

Does Leader-Follower similarity really matter?

**A study of Leader-Follower Proactive
Behaviour Congruence and its impact on Trust,
Affect, Employee Silence and Employee Voice.**

By Adele Grazi

Research Supervisor: Professor Finian Buckley

A Thesis Submitted to Dublin City University Business School in Partial
Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor in Philosophy

July 2019

Declaration

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work, and that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

Signed: _____

ID No.: 57212800

Date: 10/07/2019

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge with gratitude all those people that have supported, encouraged, inspired and provided me with practical assistance thorough out the journey of this thesis completion. In particular, I would like to thank my Supervisor Professor Finian Buckley for sharing his expertise, giving me constructive feedback and patiently supporting me when the going got though. I could not have asked for a better mentor. I would also like thank a number of academics whose guidance helped in the preparation of this thesis. I would like to express my gratitude to Dr Deidre O'Shea, Dr Lisa Van der Werff, Dr Mary Kinahan, Dr Melrona Kirrane, Dr Sara Jane Cullinane and Dr Steven Killroy. In particular, I would also like to thank Mr Gerry Conyngham, Dr Gerry Fahey and Levke for their support in guiding me with the statistics of the present research programme. My journey would have also not been so enjoyable without the support of friends that have emotionally and practically supported me throughout the years. They are Bernard Gerathy, Carol Leen, Collete Real, Daniele Capelli, Fergal Moran, Jayne Lee, Karine Dalsin, Nabil El Gazzar, Marta Sala, Sandra Conroy, Silvia Tarenghi and Suzanne Rogers. I cannot also thank enough the organization I work for their support and flexibility to accommodate my academic needs. I want to thank all my colleagues for encouraging me, in particular my gratitude goes to Annamay Rowan, Anthony Hill, Declan Ready, Maria Finn, Marie Boggins, Thady Walsh. A special thank-you to all the participants who took part in my studies for taking their time in completing questionnaires. My deepest appreciation goes to my parents, Hebe and Giuseppe, for giving me so many opportunities in life, for loving me unconditionally and trusting I could achieve things that I thought were impossible. I would also like to thank my sister, Hebe, and all my family in Peru for their constant reassurance. I really feel indebt with all of you. Thank you once again for the patience and support you have all shown. I hope you all realize how much this has meant to me. I dedicate, with deepest appreciation and gratitude, this personal achievement to you all

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	i
Acknowledgements.....	ii
Table of contents.....	iii
List of Figures.....	ix
List of Tables.....	x
Abstract.....	xi
Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Research Back Ground, Overview and Significance.....	1
1.3 Research Aims and Hypotheses.....	9
1.4 Research Contributions.....	12
1.5 Structure of Thesis.....	14
Chapter 2: Proactivity.....	16
2.1 Chapter Overview.....	16
2.2 Defining Proactivity and Exploring Proactivity Processes.....	16
2.3 Foci of Proactive Behaviour.....	18
2.4 Models of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents.....	21
2.5 Antecedents of Proactive Behaviour.....	27
2.5.1 Individual Differences.....	27
2.5.1.1 Proactive Personality.....	27
2.5.1.2 Demographics.....	29
2.5.1.3 Goal Orientation.....	29
2.5.2 Contextual Factors.....	30
2.5.2.1 Job Autonomy and Job Complexity.....	30

2.5.2.2 Socialisation Process.....	31
2.5.2.3 Job Stressor.....	32
2.5.2.4 Peer Support.....	32
2.5.2.5 Leader Relationship.....	33
2.5.3 Cognitive-Motivational States.....	35
2.5.3.1 Role Orientation.....	35
2.5.3.2 Self-Efficacy.....	36
2.5.3.3 Affect.....	38
2.6 Consequences of Proactive Behaviour.....	39
2.6.1 The Dark Side of Proactivity.....	40
2.7 Conclusion and Direction of Present Research.....	43
Chapter 3: Social Exchange vs. Social Identity Theory.....	46
3.1 Chapter Overview.....	46
3.2 Social Exchange Theory	47
3.3 Social Identity Theory.....	51
3.4 Leadership and Social Identity.....	55
3.5 Social Attraction.....	62
3.6 Conclusion and Direction of Present Research.....	64
Chapter 4: Leader-Follower Trust.....	67
4.1 Chapter Overview.....	67
4.2 Approaches in Interpersonal Trust Research.....	68
4.3 Interpersonal Trust.....	72
4.4 Trust Antecedents of Leader-Follower.....	73
4.4.1 Trustee’s Attributes (Leader).....	76
4.4.1.1. Leader’s Trustworthiness.....	76
4.4.2 Trustor’s Attributes (Follower).....	79

4.4.2.1 Propensity to Trust.....	80
4.4.2.2 Employees Ability and Employee Perception of Leader’s Justice.....	81
4.4.3 Leader-Follower Relationship Attributes.....	83
4.4.3.1 Leader Actions and Practices.....	84
4.4.3.2 Perceived Organisational Support.....	85
4.4.3.3 Leader-Follower Communication.....	85
4.4.3.4 Length of Relationship and Tie strength.....	87
4.4.3.5 Leader-Follower Identification.....	88
4.5 Consequences of Trust.....	91
4.6 SIT as Theoretical Framework of Present Study.....	94
4.7 Conclusion and Direction of Present Research.....	98
Chapter 5: Dependent Variables.....	100
Section A: Affect.....	101
5.1 Introducing Affect.....	101
5.2 Leadership and Affect.....	104
5.3 Social Identity Theory, Leadership and Affect.....	106
5.4 Trust, Affect and Social Identity Theory.....	109
Section B: Voice and Silence.....	111
5.1 Introduction and Overview.....	112
5.2 Voice and Silence.....	113
5.3 Antecedents of Voice and Silence.....	122
5.3.1 Distal Antecedents.....	123
5.3.1.1 Individual Differences.....	124
5.3.1.1.1 Demographics.....	124
5.3.1.1.2 Self-monitoring, Self-Esteem and Locus of Control.....	126
5.3.1.1.3 Identity.....	127
5.3.1.2 Contextual Factors.....	129

5.3.1.2.1 Employee Upward Voice and Silence.....	130
5.3.1.2.2 Leaders Attitude to Voice and Silence.....	131
5.3.3 Proximal Antecedents.....	134
5.3.3.1 Employees motives to Speak-up or remain Silent.....	134
5.3.3.2 Emotion and Voice/Silence.....	135
5.3.3.3 Trust in Leader and Employees choice to voice or remain silent.....	138
5.4 Consequences of Voice and Silence.....	140
Chapter 6: Research Design and Philosophy.....	144
6.1 Research Development.....	144
6.2 Philosophical Foundations	147
6.3 Research Design	148
6.3.1 Common Method Variance.....	149
6.3.2 Experimental Designs.....	151
Chapter 7: Study 1.....	153
7.1 Introduction.....	153
7.2 Research Design.....	155
7.3 Experimental Vignette Design.....	156
7.3.1 Pre-Testing Survey Tools.....	158
7.4 Methodology.....	159
7.4.1 Procedure.....	159
7.4.2 Participants.....	160
7.4.3 Measures.....	160
7.4.4 Responses.....	163
7.4.5 Data Preparation.....	163
7.4.6 Data Analysis Strategy.....	164
7. 5 Results Study 1.....	166

7.5.1 Descriptive Statistics.....	166
7.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	168
7.5.3 Structure Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis.....	169
7.6 Preliminary Discussion.....	172
Chapter 8: Study 2.....	175
8.1 Introduction.....	175
8.2 Research Design.....	177
8.2.1 Pre-Testing Survey Tools.....	178
8.3 Methodology.....	179
8.3.1 Participants.....	179
8.3.2 Measurements.....	180
8.3.3 Procedure.....	185
8.3.4 Responses.....	187
8.3.5 Data Preparation.....	187
8.3.6 Data Analysis Strategy.....	188
8.4 Results Study 2.....	191
8.4.1 Descriptive Statistics.....	192
8.4.2 Confirmatory factor Analysis.....	193
8.4.3 Testing for Leader-Follower proactive behaviour congruence/incongruence.....	194
8.4.4 Moderated Mediation using Process.....	197
8.5 Preliminary Discussion.....	210
Chapter 9: Discussion.....	214
9.1 Chapter Overview.....	214
9.2 Research Findings.....	215
9.2.1 Identification and Trust.....	216
9.2.2 Proactivity and Trust.....	220

9.2.3 Tie Strength as a moderator of the Identification-Trust Relation.....	221
9.2.4 Identification, Trust and the Dark side of Proactivity.....	222
9.2.5 Dependent Variables.....	224
9.2.5.1 Affect.....	224
9.2.5.2 Voice.....	225
9.2.5.3 Prosocial Silence.....	227
9.2.5.4 Acquiescent Silence and Defensive Silence.....	227
9.2.5.5 Gender and Trust.....	229
9.3 Research Contributions.....	229
9.4 Implications for Practice.....	234
9.5 Conclusion.....	237
References.....	243
Appendix A- Plain Language Statement- Study 1.....	374
Appendix B- Plain Language Statement- Study 2.....	376
Appendix C- Participants Questionnaire 1, 2, 3, 4- Study 1.....	378
Appendix D- Employee Questionnaire - Study 2.....	398
Appendix E- Leader Questionnaire - Study 2.....	400
Appendix F- SMEs vignettes - Study 1.....	401
Appendix G- Nationality Characteristics sample - Study 1.....	404
Appendix H- Nationality Characteristics sample - Study 1.....	405
Appendix I- Ethical Approval Letter.....	406

List of Figures

Figure 1. Theoretical Model Study 1.....	10
Figure 2. Theoretical Model Study 2.....	11
Figure 3. Crant’s (2000) model of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents.....	22
Figure 4. Parker’s et al. (2006) model of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents.....	23

Figure 5. Parker’s et al. (2010) model of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents.....	25
Figure 6. Parker, Williams and Turner (2006) Proactive Behaviour Antecedent Model.....	27
Figure 7. Unidimensionality of Social Exchange.....	50
Figure 8. Antecedents of Employees Trust in Leader.....	75
Figure 9. Antecedents of Employees Voice and Silence.....	123
Figure 10. Theoretical Model Study 1 a.....	154
Figure 11. Theoretical Model Study 1 b.....	154
Figure 12. Proactive Pat Model- Relationships between congruence, trust, positive/negative affect **p<.01.....	170
Figure 13. Passive Pat Model-Relationships between congruence, trust, positive/negative affect **p<.01.....	170
Figure 14. Pat Proactive Model-Relationships between congruence, trust, positive/negative an affect role**p<.01., *p <.05.....	171
Figure 15. Theoretical Models Study 2: Leader-Follower Congruence.....	177
Figure 16. Theoretical Models Study 2: Leader-Follower Incongruence.....	177
Figure 17 PROCESS Template 7.....	191
Figure 18. Congruence and Incongruence Effect of Leader and Follower perceptions of Proactive Behaviour on Trust.....	197
Figure 19. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Voice Relationship.....	197
Figure 20. Congruence effect on Trust and Voice, moderated by Tie Strength.....	199
Figure 21. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Path.....	200
Figure 22. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Defensive Silence Relationship.....	201
Figure 23. Congruence effect on Trust and Defensive Silence, moderated by Tie Strength.....	202
Figure 24. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Path.....	203
Figure 25. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Defensive Silence Relationship.....	204
Figure 26. Congruence effect on Trust and Defensive Silence, moderated by Tie Strength and Organisational Identity.....	205
Figure 27. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Path.....	206
Figure 28. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Prosocial Silence Relationship.....	207
Figure 29. Congruence effect on Trust and Voice, moderated by Tie Strength.....	208

Figure 30. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Pat.....	209
--	-----

List of Tables

Table 1. Leader-Follower perceptions of Proactive Behaviour Congruence/Incongruence and Resulting Trust.....	7
Table 2. Research Hypotheses Study 1 and Study 2.....	12
Table 3. Model of Positive Work Role Behaviour (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007, p 330).....	18
Table 4. Emerged Higher-Order Factor Model: A 12-Factor Orthogonal Model with Three Higher-Order Categories of Proactive Behaviour (Parker & Collins, 2010).....	20
Table 5. SIT vs. SET.....	96
Table 6. Summary of Topics covered in chapter 5.....	101
Table 7. Definitions of Voice Constructs (Morrison, 2011).....	115
Table 8. Summary of Van Dyne, Ang and Botero (2003) Conceptualization of three forms of silence.....	117
Table 9. Van Dyne, et al. (2003) and Brinsfield (2013) motives of silence.....	121
Table 10. Emotions that motivate employees to speak-up or remain silent.....	137
Table 11. Descriptive Statistics for Proactive Pat sample.....	167
Table 12. Descriptive Statistics for Passive Pat sample.....	168
Table 13. Test of diverse Alternative CFA models Specifications- Proactive Pat Sample.....	169
Table 14. Test of diverse Alternative CFA models Specifications- Passive Pat Sample.....	169
Table 15. Summary of measurement scales and who rated each scale.....	186
Table 16. Descriptive Statistics.....	192
Table 17. Test of diverse Alternative CFA models Specifications.....	193
Table 18. Leader-Follower perception of proactive behaviour as a predictor of trust.....	195
Table 19. Leader-Follower Identification and Trust.....	220

Abstract

A study of Leader-Follower Proactive Behaviour Congruence and its impact on Trust, Affect, Employee Silence and Employee Voice.

