, "The Empowering New Boss")*

As these quotes reveal, the experiential associations that participants made from the short scenarios were surprisingly diverse, unpredictable, and detailed – in addition to often being affectively-charged. As my theorizing predicted, participants did indeed cognitively "fill in the blanks," using their experience to make far more sense out of the scenarios than would seem possible. "The empowering new boss," in the experiential view of one participant became instantly "naïve," while another participant considered the same text and was reminded of a "strong leader" who was "open-minded." The diversity, assuredness and contradictions in the text of the experiential associations are truly revelatory and provide a powerful mental picture of the short cognitive leap that employees make in converting *experience* into *attribution-of-initial-trust*.

These results have importance for both scholarly theory and research and management practice concerning initial trust, cooperation and performance in organizational settings. As mentioned at the beginning of this dissertation, the organizational literature concerning initial trust is especially young and currently (to my knowledge) features only one important theoretical work (McKnight et al, 1998) which, a decade later, has received scant follow-up or reaction in the form of more-focused theory or confirmatory empirical testing. This effort represents both theoretical and empirical progress along that path. Although McKnight et al (1998) did not theorize that specific, relevant (i.e. applicable) personal experience could be a major predictive factor in initial trust development, the authors did specifically mention the likelihood of a three-tiered cognitive "categorization" function that is predictive of initial trust outcomes; with the three tiers being "unit grouping" [i.e. self-comparison], "reputation categorization," and "stereotyping" (McKnight et al, 1998; p. 476, 480).

In contrast, my current "experiential" theorizing, I believe, is far simpler to conceptualize – recognizing that individuals likely ask themselves (both sub-consciously and consciously if given the time), "have I seen anyone like this before, and if so, how did I feel about them?," before deciding to trust (or not). As discussed, the affective forecasting literature explains why this question is likely central to initial trust attributions – employees are trying to tailor attributions and thus optimize outcomes to avoid being hurt (i.e. feeling bad) while seeking to feel good (e.g. Fredrickson, 2000; Fredrickson and Kahneman, 1993; Loewenstein and Schkade, 1999; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, and Diener, 2003). Past decisions and affective repercussions are critical to such an effort. Ultimately this thinking and these empirical results are complementary to the McKnight et al (1998) theorizing, with different framing, but tangible overlap with each of the three mentioned cognitive dimensions.

Upon further analysis, 10% (Scenario 1), 21% (Scenario 2), and 16.7% (Scenario 3) of participating employees associated the perceived individual with a stereotype from personal experience – these stereotypical associations in-turn influenced initial trust outcomes. However, not all experiential associations were stereotypical in nature – with an additional 19.1% (Scenario 1), 28.8% (Scenario 2), and 9.3% (Scenario 3) of participating employees instead associating the perceived individual with a *specific individual* from personal experience. As the percentages indicate, in two out of three scenarios such "monotyping" was more frequent than classic "stereotyping." This is a fascinating outcome, and one which is entirely absent from existing initial-trust theorizing. Again, the specific content of both "monotype" and "stereotype" experiential associations can be found in Appendices C-H. Future theorizing and research concerning these two distinct ways of "-typing" in initial trust perceptions as well as more general social perceptions would be valuable.

Older and more highly-educated employees are generally less initially trusting

Important findings and advancements.   Another age-related finding, albeit one related to a control effect rather than a fully-theorized effect, is that those employees who were older and those who were more highly-educated generally attributed less initial trust. This contradicts the idea mentioned in the theory development that older and more highly-developed individuals develop a greater appreciation for individual differences and greater comfort and patience with ambiguity (e.g. Torbert, 2004). Age had a negative and significant relationship with level of IAT in all three scenario-models.   Level of education is often associated with individual "development," however education also had a negative and significant relationship with IAT in two of the three scenario-models (Scenario 1 and Scenario 3). There is evidence here that rather than encouraging greater "appreciation for differences" that age and development instead encourage a general mistrust, or at least a general withholding of initial trust.

Implications. The idea that older (40 and older) employees attributed significantly less initial trust than younger employees in all three scenarios suggests a general "jading" of the employee base that could be considered logical, disconcerting, offensive or politically-incorrect dependent upon one's point of view. Regardless, this seems an important finding, and one that should be followed-up with well-constructed theory and empirical testing.

The practical implications of this finding are that older employees themselves could be made aware of this tendency and could compensate accordingly with more initially-trusting behaviors (in the absence of supporting perceptions). Managers of mixed-age work teams could also be aware of age-trust dynamics and could customize leadership behaviors accordingly. Again, dyadic discovery sessions (Roussin, 2008) after the introduction of new employees (or consultants) into the work environment could give managers better information concerning the impact of potential age-trust issues.

Relational self-efficacy (RSE) situationally influences initial trust

Important findings and advancements.   My results show that RSE level (self-confidence specific to *relational* task accomplishment) is influential on initial trust attribution-making, but logically only in the evaluation of work-partners with which one will share intensely-relational work. This is an important contribution to both the scholarly literature on self-efficacy and initial trust. As described in the theory-development, individuals who have a more positive body of experience with relational-work (i.e. higher level of RSE) initially attributed their new relational work partner (*Scenario 2 – The Saucy New Teammate*) with significantly more trustworthiness than others. The value to the literature on self-efficacy is that RSE has perceptive consequences not only on perceptions of self, but also on perceptions of others; however, results suggest that RSE is highly specific in its perceptive influence to intensely-relational settings – RSE did not have significant consequences for initial trust in either the "new boss" interaction (Scenario 1) or in the "competitive colleague" interaction (Scenario 3).

It is important to note that where the RSE effect on initial trust was significant in highly-relational Scenario 2, disposition-to-trust (DTT) was not significant. Conversely, DTT did have significant consequences for initial trust in the two scenario-models where RSE had no significant effect.   These results suggest that the trust-attributional influence of RSE overshadows the influence of DTT, but again -- *in intensely-relational evaluations only*.

Implications. These results have implications for both organizational scholarship and for managerial practice in organizations. First, the existence of a self-efficacy that is specific to relational context is a clear addition to a continuously growing and diversifying self-efficacy literature (e.g. MacNab & Worthley, 2008). Secondly, as already mentioned, this study shows clear evidence that RSE is related to perceptions of others in addition to those of self. Thirdly,

self-efficacy and its more-specific derivatives, of which RSE is one, has been a subject of much interest for its theorized and empirically-supported influence on workplace (task) performance (e.g. Bandura, 1977; 1997; Bandura and Locke, 2003; Brown, Jones and Leigh, 2005). This study both supports and broadens that effort, showing significant evidence that RSE level has consequences for interpersonal trust(ing), which itself has been profoundly theorized and empirically-supported as a cooperation and performance enzyme in highly-relational work settings (e.g. Costa et al, 2001; Jones and George, 1998; Kramer, 1999). Although I do not study this effect here, a logical next step for RSE theory and research would be a direct connection between RSE and relational work performance.

Organizational identification (OrgID) situationally influences initial trust.

Important findings and advancements. Results bolster existing theory and research that reveals aspects of social identity, and OrgID in particular, as powerful perceptive inputs (e.g. Albert & Whetten, 1985; Gergen, 1991; Frey and Tropp, 2006; Hogg & Hardie, 1992; Hogg, Hardie & Reynolds, 1995; March, 2005). As illustrated in the theory development, those individuals that identify most closely with a group (in this case, other organizational members), are more likely to perceive themselves as being more similar and more emotionally-close to other group members, or the "ingroup," and less close to "outgroup" members (e.g. Frey and Tropp, 2006; Doosje, Ellemers, and Spears, 1995).

