Antecedents of Behavioural Indicators of Trust in Subordinates

by

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ABSTRACT

ANTECEDENTS OF BEHAVIOURAL INDICATORS OF TRUST IN SUBORDINATES

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The present study examined how a leader's behavioural intentions are affected by the trustworthiness of their subordinate using the Affective-Cognitive trust model (Gillespie, 2003; McAllister, 1995). Two-hundred and twenty-five undergraduate students participated in an experimental study that assessed their willingness to engage in reliance and disclosure behaviours based on their perceptions of affective and cognitive trust. Given concerns about the conceptual overlap between trust and liking, we controlled for liking. Consistent with our hypotheses we found that cognitive trust predicted participant's willingness to engage in reliance behaviours, whereas affective trust predicted participant's willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours. However, when we controlled for liking, these findings held for disclosure behaviours but did not for reliance behaviours. Limitations of our study and implications for both research and practice are discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Antecedents of Behavioural Indicators of Trust in Subordinates

Trust in Organizations

The investigation of trust within an organization is a complex construct that has only recently become a major research topic within the organizational psychology literature (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Brower, Lester, Korsgaard, & Dineen, 2009; McAllister, 1995; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Trust is defined as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other individual will perform a particular action important to the trustor (Mayer et al. 1995). Researchers investigating trust have found that it plays a more important role in organizations than previously assumed (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2008; Colquitt et al., 2007). Many positive outcomes have been associated with increased levels of trust within organizations (Colquitt et al., 2007; McAllister, 1995; Connell, Ferres, & Travaglione, 2003). For example, research on trust has found that employees who trust their leaders and coworkers are more likely to remain with their organization, be committed to their job and put more effort into their work tasks (Colquitt et al., 2007).

Trust has been primarily viewed as an internal action that a particular individual makes towards another (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009; Mayer et al., 1995). An internal action is an individual's cognitive assessment of whether or not they trust another individual; for example, participants would be asked to rate how trustworthy a particular individual is. More recently, literature suggests that investigating behavioural indicators of trust between individuals is a more valid method of examination, as it taps more directly into the definition of trust; that is, placing oneself in a vulnerable position (Gillespie, 2003). Although there is still debate regarding the theoretical underpinnings of trust in general (Colquitt et al., 2007; Rubin, Bommer, & Bachrach, 2010; Schoorman et al., 2007; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2008; McAllister, 1995), there is

some agreement in trust literature that trust consists of at least two components, an emotion-based component (affective trust) and an information-based component (cognitive trust; Colquitt et al., 2007; Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Brower et al., 2009; McAllister, 1995; Butler, 1991). Essentially, the academic research indicates that trust can be described, measured, and investigated using these affective and cognitive components.

The antecedents and consequences of trust in the workplace have been primarily examined using correlation naturalistic designs (Colquitt et al., 2007; Bernerth & Walker, 2009; Bauer & Green, 1996; Tan & Lim, 2009). This method has been used because of the practical availability, ease of access to such workplace samples, and external validity of research findings; however, it is difficult to establish cause and effect relationships between trust, and the antecedents and consequences within such settings. Therefore, experimental research on trust is required to move research from its current broad stage of analysis, to a more deep and nuanced understanding of trust. Although experimental studies investigating workplace trust do exist, they are comparatively scarce and tend to focus primarily on trust in leadership (Colquitt et al., 2007).

Further, trust research has predominantly examined trust in the upward direction from subordinate to leader (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Sander & Schyns, 2006; Brower et al., 2009; Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). While this line of research has lead to fruitful and meaningful conclusions, relatively little research has focused on the downward direction of trust between subordinates and leaders; that is, what are the consequences and antecedents of perceptions of trustworthiness from a leader to a subordinate? Again, this line of research would further our knowledge base of trust in organizations in its entirety and lead to a more holistic understanding of the concept in general.

2

The present study furthers the literature on workplace trust in several ways. First, we investigate how a leader's behavioural intentions are affected by their perceptions of how trustworthy a subordinate is; that is, perceived subordinate trust. This downward path of investigation is unique within the trust literature and will help us develop a more complete understanding of this construct. Second, we utilize an experimental design in this study. Benefits of this type of design include the ability of causality to be drawn and a more precise manipulation of the variables. Lastly, we further test and validate a model of behavioural indicators of trust, the reliance and disclosure model of trust behaviours, a model in its infancy with few validation studies. By adding to the trust literature in these three ways, we strive to improve the understanding of this important construct. We will first present the theoretical background of trust, followed by two major theories explaining how trust functions in an organizational setting. Finally, after reviewing the background literature on trust, we will discuss the research hypotheses of the current study.

Theoretical Background

Trust is defined as one's willingness to be vulnerable, based on the positive expectations of another's behaviour (Mayer et al., 1995). As such, risk-taking is believed to be the most proximal measure of trust as it is the behavioural outcome of one's willingness to be vulnerable (Colquitt et al., 2007; Bernerth & Walker, 2009). As a result, with an increased willingness to take risks, the trustor can divert more of their cognitive energy to the particular task at hand, as opposed to monitoring the trustee, thereby increasing task performance, which can ultimately compound to improve success in the workplace (Brower et al., 2009; Brower et al., 2000). In situations such as these, both the trustor and trustee benefit greatly from a trusting relationship (Colquitt et al., 2007; Brower et al., 2009; Brower et al., 2000). Much of the existing trust

literature draws on the theory of social exchange. A more effective exchange-relationship is postulated to explain the positive outcomes of trust in a workplace setting (Colquitt et al., 2007; Bernerth & Walker, 2009; Kramer, 1999; Chan, Taylor, & Markham, 2008; Deluga, 1994).

Social Exchange Theory.

The theory of social exchange has been extensively examined over the past several decades (Bau, 1964; Chan, Taylor, & Markham, 2008; Bernerth & Walker, 2009). Social exchange theory postulates that individuals are motivated to maximize rewards and minimize costs (Costigan, Ilter, & Berman, 1998). Social exchange is also based on the norm of reciprocity: individuals feel motivated to pay back or reciprocate any positive benefits that they receive from others (Gouldner, 1960). Organization effectiveness is enhanced by social exchange because it provides norms of behaviour that guide productive and mutually beneficial interactions (Deluga, 1994).

In terms of trust, social exchange theory is proposed to explain both the development of trust, as well as the positive consequences of trusting relationships (Chan et al., 2008; Deluga, 1994; Kramer, 1999). For example, in the case of a supervisor-subordinate dyad, the subordinate will be more likely to trust their supervisor if their supervisor exhibits positive behaviours towards them. Leaders who show they trust their employees, for example, by assigning increased responsibility to the subordinate, will be more likely to receive trust from the employee in turn. Furthermore, once this trust has been established both parties will be motivated to engage in positive behaviours for one another. For example, the subordinate may increase their performance or partake in organization citizenship behaviours (OCBs). The leader, in turn may engage in behaviours such as giving the subordinate more autonomy or showing more concern for the personal welfare of the employee (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995).

To further our understanding of the transactional nature of human behaviour which affects trust, a discussion of leader-member exchange theory (LMX) is necessary. LMX theory builds on, and expands social exchange theory, but it is at the same time more focused, and applies specifically to leader-subordinate dyads (Deluga, 1994).

Leader Member Exchange.

LMX theory postulates that leaders will treat their subordinates differently based on the quality of relationship they have with their subordinates (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Dienesh & Liden, 1986). Types of relationships, or exchanges, range from high to low quality; high quality relationships are characterized by high levels of mutual trust, liking, respect, and obligation, whereas low-quality relationships encompass solely the transactional aspect of the employee's contract. A core assumption of LMX theory is that leaders have a finite amount of resources (Dienesh & Liden, 1986). Specifically, leaders must divide their resources (cognitive or material) among all of their subordinates. Therefore, it stands to reason that there will be diversity among resources given to each subordinate; this allocation of resources is based on the leader's perception of the subordinate.

Trust has been identified as the main causal factor in developing high-quality LMX relationships (Bauer & Green, 1996). Consequently, research findings examining the effect of LMX on leadership behaviour can be applied to predict how the level of trust a leader has in their subordinate will affect their own behaviour. LMX theory proposes that high-quality interactions will be characterized by an increased amount of risk taking by the leader. LMX, like social exchange, assumes that this relationship functions in a bi-directional fashion such that it in high quality LMX relationships, subordinates would also be more willing to engage in risk-taking behaviours with their supervisors. An example of a leader's risk-taking behaviour could be

allowing subordinates to have more control over their own work. Both social-exchange and LMX theory have been used to explain the development and consequences of trust in the workplace (Deluga, 1994).