Adele Grazi

Using Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) as an explanatory framework, the present research seeks to assess the influence of “proactive behaviour congruence” between leader and follower, on the quality of their trust relationship. It further explores whether tie strength moderates the relation between leader-follower “proactive behaviour congruence” and trust. Finally, it attempts to understand how the resulting trust between the leader-follower dyad influences their affective relationship and the employees’ choice to remain silent or speak-up.

A combination of a vignette study (study1) and a cross-sectional field study (study2) were employed to test the research hypotheses. Results of Study 1 show dyadic proactive behaviour congruence is positively related to trust and positive affect; whereas dyadic incongruence is negatively related to trust and positive affect. The field study (study 2) revealed that high leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence is positively related to trust; whereas incongruence and low leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence is negatively related to trust. Tie strength moderates the relationship between “proactive behaviour congruence” and trust, in that it increases trust when there is a mismatch of perception or when congruence is low. Finally, acquiescent and defensive silence are negatively associated with trust while there was no significant relationship between trust and either voice or prosocial silence.

The research extends the contention that social identity matching plays an important role in trust development and that identification is a distal antecedent of affect and employee silence. One implication of the findings is that identity congruence is an important factor in the leader-follower sense-making process. Repercussions for managers and leaders are expanded and several lines of future research are identified

Chapter 1

Introduction and Overview

1.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 is an overview chapter that sets the context of the present research programme and will be followed by a series of review chapters. This thesis reviews five topics, specifically proactivity (chapter 2), trust (chapter 4) and affect, voice and silence (chapter 5). Chapter 3 reviews the dominant theoretical approach underpinning trust research, it reviews its limitations and introduces the less dominant theoretical approach used in this research programme. Therefore, Chapter 3 is not a traditional literature chapter but serves as a theoretical positioning of the research programme as well as an important preface of chapter 4.

Chapter 1 opens by presenting the overall theoretical framework underpinning the research model, the objectives and contribution to the field. The chapter will further outline the research hypotheses, the major contributions intended by the researcher and provides an overview of the thesis structure.

1.2 Research Background, Overview and Significance

Trust between individuals is frequently cited as a crucial element for effective functioning within organisations, without which individual and group cooperation may not occur (Dirks, 1999; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). Not surprisingly, trust researchers have focused

their attention on understanding the factors that determine trust and the consequences of both positive and negative trusting behaviour for individuals, teams and organisations.

This research programme focuses on vertical trust which refers to trust between workers at different hierarchical levels (i.e., immediate supervisor /top management-subordinate). Empirical research shows that trust towards different management levels impact the employee differently (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). The present research programme focuses on followers' trust towards their immediate supervisor, as trust is more relevant in relationships where the employee is in close contact with the referent (Dirks, 2006; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). Immediate supervisors generally act as a medium through which employees learn organisational regulations and develop an awareness of organisational goals (Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009). Moreover, the immediate supervisor-subordinate relationship has a high level of interdependence where both parties rely on each other to achieve organisational targets (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). It is important to note that although in the present research programme the immediate supervisor is the referent of interest, the words immediate supervisor and leader are used interchangeably within this review.

In vertical relationships, due to power differences, the perspectives of parties might not only be magnified but might also affect the most vulnerable party in diverse ways (Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Werbel & Lopes-Henriques, 2009). Trust is therefore a critical factor in inter organisational relationships, where trust may impact behavioural, cognitive and affective outcomes differently for upwards versus downwards relationships (Yakovleva, Reilly, & Werko,

2010). Due to the complex nature of trust, the differing perspective of trustor and trustee plays a crucial role within the dyadic relationship.

Trust in a leader has important consequences for follower's work behaviour and attitudes (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007) and has generally been associated to positive productivity processes, such as quality of communication (Dirks, 1999) , problem solving (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) , organisational commitment (Mesu, Sanders, Riemsdijk, 2017), citizenship behaviour (Deluga, 1994), lower turnover (Mayor & Gavin, 2005) and better team performance (Gao, Janseen, & Shi, 2011). As such, understanding the artefacts and consequences of this dyadic relationship is important for the effective functioning of the individual employee, specifically in contexts of high interdependence, where cooperation and knowledge sharing are crucial elements for organisational functioning (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994).

Social exchange theory (SET) has made a significant theoretical contribution to our understanding of trust dynamics in the workplace (Butler, 1995; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; McAllister, 1995; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999). Blau (1964) posits that it is through social exchange that favourable trust relationships are developed and strengthened between two parties, whereby an action of one party leads to a response by another. Nevertheless, supporting evidence suggests that not all individuals value social exchange and reciprocity to the same degree, due to cultural and individual differences (Rousseau & Schalk, 2000). For instance, individuals with low exchange orientations are not as concerned with the obligations of reciprocity and may not care if the exchange is not reciprocated (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). These findings suggest that a

full understanding of the development of interpersonal trust might need to go beyond the explanatory mechanism of SET.

Social identity theorists suggest that trust development is directly influenced by group membership rather than by an exchange process (Hogg, 2001; Tajfel, 1979; Voci, 2006). Social identity theory (SIT) proposes that social categorization and self-categorization are the primary psychological mechanisms through which group membership influences trust development (Williams, 2001, Turner & Haslam, 2001). Once a target is categorized, an individual's impression formation and judgement may be driven by this initial categorization process (i.e. category driven) or may be influenced by individuating information such as personal appearance, past behaviour, and other category memberships (Ashford & Meal, 1972; Tajfel, 1979; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Williams, 2001). In addition, positive beliefs typically associated with similar group membership generate trust and cooperation (Brewer & Kramer, 1985; Kramer & Lewicki, 2010) as the perceived similarities are inflated to encompass other aspects of personality and behaviour, despite lack of evidential experience. Categorizing individuals has consistently led group members to favour individuals in their own group and to see these individuals as more trustworthy and honest (Williams, 2001; Tajfel, 1979). Thus, social identity theory proposes that social identification is an antecedent of trust.

Building on social identity theory, the present research explores how perceptions of similarity between leader and follower impact trust relations. SIT posits that when individuals perceive each other as being similar, not only do they categorize themselves as belonging to the same in-group, but they also tend to trust each other more (Hogg, 2001, Hogg, 2018; Turner & Haslam, 2001). Hence, the present research programme suggests that perceptions of similarity

between leader and follower will be positively related to trust, whereas perceptions of dissimilarity will be negatively related to trust.

Moreover, the present research programme will explore how perceptions of similarity in proactive behaviour between an immediate supervisor and employee (social identification) will enhance the development of trust between the trustor and the trustee. Proactive behaviour has been chosen as the measure of similarity between leader and follower, for diverse reasons. First, research links employee proactive behaviour to a number of positive workplace outcomes such as career success, promotions, higher performance, and organisational commitment (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Crant, 2000). Second, evidence suggests that there is a dark side to proactive behaviour as such behaviour is not always appreciated by supervisors in that they may view it as a threat (Frese & Fay, 2001), an ingratiation attempt (Bolino, 1999) or an ill-timed distraction (Chan, 2006).

Research shows that proactive managers benefit the organisation when they are trusted by their subordinates. Conversely, under conditions of low trust, managers' proactive behaviour appears to neutralize workgroup performance and to increase turnover rates (Crossley, Cooper & Wernsing, 2013). Furthermore, leaders seem to avoid situations that raise questions regarding their abilities/skills and avoid circumstances where their decisions might be challenged or questioned (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Evidence indicates that employees who engage in high levels of proactive behaviour receive less promotions and lower salaries than their less proactive colleagues (Belschak, Den Hartog, & Fay, 2010). This suggests that while employees' proactive behaviour is positive for the organisation, in some situations supervisors themselves may not encourage it. Conversely, proactive managers may attain better outcomes

if they are able to create situations that enable effective job performance for themselves and others, but this may lead to employee resistance (Crossley, Cooper, & Wernsing, 2013).

Employees in an organisation, regardless of their hierarchical level, may engage in a variety of specific behaviours but it is how these behaviours are interpreted by others and how they will respond to it that is significant (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017). Therefore, the choice of proactive behaviour, as the measure of similarity/diversity within the dyad, stems from the researcher's interest in further understanding the dark side of proactivity and how similar or diverse perceptions of proactive behaviour affect dyads at different hierarchical levels and their consequent impact on trust.

Table 1 presents the two possible combinations of proactive behaviour congruence (when both leader and follower perceive each other as engaging in similarly low or high levels of proactive behaviour) and resulting high levels of trust and the two possible combinations of proactive behaviour incongruence (when both leader and follower perceive each other as engaging in different levels of proactive behaviour) and the resulting low levels of trust.

Table 1. Leader-Follower perceptions of Proactive Behaviour Congruence/Incongruence and Resulting Trust

Leader/Follower Perceptions of Proactive Behaviour	Leader perception of Employee Proactive Behaviour		Employee perception of Leader Proactive Behaviour		Trust	
	+	-	+	-	+	-
Congruence 1	✓		✓		✓	
Congruence 2		✓		✓	✓	
Incongruence 1	✓			✓		✓
Incongruence 2		✓	✓			✓

+ = High trust; - = Low trust

Furthermore, it is proposed that strength of tie, the amount of confiding between the two parties will also impact trust levels, suggesting that it is not only social identity playing a role in trust formation but also the closeness and the frequency of interaction between the employee and the leader (Levin & Cross, 2004). It is suggested that tie strength plays a moderating role between leader-follower congruence/incongruence and trust, as strength of tie can help individuals uncover further similarities, increasing dyadic identification (Hogg, 2018).

Building on social identity theory, the present research programme suggests that once the trust bond (weak or strong) is created, emotions towards the referent or focal individual are triggered. Social identity theory suggests that emotions relate to how adequately an individual plays out his/her role identity (Hogg, 2001). Social identity theorists generally agree that negative emotions result when identity meaning falls below the individuals' identity standard;

while positive emotions are the result of match between identity meaning and identity standard, when the individual's identity is confirmed (Burke, 1991). In addition, individuals tend to trust in-group members (individuals they identify with) more than out-group members (individuals they don't identify with) (Dovidio, Gaertner, Kawakami, & Hodson, 2002). Identifying with a group/person elicits positive emotions towards in group member/s, which advances intra-group cooperation (Turner, 1987). Additionally, Baumeister and Leary (1995) proposed that positive affect follows the solidification of relationships of in-group members while negative affect follows threats or damage to the relationship. Therefore, the present research proposes that leader-follower perceptions of similarity (leader-follower identification) will be positively related to trust and that the resulting trust will be positively related to positive affect. Conversely, a mismatch of perception (low leader-follower identification) is negatively related to trust and the resulting low trust will be positively related to negative affect.

Trust in leader has been widely linked in the management literature to employees' upward voice, where scholars emphasize the importance of communication to gain more productive and satisfied employees (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). Gao, Janssen and Shi (2011) argue that employees who trust their leader are more likely to feel safe and comfortable about voicing their opinion or suggestions. On the other hand, if employees' trust towards their leader is low, they will regard voicing suggestions about work-related issues as too risky and so will remain silent (voluntarily withholding information) (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Detert & Burris, 2007; Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bouradas, 2008). Therefore, the final goal of the research programme is to test whether leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence will be positively related to trust and ultimately result

in employees' upward voice and prosocial silence (a positive form of silence); whereas leader-follower incongruence will be negatively related to trust and ultimately result in acquiescent and defensive silence (negative forms of silence).