Only one of the three scenario-models (*Scenario 1: The Empowering New Boss*) depicted a situation where employees were evaluating a new member of their existing organization and work-unit (i.e. the employee "stays" and a new boss enters). In this scenario-model, results show OrgID as having significant consequences for initial trust attribution-making. Highly identified individuals attributed significantly more initial trust to "the empowering new boss" than others

did. In the other two scenarios OrgID did not have significant consequences for initial trust development.

These results support the theorized concept that those who identify highly with their organizations have some combination of positive relational experience as an organizational member, and perhaps most importantly a lack of "frame-breaking" (i.e. identity-breaking) relational experiences as an organizational member (this would account for new organizational members who have high OrgID levels); and most importantly that this particular identity-related "indicator of experience" is relevant to moments of initial trust. Those with high OrgID are more initially-trusting of other organizational members – supporting the aforementioned theoretical idea that perceived "emotional closeness" erupts from high OrgID. Similar to the effect of RSE on initial trust, the analysis showed that OrgID is only significantly relevant to initial trust attribution-making in moments where OrgID is a *situationally-salient* cognition – *e.g. Scenario 1 - a new boss enters the existing organization*. Conversely, OrgID is less-relevant, or not at all relevant, when the initial trust evaluation takes place within a different (*Scenario 3 – new organization*) or weakened (*Scenario 2 – same parent, different division, troubled times*) organizational setting.

Implications. There are implications in these findings both for scholarly work and for managerial practice. Related to scholarly theorizing and research, these results both bolster and advance scholarly work on OrgID and initial trust. McKnight et al (2002) reference the importance of "cognitive processes" in initial trust development, and these results lend support to OrgID level as a cognitive-attributional input in initial trust. The McKnight et al (2002) theory also highlights the importance of the "environment," which is reflected in accumulated OrgID levels. Related to managerial practice, these results suggest that managers can be aware of the

role of OrgID in initial trust, and thereby customize leadership behaviors to both set-up organizational introductions for initial "trust success." Perhaps most obvious is the idea that organizational leaders who rely on trust and cooperation for organizational success can develop and exhibit behaviors that build OrgID level across the organization – where employees are generally more identified with the organization levels of trust and cooperation (and performance) will likely follow. "Discovering" where OrgID is low could be challenging for such leaders and may require somewhat advanced intervention approaches (Roussin, 2008). Also important is the idea that in settings where employees have generally positive identification with the organization, managers who wish to introduce new individuals from "outside" organizations (e.g. new leaders, consultants, trainers, team members) could spend time reconciling employee ideas about OrgID with the role of the new individual(s). Where OrgID is generally low, managers may actually focus employees on the potentially positive (and therefore, different) influence of "outside" members.

Discussion Note – Perceived Stigmatization situationally influences IAT

Important findings and implications. IAT was significantly lower in the stigmatized group than in the un-stigmatized group only in Scenario 1 ("The Empowering New Boss"). This is notable for the fact that Scenario 1 was the only situation involving assessment of a hierarchical superior (and a seemingly empowering one at that), indicating that formal power dynamics may moderate the relationship between perceived stigmatization and IAT. More research is needed on a larger sample size to make any definitive theoretical statements.

Initial Trust mediates the V-RIE→*Intended Cooperation* relationship; r^2 = 10-25%*

Important findings and advancements. IAT mediated the relationship between V-RIE and intended cooperation in all three scenario-models, indicating that V-RIE in all examined

cases is a predictor of initial trust level, which subsequently determines intentions to cooperate. This supports theory and research citing personal background and experience as important perceptive-attributional inputs (e.g. Gilbert, 1998: p. 116; McClelland & Rumelhart, 1986; Rumelhart & McClelland, 1986; Kunda & Thagard, 1996; Read, 1987; Read & Marcus-Newhall, 1993; Shultz & Lepper, 1996). Also supported (again) is the trust-cooperation relationship which has been widely-explored in the trust literature (e.g. Costa et al, 2001; Jones & George, 1998; Kramer, 1999; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Mayer et al, 1995; McAllister, 1995; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998).

Implications. There is a frequent insinuation among researchers, consultants, and practitioner-experts that trust practically *is* cooperation in some way, or that one will naturally lead directly to the other – if there is some "guilt" associated with this insinuation then I am guilty (Roussin, 2008) along with the others. In this study, I am limited to discussing intended cooperation rather than cooperation itself, but regardless, the model testing the influence of *IAT* on *intended cooperation* only explained 20% of the variance in the *intended cooperation* variable. There were three significant variables in the model, including age, education level and *IAT*. I believe that in studies like this one that a forthcoming and clear interpretation of the r^2 variable is critical to an assessment of the ultimate practical impact of a study. In this case, significant predictors have been found, but 80% of the variation in the intended cooperation variable remains unexplained, arguing for trust as an important predictor of cooperation (and by proxy, performance – the same conversation could take place for those two variables!) but not necessarily as a sole, or even most important, predictor.

Limitations

Limitations which are acknowledged by this researcher include the aforementioned issues of response and social-desirability biases associated with survey-based data collection and potential language biases. However, I believe that the use of an entirely-anonymous survey instrument and confidential data collection process served to largely-mitigate social-desirability bias. Also, the fairly high average response rate indicates that non-response bias is likely limited. However, the true extent of these biases and their influence on the research is difficult to understand. For example, in one of the participating organizations, six members of the seventy-member organization were excluded from the study based on their limited command of the English language. This exclusion decision was the choice of the sponsoring executive from the organization, and was by no means a choice of this researcher.

Intentional vs. Unintentional "Priming" in the Data Collection. The scenario-based survey design includes intentional "priming" of participants, in that the three distinct scenarios are intended to cause three separate and particular sets of scenario-related memories (specific to each individual participant-scenario pairing) to become salient to the participant. These are intended as three small simulations of "real" initial social encounters at the workplace (under the supposition that meeting new people spurs memories of similar others), albeit without the extra stimulation of visual, audio and other contextual inputs that "real" encounters include.

Beyond this automatic and seemingly natural "priming" process as just described, the survey instrument (see appendix) includes language that further *actively* and externally queries ("primes") participants concerning a possible resemblance between the three scenario-based "characters" and any individuals, or types of individuals, from the participants past. In the "real" organizational world, such an external query could also exist, initiated by oneself ("Who else acted like this?") or a colleague ("Does the new boss remind you of anyone?"). This is a

necessary feature of the data collection (as identifying associated memories and their affective valence is central to the research), however, there is potential that this response process overemphasizes the influence of such memories, or unnaturally inflates the salience of such memories during the subsequent trust assessment.

The aforementioned priming processes, both "natural" and "external," were both intended in the design of this research, although future studies could include just "natural" priming to afford a better understanding of the study variables and relationships. Such studies would still require another way to collect associated memories of similar others and the affective valence of the memories, perhaps at a later (or earlier) date.