Theories of Trust

As previously defined, trust is the willingness to be vulnerable based on the positive expectations of another's behaviour (Mayer et al., 1995). Although this definition of trust is generally accepted in academic literature, there is still much variability in the way trust has been theoretically conceptualized. The two main theories of trust that are popular in the current literature are the, "ability, benevolence and integrity model" (Mayer et al., 1995) and the, "affective and cognitive based trust model" (McAllister, 1995). Both of these theories will be discussed next as they provide a strong theoretical basis for understanding the importance of trust in organizations.

   Ability, Benevolence and Integrity Model.

According to the Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) model, three main antecedents to perceived trustworthiness have been primarily discussed in the literature. These three variables, along with the trustor's propensity to trust, are proposed to be the main causal factors of a trusting relationship between a subordinate and their leader. These three factors are ability, benevolence, and integrity. *Ability* consists of one's skills, competencies, and characteristics that allow one to have influence in a specific context. For example, an individual may be highly competent in a particular area, such as interpersonal relations; however, may not have skilled knowledge in a particular technical domain. *Benevolence* is the construct that encompasses the belief that the trustee is assumed to want to do only positive things for the trustor, even in a purely altruistic sense. For example, coworkers who have been working together for a number of

years, and have developed a good relationship - thus sharing a sense of benevolence to one another; each individual would take care to participate in positive actions for the other, even if a positive reward for themselves is unlikely. Lastly, *integrity* involves the trustor's perception that the trustee is guided by the same set of moral values as themselves. Constructs such as personal integrity and justice have been found to affect this perception. All three of these variables are positively related to trust in the workplace between coworkers, leaders and subordinates (Colquitt et al., 2007; Zand, 1971; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009; Tan & Lim, 2009). Although these three factors are related to each other, they do explain unique variance in trust. Moreover, the relative importance of each of these factors varies according to the trustor-trustee dyad (Knoll & Gill, 2011). For example, benevolence and integrity were found to be significantly more important in predicting trust in a supervisor than was ability.

Affective-Cognitive Model.

The second main theory of trust in the literature is proposed by McAllister (1995). The affective-cognitive model of trust characterizes trust by two components: affective and cognitive. First, the affective component of trust consists of the emotional ties between individuals. It is thought that through emotional investment, a trusting relationship will form based on the assumption that the genuine care and concern felt for the trustee will be reciprocated (McAllister, 1995). This type of trust is expected to develop though a greater frequency of interaction between the two individuals. Further, the trustee may also show a genuine concern for the trustor. For example, within organizations, OCBs directed toward the trustor would be a clear sign of this intent (McAllister, 1995; Colquitt et al., 2007; Butler, 1991).

Second, this theory postulates that trust is cognitively based, in that individuals choose whom they trust based on the available information given to them. Based on this knowledge,

7

individuals can choose who, when and for what they will engage in trusting behaviours. Trustors can be given information that falls on a continuum from complete to absent, and based on this information, can make decisions as to whether or not to trust the given individual. Consequently, with complete information, trust is not necessary, and with zero information there is no reason, or basis on which, to trust.

Cognitive trust is based on several factors (McAllister, 1995). First, the past interactions with the trustee play a large role in the formation of a trusting relationship. In particular, past performance, reliability and dependability are believed to be positively related to the cognitive aspect of trust (Butler, 1991). Secondly, social similarity between the two parties is believed to have a significant influence. Individuals are more likely to attribute positive characteristics, including trustworthiness, to individuals who are more like themselves (Brewer, 1979). Lastly, an individual's ability such as credentials, previous work experience, etc., should also impact this perception. If an individual seems more capable of performing their task, they should be seen as more trustworthy (Brewer, 1979).

Several studies have been conducted using McAllister's affective-cognitive framework of trust (Rubin et al., 2010; Zand, 1971; McAllister, 1995; Costigan et al., 1998). Studies conducted by Chan et al. (2008), who used the affective-cognitive model, found that when subordinates are more trusted they will tend to develop feelings of empowerment which will in turn lead to an increase in OCBs. Further, Rubin et al. (2010) found that trust mediated the role between operant leadership behaviours (reward and punishment) and OCBs. However, little research has been conducted examining the differential outcomes between the cognitive and affective component, although there is strong support for this distinction. Differing antecedents between these two

aspects of trust have been identified in academic literature, supporting the theory that these factors represent two different aspects of dyadic trust (McAllister, 1995).

The cognitive-affective model of trust, and the ability, benevolence, and integrity model are related (Knoll & Gill, 2011; McAllister, 1995). The ability and integrity constructs are most related to the cognitive aspect of the McAllister model (1995) while the benevolence construct fits best with the affective component. Because of the similarity between the two theories, we chose to use the McAllister affective-cognitive model in the current study because of its parsimony and intuitive fit with the reliance and disclosure model.

Trust and Liking

Trust and liking are similar constructs; they both share some of the same antecedents and consequences (McAllister, 1995; Rubin, 1970; Nicholson et al., 2001). In fact, the correlation between these two constructs has been reported to range from .75 to .80 (Nicholson et al., 2001). To illustrate, similarity and frequency of interaction have both been found to be antecedents of trust (cognitive and affective, respectively) and liking (Rubin, 1970; McAllister, 1995). Moreover, consequences such as a feeling of goodwill towards to the party are common between these two variables. Further, it represents a favorable view and a feeling of respect that one holds towards the target person as well as an assessment of similarity between the two individuals. Despite the similarities between affective and cognitive trust and liking, trust and liking are in fact different. The definition of liking is broad, and its definition can be different depending on the context used (i.e. social psychology vs. consumer psychology) (Dwyer, 2007; Rubin, 1970; Nicholson, Compeau & Sethi, 2001; Doney and Cannon, 1997; Hawes, Mast and Swam 1989). Liking is defined as feelings you have towards another, whereas trust is defined as the way you believe the other individual will act towards you (Dwyer, 2007; McAllister, 1995).

The present study is designed to specifically investigate the relationship between trust and its two behavioural indicators; reliance and disclosure. Although it is probable that liking will affect these variables to some degree, this is not the focus of the current research. Therefore, we will use liking as a control variable to ensure it does not contaminate the relationship between trust and the behavioural indicators; reliance and disclosure.

Trust and Vulnerability

As previously noted, one commonly accepted definition is that trust is based on one's willingness to be vulnerable based on the positive expectations of another's behaviour (Mayer et al., 1995). Central to this definition is the concept of risk (Gillespie, 2003; Lapidot, Kark & Shamir, 2006; Wells & Kipnis, 2001). That is, in some way, an individual must put himself or herself in a state of risk or vulnerability in order for a trusting relationship to take place.

The state of vulnerability is defined as being open to harm or some other negative consequence and has been incorporated into almost all definitions of trust (Lapidot et al., 2006). This implies that the individual who trusts (the trustor) must have the positive expectation that the individual in whom they trust (the trustee) will perform a desired action that is important to the trustor without the ability to control or monitor them (Lapidot et al., 2006; Mayer et al., 1995). Subsumed within this definition is the possibility of loss; trust cannot exist if the individual feels no sense of risk. For example, a leader who delegates important work to their employee has entered into a state of risk; if the employee does not complete the task or does so incorrectly, the leader will face negative consequences.

Interestingly, recent research has identified a certain paradox within this definition (Gillespie, 2003). In high trust relationships, the perception of vulnerability may be quite low, wheras objectively this particular situation may in fact involve high vulnerability. This is, in

essence, the definition of trust – individuals who report high levels of trust will also not report feeling vulnerable when interacting with the trustee (Colquitt et al., 2007).

Past research has tended to investigate trust through the concept of vulnerability; however some literature has examined this relationship in a somewhat backwards manner (Zand, 1971, Gillespie, 2003). These studies have used the absence of the perception of vulnerability as a sign of trust. Although this method is valid, it does not tap directly into the definition of trust; instead uses indirect methods to assess this construct. Relatively few studies have looked at this relationship on a more basic level; that is, individuals who put themselves in a more vulnerable position will likely be more trusting (Gillespie, 2003). Therefore, it has been proposed that operationalizing trust as the behavioural intention to accept vulnerability, as opposed to the subjective sense of a lack of vulnerability, may be a more accurate depiction of this variable, this can be done by examining behavioural indicators of trust (Gillespie, 2003).

Behavioral Indicators of Trust

Zand (1971) created and validated a model of trust, in which three main behaviours were related to trust, and more importantly, the behavior of increasing one's vulnerability. Three main behavioural factors were included in this model: control, influence, and information. *Control* consists of an individual being more willing to accept interdependence among others and have greater confidence in their work. *Influence* refers to one's ability to accept influence from other sources regarding their goals or methods. Lastly, *information* refers to a more open level of disclosure regarding personal and work related information. This model is somewhat unique within the literature as it refers to behavioural indicators of trust; this is in contrast to other models in which individual perceptions, that is, an individual's feelings of trust as opposed to actual behaviours, are the main indication (Gillespie, 2003).