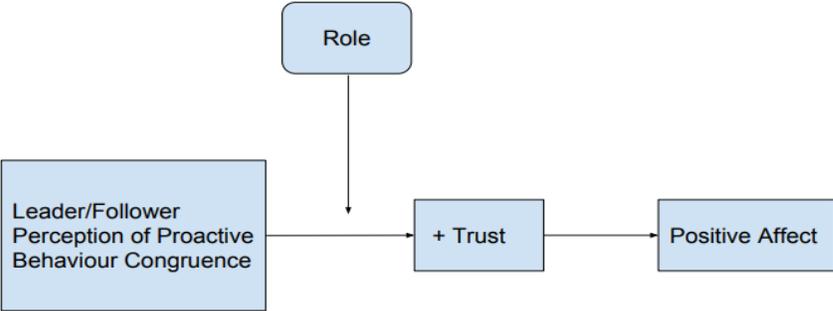
1.3 Research Aims and Hypotheses

The overall aim of the present research programme is to contribute to an explanation of how perceptions of proactive behaviour between leaders and employees impact trust relations and consequently influence affect, voice and silence. Specifically the objectives of the present study are: (1) to examine whether leader-follower perceptions of congruence/incongruence influence the dyadic trust relationship (2) to examine whether being a leader or follower (role) moderates the relationship between leader-follower congruence and trust (3) to examine whether tie strength moderates the relation between leader-follower identification and trust (4) to examine the dark side of proactivity (5) to examine how social identification impacts trust and resulting affect (6) to examine if leader-follower perceptions of incongruence is negatively related to trust and positively related to acquiescent and defensive silence (7) to examine if leader-follower perceptions of congruence is positively related to trust and positively related to voice and prosocial silence.

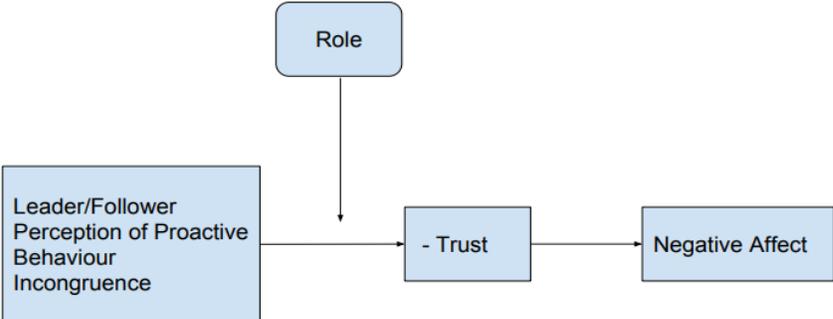
These objectives are tested in the present research programme through two studies. Study 1 (vignette study), explores how leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence/incongruence impacts trust and resulting affect. Study 2 (field study), explores how leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence/incongruence impacts trust and the resulting choice of employees to engage in either voice or silence. Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical

model for Study 1 and Figure 2 illustrates the theoretical model for Study 2. Table 2 summaries the research hypotheses for both Study 1 and Study 2

Figure 1. Theoretical Model Study 1



*Role: whether participants role (being a leader or a subordinate) in the study impacts the moderation effect between leader-follower congruence and trust



*Role: whether participants' role (leader or a subordinate) in the study impacts the moderation effect between leader-follower congruence and trust

Figure 2. Theoretical Model Study 2

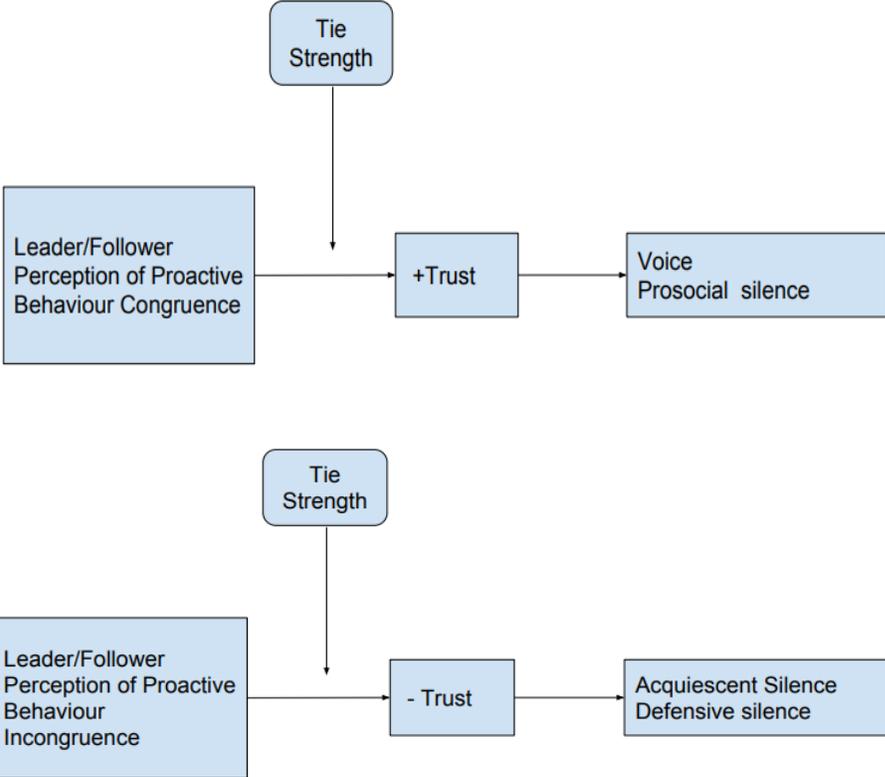


Table 2. Research Hypotheses Study 1 and Study 2.

Research Hypotheses	Study 1	Study 2
1. Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust	x	x
2. Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust which results in employees experiencing positive affect	x	
3. Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust which results in employees engaging in prosocial silence or voice		x
4. Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust	x	x
5. Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust which result in employees experiencing negative affect	x	
6. Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust which result in employees engaging in acquiescent or defensive silence.		x
7. Role moderates the relationship between leader-follower perceptions of similarity and trust.	x	
8. Strength of tie moderates the relationship between leader-follower congruence/incongruence and trust.		x

1.4 Research Contributions

Trust literature has often been criticised as being overly theoretical and lacking empirical evidence (Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2004), and this is especially true with reference to how dyadic perceptions between leader and employee influence trust relations. Several studies in the literature have explored how actual similarity between leader-follower impact diverse work behaviours (Brown & Trevino, 2009; Lam, Lee, Taylor & Zhao, 2018; Schuh, Van Quaquebeke, Keck, Goritz, De Cremer, & Xin, 2015; Zhang, Wang & Shi, 2012). However, a more limited amount of research has included how leader-follower perceptions of similarity influence work behaviours. The lack of research on leader-follower perceptions of similarity in

the literature may be due to the methodological complexity of dyadic research (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Therefore, the research programme aims to, firstly, uncover how mutual perceptions of similarity between leader and follower impact the development of trust.

Secondly, the research programme seeks to offer an important insight into the effects that social identification has on leader-follower trust development. Specifically, the research programme explores how leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity, lead to leader-follower identification and ultimately to trust, therefore, highlighting how the process of identity matching has a positive influence on interpersonal trust formation.

Thirdly, the research programme seeks to contribute to trust theory by providing evidence that social identity theory is an important underpinning theoretical framework in understanding trust development. Therefore, the present research, moves away from the most dominant theoretical approach used to understand trust development, social exchange theory, to investigate a less dominant approach, social identity theory.

Fourthly, the research programme seeks to explain the potential benefits and dangers of the proactivity-trust congruence between leaders and followers.

Fifthly, the research seeks to provide evidence that leader-follower identification will result in trust and ultimately in employees' positive affect and prosocial silence and voice. Whereas leader-follower low identification will lead to low trust and ultimately to defensive and acquiescent silence. Empirical evidence in the silence literature is limited, therefore the research programme aims to extend silence theory in understanding why individuals engage in diverse forms of silence and in testing whether leader-follower identification and trust in leader

are important antecedents of employees' silence. These results might bring useful insight on how to better limit negative forms of silence and enhance employees' voice.

Finally, as identity matching is increasingly regarded as being an important factor in the leader follower sense-making process, it may be important for leaders to identify and be aware of their personal preferences when working with subordinates who differ from them. That said, supportive results would have significant implications for organisations requiring consideration of assisting new recruits (and leaders) adopt multiple orientations to avoid misidentification.

1.5 Structure of Thesis

The thesis consists of 9 Chapters. This chapter provided an overview of the arguments and possible contributions of the thesis as well as clarified its theoretical model. Chapter 2 reviews the literature pertinent to proactive behaviour, and focuses particularly on antecedents, consequences and the dark side of proactivity. The aim of chapter 3, is to distinguish social exchange theory, the dominant theoretical framework in trust research, from social identity theory, the theoretical framework underpinning the present research model. This chapter works as a theoretical preface to chapter 4. Chapter 4 provides a broad review on trust and focuses on interpersonal trust between leader and follower. Throughout chapter 4, the limitations of social exchange theory and advantages of social identity theory in trust research, will also be highlighted. Chapter 5 reviews the dependent variables of the research programme, affect, silence and voice. Chapter 6 outlines the research design and discusses the philosophical premises underpinning the research programme. Chapter 7 presents Study 1 designed as a laboratory study to explore how perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity impact trust and

ultimately affect between the dyad. This chapter discusses the methodological approach utilised for Study 1, its results, analysis and preliminary discussion. Chapter 8 presents Study 2, designed as a field study to explore how perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity impact trust within the dyad and ultimately how the resulting nature of trust effects employees' voice and silent behaviour. Results and analysis are presented which are followed by a preliminary discussion. Finally, Chapter 9, discusses the findings, contributions to theory, limitations, implications for practice and directions for future research.

Chapter 2

Proactivity

2.1 Chapter Overview

The chapter will open by defining and briefly outlining proactive behaviour processes. The chapter will then discuss the different foci towards which proactive behaviour can be targeted and relevant measurements. Following, the chapter will compare and contrast the diverse proactive behaviour antecedent models available in the literature as well as identifying variables that are generally used to predict proactive behaviour. Next, the chapter will explore the possible outcomes proactive behaviour can have at different organisational levels. In closing, the chapter recognises that there is a gap in the literature on how proactive perceptions of others can impact individuals' decision-making processes and that filling this gap is the central contribution of the research programme.

2.2 Defining Proactivity and Exploring Proactivity Processes

Belschak and Den Hartog (2010, p 475) define proactive behaviour as “an anticipatory, future or change-oriented, active, self-starting and persistent work behaviour”. Scholars have examined the proactive behaviour construct through a number of different lenses, including: taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999); voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998); individual innovation (Frese & Fay, 2001); problem prevention (Frese & Fay, 2001); issue selling (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Morrison & Phelps, 1999); feedback seeking (Ashford, Blatt,

& Van de Walle, 2003); personal initiative (Frese & Fay, 2001) and social network building (Grant & Ashford, 2008). The present review seeks to map these diverse proactive behaviour constructs under the umbrella term of proactive behaviour. Proactive behaviour is not limited to an action but is a process that requires three separate stages (anticipating, taking control and self-initiation) that employees might choose to engage in at any given time (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Anticipation, which relies mainly on imagination, refers to employees' ability to think ahead and anticipate future outcomes, including costs and benefits of pursuing the imagined goal (Beach 1990; Karniol & Ross, 1996). Koehler (1991) suggests that imagining desired outcomes increases people's confidence that the outcome will occur and the probability of individuals engaging in actions that will promote such state. In other words, anticipation can fuel the self-fulfilling prophecy (Rosenthal, 1994).

Taking control, is reflected in behaviours such as planning, where individuals transform the vision previously anticipated into an implementation guide of how the outcome will occur. During this phase individuals can develop alternative backup plans in case the initial course of action does not succeed (Frese & Fay, 2001; Latham & Locke, 1991; Locke, & Latham, 2002).

Finally, the third phase, self- initiation refers to the transformation of the previously anticipated and planned outcome into the physical manifestation of the concrete behaviour directed towards a future goal (Weick & Roberts, 1993; Worsch, Scheier, Miller, Schulz, & Carver, 2003).

2.3 Foci of Proactive Behaviour

Griffin, Neal and Parker (2007) identified the organisational context as being responsible for shaping and constraining employees' behaviours in line with organisational goals. According to the authors, work role performance plays an important function in directing employees' behaviours within diverse organisational contexts. Employees may engage in positive actions at different organisational levels such as their team when their sense of belonging to the larger social entity is strong. Griffin, Neal and Parker (2007), identify three levels at which performance role behaviour can be directed to contribute to organisational effectiveness (individual, team and organisational) by engaging in three different forms of behaviour (adaptivity, proficiency and proactivity). Table 3 summarises Griffin, Neal and Parker's (2007) model of positive work behaviour focusing solely on proactive behaviour.