A reviewer of this work also brought up the potential existence of another, unintended type of priming effect – by which a participant would find a particular scenario to be generally negative or positive in nature, and would then proceed to automatically answer any questions associated with the scenario with a negative or positive bias – thereby creating strong but artificial connections (or "contamination") between the key study variables. Although I agree with the reviewer that there are connections between participant responses related to each scenario, I believe that these connections closely mirror the interconnectedness of real attributional moments, and that cognitive "contamination" between observation, association, categorization and attribution is exactly what constructs a moment of initial trust development – depending upon one's perspective, attributions are either "contaminated by" or "constructed upon" past experience. That said, as I have mentioned, future research designs could attempt to solve the contamination issue by separating the collection of evaluations of trustworthiness and the content (and valence) of individual experience.

Unconscious vs. Conscious Effects. Another limitation that is fundamental to the design of this research involves the difficulty of truly separating various effects in the interpretation of the study data. For example, this study achieves no progress toward understanding the separate influences of conscious vs. unconscious cognitive processes at work in the initial trust-attributional process.

Further Recommendations for Future Research

Just how "initial" should initial trust research become? This study and others on the subject of initial trust (or similar concepts like "swift trust") development in organizations do not necessarily agree on just how "initial" the trust evaluation is. *Are we theoretically talking about a "thin-slice" 1-2 second analysis, or a more extended concept? Is behavioral observation, extended or otherwise, part of the analysis?* Although McKnight et al (1998) claim not to include any behavioral observation in their theory, the theory itself seems littered with such observation. *Is a facial expression considered behavior? Has the person spoken yet when the evaluation is made? When does behavior formally* start *in a social/work interaction?* These are all questions that McKnight et al (1998) do not address in their theory and that future theory should address very clearly. Meyerson et al's (1996) concept of "swift" trust involves the rapid development of trust of the first hours and days of team-organizational relationships in environments that have intense levels of time and performance pressure. The "swift trust" concept, although important and interesting, is certainly not "initial" trust – that much is clear. My opinion is that "initial" trust is most usefully studied in the context of a *first organizational interaction*, thus the design of the three research "scenarios" used in this project.

Implications for the "situation vs. disposition" discussion. I believe that a comment on the ongoing disposition vs. situation discussion is warranted in the context of this study. I

believe that this study adds to the discussion in a number of potentially important ways, including by (further!) muddying the waters a bit concerning exactly what falls into either category. In particular, the question of where experiential grounding falls within these categories seems warranted.

The discussion of the relative importance and interaction of situational and dispositional dynamics in perception is active in many scholarly fields, including in the organizational sciences (e.g. Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; House, Shane and Herold, 1996). One birthplace of this discussion is in early theory on social cognition. In his landmark work on social perceptive processes, Fritz Heider claimed "that the attributional system thinks of behavior as an interactive product of a network of temporary and enduring causes," which set the stage for extensive theorizing on disposition vs. situation by early attribution-theorists such as Jones and Davis (1965), Kelly (1971) and Quattrone (1982).

> For students of ordinary personology, this way of speaking extended the concept of situational causation considerably, and suddenly behaviors that were caused by rain, sleet, snow, gloom of night, and ordinary dispositions, were all thought of as having been 'caused by the situation.' Kelly even managed to talk about causes that were located strictly between an actor's ears as external (Gilbert, 1998, p101-102)."

This study contains some obvious interaction points between situational factors and the experiential indicators (RSE and OrgID) in their influence on IAT. These indicators may be considered dispositional by some theorists and not by others. Regardless, their effect on IAT was only significant in particular situational contexts. This supports the ideas of organizational theorists who believe that research and theory is best developed with a dual dispositional/situational lens (I would add the third concept of an "experiential lens" to that thought).

The instance of a *specific* memory of personal experience coming to light on a moment of perception and attribution straddles the disposition/situation line. The experience, although internal to the perceiver is made salient by the external-situational appearance of a particular individual. The experience, in such a case, could be considered as another complex component of the "disposition," but I believe that it more appropriately could be categorized as itself – experience, or in the words of this research, experiential grounding of the perceiver. Although this classification creates a potentially new issue (disposition vs. situation vs. experiential grounding, oh my!), it also clarifies certain distinctions that are difficult to understand otherwise. For example, disposition describes general tendencies, situation describes ongoing action, and experiential grounding describes momentarily salient/relevant cognitive influences that are internal, may contradict the disposition, and may vary wildly (even in the same perceiver) by situation.

Where and how could such a conceptualization help the social sciences? Consider the case of the countless quantitative studies concerning social/organizational perception that result in R^2 values of 1% to 5% or less (i.e. hardly any socially-meaningful variance in the dependent variable is explained). How useful could such studies be to organizational practitioners who are seeking to both understand and manipulate organizational behavior in productive ways? Much as Joanne Martin (2000) suggested that there may be "hidden gendered" effects in much organizational research that could increase the explanatory power of such work, I am suggesting that there may be "hidden experiential" effects in much organizational and psychological research and that these effects, as they do in this study, could serve to explain a far greater percentage of variance in the dependent variable than many existing studies do.

In closing, there is evidence from this study that an individual's unique and diverse lived experience becomes an "experiential grounding," which has a powerful influence on perceptive outcomes that may contradict the perceiver's dispositional tendencies in ways that are personally "rational" to the perceiver, but may appear outrageously unpredictable, particularly to interested outside observers such as managers and co-workers. Experiential grounding has both unique and general qualities. The uniqueness of experiential grounding is in its content, the accumulation (and subjective sorting and recall) of a life lived in a circumstantial world. The generalized quality of experiential grounding is that each individual possesses it, and as this study indicates the world looks very different to those with different experiential references. Therefore, as social scientists, we must search for a deeper understanding of the relationship between experiential and social phenomena.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A - Survey Instrument

BOSTON COLLEGE

Organization Studies Department
The Wallace E. Carroll
School of Management

February 4, 2008

Dear Prospective Participant,

My name is Christopher Roussin and I am a doctoral student at Boston College in the Carroll School of Management – Department of Organization Studies. I am currently conducting an anonymous study into the development of attitudes toward newly-encountered coworkers in workplace settings. Your participation in this study will help advance the understanding of the ways in which people develop initial impressions of one another at work. To participate, you must be 18 years or older. This survey is voluntary.

- Since your responses are to remain anonymous – *please do not put your name on this survey.*

- No individuals or individual responses will be identified in publications or presentations of this research. Instead, data will be aggregated for analysis and presentation by the researcher.

- The survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. Please answer the questions completely – when you have completed all pages and items of the survey simply close the booklet and return it to the assigned collection area.

- A limited set of summarized results (for the group of 400+ respondents as a whole) will be available to you. If you would like a copy of the summarized results, please e-mail me at roussin@bc.edu. Before receiving the summarized results, there will be a delay of several months while I enter and analyze the survey data.

Thank you for your consideration and participation.

Sincerely,

Christopher J. Roussin
Ph.D. Candidate
Carroll School of Management
Boston College

Today's Date
_____

Company and Division Name
_____

Department Name

Important Note to Participants:
Thank you! Your time, honesty and insight are greatly appreciated and important to this research study. This survey is intended to help the researcher gain a better understanding of how individuals perceive and respond to their work environment. All responses from this survey will be kept strictly confidential by the researcher. Your employer will not have access to your individual survey or responses. Accordingly, please feel comfortable to answer all questions honestly and completely to the best of your ability. The value of this research hinges on your full participation.

Hello and thank you for taking part in this important research concerning perceptions and behavior in the workplace. In this first section you will simply indicate your current emotional state (i.e. how you are feeling at the moment).