Although there is a scarcity of work regarding behavioural indicators of trust, a recent study attempted to conceptualize these behaviors into two categories; reliance and disclosure (Gillespie, 2003). Reliance refers to relying on other individual's skills, ability, and knowledge; this includes delegation of tasks and the granting of autonomy. Disclosure refers to the sharing of sensitive information which is either work related, or of a personal nature. As can be seen, these categories are similar to the three groupings provided by Zand (1971). The main difference is that the later categories more directly capture the dimension of vulnerability that is central to the definition of trust. As such, for the current study we chose to use the reliance disclosure model as it more directly captures the true definition of trust.

Gillespie (2003) conducted a study in which she validated the separation between the disclosure and reliance components of behavioural trust. The study findings supported the two component model of behavioural trust. Utilizing a variety of methods (e.g., interviews, surveys, and focus groups), Gillespie operationalized and defined both of these components. Disclosure taps the emotional component of trust; this dimension is based on a relational basis and is a factor in the formation of interpersonal attachment. Conversely, the reliance component draws from perceptions of the target employees skills and dependability and was found to have a stronger relation to satisfaction with performance.

Trust in Leader

As previously stated, trust within organizations has primarily been studied by investigating the leader-subordinate relationship (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Sander & Schyns, 2006; Brower et al., 2009; Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). Specifically, the outcomes associated when subordinates trust or do not trust their leaders. Trust in leadership has been linked to three main components of job performance: task performance, citizenship

behaviour and counterproductive behaviour, all of which need to be taken into account when working towards success in the workplace (Brower et al., 2009; Colquitt et al., 2007). Trust has been found to have moderately strong relationships with all three of these variables, such that individuals who trust their leader also report higher task performance, citizenship behaviors and lower counterproductive workplace behaviors, which include intentions to quit (Rubin, 2010; Brower et al., 2000). Clearly, trust is a variable that is related to a wide variety of subordinate behaviours.

Considerable research has examined the effect of subordinates trusting their supervisor (Colquitt et al., 2007). However, much less research has examined how trusting one's subordinate can influence a leader's behaviour. With so much attention and importance attributed to managerial trustworthiness, it is both wise and crucial to give equal attention to the reverse situation, as a leader's behaviours and cognitions can undoubtedly greatly affect an organization's performance and ultimate success.

Trust in Subordinate

Although the research investigating the effects of subordinate trust is scarce, some general trends and propositions have been suggested. This existing literature uses the framework of LMX (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Deluga, 1994; Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000). The main tenet subsumed under LMX theory is that of mutual trust, therefore the connection between behaviours related to LMX and that of trust seem reasonable. However, LMX theory is based on a long-term relationship between employees and supervisors and, as such, data has only been collected in correlation studies. As a result, direct cause and effect conclusions may not be made; due to the nature of these research designs, the direct causal effect of trust cannot be assessed. Other factors such as organizational structure or time with the organization would also affect

results. Moreover, trust has yet to be completely isolated and studied apart from the other components of LMX theory.

Despite the literature's shortcoming in this area, some general trends regarding the antecedents and consequences of trust in subordinates have surfaced. Werbel and Henriques (2009) found that trust in subordinates is mainly affected by subordinate's compliance to their supervisor's requests. Additionally, supervisors who rated their subordinates as more available and receptive also rated them as more trustworthy.

When a leader has developed trust in their subordinate, they will become more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviours with that employee (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000). This risk-taking behaviour can be expressed in several different forms within an organizational setting. For example, several studies have found that when leaders trust their subordinates they are more likely to delegate important tasks to their subordinates than if they do not trust them (Bauer & Green, 1996; Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998), or allow the employee to have more autonomy to make his or her own decisions. The present study aims to replicate these findings as well as to assess risking at the more personal level – disclosure.

According to LMX, high-quality relationships are defined by leader behaviours such as sharing complete and appropriate information, and not abusing the vulnerability of others within the organization (Deluga, 1994; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). Moreover, when a leader trusts their subordinates, they will be also more likely to give them more latitude as to how they carry out their assigned tasks (Bauer & Green, 1996; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Brower et al., 2000). This empowerment or autonomy is a hallmark feature of an observable high-quality LMX relationship (Bauer & Green, 1996). As the leader has greater levels of trust in the subordinate they are likely to feel that the subordinate will need less guidance and instruction (Scandura &

14

Pellegrini, 2008; Brower et al., 2000). Furthermore, the level of risk will be dependent upon the level of trust in the subordinate. For example, as an employee is seen as more trustworthy within an organization, they will be assigned more important tasks, such as hiring decisions or investment strategies. Several studies, utilizing LMX theory, have found support for the idea that delegation is positively related to the leader's perception of the subordinate's trustworthiness (Brower et al., 2000; Deluga, 1994; Bauer & Green, 1996; Werbel & Henriques, 2009).

LMX theory also posits that non-work related consequences occur as a result of high-quality LMX relationships (Deluga, 1994; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Liden & Graen, 1980). High levels of interpersonal attraction, trust, and loyalty evidence these types of relationships. Furthermore, individuals report more commitment and more OCBs. In cases such as these, individuals are more satisfied and conscientious, as well as less likely to report feelings of injustice or unfairness (Deluga, 1994; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Liden & Graen, 1980).

Proposed Relationships

Several studies have investigated the antecedents of trust separately to determine how they will affect one's level of trust. For example, Wells and Kipnis (2001) found that subordinates report affective-based explanations for trusting their managers (e.g. supportive), while manager's report more cognitive-based explanations for trusting their subordinates (e.g. competence). Furthermore, the relative importance of these antecedents of trust has been reported to differ somewhat according to the direction of trust and context (Brower et al., 2009; Knoll & Gill, 2010; Wasti, Tan, & Erdil, 2010). Given that the importance of the antecedents of trust can vary across relationships, it stands to reason that the different aspects of behavioural trust might also have different relationships with work outcomes.

In the present study, both levels of cognitive and affective trust a leader holds towards their subordinates will be independently manipulated. As such, participants, as the leader, will be placed in one of four conditions: high affective and high cognitive trust, high affective and low cognitive trust, low cognitive trust and high affective trust, and low cognitive and low affective trust. Following this manipulation, the leader will be measured on two behavioural measures of trust: disclosure and reliance.

The leader's perception of a subordinate's cognitive trust (e.g. competence at the specific task and integrity to complete his or her assigned duties) forms the basis on which to engage in reliance behaviours. It therefore follows that this aspect of trust will be influenced most by the cognitive components of trust such as a skill assessment of the subordinate. Moreover, LMX theory predicts that behaviours such as delegation and autonomy will increase when trust in the subordinate is high (Deluga, 1994; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). Therefore, the following is predicted:

Hypothesis 1: When cognitive trust is high, participants will be more willing to engage in reliance behaviours than when cognitive trust is low.

Conversely, affective trust centers on feelings of a more personal nature, such as loyalty and interpersonal attraction, as predicted by LMX (Deluga, 1994; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). Similarly, disclosure behaviours are focused around actions with a similar interpersonal focus, such as sharing sensitive information. Therefore, it stands to reason that these behaviours will be most influenced by the affective component of trust. Consistent with this rationale, the following hypotheses are predicted:

Hypothesis 2: When affective trust is high, participants will be more willing to engage in disclosure behaviours than when affective trust is low.

The present study is designed to specifically investigate the relationship between trust and its two behavioural indicators; reliance and disclosure. To ensure that differences in reliance and disclosure behaviours are due to cognitive or affective trust and not liking, we will use liking as a control variable. Therefore, we predict:

Hypothesis 3a: There will be a positive relation between cognitive trust and reliance even when controlling for liking.

Hypothesis 3b: There will be a positive relation between affective trust and disclosure even when controlling for liking.

The present study will contribute to the literature on trust in three main ways. First, there is a lack of research examining how a leader's behaviour is impacted based on the trustworthiness, or perceived trustworthiness, of their employees; the present research aims to fill this void. Second, studies have mainly focused on the *perception* of trust; this detail imparts several theoretical limitations on the applicability of the research. Conversely, this study will focus on intended behavioural indictors of trust; being relatively new in the literature, this concept offer more valid findings, as it is a more direct way to examine this concept. Lastly, this is an experimental study. The overwhelming majority of research regarding trust at any level within an organization is based on correlation data. An experimental study will aid our understanding of trust by creating a stronger and more valid understanding of the antecedents of trust in organizations.

<p style="text-align: center;">**Method**</p>

Participants

Two hundred and twenty-five undergraduate students participated in the study (60 men, 165 women). The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 51 ($M = 19.94$, $SD = 3.41$). Forty-five percent of the participants were recruited from the first-year psychology undergraduate subject pool and received course credit for their participation. The remainder of the participants was recruited from second and third year classes at the University; they were entered into a raffle for a gift certificate. Further, that about half of these individuals (49.8%) were currently employed at the time of the study, and of these individuals 22.7% had some managerial experience.