Table 3. Model of Positive Work Role Behaviour (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007, p 330)

Individual Work	Proactivity
Role Behaviours	Initiates change, is self-starting and future oriented
Individual Task Performance Behaviour contributes to individual's effectiveness	Individual Task Proactivity e.g., initiates better way of doing core tasks
Team Member Behaviour Behaviour contributes to team effectiveness rather than individual effectiveness	Team Member Proactivity e.g., develops new methods to help the team perform better
Organisation Member Behaviour Behaviour contributes to organisation effectiveness rather than team effectiveness and individual effectiveness	Organisation Member Proactivity e.g., makes suggestion to improve the overall efficiency of the organisation

Griffin, Neal and Parker (2007, p 332) define individual task proactivity “as the extent to which individuals engage in self-starting, future oriented behaviour to change their individual work situations, their individual work roles, or themselves”. Team member proactivity “reflects the extent to which an individual engages in self-starting, future-directed behaviour to change a team’s situation or the way the team works”. Finally, organisational member proactivity refers to “the extent to which an individual engages in self-starting, future-directed behaviour to change her or his organisation and/or the way the organisation works.”

However, a number of proactive behaviour constructs (i.e. voice; taking charge, feedback seeking, see section 2.2) have been developed and explored in the management literature, creating some confusion regarding the organisational targets of such proactive behaviours. Parker and Collins (2010) attempted to clarify this conceptual conflation by investigating the similarities, differences and inter relationships among multiple targets of proactive behaviours in relation to higher order structures. Three broad intended targets of impact towards which proactive behaviour could be directed were identified, namely: *proactive work behaviour*, which encompasses all proactive behaviours that bring change within the organisational environment, *proactive strategic behaviour*, which relates to all the proactive behaviours that are concerned with taking control and changing the wider organisational strategy; and finally, *proactive PE-Fit behaviour*, which is concerned with the person-environment fit, such as whether the person’s values and abilities meet job requirements and are compatible with organisational culture and goals.

Underpinning these higher-order categories of proactive behaviours are similar motivations and role identities. The three constructs within the higher order model differ in

what the proactive behaviour is intended to affect or change. Motivation determines the focus of an individual's proactive behaviour and its intensity, form and duration (Pinder, 1984). Thus, individuals who are personally motivated to advance their careers within the organisation are likely to engage in P-E fit behaviour, while individuals who are motivated to improving their workplace will engage in proactive work behaviour. Individuals will be drawn towards goals that are congruent with their motivation focus (Parker& Collins, 2010). Therefore, both the Griffin et al. (2007) model and Parker et al. (2010) model agree that employees' proactive motivation is important in directing employees' behaviour within different organisational levels and contexts.

Table 4. Emerged Higher-Order Factor Model: A 12-Factor Orthogonal Model with Three Higher-Order Categories of Proactive Behaviour (Parker & Collins, 2010, p 637).

Higher Order Categories	Proactive Behaviour Constructs
Proactive Work Behaviour (internal organisation environment)	Taking Charge Voice Individual Innovation Problem Prevention
Proactive PE-Fit Behaviour (organisations fit with external environment)	Feedback Inquiry Feedback Monitoring Job Change Negotiation Career Initiative
Proactive Strategic Behaviour (person fit within the organisation environment)	Strategic Scanning Issue Selling Credibility Issue Selling Willingness

Influenced by Griffin et al. (2007) and Parker and Collins (2010) proactive behaviour foci models, Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) developed a new proactive behaviour foci model that distinguishes between three forms of prosocial proactive behaviour at work: pro-organisational, prosocial and pro-self. Pro-organisational foci refer to employees' proactive behaviour aimed at achieving organisational goals (Ashford, Blatt, & Walle, 2003), prosocial foci refer to employees' proactive behaviour aimed at achieving co-worker goals and, finally, pro-self foci refer to

proactive work behaviour focused on enhancing personal career goals (Siebert et al., 2001). The novelty that Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) bring to the proactive behaviour literature is a measure of proactive behaviour foci, which serves as a useful tool when exploring proactive behaviour at work.

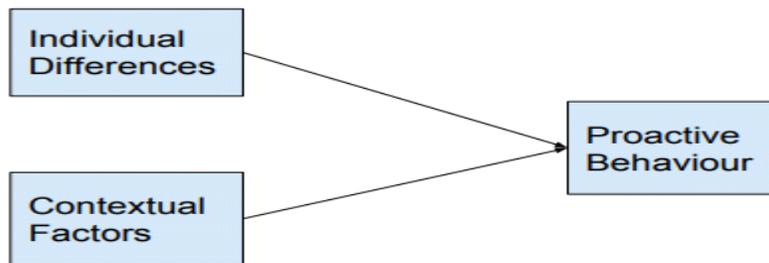
In sum, proactive behaviour can be directed towards diverse targets and while an individual might be proactive in enhancing his/her career advancement, it does not necessarily imply that the same individual is proactive towards organisational goals. Therefore, when researching proactive behaviour, it is important to take into account the target of proactive behaviour, to better comprehend the possible processes enacted by each of the diverse foci.

In the following section, a number of models outlining the antecedents of proactive behaviour will be discussed. The section will compare and contrast the diverse theoretical models, giving an overview of how this area of the literature has evolved throughout the years.

2.4 Models of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents

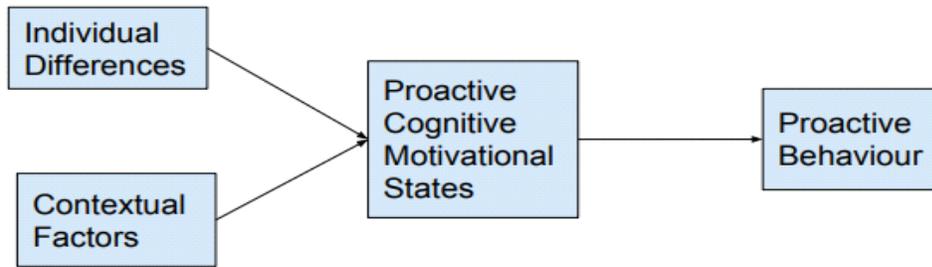
Crant (2000), in an early model of proactive behaviour, posited that individual dispositional tendencies and situational cues have a direct effect on the individual's choice to act proactively. Proactive personality is an example of a dispositional tendency that might elicit employees' proactive behaviour. Contextual cues refer to the organisational norms embedded within employees' interactions in diverse roles and tasks (Grant & Parker, 2009). Employees' perception of organisational openness to proactive behaviour is an example of a situational cue that might affect employees' behavioural choice (Crant, 2000). Figure 3 illustrates the direct antecedents proposed by Crant (2000).

Figure 3. Crant's (2000, p438) model of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents



Parker, Williams and Turner (2006), suggested that individual differences and situational cues are distal variables that only predict proactive behaviour via cognitive-motivational processes. According to the authors, engaging in proactive behaviour is a conscious decision where individuals assess the possible risks as well as the likelihood of being successful (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Social-cognitive theory supports the role of cognitive-motivational states as it implies that individuals are self-regulating agents that are not only products but also producers of their environment (Bandura, 1982). Moreover, Parker et al. (2006) also draw from goal-setting theory, to suggest that proactivity is a goal driven process where individuals assess their willingness to fulfil their aspirations (Locke & Latham, 1990). Hence, proactive behaviour not only depends on individual differences and situational cues but is also explained by dynamic situational processes. Figure 4 illustrates the proactive behaviour antecedent model proposed by Parker, Williams and Turner (2006).

Figure 4. Parker's et al. (2006, p 637) model of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents



Individual goals have been distinguished by scholars as two hierarchically structured systems where individuals anticipate desired future goals (goal generation) and develop strategies to achieve these goals (goal striving) (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Wu, Parker, & Lee, 2017). According to Parker, Bindl and Strauss (2010), the motivation for setting and striving for proactive goals rests within the domain of proximal proactive motivational states which reflect “can do”, “reason to” and “energised to” motivation to attain the proactive ambition. Hence, the proactive behaviour goal needs to match the individual’s desired end-state to be able to move from his/her current actual self-state as close as possible to the desired end-state (Higgins et al., 1994).

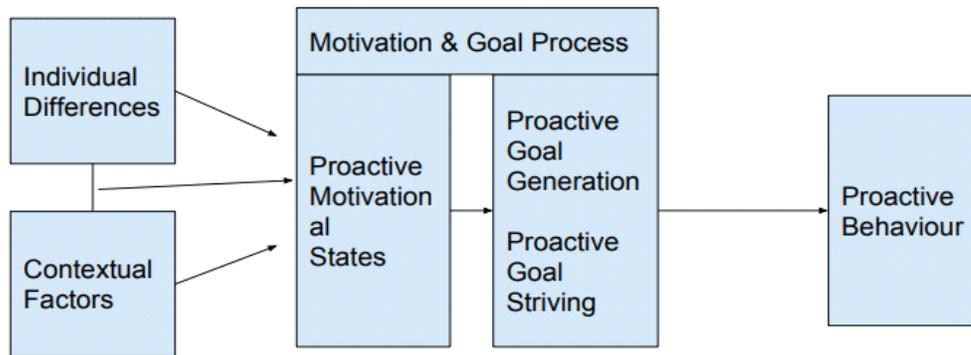
A “can do” motivational state stems from self-regulation theory, where individuals make a deliberate decision on the likely outcome of his/her proactive behaviour (Bandura, 1997; Frese & Fay, 2001; Higgins et al., 1994; Morrison & Phelp, 1999). Hence, individuals do not only need to feel capable of completing a task but also require a “reason to” engage in a specific behaviour. Therefore, “reason to” motivational state represents the need to want to be proactive and the ability to see value in achieving a different future (Gagne & Deci, 2005). In the proactivity literature, most of the attention has focused on the two motivational states

described above, the “can do” motivational state which draws on expectancy theory (i.e. self-efficacy theory and control theory) (Vroom, 1964) and “reason to” motivational state which maps on theories concerned with self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

A more recent addition to this domain has been made by Parker, Bindl and Strauss (2010), take a step further by introducing the role of affect as an important variable in predicting employees’ envisioning of proactive work goals and propose a third motivational state, that of “energised to”. Previous research has emphasised the importance of positive affect in promoting challenging goals (Illies & Judge, 2005) and in helping individuals deal with a more problematic future (Oettingen, Mayer, Thorpe, Janetzke, & Lorenz, 2005). Positive affect is suggested by Parker, Bindl and Strauss (2010) to be an important motivational state that will enhance the likelihood of individuals engaging in proactive behaviour. However, to fully understand how motivational states drive goal orientation and striving, the authors take into account the two distal variables previously discussed in this review, individual differences and contextual variables.

Parker’s, Bindl and Strauss (2010) model of proactive behaviour differs from the previously proposed model by Parker, Williams and Turner (2006), by including goal processes to the proactive motivational states previously discussed. Figure 5 illustrates the proactive behaviour antecedent model proposed by Parker, Bindl and Strauss (2010).

Figure 5. Parker's et al. (2010, p 830) model of Proactive Behaviour Antecedents



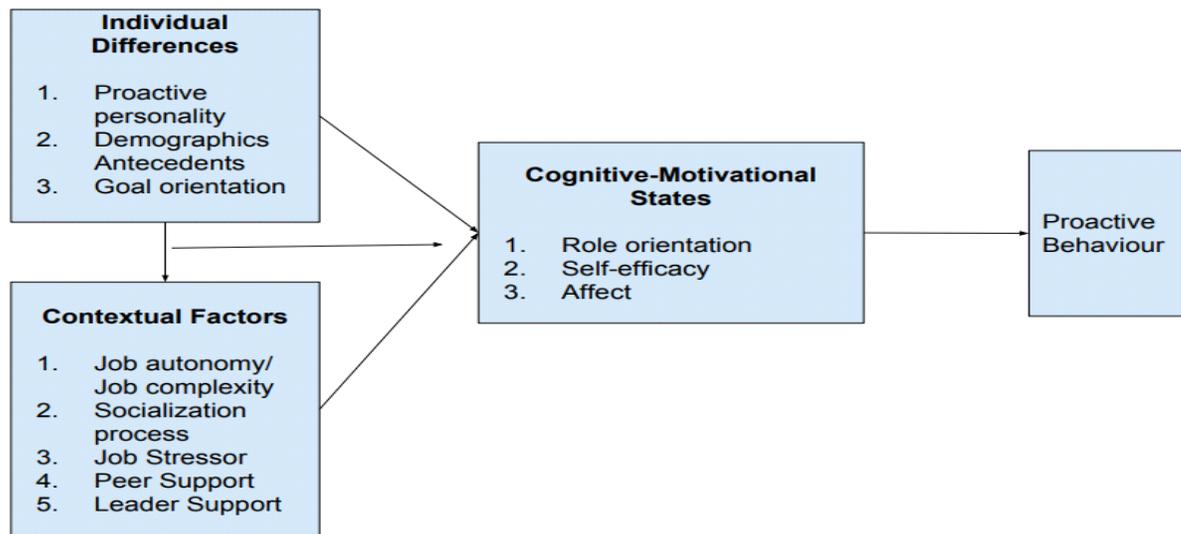
In their propositional paper Grant and Ashford (2008), proposed a refined theoretical models of proactive behaviour antecedents, where a number of new contextual and dispositional factors were presented. The model conceptualised dispositional tendencies as a possible moderator between work situational cues and employees' proactive behaviour. Furthermore, Shin and Kim (2015), argued that although previous proactive behaviour antecedent theories had explored individual, contextual and motivational factors they had omitted that proactive behaviour involves a rational decision-making process (Parker et al., 2006). In response to this gap in the literature, Shin and Kim (2015), based on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), argued that three cognitive mechanisms (attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) mediate the relation between dispositional/situational cues and employees' intention to be proactive.