1. Please mark one "X" in the circle below that best describes how you feel at this moment.
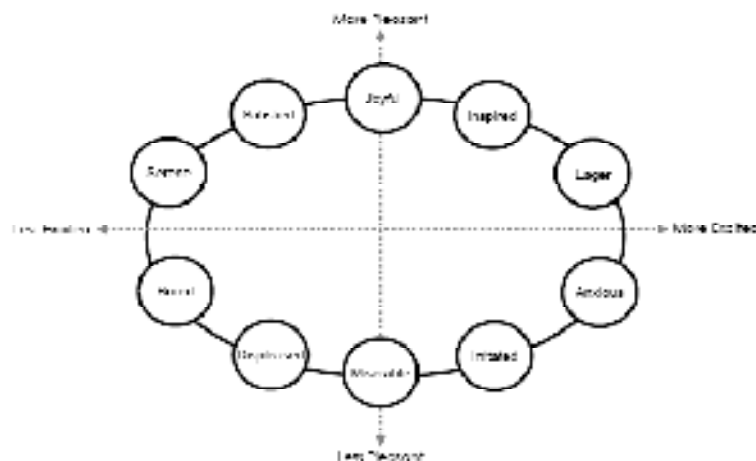
2. For how long have you been feeling this way (pick the closest answer)?

    ☐ A few moments   ☐ A few minutes   ☐ A few hours   ☐ A few days   ☐ A few weeks or more

3. Is there anything in particular (e.g. an event, individual or interaction) that has caused you to feel like you do?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ I'm not sure

4. If yes, please briefly explain the above answers in the box below.

⮑ *Thank you. In the next section you will read and respond to three brief workplace scenarios. It is important to this research that you do your best to "put yourself into" each scenario as you read and respond to it. After reading each scenario carefully, please respond to the questions that follow.*

Scenario 1:
*Your current boss leaves your company to take a position somewhere else. A month later a replacement, who you have never met, is hired. In your first meeting together, your new boss tells you that you will not continue on with your existing job duties, but you will instead be required to "design your own job" based on what **you** think will work best for both you and the company. Your new boss asks you to take two days to write a "three or four page description" of your new job for review.*

5. Out of the three options ("A", "B" or "C") below, check the box next to the answer that describes your *strongest* association with the behavior of your new boss in Scenario 1. Please only check "☑" one box.

A) ☐ My new boss' behavior reminds me of the behavior of **a specific individual** from my real-life experience. *(e.g. a former boss, friend, relative, associate, etc...)*

➔ If you checked box "A," *please briefly describe who this individual is (i.e. by relationship -- a former associate, boss, friend, relative, etc...) and also briefly describe their behavior.*

B) ☐ My new boss' behavior reminds me of the behavior of **a specific type or category of individual** from my real-life experience. *(e.g. used-car salesmen, control freaks, do-gooders, etc...)*

➔ If you checked box "B," *please provide a brief description of this type of individual and their behavior below.*

C) ☐ My new boss' behavior does not remind me of any person or type-of-person from my real-life experience.

6. If you checked either box "a" or "b" above, is this primarily a negative or positive memory/association? *(check "✓" the appropriate oval below)*

◯ Highly Negative ◯ Negative ◯ Neutral ◯ Positive ◯ Highly Positive
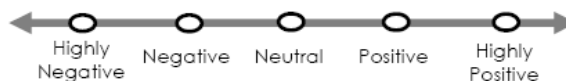
Scenario 1 (continued from previous page)

Directions: Consider the scenario and circle the best answer for each question, where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7. Your new boss probably has your best interests in mind.	1	2	3	4	5
8. There is very little risk for you associated with this task.	1	2	3	4	5
9. If you are not comfortable with this task, you should hide that fact from your boss.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Your new boss will probably use what you write against you.	1	2	3	4	5
11. During the next two days you should ask your boss as many questions as possible about the task.	1	2	3	4	5
12. This assignment sounds like a trap to you.	1	2	3	4	5
13. You can trust your new boss to treat you fairly.	1	2	3	4	5
14. This situation must be handled well or your work life will suffer.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Your new boss likely has no "hidden agenda" for this task.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Your handling of this situation is not particularly important to your general well-being.	1	2	3	4	5

17. How would you feel if you were actually faced with Scenario #1? *Mark one "X" in the most appropriate circle.*
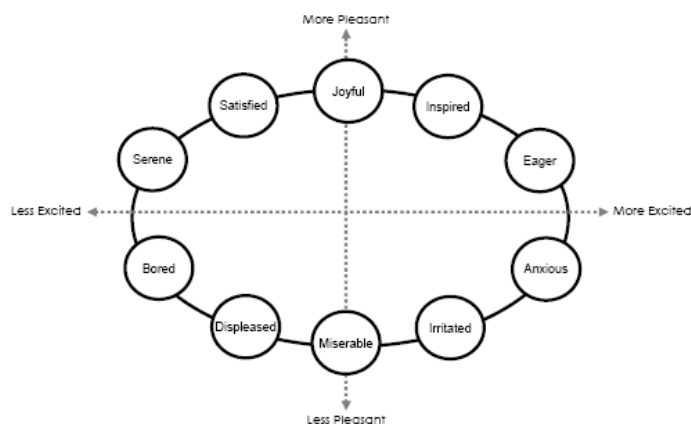
18. Will you cooperate with your new boss' request by designing your job as you would honestly prefer it?

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ I'm not sure

19. Please provide more detail (in the box below) explaining your previous answer. *How would you actually handle your new boss' request?*

Scenario 2:
Your company is struggling financially, and you are forced to leave your existing job for one in another division. On your first day, you seek out some work-related information from a new co-worker (who you have never met). Your co-worker grins wildly, then yells loudly (in earshot of the entire office) -- "Do I even know you?! What do I look like, a help desk!?," then laughs hysterically before calming down and seriously answering your question. When the answer does arrive it is clear and to the point. An hour later you find out from your supervisor that this person will be your assigned "work partner," and that you will work on most tasks together as a team. At three o'clock this afternoon you are meeting with your new teammate to get acquainted and to develop a plan for working together.

20. Out of the three options ("A", "B" or "C") below, check the box next to the answer that describes your *strongest* association with the behavior of your new co-worker in Scenario 2. Please only check "☑" one box.

A) ☐ My new co-worker's behavior reminds me of the behavior of **a specific individual** from my real-life experience. *(e.g. a former boss, friend, relative, associate, etc...)*

➔ If you checked box "A," *please briefly describe who this individual is (i.e. by relationship -- a former associate, boss, friend, relative, etc...) and also briefly describe their behavior.*

B) ☐ My new co-worker's behavior reminds me of the behavior of **a specific type or category of individual** from my real-life experience. *(e.g. used-car salesmen, control freaks, do-gooders, etc...)*

➔ If you checked box "B," *please provide a brief description of this type of individual and their behavior below.*

C) ☐ My new co-worker's behavior does not remind me of any person or type-of-person from my real-life experience.