Materials and Procedure

Overview.

A 2 (affective trust: low vs. high) by 2 (cognitive trust: low vs. high) between subjects design was used to assess the hypotheses in this experiment. Therefore, this study consisted of four conditions: high affective and high cognitive trust, high affective and low cognitive trust, low cognitive trust and high affective trust, and low cognitive and low affective trust. Participants were recruited from the subject pool were invited to the laboratory to participate in the study. On arrival, participants were lead into a separate room and instructed to carefully read the text on the computer and follow the prompts; no further verbal instructions were given. Participants first read the consent form and provided their name and student number. Next, participants were asked four questions including their month of birth. Participants were assigned to one of the four trust conditions based on their month of birth (e.g. January to March birthdays were placed in the high affective and high cognitive condition). The other questions were used as

<p style="text-align: center;">18</p>

filler (e.g. "What is your favourite colour?"), and had no other purpose. Participants were then given information about their role in a fictitious organization and information about their subordinate, Peter (the description of Peter was different for each condition (see Appendix A)). Following this, half the participants were asked to respond to the manipulation check (see Appendix B), while the other half read detailed scenarios about Peter at work and were asked to respond to questions based on these scenarios (see Appendix C). Each group then completed the second part of the questionnaire (i.e., the manipulation check or scenarios). To assess bias, the order of presentation of the manipulation check and scenarios was counterbalanced and participants were randomly assigned to the presentation order. Lastly, all groups completed a short set of demographic questions (see Appendix D), read the de-brief form and exited the lab. The participants who were recruited from the second and third-year psychology classes completed the same questionnaire; however, this was also done on-line but not in the laboratory.

Trust Manipulation

Participants were first asked to read several paragraphs, which explained their "current" working conditions and background and given information regarding their subordinate; this information varied depending on the condition (see Appendix A). To ensure comprehension of the scenarios, participants were asked to respond to four multiple-choice questions (e.g., "What was Peter's average in University?"). Participants were able to refer back to the scenario to assist them in answering the questions.

Manipulation Check

Levels of perceived affective and cognitive trust were measured using an adapted form of McAllister's (1995) cognitive and affective trust scale (see Appendix B). The affective trust measure consisted of five statements, participants used a 9-point scale (1 = *Completely Disagree*,

19

9 = *Completely Agree*) to indicate their level of agreement with the statement (e.g., "I feel comfortable sharing me ideas, feelings, and hopes with Peter"). Participant's answers to these questions were summed to create their affective trust score (Cronbach's α = .90). The cognitive trust measure consisted of six statements, participants used a 9-point scale (1 = *Completely Disagree*, 9 = *Completely Agree*) to indicate their level of agreement with the statement (e.g., "I do not doubt Peter's competence and preparation for the job"). Participant's answers to these questions were summed to create their cognitive trust score (Cronbach's α = .87).

Covariate

A measure of liking was administered to the participants, this scale was adapted from Rubin (1970), however it also included one unique item created by the experimenter ("I like Peter"). The liking measure consisted of seven statements, participants used a 9-point scale (1 = *Completely Disagree*, 9 = *Completely Agree*) to indicate their level of agreement with the statement (e.g., "I wish I was more like Peter"). Participant's answers to these questions were summed to create their liking score (Cronbach's α = .91).

Behavioural Indicators of Trust

Participants were asked to read 11 scenarios which depicted possible situations within their organization (see Appendix C). Five of these scenarios placed the participant in a situation in which they had to choose whether or not to engage in reliance behaviours with Peter, the other six scenarios assessed participant's willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours. Following each scenario, participants were asked to answer four questions. Three of these questions related to their willingness or comfort regarding performing this particular behaviour (e.g., "How willing would you be to let Peter take over completing the proposal?"). Participants used a 9-point scale (1 = *Not at all*, 9 = *Completely/Very*) to indicate how they felt about each statement.

Participant's responses to the three questions, relating to their willingness to partake in each action, were summed across all scenarios of that behaviour (reliance or disclosure) to generate each participates reliance (Cronbach's α = .87) and disclosure (Cronbach's α = .91) score.

Demographics

Following the completion of all the aforementioned experimental procedures, participants were asked several demographic questions. Information regarding participants' gender, University level and past work experience was collected (see Appendix D).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

As previously discussed, some participants were presented with the survey beginning with the manipulation check. These participants did not differ in terms of their scores on either the reliance or disclosure behaviours, $F(1, 220) = 1.86$, *ns*. In addition, no significant differences were found in either the reliance or disclosure behaviours in terms of the participant's gender, $F(2, 217) = 0.67$, *ns,* where they were recruited from (subject pool vs. upper year psychology classes), $F(1, 220) = 0.61$, *ns*, or if the participant had previous work experience, $F(4, 436) = 0.87$, *ns*.

Manipulation Check

To ensure our manipulation of affective and cognitive trust was successful, we examined perceptions of affective and cognitive trust between the two levels of manipulated cognitive and affective trust (high or low) using two separate 2 (affective trust: low vs. high) by 2 (cognitive trust: low vs. high) between subjects ANOVAs (see Table 1 and 2, respectively). We expected that participants would report higher levels of affective and cognitive trust when they were in the high affective or cognitive trust conditions, compared to when they were in the low conditions.

First let us consider perceptions of affective trust. As can be seen in Table 1, results revealed a main effect of condition such that participants experienced higher levels of affective trust in the high affective trust condition than the low affective trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 491.05, p < .001, \eta^2 = .69$. As would be expected, in the low and high cognitive trust conditions there was no significant difference in reported levels of affective trust, $F(1, 221) = 1.34, ns$. Lastly, perceived affective trust was not significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 0.78, ns$ (see Table 1). Thus, supporting our manipulation, our affective trust manipulation did make participants feel more affective trust in the high affective trust condition than the low affective trust condition. Furthermore, our cognitive trust manipulation did not affect the level of affective trust.

Second, we can consider perceived cognitive trust. Significant main effects were found. Significantly higher levels of cognitive trust were reported by participants in the high cognitive trust condition than the low affective trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 355.40, p < .001, \eta^2 = .62$. Further, significantly higher levels of cognitive trust were reported by participants in the high affective trust condition than the low cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 39.31, p < .001, \eta^2 = .15$ (see Table 2). In addition, perceived cognitive trust was significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 4.66, p\ .002, \eta^2 = .02$. Simple effects tests reveal that within the low affective trust condition, there was a significant simple effect of the cognitive trust manipulation, $t(108) = 2.95, p = .004$, on perceived cognitive trust, such that higher levels of cognitive trust were reported in the high ($M = 36.24, SD = 7.76$) versus low ($M = 20.11, SD = 7.58$) cognitive trust condition (See Figure 1). In addition, within the high affective trust condition, there was a significant simple effect of the cognitive trust manipulation, $t(113) = 5.90, p < .001$, on perceived cognitive trust, such that that higher levels of

cognitive trust were reported in the high (M = 44.39, SD = 7.03) versus low (M = 24.08, SD = 6.53) cognitive trust condition (See Figure 1). Considering the interaction the other way, in the low cognitive trust condition, a significant effect of affective trust manipulation on perceptions of cognitive trust was found, $t(108)$ = 2.95, p = .004, such that greater levels of cognitive trust were reported in the high (M = 44.39, SD = 7.03) versus low (M = 36.24, SD = 7.76) affective trust conditions. In contrast, in the high affective trust condition, a significant effect of affective trust manipulation on perceptions of cognitive trust was found, $t(113)$ = 5.90, p < .001, such that greater levels of cognitive trust were reported in the high (M = 24.08, SD = 6.53) versus low (M = 20.11, SD = 7.58) affective trust conditions. Thus, these results indicate that although our affective trust manipulation was successful at manipulating affective trust; it also inadvertently affected cognitive trust.

Because of the concern with the conceptual overlap between trust and liking, we tested the effects of the manipulations while using liking as a covariate. First, let us consider perceptions of affective trust (see Table 3). Significantly higher levels of affective trust were reported by participants in the high affective trust condition than the low affective trust condition, $F(1, 220)$ = 150.31, p < .001, η^2 = .41. Conversely, significantly lower levels of affective trust were reported by participants in the high cognitive trust condition than in the low cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 220)$ = 36.13, p < .001, η^2 = .14. This indicates that our manipulation of affective trust was successful and not simply due to an effect of liking alone. Perceived affective trust was not significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition while controlling for liking, $F(1, 220)$ = 1.35, ns (see Table 3).

Second, we considered the effect of perceptions of cognitive trust while controlling for liking (see Table 4). Significantly lower levels of cognitive trust were reported by participants in

the high affective trust condition than the low affective trust condition, $F(1, 220) = 13.33$, $p <$ .001, $\eta^2 = .06$. In addition, significantly higher levels of cognitive trust were reported by participants in the high cognitive trust condition than in the low cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 220) = 163.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .43$. Perceived cognitive trust was not significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition while controlling for liking, $F(1, 220) = 0.78$, *ns*. These results indicate that when liking is controlled for, the effect of affective trust condition on perceptions of cognitive trust is much weaker and in the opposite direction.