Concluding, both dispositional and situational factors have a fundamental impact on proactive behaviour, meaning that individuals can intentionally and directly influence situations (Crant, 1995; Bandura, 1985). Thus, proactive behaviour literature is deeply rooted in the interactionist perspective (Bandura, 1985; Schneider, 1983) as individuals shape and bring

meaning to society through interactions with their environment. Nevertheless, some suggest that situational cues and dispositional tendencies have a direct effect on proactive behaviour (Crant, 2000), whereas others suggest that cognitive-motivational states mediate the relationship between situational cues/dispositional tendencies and proactive behaviour (Parker et al., 2006, Parker et al., 2010). A more modern model, has incorporated theory from the motivational (e.g. Vroom, 1964) and goal (Locke & Latham, 1990) literature, to explain the intentional decision process where individuals outweigh the possible risks and benefits as well as a desire to achieve the predetermined goal (Parker et al., 2010). Moreover, other scholars suggest that dispositional tendencies moderate the relationship between situational cues and proactive behaviour (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant & Parker, 2009). Clearly, although a number of proactivity antecedents have been empirically tested, there is still theoretical confusion in the literature regarding how these antecedents interact. Further exploration is needed in order to understand what the mechanisms behind the individual's choice are to be or not proactive.

The following section reviews the diverse antecedents of proactive behaviour discussed in the literature which are grouped into individual differences, contextual and cognitive-motivational antecedents. The section will follow Parker's et al. (2006) model of proactive behaviour antecedents, as it represents the most widely accepted and tested model in the literature (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Luo & Zheng, 2018; Raub & Liao, 2012; Shin & Kim, 2015; Strauss, Griffin, & Rafferty, 2009). Figure 6 illustrates the diverse antecedents that will be discussed in section 2.5 as well the relationship between them.

Figure 6. Parker, Williams and Turner (2006, p 637) Proactive Behaviour Antecedent Model.



2.5 Antecedents of Proactive Behaviour

The aim of this section is to discuss the antecedents of proactive behaviour giving insight into how different factors influence the individuals' choice to ultimately behave proactively.

2.5.1 Individual Differences

The following section will review three individual differences: Proactive personality, demographics, and goal orientation.

2.5.1.1 Proactive Personality

Proactive personality, or the relative stable tendency to identify opportunities and persevere to bring about change (Bateman & Crant, 1993), was historically viewed as an antecedent of proactive behaviour that captures a relatively stable dispositional tendency that identifies differences among individuals to actively initiate change in their environment

regardless of situational cues (Bateman & Cant, 1993; Crant, 2000). Thus, proactive individuals identify opportunities and act on them, by taking action and persevering until a meaningful change has occurred (Becherer & Maurer, 1999; Crant, 2000; Siebert et al., 1999; Thomas, Whiteman, & Viswesvaran, 2010).

Proactive personality has been positioned as the precursor of numerous organisational behaviours, such as employees performance (Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Thomas, Whiteman, & Viswesvaran, 2010), team performance (Kirkman & Rosens, 1999), networking skills (Zhao, Frese & Giardini, 2008; Miller & Jablin, 1991), career outcomes (Bell & Staw, 1989), affective organisational commitment (Thomas, Whiteman, & Viswesvaran, 2010); entrepreneurship (Becherer & Mauer, 1999; Crant, 1996), innovation (Frohman, 1997; Howell & Higgins, 1990; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001), coping with strain (Blouin & Stout, 2006; Parker & Spigg, 1999), occupational citizenship behaviour (Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2017) and leadership (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Deluga, 1998), suggesting that proactive personality has an important effect on numerous organisational outcomes.

In line with Parkers' et al. (2006) model of proactive behaviour antecedents, the relationship between proactive personality (trait) and proactive behaviour (state) has been found to be mediated by role breadth self-efficacy (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy & Shalhoop, 2006; Parker, 1998; Parker, 2000), mastery (Parker & Spigg, 1999) and flexible role orientation (Parker, 2000). These mediating constructs will later be discussed in this review. Such findings confirm the hypothesis that proactive personality does not influence proactive behaviour directly but that this relationship is mediated by diverse cognitive-motivational states.

2.5.1.2 Demographics

Mixed support has been found for the influence of individual differences, such as age and gender, on proactive behaviour. Some scholars report greater initiative (a form of proactive behaviour) among older employees (Warr & Fay, 2001), in contrast other studies found that the decision to engage in proactive behaviour is not a reflection of age (Morison & Phelps, 1999; Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010). In regard to gender, Kanfer, Wanberg and Kantrowitz (2001) suggest that male employees are more proactive in terms of career behaviours, networking behaviours and voice behaviours compared to their female counterparts. In response to such findings Bindl et al. (2011) urge scholars to be cautious of such results due to the complexity between gender, occupation type and level, as gender equality has yet not been reached within all organisations, and such inequality might be impacting results. Thus, further investigation into demographics as an antecedent of proactive behaviour might be necessary to further clarify this area of the literature.

2.5.1.3 Goal Orientation

Goal orientation, experienced as a stable trait orientation, has been discussed in the literature either as a learning goal orientation or as a performance goal orientation. Learning goal orientation reflects the individual's preference to develop competence by mastering new situations and acquiring new skills; whereas performance goal orientation reflects the individual's preference to validate one's own competence by seeking favourable judgments and avoiding criticism from others (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Scholars agree that goal-oriented individuals are more likely to engage in proactive behaviours compared to performance-

oriented individuals as they are less concerned about demonstrating their abilities and are more interested in the learning process (Crant, 2000). On the other hand, performance goal orientated individuals are unlikely to engage in proactive behaviours, as their orientation promotes ego centred and defensive behaviours where individuals avoid taking risks which may lead others to question their abilities (Anseel, Beatty, Shen, Lievens, & Sackett, 2015; Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Parker & Collins, 2010).

In sum, proactive personality, demographic factors and goal orientation are three individual differences that impact employees' choice to engage or not in proactive behaviour. The following section will discuss contextual factors identified as antecedents of proactive behaviour.

2.5.2 Contextual Factors

The five contextual factors identified as antecedents of proactive behaviour are job autonomy and job complexity, socialisation processes, job stressors, supportive supervision and co-worker trust and concluding with leader-follower relationship.

2.5.2.1 Job Autonomy and Job Complexity

Job autonomy provides employees with the space to approach tasks in their own manner, which gives them ownership over their work. This enhances employees' likelihood to take responsibility and to behave in a more self-determined manner when facing obstacles. Job autonomy has been found to predict proactive behaviours such as voice (Van Dyne & Le Pine, 1998), suggestion for improvement (Axtell et al., 2000) and personal initiative (Frese & Fay, 2001; Hornung & Rousseau, 2007).

Job complexity can motivate or demotivate employees, depending on their cognitive motivational state, to proactively seek for effective and rapid solutions (Frese et al., 2007). In fact, high job demands have been found to hinder proactive behaviour as employees heavy work load reduces employees' energy and limits the available time to engage in any initiative building process (Grant & Parker, 2009).

In contemporary proactive behaviour models, job autonomy and job complexity have been linked to proactive behaviour via cognitive-motivational states, where controllable tasks (job autonomy) boost employees' self-efficacy (Axtell & Parker, 2003; Bandura,1982; Gist & Mitchell,1992; Parker,1998) which will in turn enhance proactive behaviour (Frese & Fay, 2001). Hence, cognitive motivational states play a mediating role between job autonomy/complexity (contextual factors) and proactive behaviour. This finding was partially supported by Den Hartog and Belschak (2012) only for individuals who scored high on self-efficacy. In sum, job autonomy and job complexity are two important precursors of proactive behaviour.

2.5.2.2 Socialisation Process

Evidence suggests that during the employees' socialisation process, new recruit are more likely to engage in proactive behaviour, such as seeking information, building relationships and negating job changes, as they proactively try to match their new job role to their values and skills (Black & Ashford, 1995). Proactive socialisation tactics are, therefore, important at both a personal and organisational level, as they allow employees to integrate faster to their work group and organisation which enables new comers to display strong

performance early in their new positions and feel more satisfied with their role more promptly (Crant, 2000).

2.5.2.3 Job Stressors

Job stressors, such as time pressure or situational constraints (situations in the work environment that hinder performance due to impaired organisational process or inadequate tools) can enhance or hinder via cognitive-motivational states employees' proactive behaviour (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). Research suggests that employees act more proactively when under pressure to achieve desired goals and meet performance expectations (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). Other scholars report that in situations of high job stress or high interpersonal conflict, proactive individuals tend to underperform and burnout faster than less proactive individuals, suggesting that strain can be a consequence of proactive behaviour (Harvey, Blouin, & Stout, 2006; Schmitt, Den Hartog and Belschak, 2016). Additionally, Strauss, Parker, & O'Shea, (2017) assert that proactive behaviour has costs in terms of job strain when individuals experience a sense of pressure in their work that is not compensated by any autonomous motivation. Clearly more research is required to clearly identify the relationships between proactive behaviour, stressors and strain.

2.5.2.4 Peer Support and Trust

Team perception of psychological safety was found to relate significantly with personal initiative, suggesting that a climate of psychological safety among team members encourages change oriented behaviours (Edmondson, 1999; Frese & Fay, 2001). In addition, peer support and co-worker trust also enable and reinforce employees' proactive behaviours via cognitive-

motivational states, by facilitating the implementation of new ideas and problem-solving tactics (Baer & Frese, 2003; Parker, Williams & Turner, 2006). Proactive employees through information exchange build trust and the psychological safety necessary for a creative endeavour (Gong, Cheung, Wang & Huang, 2012). Additionally, Edmondson (1999) claims that in a climate of psychological safety employees are more likely to engage in proactive learning behaviours and voice.

2.5.2.5 Leader Relationship

Supportive supervision is believed to be a crucial element in stimulating employees' proactive behaviour (Crant, 2000). Under circumstances of supportive supervision, employees' exhibit higher levels of proactive behaviour as high performing employees are regarded by their supervisors to be more competent and trustworthy. This encourages supervisors to broaden employees' role and consequently elicits and supports employees' proactive behaviour (Clegg & Spencer, 2007; Parker et al., 2006).

When leaders create supportive environments, they enable followers to explore new behaviours, especially in the context of organisational change (Hackman, 2002). One explanation of this dynamic lies in attachment theory. Wu and Parker (2017) explored ways in which a secure-based support (e.g. leader availability and encouragement to develop) from leader can facilitate opportunities for employees to bring about change. Through secure-based support employees cultivate a higher role breath self-efficacy and autonomous motivation. Specifically, employees that score high on attachment anxiety rely more on leaders secure – based support to foster their self-efficacy and hence their proactive behaviour. On the other

hand, employees who score high on attachment avoidance tend to depend more on leaders secure-base attachment to encourage their autonomous motivation and, thus, their proactive behaviour.

A number of leadership styles have been linked to employees' decision to speak-up (Crant & Bateman, 2000; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Detert & Burris, 2016).

Transformational leadership has been reported to be a predictor of employees' proactive behaviour and performance (Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010), due to the strong vision these leaders exert. When vision is strong, proactive behaviour is particularly increased for individuals who score high in role breadth self-efficacy (Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010). Evidence suggests that transformational leaders encourage proactive behaviour at both a team and organisational level by inducing a positive group affective tone (Wu & Wang, 2015) and through a diverse range of mediators (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). Team transformational leaders appear to encourage proactive behaviour by increasing followers' confidence to initiate change; whereas organisational transformational leaders increase followers' proactivity by enhancing followers' commitment to the organisation (Strauss, Griffin, & Rafferty, 2009). A positive association between transformational leadership, job autonomy, self-efficacy and followers' proactive behaviours was also found. Findings suggest that in situations of high job autonomy, transformational leaders have a positive impact on employees' proactive behaviour for employees who rate high (but not low) on self-efficacy. On the other hand, in situations of low job autonomy, transformational leaders have a positive impact on employees' proactive behaviour only for individuals who rate low (but not high) on self-efficacy (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012).