21. If you checked either box "a" or "b" above, is this primarily a negative or positive memory/association?
(check "✓" the appropriate oval below)

○ Highly Negative ○ Negative ○ Neutral ○ Positive ○ Highly Positive

SCENARIO 2 (continued from previous page)

Directions: Consider the scenario and circle the best answer for each question, where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
22. Your new co-worker's behavior was a purposeful attempt to embarrass you.	1	2	3	4	5
23. It is incredibly important to get off to a good start with your co-worker	1	2	3	4	5
24. If you are not comfortable with this relationship, you should hide that fact from your new co-worker	1	2	3	4	5
25. Your new coworker clearly does not have your best interests in mind.	1	2	3	4	5
26. This interaction is not important to your on going relationship with your new co-worker	1	2	3	4	5
27. You have to be careful with what you say in the planning meeting, because this individual could stab you in the back	1	2	3	4	5
28. You should tell your co-worker all about yourself, including any concerns, in the first meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Based on first impressions, you can't trust your co-worker	1	2	3	4	5
30. This situation must be handled well or your work life will suffer.	1	2	3	4	5

31. How would you actually feel if you were faced with Scenario #2? Mark one 'X' in the appropriate circle
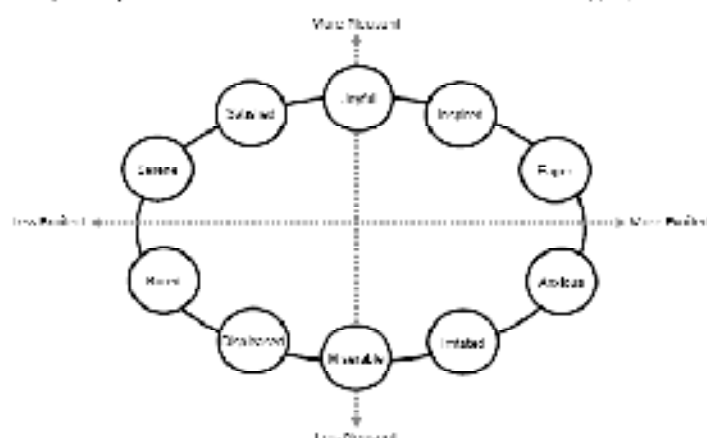
32. In your three o'clock planning meeting, will you communicate honestly and completely with your new co-worker concerning your new work arrangement?

　　　□ Yes　　　□ No　　　□ I'm not sure

33. Please provide more detail (in the box below) explaining your previous answer. How would you actually behave in the three o'clock planning meeting and toward your coworker in the near future?

Scenario 3:

You decide to take a managerial job with a prestigious company that offers you more pay and responsibility, including the direct management of a number of employees. You feel that your new company has a number of fairly serious problems, but that by using your skills and experience you can help to bring about a number of positive changes. Upon arriving at the office on your first day, you are surprised by a note on your door, signed "Pamela" (a name that you do not recognize), directing you to a large conference room where every manager in the office appears to have gathered. Pamela (you now realize that you have definitely never met her) greets you with a smile and remarks that she has set this gathering up as a favor to you in your effort to "get to know everyone." You notice from her introduction that you have the same job title. Pamela further remarks that she "wishes someone had done this for me when I started here," and then announces loudly to the gathered crowd that you will make a speech discussing your background and your "plans to improve the company" in your new position. Your new boss is away on a vacation, and you see no one in the room that you recognize.

---

34. Out of the three options ("A", "B" or "C") below, check the box next to the answer that describes your *strongest association* with the behavior of Pamela in Scenario 3. Please only check ☑ one box.

A) ☐ Pamela's behavior reminds me of the behavior of **a specific individual** from my real-life experience. *(e.g. a former boss, friend, relative, associate, etc...)*

→ If you checked box "A," please briefly describe who this individual was (i.e. by relationship — a former associate, boss, friend, relative, etc...) and also briefly describe their behavior.

B) ☐ Pamela's behavior reminds me of the behavior of **a specific type or category of individual** from my real life experience. *(e.g. used-car salesmen, control freaks, do gooders, etc...)*

→ If you checked box "B," please provide a brief description of this type of individual and their behavior below.

_____

C) ☐ Pamela's behavior does not remind me of any person or type of person from my real life experience.

35. If you checked either box "a" or "b" above, is this primarily a negative or positive memory/association? (check "✓" the appropriate oval below)

Highly Negative — Negative — Neutral — Positive — Highly Positive
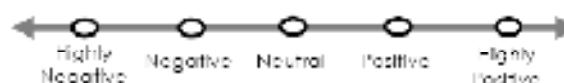
Scenario 3 (continued from previous page)

Directions: Consider the scenario and circle the best answer for each question, where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
36. Pamela can not be trusted based upon her initial behavior	1	2	3	4	5
37. This speech will either make or break your ability to have a good start in your new job	1	2	3	4	5
38. If you say the wrong thing then Pamela will use the information to damage your reputation	1	2	3	4	5
39. Pamela probably has your best interests at heart.	1	2	3	4	5
40. If you give a good speech then Pamela will speak positively of you to others.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Your reputation among your new co-workers will not be determined by the outcome of this situation	1	2	3	4	5
42. Pamela probably arranged this situation to make you look bad.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Pamela's explanation for setting up the speech can be taken as the complete truth.	1	2	3	4	5
44. This situation has to be handled well or your work life will suffer	1	2	3	4	5

45. How would you actually feel if you were faced with Scenario #3? Mark one "X" in the appropriate circle
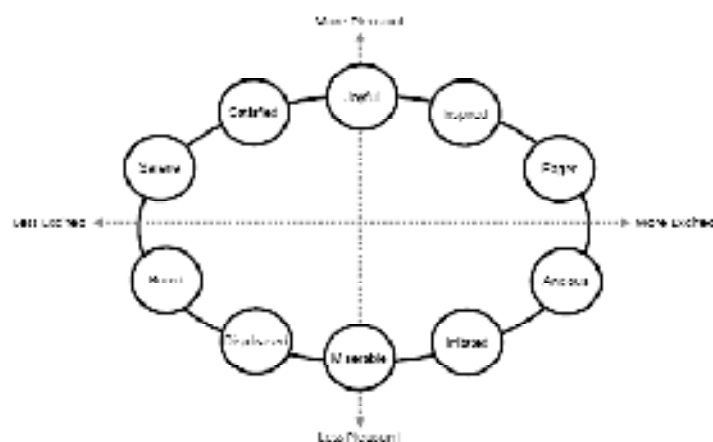
46. Will you cooperate with Pamela by honestly communicating your plans to improve your new company?

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ I'm not sure

47. Please provide more detail (in the box below) explaining your previous answer. *How would actually behave at the gathering and toward Pamela in the near future?*

➔ Great – thanks for doing that. Next you will answer some questions about yourself and your workplace. In this first short section please check the box that most accurately describes your employment.