A comparison of the manipulation check results ignoring liking or controlling liking appears to reveal that liking may be able to explain the unintended effect of affective trust condition on perceptions of cognitive trust. As such, these results should be considered when interpreting the proceeding main analyses.

Main Analysis

We examined how participants' perceptions of affective and cognitive trust affected their willingness to engage in reliance and disclosure behaviours. We examined two levels of perceived cognitive and affective trust (high or low) using two separate 2 (affective trust: low vs. high) by 2(cognitive trust: low vs. high) between subjects ANOVAs (see Table 5 and 6, respectively).

First, we expected and found that when cognitive trust was high, participants would be more willing to engage in reliance behaviours. Specificallly, significantly more willingness to engage in reliance behaviours was reported by participants in the high cognitive trust condition than the low cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 33.40$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .13$ (consistent with Hypothesis 1). However, participants were also significantly more willing to partake in reliance behaviours when affective trust was high than when it was low, $F(1, 221) = 31.22$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 =$

.12. Willingness to engage in reliance behaviours was not significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 0.29$, *ns*.

Second, we expected and found that when affective trust was high, participants would be more willing to engage in disclosure behaviours. No significant difference in reported willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours between the high and low cognitive trust conditions, $F(1, 221) = .043$, *ns*. However, significantly more willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours was reported by participants in the high affective trust condition than the low affective trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 113.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .34$ (Consistent with Hypothesis 2). Willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours was not significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition, $F(1, 221) = 1.11$, *ns*.

Next, we examined how participants' perceptions of affective and cognitive trust affected their willingness to engage in reliance and disclosure behaviours while controlling for liking. We examined willingness to engage in reliance and disclosure behaviours between the two levels of perceived cognitive and affective trust (high or low), while controlling for liking, using two separate 2 (affective trust: low vs. high) by 2 (cognitive trust: low vs. high) between subjects ANCOVAs (see Table 7 and 8, respectively). This analysis was used to ensure the effects found between levels of cognitive and affective trust were due to the manipulation of trust and not liking.

First, let us consider reliance behaviours. No significant difference in reported willingness to engage in reliance behaviours was observed between the high and low cognitive trust conditions or high and low affective trust conditions, when liking was controlled for, $F(1, 220) = 1.81$, *ns, $F(1, 220) = 0.00$, *ns* (not consistent with hypothesis 3a). Further, willingness to

engage in reliance behaviours was not significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition when liking was controlled for, $F(1, 221) = .037$, *ns*.

Second, we can consider disclosure behaviours. Significantly less willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours was reported by participants in the high cognitive trust condition than the low cognitive trust condition when liking was controlled for, $F(1, 220) = 9.93$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .04$. Further, participants were significantly more willing to partake in disclosure behaviours when affective trust was high than when it was low and liking was controlled for, $F(1, 220) = 21.32$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .09$ (Consistent with Hypothesis 3b). Willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours was not significantly predicted by the interaction between affective and cognitive trust condition when liking was controlled for, $F(1, 220) = 0.02$, *ns*.

The correlation between reliance and disclosure behaviours was significant $r = .52$, $p < .001$. Further, the correlations between reliance and disclosure with liking were also significant, $r = .56$, $p < .001$, and, $r = .51$, $p < .001$, respectively (see Table 9).

Discussion

Main Findings

To gain a better understanding of how trust influences a leader's behaviour towards their subordinate, we investigated trust using the affective-cognitive model (McAllister, 1995). Further, we examined the behavioural indicators of trust, reliance and disclosure, based on the model proposed by Gillespie (2003). Moreover, due to the similarities between liking and affective trust, we used liking as a control variable in this analysis. In general, we found that participants were more willing to engage in reliance behaviours when cognitive trust was high as opposed to low (consistent with Hypothesis 1). Moreover, we found that participants were more willing to engage in disclosure behaviours when affective trust was high as opposed to low

26

(consistent with Hypothesis 2). However, when liking was controlled for, we found that participants did not significantly differ in their willingness to engage in reliance behaviours between the high and low cognitive trust groups (not consistent with Hypothesis 3a). However, participants still significantly more willing to engage in disclosure behaviours when affective trust was high as opposed to low and liking was controlled for (consistent with Hypothesis 3b).

The results of our manipulation check highlight some interesting findings. Our results indicate for cognitive trust our manipulation was successful; higher levels of cognitive trust were reported from the high cognitive trust condition than in the low cognitive trust condition. However, higher levels of cognitive trust were also reported in the high affective trust condition than the low affective trust condition. This finding seems to indicate that our affective trust manipulation also inadvertently affected levels of cognitive trust, although it should be noted that the effect size for this difference was comparatively small. One explanation for this effect seems most likely; current literature on affective and cognitive trust suggests that similarity more directly increases affective trust as opposed to cognitive trust (Cronin, Bezrukova, Weingart, & Tinsley, 2011). Our study utilized similarity to increase cognitive trust and thus this finding could account for the significant increase in cognitive trust in the high affective trust condition. Further, when liking was controlled for we found that the high cognitive trust condition still predicted higher levels of cognitive trust, however, the relation for affective trust flipped, such that the high affective trust condition predicted significantly lower levels of cognitive trust. This finding should be interpreted with caution as the effect was very small, moreover, due to the similarities between trust and liking we are unsure of the variables we have remaining once the influence of liking is removed. Therefore, without further experimentation to investigate this effect, it is difficult to interpret this finding.

Our manipulation check for affective was also successful; results indicate that the high affective trust condition predicted higher levels of affective trust. Moreover, cognitive trust condition did not impact participant's perceptions of affective trust. However, when liking was controlled for, more affective trust was still reported by participants in the high affective trust condition, however, participants reported lower levels of affective trust in the high cognitive trust condition than in the low cognitive trust condition. Again, these results are similar to the manipulation check for cognitive trust as the effect size is very small. It is possible that these results might be due to a statistical artifact; without further study we believe that further interpretation would be premature.

For our main analysis, we found that individuals were more willing to engage in reliance behaviours when cognitive trust was high as opposed to low, consistent with Hypothesis 1. However, we also found that participants were more willing to engage in these behaviours when affective trust was high as opposed to low. This finding can be partially explained due to the manipulation check as we found that affective trust unintentionally affected perception of cognitive trust. Therefore it is likely that since participants felt high levels of cognitive trust when affective trust was high, this could account for the small increase in willingness to engage in reliance behaviours when affective trust was high. Further, when we controlled for liking, we found that both the relation between cognitive trust and reliance, and affective trust and reliance became non-significant, not consistent with Hypothesis 3a. The disappearance of the significant relation between cognitive and affective trust and reliance behaviours was surprising; this indicates that the increase in reliance behaviours in the high cognitive and affective trust condition were due primarily to increased levels of liking. Again, this finding highlights the similarly between trust and liking; as previously discussed the inclusion of similarity as an

antecedent of cognitive trust likely played a strong role in this finding. Similarity has been implicated as a strong predictor of liking (Rubin, 1970), as such, it is possible that due to this strong connection, when liking was controlled for a significant relation between cognitive trust and reliance failed to observed.

Consistent with Hypothesis 2, we found that affective trust positively significantly predicted disclosure behaviours. Moreover, no difference in reported willingness to engage in disclosure behaviours was reported by participants between the high and low cognitive trust conditions. However, when liking was controlled for we found a significantly negative relation between cognitive trust and disclosure, although the relation between affective trust and disclosure remained positive and significant. The unexpected negative relation between cognitive trust and disclosure can possibly be explained by the results from our manipulation check. When liking was controlled for we found that participants reported significantly less affective trust in the high cognitive trust condition. As such, it follows that these participants would also report less disclosure behaviours due to their decreased levels of affective trust in the high cognitive trust condition. Although this finding indirectly supports our hypothesis, it should still be interpreted with caution. Again this effect was comparatively small and further investigation is needed to fully understand the processes that would cause such an effect to be observed.

Consistent with Gillespie (2003), we found some evidence that reliance behaviours are a distinct form of behavioural trust indicators with different antecedents than that of disclosure behaviours. Further these results provide some support the distinction between cognitive and affective trust in terms of their consequences (McAllister, 1995). On a more practical level, these results are intriguing in that they demonstrate that individuals may trust another individual, however, this trust is context specific. That is, individuals chose how and when to trust other

29

individuals based on their previous interactions with them. In our study, participants were able to assess in what circumstances Peter was trustworthy and act in accordance regarding future interactions with him. For example, when participants were told that Peter had high grades in University and graduated top of his class, participants were more liking to trust him regarding work-related aspects (such as giving a presentation), however, were no more likely to trust him with personal matters (such as sharing sensitive information).