Charismatic leadership has generally been associated with high managers rating of leader performance, suggesting that proactive behaviours aimed downwards impresses superiors (Crant & Bateman, 2000). Proactive behaviour can have different targets and direction and can be interpreted differently depending on the observer. At a dispositional level, extroverted leadership resulted in higher group performance when employees were passive; whereas when employees were proactive the results reversed and extroverted leadership resulted in poorer group performance (Grant, Gino & Hofmann, 2011).

In sum, leadership styles and dispositional tendencies can enhance or inhibit employees' proactive behaviour. Evident in this review is the lack of research exploring employees' interpretation of leader's proactive behaviour and how leader-follower mutual perceptions of proactive behaviour may hinder or encourage employees to take initiative.

2.5.3 Cognitive-Motivational States

The following section discusses three mediating variables (proximal antecedents of proactive behaviour) commonly covered in the proactivity literature, namely: role orientation, self-efficacy and affect. These variables play a mediating role between individual/contextual factors and proactive behaviour.

2.5.3.1 Role Orientation

Some argument exists regarding whether proactive behaviour is an in-role or extra-role behaviour. An extra-role behaviour would suggest that proactive behaviour is discretionary whereas in-role activities are frequently non-discretionary therefore not self-directed. However, other researchers suggest that proactive behaviour can occur also within in-role

tasks, where, for example, an employee can complete a task ahead of time (Frese & Fay, 2001). Others suggest that classifications of in-role and extra-role behaviours are not clear and that they depend on the way employees interpret their roles (Morrison, 1994; Parker & Collins, 2010). Proactive employees might not limit their sense of responsibility to core tasks required in their job but might have a broader sense of responsibility that goes beyond their narrow set of tasks expected in their role, gaining a higher sense of accomplishment (Frese & Fay, 2001).

Flexible role orientation is important in promoting idea generation, suggestion making (Howell & Boies, 2004) and proactive behaviour (Campbell, 2000; Ohly & Fritz, 2007; Parker, 2000; Parker et al., 2006). Through a flexible role orientation individuals feel ownership of goals that go beyond their set of technical tasks (Parker et al. 2006). Parker et al. (2006) compare the concept of flexible role orientation to the concept of experienced responsibility for work outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), but rather than being focused in respect to core tasks, flexible role orientation is concerned with the breath of experienced responsibility that extends beyond achieving basic technical goals. Distal antecedents such as proactive personality, job autonomy and peer support have been positively associated to proactive behaviour via flexible role orientation (Axtell et al., 2000; Howell & Boies, 2004; Parker et el., 2006). This suggests that flexible role orientation is an important mediating variable between individual/contextual factors and proactive behaviour.

2.5.3.2 Self-Efficacy

Role breadth self-efficacy defined by Parker et al (2006, p 638), as “one’s perceived capability of carrying out a range of proactive, interpersonal, and integrative activities that

extend beyond the prescribed technical core”, is an example of what Bandura (1985) argued to be a “can do” attitude. Consequently, Individuals high in role breadth self-efficacy have a greater belief that behaving proactively is likely to result in positive outcomes, whereas individuals with a low role breadth self-efficacy are less sure of their ability to be successful in taking on tasks outside their prescribed roles and perceive proactive behaviour as being more risky (Raub & Liao, 2012).

Self-efficacy and role breadth self-efficacy research (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Luo & Zheng, 2018; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Raub & Liao, 2012; Strauss, Griffin, & Rafferty, 2009) assert that engaging in proactive behaviour is a rational decision making process, where individuals evaluate their abilities to engage in such behaviour and ponder possible outcomes. Morrison and Phelps (1999) suggest that employees are more likely to engage in proactive behaviour (e.g. take charge) not only when they show high levels of self-efficacy but also when they display an internalised sense of responsibility for bringing change within their workplace.

Role breadth self-efficacy has been found to be linked to a variety of proactive behaviours, such as: proactive job performance (Griffin, Neal & Parker, 2007), proactive problem solving (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006), personal initiative (Speier & Frese, 2009; Hong, Raub, Liao, & Han, 2016) and suggestion for improvements (Axtell et al., 2000).

Employees’ high role-breadth self-efficacy has been found to moderate the relationship between employees’ proactive behaviour and supervisor rating of overall job performance. Suggesting that supervisors’ perception of employees’ role-breadth self-efficacy plays an

important role in how proactive behaviour is judged by supervisor (Nguyen, Johnson, Collins, & Parker, 2017).

In sum, self-efficacy allows individuals to persist with difficult tasks by adopting more efficient strategies, as well as enabling individuals to better cope with environmental changes. Self-efficacy grants individuals with a sense of control and a belief that they can be successful, which is fundamental approach to take when engaging in proactive behaviour (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Furthermore, employees' confidence when being proactive affects positively the way raters judge such proactive behaviour (Nguyen, Johnson, Collins, & Parker, 2017).

2.5.3.3 Affect

Scholars suggest that positive affect promotes the setting of more challenging goals (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2007; Illies & Judge, 2005) and helps individuals deal with a more problematic future (Bindl, Parker, Totterdell & Hogger-Johnson, 2012; Oettingen, Mayer, Thorpe, Janetzke, & Lorenz, 2005). Other scholars suggest that intermediate levels of positive affect in the workplace are better predictors of proactive behaviour than too little or too high levels of positive affect (curvilinear effect of positive affect on proactive behaviour) (Lam, Spreitzer, & Fritz, 2013). Conversely, other scholars propose that negative affect predicts employees' proactive behaviour, particularly in face of dissatisfaction (Frese & Fay, 2001). These findings suggest that there is still confusion in the literature on the role affect plays in predicting proactive behaviour and that further research is needed.

Other organisational affective processes have been considered in literature in relation to proactive behaviour. Affective commitment was found to impact employees' proactive

behaviour (personal initiative) in relation to different workplace targets (organisation, supervisor, team and career). Research revealed that team affective commitment explained more variance for employee rated initiative, while organisational affective commitment explained more variance for manager-rated initiative (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007)

In conclusion, the antecedent section of this chapter has discussed a number of precursors that explain the onset of proactive behaviour. These different factors do not necessarily affect an individuals' choice singularly, but it is rather through a combination of different antecedents that individuals interpret their environment and evaluate their ability to respond or not proactively. Thus, the choice to be proactive is the result of a complex combination of individual, situational and cognitive-motivational factors that can be targeted to different organisational levels. The present research programme contends that employees' proactive behaviour is a complex decision-making process which is affected by the individual's interpretation of the context, by the individual's interpretation of other employee behaviour and by the individual's motivation to engage in proactive behaviour at different organisational foci. The following section will discuss the different consequences of proactive behaviour in the workplace, from both a leader and an employee perspective.

2.6 Consequences of Proactive Behaviour

Numerous studies have emphasised the positive effects proactive behaviour has for the employee and for the organisation. Proactive employees improve the organisation they work in (Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007; Parker, William, & Turner, 2006), generate new creative ideas and solutions (Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999), manage their career more effectively (Siebert, Crant, &

Kreimer, 1999) and impact the organisational strategy (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). Proactive employees tend to outperform their more passive colleagues, lead to entrepreneurial success (Fay & Frese, 2001), deliver superior task performance (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009) and sales performance (Crant, 1995).

Proactive individuals were also found to be more successful in their career in terms of salary and promotions (Siebert et al., 1999) but also in terms of finding a new job if unemployed (Frese et al., 1997). Similar findings are not limited to the individual level but also present at team and organisational level, where proactive behaviour is positively associated with team satisfaction and team effectiveness (Kirman & Rosem, 1999) and with organisational success, (Frese & Fay, 2001) and profitability (Baer & Frese, 2003). Moreover, proactive behaviour has been linked to employees' wellbeing, affective commitment (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007), job satisfaction (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) and positive affect (Greenglass & Fiksenbaum, 2009). In sum, proactive behaviour is generally a desired behaviour within the organisational context, as the positive consequences are numerous. Nevertheless, as will be discussed in the next section, proactive behaviour can also be misread or can impact relationships and performance ratings negatively.

2.6.1 The Dark Side of Proactivity

Proactivity literature tends to focus on the positive side of proactivity, although a number of negative aspects of proactive behaviour have been identified. Bateman and Crant (1993) argued that misguided proactive behaviour could lead to undesirable negative outcomes. Seibert et al. (2001) note that employees who over used their voice (a form of

proactive behaviour) in work received lower salaries and less promotion compared to employees who were less proactive. Research has indicated that when proactive behaviour, such as personal initiative, is associated with low skills, it usually leads to negative outcomes (Frese & Fay, 2001; Chan; 2006). Chan (2006) suggests that proactive personality predicts positive work perceptions (procedural justice, perception, perceived supervisor support) and work outcomes, but only for individuals with high situational judgment effectiveness. Situational judgment effectiveness (SJE) refers to “individual differences in general ability to make effective judgements or responses to situations” (Chan, 2006, p 476). Proactive employees who have a poor SJE are likely to behave in a counterproductive manner, as they are not capable of understanding the situation clearly. Therefore, these individuals are more likely to respond to situations in an unpractical manner and develop unrealistic expectations of their supervisors and work situation, which will not be met. Furthermore, expecting individuals to act proactively might create stress and friction between more or less proactive individuals (Bolino, Valcea, & Harvey, 2010).

Proactive employees might not always be involved in constructive behaviours but might engage in high degrees of rule breaking or in counterproductive behaviours (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002), such as finding ways on how to cheat on their employer or steal organisational material (Belschak, Den Hartog, & Fay, 2010).

Supervisors do not always applaud employees’ proactive behaviour especially if such behaviour raises questions regarding the leader’s abilities and skills. Leaders often try to avoid circumstances where their decisions might be challenged or questioned (Morrison & Milliken, 2002) as such behaviour is perceived as a personal threat (Frese & Fay, 2001). In support

Belschak, Den Hartog, and Fay, (2010) indicate that employees who engage in high levels of voice, a form of proactive behaviour, receive less promotions and lower salaries than their less proactive colleagues.

Supervisors seem to reward proactive behaviours only when they are attributed to benevolent intentions rather than self-serving motives (Allen & Rush, 1998). Grant, Parker and Collins (2009) show that when employees report high proactive benevolent behaviour (prosocial values) or low negative affect, the proactive behaviours of voice, issue selling, taking charge and anticipatory helping contribute to higher employees' performance evaluations. Interestingly, it was noted that leaders' perception of employees' proactive behaviour and employees' job performance evaluation, are moderated by leaders' feelings of sharing that constructive change (Fuller, Marler, Hester, & Otondo, 2015).

Research shows that managers attribute average performer's feedback seeking considerably less to performance-enhancement intentions compared to superior performers seeking. It is suggested that managers' implicit person theory influences his/her perception of employees' feedback seeking frequency, attributing frequent feedback seeking considerably more to impression management than infrequent feedback requests (Stobbeleir, Ashford & Sully de Luque, 2010).

Employees' interpretation of a leader's proactive behaviour has been found to be governed by trust. Research suggests that employees who do not trust their highly proactive leaders are more likely to voluntarily leave the organisation. This suggests that there is a dark

side to a leaders' proactive behaviour which may lead to serious repercussions for employees and the entire business unit (Crossley, Cooper & Wernsing's, 2013).

In sum, engaging in proactive behaviour, regardless of the hierarchical position an employee has within an organisation, reflects a decision process that involves possible risks and costs. Although, proactivity has predominantly been linked with positive consequences, an increasing amount of evidence suggests that supervisors may view an employees' proactive behaviour as a threat (Belshak & Den Hartog, 2010; Frese & Fay, 2001). Conversely, proactive managers only benefit the organisation when they are trusted by their subordinates (Crossley, Cooper, & Wernsing, 2003). Therefore, employees are prone to read their environment to assess what behaviour (proactive or passive) is less likely to be misinterpreted by the observer and limit costs to the self. The aim of the present thesis is to further understand how perceptions of proactive behaviour are interpreted by employees at different hierarchical levels. It is proposed that similar levels of perceived proactive behaviour between leader and follower will lead to higher trust; whereas a mismatch of proactive behaviour perception between leader and subordinate will lead to low trust. The following section will make concluding remarks of this chapter and introduce Chapter 3.