48. How long have you worked in your current organization?

- ☐ 0-1 month   ☐ 1-3 months   ☐ 3-6 months   ☐ 6-12 months
- ☐ 1-2 years   ☐ 2-5 years   ☐ 5+ years

49. How long have you worked in your current work group or team?

- ☐ 0-1 month   ☐ 1-3 months   ☐ 3-6 months   ☐ 6-12 months
- ☐ 1-2 years   ☐ 2-5 years   ☐ 5+ years

50. Thinking about your immediate work group or team, how long have most employees been with the group?

- ☐ 0-1 month   ☐ 1-3 months   ☐ 3-6 months   ☐ 6-12 months
- ☐ 1-2 years   ☐ 2-5 years   ☐ 5+ years

51. How many direct "bosses" do you have in your current job?

- ☐ None   ☐ 1   ☐ 2   ☐ More than 2

52. Are you currently someone's "boss;" that is, how many direct reports are you responsible for?

- ☐ None   ☐ 1   ☐ 2-4   ☐ 4-6
- ☐ 6-10   ☐ More than 10

53. In your opinion, are any groups of individuals, such as ethnic, gender, age, lifestyle or other groups, unfairly stigmatized (i.e. perceived and/or treated unfairly) in your workplace? (If "No," please skip the next question)

- ☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ I'm not sure

54. If you answered "yes" to the previous question, are you a member of at least one stigmatized group?

- ☐ Yes   ☐ No

➔ Thank you. Now I will ask you a few questions about your relationship with your company. Please circle the response that most accurately describes your genuine feelings and beliefs.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
55. When someone criticizes my company, it feels like a personal insult.	1	2	3	4	5
56. I am not very interested in what others think about my company.	1	2	3	4	5
57. When I talk about my company, I usually say "we" rather than "they"	1	2	3	4	5
58. The company's successes are my successes	1	2	3	4	5
59. When someone praises my company, it feels like a personal compliment	1	2	3	4	5
60. If a story in the media criticized my company, I would feel embarrassed	1	2	3	4	5

➲ *Great, thank you. Next you will answer some questions about your current primary manager (or immediate supervisor) and work environment in your "real job" – no scenarios here. Remembering that your response is confidential, please circle the answer that describes your genuine feelings and beliefs.*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
61. My manager often encourages me to take on new tasks or to learn how to do things I have never done before.	1	2	3	4	5
62. If I was thinking about leaving my company to pursue a better job elsewhere, I would talk to my manager about it.	1	2	3	4	5
63. If I had a problem in my company, I could depend on my manager to be my advocate.	1	2	3	4	5
64. Often when I raise a problem with my manager, she or he does not seem very interested in helping me find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
65. My manager treats me worse than others because I belong to a particular social, ethnic or cultural group.	1	2	3	4	5
66. I feel safer confiding in my manager than some of my co-workers do.	1	2	3	4	5
67. My manager thinks that I am a good performer.	1	2	3	4	5
68. If my manager makes a commitment, he/she is likely to keep it.	1	2	3	4	5
69. My manager's actions often do not match his/her words.	1	2	3	4	5
70. My manager helps to create a trusting work environment.	1	2	3	4	5

➲ *Thanks -- In this next section you will answer questions about working with others. Please circle the response that most accurately describes your genuine feelings and beliefs.*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
71. I am able to work well with coworkers that I have only recently met.	1	2	3	4	5
72. When I work on a project with others, I usually do not feel successful.	1	2	3	4	5
73. As far as my job is concerned, I am a rather self-reliant person.	1	2	3	4	5
74. When I work together with a co-worker; we usually achieve our mutual goals.	1	2	3	4	5
75. Collaborating with others is something that I am not good at.	1	2	3	4	5
76. In most cases I can find a way to work with others in an effective manner.	1	2	3	4	5
77. I am more effective solving problems by myself than in a group.	1	2	3	4	5
78. When something doesn't work in my relationships with coworkers, I can usually find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
79. I often feel insecure about working with others.	1	2	3	4	5
80. If I have trouble with a coworker, I usually know how to fix the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
81. Having to work with other people makes me less efficient.	1	2	3	4	5

✷ Thanks. You are nearly finished! In this next section you will answer questions concerning your attitudes toward others in society. Please circle the response that most accurately describes your genuine feelings and beliefs.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
82.	One should be very cautious with strangers.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	Most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
84.	Most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	These days, you must be alert or someone is likely to take advantage of you.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	Most sales people are honest in describing their products.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	In general, people really do not care about the well-being of others.	1	2	3	4	5
88.	Most people answer public opinion polls honestly.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	Most repair people will not overcharge people who are ignorant of their specialty.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	Most of the time, people care enough to try to be helpful, rather than just looking out for themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	Most adults are competent at their jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	The typical person is sincerely concerned about the problems of others.	1	2	3	4	5

✷ Great. In this next section you will answer questions about your individual work style. Please circle the response that most accurately describes your genuine feelings and beliefs.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
93.	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
94.	If I am in trouble at my work, I can usually think of something to do about it.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
96.	When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I often have trouble finding a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
97.	I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
98.	No matter what comes my way in my job, I'm usually able to handle it.	1	2	3	4	5
99.	My past experiences at work have not prepared me for success in my future career.	1	2	3	4	5
100.	I do not feel prepared to meet most of the demands in my job.	1	2	3	4	5

♣ Again, thank you for participating in this important research study. Lastly I would like to learn some basic facts about you for classification purposes. For each item, place a check ☑ in the box next to your answer. Please select only one answer.

101. What is your gender?

☐ Male   ☐ Female

102. What is your age?

☐ 16-18 yrs   ☐ 19-21 yrs   ☐ 22-24 yrs   ☐ 25-29 yrs

☐ 30-39 yrs   ☐ 40-49 yrs   ☐ 50-59 yrs   ☐ 60+ yrs

103. What is your ethnicity?

☐ White (Caucasian)   ☐ Black or African-American   ☐ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander

☐ Hispanic or Latino   ☐ Asian   ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native

☐ Other _____

104. What is the highest level of education that you have completed?

☐ Some high school   ☐ Some university study   ☐ Some graduate school

☐ High school diploma   ☐ Bachelor's degree   ☐ Graduate or professional degree

☐ Associate's degree   ☐ Other _____

105. What is your relationship status?

☐ Married   ☐ Single   ☐ Other _____

106. How many children do you have?

☐ None   ☐ 1-2   ☐ 2+

107. How many times a week do you participate in vigorous aerobic exercise?

☐ None   ☐ 1-2   ☐ 3-4   ☐ 4+

108. How long is your vehicular commute (car, bus, train, ferry) to work?

☐ < 20 minutes   ☐ 20-45 minutes   ☐ 45-60 minutes   ☐ 60+ minutes

109. How much will you (approximately) earn in this year of employment?

☐ <-$20,000   ☐ $40,001-$60,000   ☐ $80,001-$100,000   ☐ $150,001-$250,000

☐ $20,001-$40,000   ☐ $60,001-$80,000   ☐ $100,001-$150,000   ☐ $250,000+

This is the end – Thank you for your valuable contribution to this important research project! Please return your completed survey to the individual who gave it to you (or in the assigned collection area). ◄

Appendix C – Scenario 1, Monotype Associations
PERSONAL EXPERIENTIAL COMPARISON OF "NEW BOSS" TO A SINGLE INDIVIDUAL

→   The President of my current company, he is always challenging you and trying to pull all of your creativity out of you.

→   A former associate

→   Former boss - shoving off their work onto me

→   One of my old bosses. At first comes on too strong, then becomes more comfortable and eases up somewhat.

→   former boss

→   A former boss who took over after the death of the manager. This new boss was very scattered and unsure of themself and was trying new procedures that clearly would not be productive.

→   My economics professor. He doesn't like to do things in a traditional manner. He likes individuals that are familiar with a particular function to develop ideas from experience.

→   A former boss who was unsure of how to incorporate my skillset into the company - I offered to find and recommend ways I could add value.

→   Boss who needs to briefly talk to me when I have a problem.

→   Like my mother, always encouraging me to do my own thing. Not follow the crowd.

→   Manager (Boss). My manager always asks me if I want to try new duties because he knows that he can trust me.

→   Looks for good ideas from everyone to utilize the knowledge to better suit everyone. Wise.