Further, these are the first experimental results to our knowledge that provide some support for the distinction between liking and affective trust. As previously stated, although these constructs (affective and cognitive trust and liking) have similar definitions, they are in fact different. Liking refers to how you feel about an individual's whereas trust refers to how you believe they will act towards you in the future. In many cases, it is likely that these two constructs will overlap (i.e. individuals will tend to trust people more when they like them), however, this isn't always the case. For example, you may trust your spouse to keep a secret but would not trust them to fix your car. Our study results further highlight this distinction by illustrating that it is liking that accounts for the increased levels of reliance behaviours in the high affective trust condition, not affective trust itself.

Although little research has been conducted examining how trust affects a leader's behaviour towards their subordinate, our results are in line with the existing literature. The main findings in the literature indicate that the more trust a leader holds towards their subordinate, the more likely they are to grant them autonomy and delegate important tasks them (Bauer & Green, 1996; Schriesheim et al., 1998). Moreover, these findings are also supported by research conducted on LMX. According to LMX research, the more a leader trusts their subordinate, the more inclined they will be to engage in risky behaviours with them, for example, giving them

more important tasks or sharing sensitive information with them (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Dienesh & Liden, 1986).

Our research is an important addition to the trust literature as it is, to our knowledge, the first to explore how a leader's intended behaviour is affected by their perceptions of a subordinates level of trustworthiness. Much of the past research dealing with trust has focused on one's perceptions of trust somewhat ignoring the behavioural implications (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Sander & Schyns, 2006; Brower et al., 2009; Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). Specifically, using intended behavioural indicators of trust; this research more directly taps the core definition of trust, that is, willingness to put oneself in a vulnerable position (Mayer et al., 1995). Further, this method will also allow future research a more solid basis on which to examine other relationships, for example, the relationships between trust in subordinate and job satisfaction or performance.

In addition, this research provides further evidence for the validation of McAllister's cognitive-affective trust model (1995). Specifically, this research supports the clear distinction between these two components of trust. That is, we were able to illustrate that these components have different consequences. Moreover, we demonstrated that these factors do function independently from on another. Although the trust literature has several different popular models of trust (e.g. Mayer et al., 1995; Zand, 1971), we believe that the McAllister model, in many cases, may be a superior model due to its simplicity and intuitive understanding. In particular, in terms of the present research, we feel that this model provides a very clean, simple and easily understood model of trust and behaviour that could be adapted for use in future research or practical applications.

Limitations

31

The present study is not without its limitations. As previously discussed one major drawback was the possible inappropriate manipulation of cognitive trust with the use of similarity as an antecedent. As current literature suggests, similarity may be better categorized as an antecedent of affective, not cognitive, trust (Cronin et al., 2011). Therefore, future studies would be advised to further clarify this construct or remove it from analysis. One further drawback of the experimental design utilized in this research is the sample. Our sample was comprised of Undergraduate university students who were in either their first, second, or third year of study within the psychology department. However, it should be noted that about half of these individuals (49.8%) were currently employed at the time of the study, and of these individuals 22.7% had some managerial experience. Further analysis reveals that there were no significant differences based on the outcome measures (reliance and disclosure behaviours) in terms of an individual's past work experience. However, it also must be noted that since individuals were not asked to reflect on their own past experiences but rather to use information they were given to come to decisions, past work experience was not expected to play a strong role in affecting the results. Although these results do not provide evidence of generalizability to all working individuals, it does suggest that similar results are likely to be found when utilizing other samples.

Our results also indicate that participants had difficultly determining Peter's level of cognitive trust at different levels of manipulated cognitive trust, as evidenced by the significant interaction found between affective and cognitive trust when predicting perceived cognitive trust (see Figure 1). This finding seems to indicate that our affective trust manipulation was perhaps too strong as we were able to also influence participant's perceptions of Peter's abilities.

Therefore, future studies would be advised to investigate these findings at different levels of affective trust to determine if this result can be replicated.

Another limitation of the current research revolves around that of the methods used to collect data. The results from the current analysis are based solely on self-report data and although the questions asked referred to intended behaviour, they did not assess behaviour directly. Due to this, it is possible that participants did not feel the actual "pressure" or "implied risk" that we hoped to communicate. Therefore, it is possible that these results show a somewhat "riskier" set of behaviours than what would be expected in normal working conditions. As such, additional research would be needed to further validate these findings, perhaps using more behavioural based assessments of individual's actions.

Lastly, this study was designed to more directly assess the relation between perceptions of trust and the behaviour indicators. However, this study was only able to assess *willingness* to engage in behaviours, not the actual behaviours. As such, this is a limitation of the study; it is likely that there exists some mismatch between one's actual behaviours, and their willingness to complete these actions. Therefore, it is recommended that further studies attempt to more directly assess this link, perhaps through the use of more "realistic" workplace situations.

Future Directions

Future studies would be advised to further investigate the reliance/disclosure models using the different theories of trust in the literature. The popular ability/ benevolence/integrity model (Mayer et al. 1995) could be explored using this typology to help us further understand this model and further validate the reliance/disclosure typology. Moreover, future research should investigate how varying levels of cognitive and affective trust can interact when predicting reliance and disclosure behaviours. The present study only examined these behaviours

when affective and cognitive trusts were either high or low. Studies that examine when levels of trust are moderate may produce different results. That is, perhaps high levels of affective trust can compensate for moderate levels of cognitive trust when predicting reliance behaviours. Furthermore, future studies should also examine the effect of these two components of trust when one is held at a neutral or non-manipulated level. Results from this type of analysis would be able to determine exactly how one aspect of trust can affects other levels of the other aspect.

Practical Applications

These results provide practical applications that can be used by managers or subordinates to help enhance the working conditions within their organization. First, this research provides evidence that different forms of trust can provide different behavioural outcomes for leaders within an organization. For example, cognitive trust encourages the trustor to rely more heavily on the trustee's abilities and competencies, whereas, affective trust encourages deeper levels of interpersonal interaction and sharing of sensitive information. Second, our study indicated that liking can play a large factor in a leader's intended behaviour. This information, when communicated to mangers, could help these individuals understand their biases; that is how and why they act in different ways towards their subordinates, perhaps allowing for more candid and honest communications.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study has advanced the trust literature by providing researchers with a more solid and completes theoretical understanding of trust. It is hoped that this study will aid researchers in further exploration and use of the behavioural intention model, which allows for a more direct assessment of trust. Theoretical investigations, like ours, are important to

ensure that the burgeoning research on trust uses validated models that move trust research

forward in a productive manner.

Table 1

ANOVA results comparing affective trust ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups

		Mean (SD)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	25.61 (11.87)	1.34	.01
	Low	25.19 (11.11)		
Affective Trust	High	34.28 (6.05)	491.05**	.69
	Low	15.23 (6.84)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			.78	.04

Note. **$p<.001$
df = (1, 221)

Table 2
ANOVA results comparing cognitive trust ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups

		Mean (SD)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	40.28 (8.43)	355.40**	.62
	Low	22.38 (7.24)		
Affective Trust	High	33.73 (12.21)	39.31**	.15
	Low	29.02 (11.11)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			4.66*	.02

Note. **$p<.001$ *$p<.01$
df = (1, 221)

Table 3
ANOVA results comparing affective trust ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups while controlling for liking

		Mean (SE)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	22.57 (0.51)	36.13**	.14
	Low	27.51 (0.55)		
Affective Trust	High	30.68 (0.54)	150.31**	.41
	Low	19.41 (0.59)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			1.35	.01

Note. **$p<.001$
df = (1, 220)

Table 4
ANOVA results comparing cognitive trust ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups while controlling for liking

		Mean (SE)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	37.01 (0.54)	163.02**	.43
	Low	26.05 (0.57)		
Affective Trust	High	29.78 (0.57)	13.33**	.06
	Low	32.29 (0.62)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			0.78	.00

Note. **$p<.001$
df = (1, 220)

Table 5

ANOVA results comparing reliance ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups

		Mean (SD)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	83.96 (18.19)	31.22**	.13
	Low	72.14 (16.59)		
Affective Trust	High	83.46 (16.76)	33.38**	.12
	Low	72.14 (18.34)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			0.29	.00

Note. **$p<.001$
df = (1, 221)

Table 6

ANOVA results comparing disclosure ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups

		Mean (SD)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	89.01 (29.22)	.04	.00
	Low	91.87 (25.45)		
Affective Trust	High	105.36 (22.64)	113.48**	.34
	Low	73.31 (21.89)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			1.11	.01

Note. **$p<.001$
df = (1, 221)

Table 7

ANOVA results comparing reliance ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups while controlling for liking