2.7 Conclusion and Direction of Present Research

Understanding how others interpret proactive behaviour within a work context has strong repercussions on organisational outcomes. As evidence shows, recipients' positive interpretation generally leads to beneficial consequences within dyadic relationships as well as positive organisational outcomes (Parker et al., 2006). However, a recipient's negative

interpretation of such behaviour leads to tensions and possible conflict between work colleagues, teams or the organisation, which can result in devastating effects (Frese & Fay, 2001). Moreover, in agreement with proactivity scholars, an individual's proactive behaviour might be interpreted differently depending on the hierarchical position of the observer (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007). The research programme aims to bring more clarity in the proactivity literature on how perceptions of proactive behaviour are perceived within the leader-follower relationship.

Scholars have investigated the impact leaders' qualities, dispositional tendencies, behavioural states and emotions have on their employees and overall organisational performance (Crant & Bateman, 2000; Deluga, 1998; Grant, Gino & Hofmann, 2011). Nevertheless, a limited amount of research has explored the effects that leader-follower trait congruence has within a dyadic relation and possible resulting performance outcomes.

A positive association between dyadic congruence in personality and superior work outcomes have been reported (Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001), suggesting that leaders develop unique relationships with each of their subordinates. Zhang, Wang and Shi (2012) examined the effect proactive personality congruence has on leader-follower relations which showed that individuals that have similar proactive personality tendencies are more likely to strive towards similar goals. In contrast to, Zhang, Wang and Shi's (2012) study, the present research programme, intends to explore proactive behaviour congruence rather than proactive personality congruence between leader and follower. Employees' choice to engage in proactive behaviour does not necessarily reflect the person's dispositional tendency, but mirrors a wider range of factors (i.e., situational cues) and decision-making processes (cognitive-motivational

states) that the individual undertakes before determining how to behave in a particular context. Therefore, in the present thesis, exploring how proactive behaviour is perceived by employees at different hierarchical levels is considered to be a more accurate measure of individuals' proactive behaviour at work.

Building on social identity theory, the present research programme aims to clarify how perceptions of proactive behaviour are interpreted by employees at different hierarchical levels and the impact such inferences have on trust and communication between leader and subordinate. By doing so, the researcher intends to explain how proactive behaviour can be interpreted in a different manner depending on hierarchical position the individual is in, bringing light into the dark side of proactivity. Furthermore, based on social identity theory, the present research programme suggests that leader-follower perceptions of congruence will be positively related to trust; whereas leader-follower perceptions of incongruence will be negatively related to trust.

The following chapter solely reviews social identity theory which is the theoretical framework of reference in the present research programme. However, chapter 3, opens by briefly clarifying social exchange theory, which is a dominant model used in trust research, and will then exclusively address social identity theory. Chapter 3, therefore aims in giving the reader insight into the theoretical framework of the present research programme but is also an important preface to the trust chapter that follows.

Chapter 3

Social Exchange vs. Social Identity Theory

3.1 Chapter Overview

Chapter 3 opens by introducing and outlining social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) as it represents the main theoretical framework used across trust research. Subsequently, it reviews social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978) as it constitutes the theoretical framework of reference used in the present thesis. Leader/follower relations are central to the current research and therefore leader emergence and development will be explored through a social identity lens, with particular attention to leader categorization theory and social attraction theory. In concluding, the advantages of using social identity theory rather than social exchange theory in the present research programme will be discussed

The current research programme utilises social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) as the key theoretical lens to understand how perceptions of similarity between leader and followers enhance or inhibit the development of trust between trustor and trustee. The aim of the present chapter is to give the reader a thorough understanding of the theoretical framework underpinning the present research model as well as highlighting the differences between social identity theory and social exchange theory in regard to trust. Hence, the present chapter serves as a theoretical preface before trust is introduced in the following chapter. Chapter 4 provides the reader with an in-depth review on trust in leader and concludes by drawing attention to the differences between the two theoretical frameworks (social exchange

vs. social identity) in studying trust. It further emphasizes the limitations of social exchange theory and the suitability of social identity theory for the present research model.

3.2 Social Exchange Theory

Social-exchange theory (SET, Blau, 1964), has been a widely used conceptual framework in the area of organisational psychology (Colquitt & Zenger, 2014; Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017) specifically in the area of trust research (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). SET is not a single theory but can be better understood as a network of conceptual models. These assorted models have a number of common foundational features, including the premise that social life involves a series of transactions between parties, where individuals exchange goods and repay the good deeds of another party through the process of reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). Thus, in an organisational setting, social exchange begins when an organisational actor, such as a supervisor or employee, engages in a positive or negative exchange towards a referent (Colquitt & Zenger, 2014). Supportive supervision (Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009) is an example of a positive exchange between parties; whereas abusive supervision (Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009) is an example of a negative exchange within the dyad.

SET suggests that individuals are more likely to reciprocate with a positive response, or at least with fewer negative responses, if the initial exchange was positive and thus creates what is known as a high-quality social exchange relationship. These high-quality exchanges lead individuals to be affectively committed and trusting to the referent (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994).

In contrast, in situations of an initial negative exchange, individuals are more likely to respond with a negative response leading to a low-quality exchange relationship.

A defining characteristic of SET is interdependence between individuals, where a predetermined outcome depends on the effort of parties involved (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). For trust to develop interdependence between trustor and trustee is needed as an action by one party leads to a contingent response by the other. If this response is positive it reduces risk and encourages trust (Diez & Den Hartog, 2006).

SET is a dominant conceptual perspective in the area of management, sociology and social psychology, it however lacks theoretical precision and a number of criticisms have been identified by Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels and Hall (2017).

Cropanzano et al. (2017) delivered an insightful critique of SET suggesting that social exchange theory has been overly used in the management literature due to its easy applicability to numerous patterns of organisational behaviours. Generally, in SET reciprocating responses have been divided into two subfamilies, first behavioural responses which include constructs that measure work behaviours (i.e. OCB, prosocial organisational behaviour, deviance, etc.) and second relational responses which include constructs that measure interpersonal relationships (i.e. LMX, trust, commitment, etc.) (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). Therefore, trust is assumed to be a relational reciprocating response within the SET literature. However, trust researchers have shown that trust relations are not merely relational but can also be behavioural. Indeed, scholars have, for example, differentiated between “competence-based trust”, i.e. trust based on actor’s ability to complete a task, and

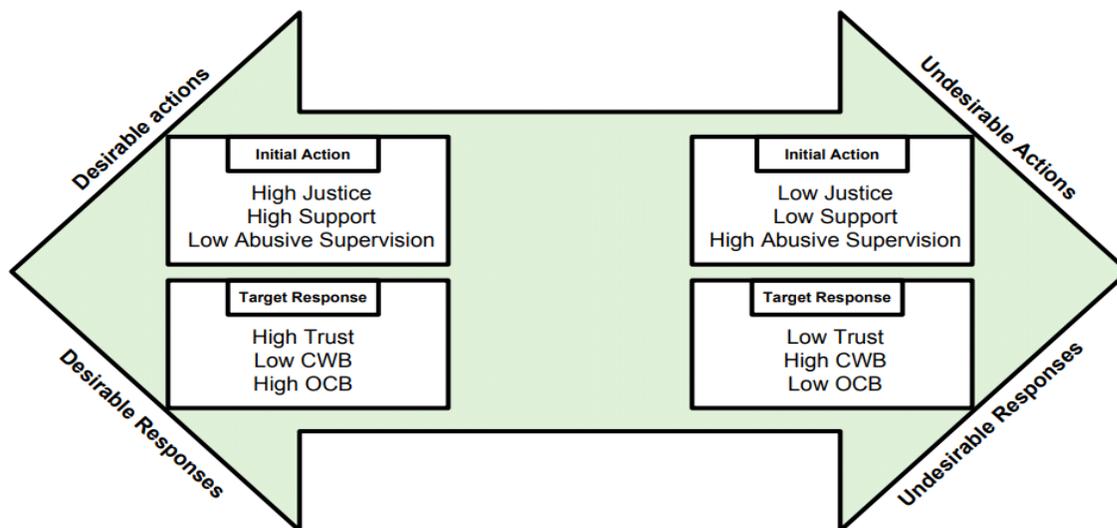
“integrity based trust”, i.e. trust based on trustor’s evaluation of the targets moral character.

This suggests that reciprocating responses within the SET framework can be further divided into two subtypes- relational and behavioural. Hence, reciprocating responses within the SET framework need to be further clarified to ensure that constructs do not overlap and are defined appropriately.

Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels and Hall (2017) specify that SET has been conceptualised as two types of concepts those with a positive valence and those with a negative valence. An example of a positive reciprocating response might include employees’ high performance, while a negative reciprocating response could include employees’ turnover or aggression. However, the positivity or negativity of the reciprocating response depends on who is interpreting and judging the behaviour in question. For example, what is considered negative behaviour by management could be considered moral from an employees’ perspective. In organisational science priority is given to managers interests while the concern of other stake holders, such as subordinates or consumers, is less valued. Hence, constructs studied through the SET lens seeks to include perceptions of individuals at different hierarchical levels. Indeed, as it will be discussed in the next chapter, trust research has been strongly follower-centric and leadership theory has mainly focused on what traits or leadership behaviours makes a leader effective (Korsgaard, Brower & Lester, 2015). As a result, there is a lack of empirical evidence on how mutual interactions might affect leader-follower relations in both trust and leadership theory. The present research seeks to overcome such limitation by exploring how mutual identification impacts trust development.

Finally, another limitation of SET highlighted by Cropanzano and colleagues (2017) is the unidimensionality of the social exchange model. Figure 7 presents an example of how constructs are conceived in SET literature. The constructs are divided into two pairs of boxes. The upper box refers to initiating actions while the bottom box refers to target responses. The left-hand boxes include desirable actions and responses whereas the right hand boxes include undesirable actions and undesirable responses.

Figure 7. Unidimensionality of Social Exchange (Cropanzano et al. 2017, p 495)



Therefore, through a social exchange lens distrust is tacitly assumed to be the absence of trust (Lewicki, McAllister, & Beis, 1998). However, empirical trust research has found that trust and distrust are different things and not the absence of one another, suggesting that trust is a bidimensional model. Therefore, trust as a construct is coined as a bidimensional model explained through a unidimensional theoretical framework. Thus, future researchers will need to take into account a taxonomy that takes these distinctions into account (Cropanzano,

Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017). Therefore, although SET is widely used in trust research it is important to be aware of the limitations such a conceptual paradigm brings within trust research. The present research programme does not attempt to overcome such critiques. It however strives to emphasise the importance of exploring trust through a diverse theoretical framework, through which diverse conceptualisations of trust can be empirically tested.

The aim of this section was to introduce the reader to SET and to highlight its limitations. The following section will review the theoretical framework of the present thesis, social identity theory. It will then focus specifically on identity formation between leader and follower. The motive for using social identity theory in the present research programme, instead of SET, is discussed at the end of the chapter.

3.3 Social Identity theory

Social Identity theory (SIT) in contrast to SET, does not seek to explain social relations through social exchanges but through social categorisation. SIT assumes that individuals classify themselves and others via group memberships (also known as social categories), such as gender, race, religious affiliation, profession, ethnic background and age cohort (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). In SIT, the self can be viewed as an object that categorises and classifies itself in relation to other social categories and, through a process of comparison, classifies relevant others as being similar to the self (in-group) or different from the self (out-group)(Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987).

Turner (1982) extended social identity theory through the development of self-categorisation theory (SCT). SCT suggests that individuals bring their self-perception and

behaviour in line with the relevant in-group behaviour prototypes, resulting in behaviours such as: stereotyping, ethnocentrism, positive in-group attitudes, cooperation, altruism, emotional contagion, collective behaviour, shared norms and mutual influence, to name a few (Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994; Platow & Van Knippenberg, 2001; Turner, 1982). The difference between SIT and SCT resides in the motives guiding the individual's behaviour (Hogg, 2000). In SIT, in-group behaviours are motivated by the need for positive self-esteem, what is known as the self-esteem hypothesis (Abrams & Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Mullin, 1999). Whereas in SCT individuals are motivated by the need to reduce uncertainty regarding one's perception, attitudes, feelings and behaviours and ultimately one's self-concept and place within the social world. This is also known as the uncertainty reduction hypothesis (Hogg & Abrams, 1993; Hogg & Mullin, 1999).

SIT and SCT propose that an individual's sense of belonging is not merely related to affiliations or alliances between the self and others but entails fundamental differences in the way the self is construed (Brewer, 1991; Triandis, 1989; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994). Both SIT and SCT distinguish between the personal self, i.e. those parts of the self-concept that differentiate the self from others, and the relational self, i.e. the self-concept derived from connections and role relationships with significant others or significant social groups.