→   Indecisive but potentially kind leader -- not so talented.

→   A former boss who was instrumental in my early development stage of leadership skills.

→   Previous boss saw certain skills in me and allowed me to navigate to what suited me best.

→   When we need to submit our own goals and objectives at my present company.

→   My current job is somewhat self-designed. My boss is pretty hands-off.

→   Reminds me of my current boss at Equal Exchange. Always encouraging people to ask questions, take risks and learn and he means it!

→   This reminds me of my current boss; who is constantly pushing me to tell her what I want to do.

→   My current boss left it up to me to write my new job description.

→   A former boss -- Giving more freedom to me the individual. Which shows a certain level of trust in me.

→   Myself; I would have taken this step in my work history. Many employees are unsatisfied due to workload, hrs/flex, as well as expectations this is a good way to get that out.

→   Former employer - making the job all it can be. I was given the freedom to take my position in any direction (within certain guidelines)

→   Former associate. Felt best way to be creative was through less-formal structure.

→   Current executive director(s), many co-workers.

→   My bosses' boss allows her to loosely design her job.

→   A boss. Sort of a mad genius. Many people are afraid of letting employees think like that, but I think it's exciting.

→   Former boss IS scenario.

→   Former boss. Several transient bosses exhibited the same naive behavior. They did not last long.

→   Former boss - if presented in a positive manner, this can be a wonderful opportunity.

→   Current boss -- he is both empowering and non-chalant.

→   A former boss who came out of GE retirement to run our business. As a means to evaluate the staff he basically did this. Through how he perceived the results and behaviors/attitudes, he was able to structure the org to perform beyond historical capability

→   Former boss. Strong leader. Open-minded to better ways of running business.

→   Current boss. I am in a position that was just recently created. Threrefore, a new job description needed to be created.

→   Old boss. A person who was afraid to fail

→   I was given the exact scenario with a boss.

Appendix D – Scenario 1, Stereotype Associations
PERSONAL EXPERIENTIAL COMPARISON OF "EMPOWERING NEW BOSS" TO A TYPE OF INDIVIDUAL

→ Former boss. Very negative told you to do what you think is right. But it was always wrong or never good enough.

→ Control freak. Unethical. Two-faced.

→ A college professor working on theory rather than practical experience

→ Someone who likes to start fresh, appreciates input, is not afraid of change, wants to do a good job.

→ A teacher assigning a report. Asking me to grade myself.

→ Someone who, while well-intentioned, has no idea about my job and is looking for information.

→ Reminds me of a teacher or mentor. Someone who cares/values my opinion.

→ My teachers in high school used to do this exact thing.

→ Someone looking to evaluate you before they've even really met you. "Testing" you potentially someone who'd take credit for your work.

→ Very hands-off person, trusting

→ The type that doesn't have an idea of how to do it themselves - needs others to decide for him/her, consensus builder.

→ This type of individual turned out to be lazy and have a poor management style.

→ This reminds me of Hampshire College and Bennington College, where students design their own majors. Somehow, I don't see this philosophy applying as well to a company with specific tasks to fulfill.

→ The type who reads a lot of books but doesn't have a lot of experience.

→ Control freak. Needs to check all my work before I send it out. Does not trust his subordinates.

→ I have encountered people who believe in human potential and humanism. Worker/learner centered things have many drawbacks.

→ Overconfident/ill-informed individual. A "know it all" that lacks justification for knowing it all.

→ Micro-manager

→ Change the world or make their mark.

→ Out of the box thinker. The boss is trying to break through the everyday monotony and see if there are fresh ideas to approach the business.

Appendix E – Scenario 2, Monotype Associations
PERSONAL EXPERIENTIAL COMPARISON OF "NEW CO-WORKER" TO A SINGLE INDIVIDUAL

→ Coworker. It is good to joke around and have some humor in your day but you need to be serious when it comes down to business.

→ Co-worker - attention seeker.

→ A former coworker that was not a very tactful or polite person.

→ Ex-coworker. This is a person that feels they are "above" everyone else.

→ I had a former associate who was very much like the coworker described above. She was loud, obnoxious, spoiled (she would cry at work if she didn't get what she wanted from her parents, friends, etc...) But work-wise, she was ok.

→ Team member. Very loud, overbearing.

→ A co-worker

→ Former coworker - very annoying

→ Actually I had a boss that did that type of thing to everyone. The department knew what was going on. At first it was totally humiliating, and then it was "oh well."

→ My ex-Boss. Very outspoken and not willing to explain.

→ Former client; loose cannon

→ A had a friend in college who would see me on campus and shout in the crowded cafeteria "(my name) has no penis!" He was the kind of guy you just couldn't get rid of. I like eccentric people.

→ It reminds me of myself. I'm actually really helpful, but I don't want people to come to me for help.

→ A former associate

→ Co-worker - they are funny and a bit loud, but are able to do their job well.

→ A current co-worker in another department who makes it uncomfortable to interact with her, yelling, and pretending to be mad.

→ Former associate, highly regarded due to education/pedigree, recruited to work for company, not a lot of interpersonal skills - loud brash behavior (like scenario) as a means to mask insecurity/lack of confidence.

→ I had a similar experience while asking for help at a new job. I felt it was more about my co-worker feeling jealous (new person/new role).

→ Former employee. Very qualified but very labor intensive to manage.

→ My cousin who is obnoxious by trying to be funny.

→ About 10 years ago I worked with someone who behaved this way. He was a great co-worker, but a bit on the goofy side.

→ This person reminds me of my uncle with his sarcastic approach on situations

→ A former friend who would try and put people down or embarrass them to make himself look or feel better.

→ It reminds me of plenty of people, friends, family and coworkers

→ A former associate. Complaining, obnoxious, loud.

→ A friend that was very insecure, always had something negative to say, but then took it back when he realized you did not appreciate it.

→ Friend, always has a joke but will quickly answer your question.

→ My friend is always busting my chops, but just to keep my head up.

→ Self

→ A friend that always jokes I grew up with.

→ Subordinate coworker. Good results with requests, but usually only after a negative first reaction.

→ Many of my friends are "ball busters," which the new coworker sounds like, but in the end they will always give the best possible answer.

→ A friend of mine. He love to do that all the time.

→ My brother-in-law. Former military, thinks he knows it all, and will laugh at you if you don't.

→ Reminds me of a friend in my country. He tries to make people feel bad, he thinks he's better.

→ Other coworkers in the building. People at first aren't as serious as they should be. But they do come around.

→ HR manager at my last job. She needed a lot of attention and craved a position of superiority.

→ Former Boss. They would find it funny to try and make the new employees uncomfortable.

→ Friend - who is very sarcastic

→ Former sarcastic, obnoxious, but funny friend

→ I have a current associate who, in the past, was manipulative and would be outwardly demeaning in public work situations.

→ current co-worker

→ Former associate who liked to keep things light, but knew how to finish the work at the end of the day.

→ Current partner in another capability; very senior in our organization.

→ Co-worker; Generally they are interested in attention and wish to be/look "cool." At the same time, they can be serious when need be.

→ A co-worker.

→ A former work associate who would do this all the time.

→ Former employee that doesn't work well with the team and is always doing something off-task.

→ Current coworker who is very sarcastic and jokes a lot, some time at others' expense. I don't work with this person directly.

→ A co-worker that had to while about every request before completing the request.

→ Former associate - very rude.