		Mean (SE)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	79.77 (1.56)	1.81	.01
	Low	76.42 (1.66)		
Affective Trust	High	78.08 (1.65)	0.00	.00
	Low	78.11 (1.81)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			0.37	.02

df = (1, 220)

Table 8

ANOVA results comparing disclosure ratings between cognitive and affective trust groups while controlling for liking

		Mean (SE)	F	η^2
Cognitive Trust	High	84.41 (2.18)	9.93*	.04
	Low	95.47 (2.33)		
Affective Trust	High	99.02 (2.31)	21.32**	.09
	Low	80.87 (2.54)		
Affective Trust X Cognitive Trust			0.02	.00

Note. **$p<.001$; *$p<.01$
df = (1, 221)

Table 7

Correlations between manipulations checks, liking, reliance, and disclosure

	Cog Trust Manipulation	Aff Trust Manipulation	Liking	Reliance	Disclosure
Cog Trust Manipulation	.87				
Aff Trust Manipulation	.31**	.90			
Liking	.76**	.74**	.91		
Reliance	.52**	.46**	.58**	.87	
Disclosure	.17*	.67**	.51**	.52**	.91

Note. Cronachs alpha values listed on diagonals
**p<.001 *p<.01*

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Reported levels of cognitive trust between affective and cognitive trust conditions
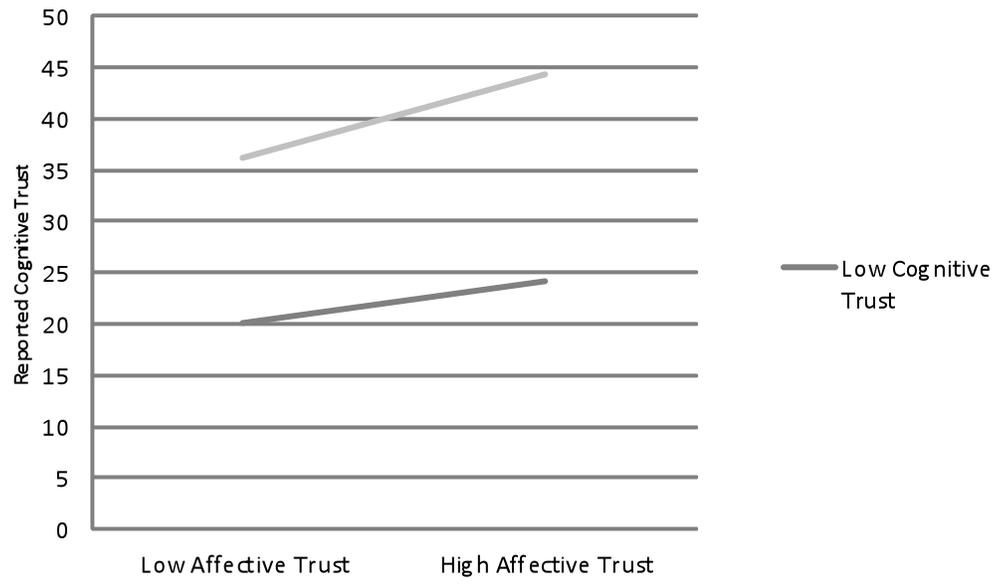
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Appendix A

Introduction

You are the lead-consultant at a medium-sized architecture firm, Atlas, in Toronto. Atlas is in a very healthy financial situation and is one of the leading firms in the city. The CEO of Atlas, James, just gave you a new project, which puts you in charge of creating the new Charon National Bank headquarters in Toronto. Charon bank is a high-profile bank that many major corporate organizations use in Toronto. This is your first time completing such a project as the lead, and you see this as a major advancement for your career. As you can imagine, you are extremely eager, although nervous to do a good job. The Charon National Bank has set several deadlines, such as, the proposal deadline, construction dates etc., that you must adhere to or they may take their business to one of your competitor firms that may jeopardize you and your firm's position as well as the jobs of others employed there. You will gain a lot of publicity for such a project, as it will be one of the tallest buildings in the Toronto skyline. Moreover, you grew up in Toronto and therefore feel a personal connection to the city. You feel like the wellbeing of your career may rest on your ability to do this project well. You also recently married your long-time partner and have one son, so you feel the extra income from this high-profile project will be very helpful. However, you and your partner have just discovered that your son suffers from autism. As such, you will sometimes have to leave work early or come in late to take care of your son when he is not at school. You have been assigned a junior-consultant, Peter, to help you in this process; more information regarding Peter will be provided on the next page. Although this

project is your top priority, you still have other duties you must attend to at Atlas, for example, seek new business opportunities and follow up with past clients. Therefore, you will not be able to complete all the work yourself and may have to rely on Peter for assistance.

Peter - high cognitive; high affective

Peter completed his architecture degree at the same university as you, graduating with an A-average; he was also awarded several scholarships throughout his academic career. You have worked with Peter often in the past few years and found him hold a very professional attitude at work. You have found that he completes his assigned work effectively and on time. Peter is a soon-to-be father and therefore had to transfer departments to get more stable work hours. Peter lives close to the firm and therefore bikes to work when the weather is nice. You have known Peter for quite some time now, at least five years. You and he were roommates when you were in University and grew-up in the same hometown. Peter often helped you work through your personal problems during university; you felt he really listened to you and offered constructive advice. You think Peter is a great friend and, in fact, he was the best man at your wedding. You were extremely happy when you found he would be transferring to your department; you think that work will be much more enjoyable with his company.

Peter - high cognitive; low affective

Peter completed his architecture degree at the same university as you, graduating with an A-average; he was also awarded several scholarships throughout his academic career. You have worked with Peter often in the past few years and feel he holds a very professional attitude at work. You have found that he completes his assigned work effectively and on time. Peter is a soon-to-be father and therefore had to transfer departments to get more stable work hours. Peter lives close to the firm and therefore bikes to work when the weather is nice. Although you have worked with Peter before, you rarely have had a non-work related conversation with him. When you and him do speak, you feel he doesn't really listen and often does not give any constructive advice. You don't really like Peter and feel as though he doesn't care about others. You haven't spoken to your coworkers about your feelings towards Peter, but feel they would hold similar views. Peter rarely comes to social functions or informal gatherings within the firm. You are not enthused about Peter moving to your department, you are worried his attitude may make work

less enjoyable.

Peter - low cognitive; high affective

Peter completed his architecture degree at another University you are not familiar with, graduating with a C-average. You have worked with Peter a few times in the past few years. You have found that he completes his assigned work poorly and is often late. Moreover, you feel he does not hold a professional attitude at work. Peter moved to Ontario several years back; previously he lived on the west coast of Canada. You often hear Peter talking about "the single life", telling stories about going to bars and clubs on the weekend. Peter lives close to the firm and therefore bikes to work when the weather is nice. You have known Peter for quite some time now, since he moved to Ontario. You and he live in the same building in Toronto. Peter often helped you work through your personal problems when you first started working; you felt he really listened to you and offered constructive advice. You think Peter is a great friend and, in fact, he was the best man at your wedding. You were extremely happy when you found he would be transferring to your department; you think that work will be much more enjoyable with his company.

Peter - low cognitive; low affective

You have worked with Peter a few times in the past few years. You have found that he completes his assigned work poorly and is often late. Moreover, you feel he does not hold a professional attitude at work. Peter completed his architecture degree at another University you are not familiar with, graduating with a C-average. Peter moved to Ontario several years back; previously he lived on the west coast of Canada. You often hear Peter talking about "the single life", telling stories about going to bars and clubs on the weekend. Peter lives close to the firm and therefore bikes to work when the weather is nice. Although you have worked with Peter before, you rarely have had a non-work related conversation with him. When you and him do speak, you feel he doesn't really listen and often does not give any constructive advice. You don't really like Peter and feel as though he doesn't care about others. You haven't spoken to your coworkers about your feelings towards Peter, but feel they would hold similar views. Peter rarely comes to social functions or informal gatherings within the firm. You are not enthused about Peter moving to your department, you are worried his attitude may make work less

enjoyable.

Comprehension Questions

What was Peter's average in University? ("A", "B", "C", "D")

Is Peter professional at work? ("Yes", "No")

Which of the following is true about Peter? ("He was the best man at your wedding", "He is not a healthy eater", "One of his hobbies is sailing", "He is not a good listener")

Do you think work will be more enjoyable with Peter? ("Yes", "No")

Appendix B

Perceptions

Instructions: Please answer the following questions based on how you feel about Peter.. Please answer the following questions on a scale from 1 – 9, 9 = Completely agree; 1 = Completely disagree.

1. I think Peter could very easily gain admiration

2. I feel comfortable sharing my ideas, feelings, and hopes with Peter

3. I think Peter is one of those people who quickly earn respect

4. I can talk freely about my difficulties at work with Peter; I know that he will always listen

5. Most people would act very favorably to Peter after only a brief encounter

6. Peter approaches his job with professionalism and dedication

7. I can rely on Peter not to make my job more difficult by careless work

8. I think Peter and I are very similar

9. If I shared my problems with Peter, I know he would respond constructively and with care

10. I do not think that Peter nor I have made emotional investments in our working relationship

11. Most people at work, even individuals who aren't his friend, trust and respect Peter

12. If people knew more about Peter and his background, they would be more concerned and monitor his performance more closely

13. I like Peter

14. Peter and I would both share a sense of loss if he had to transfer and we could no longer work together

15. I do not doubt Peters competence and preparation for the job

16. I am confident in Peter's judgment

17. My coworkers likely consider Peter to be trustworthy

18. I wish I was more like Peter

Appendix C

Situations

Please read the following scenarios carefully and based on the information provided about yourself and Peter, please answer the preceding questions.

Instructions: Please answer the following questions based on the information you have been given regarding Peter. Please answer the following questions on a scale from $1 - 9$, $9 =$ Completely/very; $1 =$ Not at all.

Task 1 – Reliance A

Unexpectedly, you have to fly out of Toronto in order to present one of your past projects to a client overseas. This client has been extremely loyal and you plan on acquiring further projects from him in the future. Unfortunately, the final proposal for the bank headquarters is due to Charon in the next week, while you are gone. There is no way you will be able to finish and edit the proposal in time to meet this deadline. Further, due to the time difference

and lack of a reliable Internet connection in your destination, you do not feel comfortable completing the proposal while away.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing would you be to let Peter take over completing the proposal?

How comfortable would you be to let Peter complete the proposal?

How comfortable would you be to let Peter complete the proposal?

How much would you like to let Peter take over completing the proposal?

Task 2 – Reliance B

Peter has recently approached you about a potential new client; he says that this client has several projects, which would be very profitable for the firm (as well as for yourself). To ensure a meeting with this client, Peter scheduled a date and time for you to meet them (the client is very busy and this was the only time they could meet in the next three months). However, you have another new client meeting that date and time. The profitability of your potential new client is low, however, you feel it is likely they will sign with you. Peter feels his opportunity is very promising and will be extremely profitable, he suggests that you change your plans in order to attend his meeting.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to go to Peter's meeting instead of your own?

How comfortable would you be to go to Peter's meeting instead of your own?

How risky do you think going to Peter's meeting would be for your job?

How much would you like to go to Peter's meeting instead of your own?

Task 3 – Disclosure A

You and your partner have been having a lot of problems at home. Your partner has started to drink much more than usual and seems to have mood swings several times a day. You think the stress of all your work and your son's medical issues are taking a toll on your

relationship. Also, you are beginning to feel that these issues may be affecting your work; you realize that you have not been as productive and are easily distracted at work.

Today Peter came into your office and mentioned that you seem not to be yourself and more stressed than usual.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to tell Peter honestly about your problems at home?

How comfortable are you to tell Peter honestly about your problems at home?

How risky do you think telling Peter this information would be for your relationship?

How risky do you think telling Peter this information would be for your relationship?

Task 4 – Reliance C

You and Peter have just finished compiling your presentation of the proposed design of the Charon National Bank headquarters; the presentation is tomorrow. However, you are supposed to take your son to his doctor's appointment that afternoon. Peter says he feels he understands the material of the presentation well and feels confident that he can deliver the presentation without you.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to let Peter present the proposal?

How comfortable are you to let Peter present the proposal?

How risky do you think letting Peter present the proposal would be for your job?

How much would you like to let Peter present the proposal?

Task 5 – Disclosure B

You just got back from talking with James, the CEO of your firm. He commended you on doing such a great job and he is happy with your mentorship of Peter. However, you noticed something odd about James' behaviour, he seemed very jittery and nervous the whole time you were there. You also noticed some strange marks on his arms that he kept trying to cover during your meeting. You recall someone mentioning that James had been in rehab for a

heroin addiction but you're not sure. You are concerned that James may have a drug issue, but since you can't be sure, you don't know what to do.

Back in your office, Peter is the only one there.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to tell Peter about your concerns/suspicions about James?

How comfortable are you to tell Peter about your concerns/suspicions about James?

How risky do you think telling Peter this information would be for your relationship with James?

How much would you like to tell Peter about your concerns/suspicions about James?

Task 6 – Reliance D

You recently had a teleconference with Charon National Bank in which you explained the breakdown of the budget and costs associated with the work. They were very displeased with the information you provided and demanded a face-to-face meeting the following day. From past experiences with the bank, you know they can be very difficult to negotiate with about cost. You know you will need to give them a very convincing argument in order to reduce their dissatisfaction with the price. You and Peter worked on the cost-breakdown and budget together; you feel you may need his knowledge to help you explain the budget breakdown in the meeting. However, you feel the meeting will be very stressful and challenging.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to let Peter come to the meeting?

How comfortable are you to let Peter come to the meeting?

How risky do you think letting Peter come to the meeting would be for your job?

How much would you like to let Peter come to the meeting?

Task 7 – Disclosure C

You recently did some research on Charon National Bank to try to get a better understanding for the needs of the bank. While doing so, you came across several news stories discussing

corruption within the bank; revolving-door situations and account irregularities. Moreover, the bank appears to be under investigation for fraud and insider trading. This news was somewhat difficult to find and you don't think anyone else at the firm would know about this. You don't really think this information would affect your firm, since your work has already been paid for, however, you find this somewhat embarrassing since you were the one who discovered and signed the client.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to tell Peter the news you uncovered regarding Charon National Bank?

How comfortable are you to tell Peter the news you uncovered regarding Charon National Bank?

How risky do you think telling Peter this information would be for you status in the firm?

How much would you like to tell Peter the news you uncovered regarding Charon National Bank?

Task 8 – Disclosure D

You recently had a meeting with Charon National Bank and it did not go well. You were not as prepared as you should have been and you are somewhat embarrassed by your performance. For example, you were not able to provide them with an expected timeline for the project. The CEO of Charon was not impressed; he asked you to come back with all this information in two weeks and give the presentation again. He gave you the impression that there would be no negative repercussions as long as you were well prepared the next time, but you are still somewhat nervous for the second presentation.

When you got back to the office this afternoon, Peter asked you how the presentation went. Peter was one of the main contributors (besides yourself) on this project.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to tell Peter about how your presentation at Charon National Bank went?

How comfortable are you to tell Peter about how your presentation at Charon National Bank went?

How risky do you think telling Peter this information would be to you reputation at the firm?

How much would you like to tell Peter about how your presentation at Charon National Bank went?

Task 9 – Reliance E

Peter also has a Masters of Business Administration (MBA) that he completed before joining your firm. As such, Peter suggested an alternate method of marketing and financing this project to Charon National Bank. Your firm does not have a department that strictly deals with these matters, as you have effectively used the same method for several years. Peter is confident that his new method will increase the profit margin on this project and could be used for other future projects.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to let Peter use his alternate method?

How comfortable are you to let Peter use his alternate method?

How risky do you think letting Peter use this method would be for your job?

How much would you like to let Peter use his alternate method?

Task 10 – Disclosure E

Peter has just informed you that he will be starting a new project in which he will be designing a new pool for the waterfront in Toronto. He said he would be doing this work on his free time so it will not affect his work with the current project. When you worked at a different firm, you did some work on similar pool design projects, however, none ever made it to the construction phase. You still have the designs that you drew and feel they may be of help to Peter. Although these designs are not under copywrite, you consider them to be of high quality and would be very disappointed if you did not get credit for your work.

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to give Peter your designs?

How comfortable are you to give Peter your designs?

How risky do you think letting Peter see your designs would be to your future endeavors?

How much would you like to give Peter your designs?

Task 11 – Disclosure F

In the last few weeks you have been having second thoughts about your desire to work at Atlas for the rest of your career. You have been thinking about transferring to a different job, and have even begun writing out the applications and sending resumes. You have not told anyone about this, as you are afraid that if people think you will be leaving the firm, you will no longer receive priority projects and this will affect your salary.

Peter has been asking about your future career goal; what do you tell him?

Please answer the following questions:

How willing are you to tell Peter that you are unsure of your desire to stay working at Atlas?

How comfortable are you to tell Peter that you are unsure of your desire to stay working at Atlas?

How risky do you think telling Peter this information would be for your reputation at the firm?

How much would you like to tell Peter that you are unsure of your desire to stay working at Atlas?

Appendix D

Demographic Information

Instructions: Please select appropriate responses and fill in the blanks.

Biographical Information

Age: _____ years

Gender: ❐ Male
         ❐ Female

Work Information

Please indicate if you are:
❒ Employed full-time
❒ Employed part-time
❒ Not employed

If employed, is your job classified as a managerial position?
❒ Yes
❒ No

If employed, does your job include formal supervision of other employees?
❒ Yes
❒ No

Have you ever worked in a managerial position?
❒ Yes
❒ No