→ Former co-worker. Difficult, reluctant to make things easy.

→ Previous co-worker. Very sarcastic, negative.

→ Former associate - marketing analyst. She would provide no assistance or support to marketing team. She saw herself as a resource to the VP and nobody else.

→ Peer. Never know if they are serious or kidding. Person is bi-polar.

→ He was a former co-worker. He thought everything was a joke, but really knew his job well.

→ Myself. A wise guy that has fun but will become serious when has to. Not always taking work too seriously.

Appendix F – Scenario 2, Stereotype Associations
PERSONAL EXPERIENTIAL COMPARISON OF "NEW CO-WORKER" TO A TYPE OF INDIVIDUAL

→ Loud mouth attention getter. Needs to negate others to build themselves up.

→ An obnoxious individual. Loud, rude, uncaring.

→ Passive-aggressive. Willing to make you look stupid to get approval from others. Or just a bad sense of humor.

→ Sarcastic - puts up a front first to "test" and see how you react.

→ High sense of humor. Group owner/controller. Good person, but likes to joke, but still does great work.

→ Insecure and unprofessional

→ The individual would be someone who liked getting attention at first, but would help in the long run.

→ The type of person who is not shy and doesn't mind assisting people - informative and enjoys joking to break the tension.

→ Reminds me of a book I read...basically you put someone on the defensive but then calm them with a true honest answer.

→ Sarcastic assholes.

→ An incredibly insecure person.

→ Individuals who like to seem sarcastic; my brother comes to mind. It is one of those things you learn to filter.

→ Use car salesman - overbearing and obnoxious

→ This individual is someone that needs attention. They have a different sense of humor but a good heart. I would need to establish some boundaries.

→ Loud, obnoxious coworker who jokes around too much and is unprofessional

→ Lacks confidence, insecure, needs attention

→ Backstabber

→ A high school student

→ People trying to be a comedian or get attention, immature people, people who think they are superior just because they have mastered a skill that is new to me.

→ This behavior reminds me of an attention seeking, non-team-oriented person.

→ Some people just have this type of a sense of humor. It can be a bit embarrasing, but is usually harmless.

→ Crazy

→ The loud, annoying type.

→ This person craves attention, and although bright and sometimes helpful, is generally a pain in the ass to deal with.

→ The self-absorbed "joker"

→ I've definitely met people who are loud and try to make a scene, followed by quite serious conversation. This type of situation has resulted from people who instantly feel comfortable with new people.

→ Jerk who tries to win over the office with humor.

→ Class clown - likes to be center of attention, but also can be serious and get the job done.

→ Seems like someone who is insecure and seeks attention.

→ Friendly, sarcastic, obnoxious, soical but looking out for themselves. Likes to joke and isn't very sensitive.

→ Someone who is really threatened and attention-seeking.

→ This sounds like a person craving attention: "Hey look at me -- I'm helping the new guy!"

→ Boisterous cynics that get a kick out of their own abrasive sense of humor.

→ The jokester. Someone who makes a loud joke for the audience.

→ Volatile person who feels put upon but is willing to try to help - person probably moody.

→ Someone in their own way trying to break the ice! Doesn't work for everyone on the receiving end.

→ Attention-seeker. Needs to be noticed.

→ Someone who is always trying to be funny

→ The loudmouth attention-getter.

→ A real attention "needer." Someone who lacks respect in others and has a low self-esteem. Someone who seeks attention and praise by stepping on someone else.

→ A person who needs to get attention - usually due to some insecurity issues.

→ Type A personalities, who quite often are great work partners, but like to, or have to, gain attention in the workplace in strange/unpredictable ways.

→ A difficult person, who may throw me off balance initially. Someone who wants control or to be dominant.

Appendix G – Scenario 3, Monotype Associations
PERSONAL EXPERIENTIAL COMPARISON OF "PAMELA" TO A SINGLE INDIVIDUAL

→ My college writing teacher. She randomly picked teams to work together and would put you on the spot to read to the class.

→ Former associate. Tries too hard to be nice. Actually insecure.

→ Former coworker. This person tries to be helpful - but doesn't understand people.

→ A former co-worker

→ A friend who seems to have your best interest at heart but tries to stab you in the back.

→ A jerky former coworker

→ Former associate/boss; just like this scenario, a strong-willed female came into the org and assumed control, even over positions that did not directly report to her. Very arrogant, controlling, one way or the highway type.

→ Former boss - seems like she was putting him on the spot and hoping he was embarrassed

→ Former Boss

→ It was a pastor from a church that I'm not going to anymore. He's a nice person.

→ Previous work associate

→ Brown-noser co-worker

→ A relative who loved to put people on the spot!

→ A relative. With the best intentions calls attention to me at a family gathering to ask about my "status" -- dating, work, etc... in front of everyone.

→ Former associate

→ A former work associate. I feel the behavior was positive for me at the company and I found it to be helpful of her.

→ Reminds me of my boss when I used to work for Home Depot

→ A former teacher with good intentions.

→ Someone I worked with years ago at a plant in Westborough, MA

Appendix H – Scenario 3, Stereotype Associations
PERSONAL EXPERIENTIAL COMPARISON OF "PAMELA" TO A TYPE OF INDIVIDUAL

→ A Control Freak. Control the situation and individuals.

→ Disgruntled employee who was passed over for a promotion.

→ Employees in our company. We are open, honest and about ideas.

→ Control freaks, jealous type.

→ Previous event planner. Someone who knows where everything should be, get done or why it's happening. I generally like these individuals.

→ Control freak - Controls the situation regardless of how it affects others.

→ Reminds me of a person who is controlling, yet organized and caring

→ Bitter people, unhappy with their current job or situation

→ Fake, conniving bitch.

→ Control freaks, people who try to seem altruistic, but likely are not.

→ I would be unsure of Pamela's intentions and in my real life have not known why someone would put me on the spot -- if it's really to be helpful/hurtful.

→ Genuinely nice person.

→ Someone who makes you look bad to make themself look better.

→ Open, welcoming, and unassuming person. Maybe they don't plan or always communicate well but they mean well and try to make you feel more connected.

→ Pamela is a control freak who is undercutting me by appearing not to.

→ People I think I would meet in the business world.

→ Controlling and presumptuous person

→ Controlling person. Needs to be seen as in-charge.

→ Very sneaky. Tries to come across as someone who is "just trying to help," but is really trying to set you up for failure in an effort to mae themselves look better.

→ Know-it-all, presumptuous

→ Someone always willing to help, especially the new guy to make him feel less nervous.

→ Backstabber

→ I see her as someone who is trying to make this person happy. By requesting their honored knowledge.

→ Type of individual that believes everyone feels and wants the same thing they do.

→ Do-gooders. She should let you get a bit more comfortable before having you discuss you plans to improve the company on your first day.

→ Responsible office worker.

→ Office busybody - thinks they are helping, but instead don't help morale.

→ Would feel challenged and unprepared

→ 2 types: 1. Means well but clueless...2. Self-promoting but clueless.

→ Someone who doesn't understand boundaries or limits and who probably thinks she is more important than she is. Other may be afraid of her. At first go along to avoid conflict.

→ A very pushy person. It wasn't right to set this up on such short notice.

→ Controlling type

→ People who do things to make themselves look better in front of their peers - due to insecurity.

→ Someone intent on setting someone up for failure by surprising them, and forcing them into a situation where they may not succeed.