Another central hypothesis of both SIT and SCT is that individuals seek to identify with the in-group (Tajfel, 1979). Thus, social identification is the sense of belonging an individual perceives from a social group with whom s/he shares a common group identity. Feelings of belongingness trigger positive emotions towards in-group members, which reinforce in-group

versus out-group differentiation. This can then result in stereotypical perceptions of the out-group (Tajfel, 1979). For example, negative intergroup emotions can be an important antecedent of prejudice (Paolini, Hewstone, Voci, Harwood, & Cairns, 2006; Voci & Hewstone, 2003; Wilder & Simon, 2001), where emotions play a mediating role between identification and evaluation (Voci, 2006). Discrimination and prejudice directed towards out-group members generally encompasses negative emotions such as: anger, fear, contempt, jealousy (Smith, 1993), guilt (Branscombe et al., 1999), and anxiety (Islam & Hewstone, 1993). Nevertheless, negative emotions are not necessarily always directed towards out-group members. In fact, in-group members might express positive emotions, such as empathy, and engage in prosocial behaviours towards a disadvantaged out-group (Voci, 2006). In sum, through the process of identification, group relevant events become self-relevant which results in-group-based emotions that can be directed towards in-group members, out-group members and intra-group members (Smith, 1993).

Additionally, according to SIT, affect also serves a social function, where displays of affect towards group members may evoke reciprocal affect in others and may communicate information to which a corresponding action is expected by the recipient (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Empirical evidence shows that a leader's active affective display results in employee's higher task performance, as high affect activation displayed by the leader may provoke an enhanced tendency in employees to reciprocate cooperative acts (Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004) and reinforce positive behaviour in groups (Dieffendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008). Therefore, a leader's effectiveness rests on his/her ability to elicit emotional responses from followers that motivate pro-organisational attitudes and behaviours. Such emotions can

be adopted by followers through emotional contagion (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Hogg, 2000). According to SIT, individuals are more likely to perceive in-group members as being more trustworthy compared to out-group members, where feelings of distrust and suspicion might be more evident towards out-group members. Therefore, it is only after group formation that cooperation and reciprocal trust emerges in groups, suggesting that trust is not a precondition of the social categorisation process (Reicher & Hopkins, 1996).

In line with SIT, the present research proposes that it is through a process of identification that leader and follower come to trust each other. In particular, leader-follower perceptions of engaging in similar levels of proactive behaviour are considered to result in the formation of strong interpersonal identities. Leader-follower identity is experienced in terms of roles and the expectations both parties have of those roles, which results in identity at an interpersonal level rather than at a group level. It is further suggested that perceptions of similarity between leader and follower results in positive affect and trust between the two parties. Therefore, in the present thesis, the importance of social exchange in the development of trust bonds is not denied, as information and knowledge exchange is necessary for trust to exist. Nevertheless, it is proposed that identification plays an important role in enhancing and maintaining high quality social exchanges.

In the next section the development and formation of leaders will be discussed and reviewed through a social identity lens. Further leader-follower congruence studies under the same theoretical framework will also be explored.

3.4 Leadership and Social Identity

Social identity theorists' emphasis on social cognition has provided social psychologists with a theoretical framework through which leadership and group processes can be examined. This has fuelled the interest of social psychology in leadership theory and research.

According to Hogg (2001) leadership is very much a process. He suggests that "there are three core processes that operate in conjunction to make prototypically an increasingly influential basis of leadership processes as a function of increasing social identity salience: prototypicality, social attraction and attribution and information processing" (2001, p 188)

- Prototypicality

According to Hogg (2001), group members influence each other in order to conform to the group prototype. Highly prototypical individuals will need to make fewer changes compared to low prototypical individuals to comply with the group prototype (Hoggs, 2001; van Dick & Schuh, 2010). In other words, highly prototypical individuals do not only embody the behaviours to which others need to conform but also exert strong influence over less prototypical individuals (Hogg & Hains, 1996; Koivisto, Lipponen, & Platow, 2013). As a result, in recently formed groups, highly prototypical individuals are perceived as occupying an embryonic leadership role as there is an embryonic role differentiation between leader and follower. The more salient the group becomes, the stronger individual members of the group identify with each other and the more prototypicality becomes increasingly influential for a leader's perception (Giessner, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Sleebos, 2013; Lord & Brown, 2001). Interestingly, research has found that in early phases of group formation leader

stereotypicality predicts perceived leadership effectiveness more strongly than in-group prototypicality. This effect however changes when group identity becomes stronger within group members and at this stage both leader and in-group prototypicality affect how employees evaluate leader effectiveness (Platow & Van Kippenberg, 2001; Steffens, Schuh, Haslam, Pérez, & van Dick, 2015).

Leaders therefore increase their influence by creating a perception of “one of us” within the group. Evidence suggests that followers are more likely to endorse leaders’ attributes when they identify with the leader. For example, when followers identify to a highly customer-oriented leader, then followers are more likely to be customer oriented to (Ullirick, Weiseke, Christ, Schulze, & Van Dick, 2007).

- Social Attraction

Leadership involves actively influencing other people. One way in which this is made possible is through the social attraction process. The most prototypical person within a group (generally the leader) will actively influence individuals, as such a person is perceived as being socially attractive and will therefore secure compliance by getting his/her ideas accepted more readily than ideas suggested by others. In support of the latter, research shows that leaders who are procedurally fairer to in-group members are endorsed more strongly by in-group followers than leaders who distribute unfair resources (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Moreover, fair leaders are more likely to be appointed to leadership positions than unfair leaders. This is in line with social identity analyses whereby intra-group fairness communicates to members their favourable group standing (Smith, Tyler, Huo, Ortiz, & Lind, 1998). In sum, prototypical leaders

through the process of social attraction create a sense of satisfaction and commitment within the in-group that publicly confirms their ability to exercise influence over followers (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Hogg, 2001; Hogg, Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012).

- Attribution and Information Processing

In new groups the processes of social attraction, information processing and attribution can translate into proactive leadership behaviour from the most highly prototypical individual in the group. The longer the highly prototypical individual remains in the leadership position the more likely s/he is to be socially liked and able to create an entrenched attribution effect within the group. If the highly prototypical individual maintains such a position for a long period of time then they will be able to adopt more active aspects of leadership, such as maintaining their position as a leader over time (van Dijke & de Cremer, 2010). The highly prototypical person will only maintain a leadership position if s/he adapts to the situation and environmental change, otherwise other individuals may become more prototypically salient (Reicher & Hopkins, 1996). Therefore, leadership acceptance does not only depend on individual and situational processes, but also depends on the prototypical characteristics enacted by the out-group that might highlight prototypical distinctions that need to be embodied by the in-group and by a desirable leader (Turner & Haslam, 2001).

Generally, the group negotiates and bargains with group leaders who lead their groups against out-group competition. Ellemers, De Gilder and Haslam (2004), argue that the ability of a leader or manager to create a sense of shared identity within their team or organisation is an important determinant in energising, directing and sustaining successful work-related

behaviours. Generally, followers focus on the identity they share with the leader, viewing them as an in-group member, or ponder on the aspects in which the leader differs from them, viewing them as an out-group member (Haslam & Turner, 2014; Hollander, 1964).

Leaders cannot always reward their followers, as their role requires them to supervise and correct the work carried out by their subordinates. Nevertheless, leaders in view of general identity-enhancing motives generally evaluate in-group members more positively than out-group members (Duck & Fielding, 1999; Hogg, Knippenberg, & Rast, 2015). Evidence suggests that when leaders are viewed by followers as in-group members, i.e. when followers identify with the leader, leader's negative behaviours are attributed to external pressures and factors (Haslam, Platow, & Turner, 2001). On the other hand, when leaders are perceived as an out-group member, hence when followers do not identify with the leader, leaders' negative behaviour is regarded as the leader's true nature and intention. In other words, subordinates tend to remain loyal to an in-group leader, despite displays of undesirable behaviours (Ellemers, De Gilder & Haslam, 2004). As a result, the degree to which the leader is viewed as an in-group or out-group member will impact his/her ability to energise, direct and sustain work related efforts (Ellemers & Jetten, 2013). This implies that the extent to which followers perceive their leaders to share a similar identity will have important consequences for the motivating mechanism that a leader can effectively use (Steffens, Schuh, Haslam, Pérez, & van Dick, 2015).

Leaders do not only direct groups but also engage in a one to one relation with each of their subordinates. In this case personal identity (self and leader) tends to be more salient than group (social) identity (Hogg, 1992; Hogg, van Knippenberg & Rast, 2012). Subordinates'

personal identification with the leader is important in creating motivation and loyalty within the employee. A modest amount of research has linked charismatic and transformational leadership to employees' personal identification to leader and to employees' enhanced self-esteem (Gillespie et al., 2004; Hogg, 2001; Kark et al., 2003).

When the self is defined at an intrapersonal level, the leader-follower relation becomes more important. Leaders can differentiate between one employee and the other through organisational processes such as role performance, feedback and punishment/reward (Hogg, van Knippenberg & Rast, 2012; Lord, Brown & Freiberg, 1999). Role learning and role performance is therefore central in dyadic relations, at both an affective and cognitive level.

Positive affective feedback conveyed by leaders to new employees is fundamental for the formation of relational identities, as sharing similar values, respect and loyalty may lead to ego-enhancing motives for followers to identify to leader (Lord et al. 1999; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). Lord and Brown's (2001) propositional paper takes this a step further by suggesting that leaders influence employees' self-regulatory processes not only by enhancing employees' self-concept but also by influencing employees' values. Leaders have a central position within their team/organisation, which gives them the power to have a direct impact on which salient values to activate within employees and groups. As a result, leaders have a direct influence on the emergence of employees' self-views (Lord & Brown, 2001; Rast, Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2018).

Self-view refers to the perception an individual has of his/her attributes in a given context. At an interpersonal level, the perception others have of us serves as a primary source of our

self-views' development. As leaders are important sources of self-referent feedback, they are likely to be central in the formation of employees' work-related self-views (Ashforth & Cummings, 1983; Brewer & Gardiner, 1996; McNulty & Swann, 1994)

The majority of intrapersonal literature has therefore focused on the formation of followers' self-concepts and identity to leader suggesting that, through identification, subordinates enhance their self-esteem and self-efficacy and develop a loyal and committed relationship with their leader (Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017). On the other hand, it is almost an agreed assumption in the interpersonal literature that leaders are not influenced by their followers or other relevant leaders (Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017). Ibarra, Wittman, Petriglieri and Day (2014) for the first time presented a leader centric perspective of identity suggesting that leaders adapt to their senior roles by experimenting with diverse provisional leader identities through a process of negotiation through which they construe a shared identity. A more limited amount of research has explored how mutual identity dynamics impact the formation of identities on both follower and leader. According to these perspectives, leaders' identities are not immune to the leader-follower interactions, but it is through the mutual interaction that identities are formed. Therefore, a leader's identity does not unfold in isolation, but it is by interacting with followers that leaders' and followers' identities take shape (Howell & Shamir, 2005). As De Rue and Ashford (2010) suggest, the leader-follower identity is construed through a dynamic dance which is strengthened or weakened through on-going interaction. The latter perspective is supported by the present thesis suggesting that identities are formed by leader-follower mutual interaction. By exploring

how leader-follower mutual perceptions impact trust formation, the present research seeks to overcome the lack of mutual perception studies under the SET framework.

In sum, from a social identity perspective, the secret of successful leadership lies in the ability of the leader to induce followers to perceive him/her as the embodiment of a positive social identity that they have in common and that distinguishes them from the out-group. Leadership's effectiveness therefore depends on the leader's ability to create identity definitions and to engage people in the process of turning those definitions into practical realities. The majority of interpersonal literature assumes that leaders' identity formation is not influenced by their followers, which is argued to not be true in this research programme.

In the present research programme, leader-follower rather than leader-group identification is explored. Personal identification to leader is fundamental as it is through identification that leaders are able to motivate and energise followers to reach organisational goals. The research programme focuses on how leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence/incongruence influence leader-follower identity formation. The present research programme argues that leader-follower identification is formed through mutually shared commonalities. It is suggested that leader-follower mutual perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity result in leader-follower identification; whereas leader-follower mutual perceptions of proactive behaviour dissimilarity result in leader-follower poor identification. In the following section social attraction studies are reviewed, giving insight to the reader on how perceptions of similarity influence the formation and development of more cooperative bonds.

3.5 Social Attraction

Proponents of social attraction approach posit that individuals who share similar traits, although observers are not aware of the commonalities, are more inclined to interact effectively as they use common referents to interpret and act on social information (Hambrick, 1994; O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989; Smith, Smith, Olian, Sims, O'Bannon, & Scully, 1994; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002).

Turban and Jones (1988) suggested three possible similarity factors between supervisor-subordinate: a) perceived similarity, which corresponds to how similar an individual views him or herself to another individual, b) perceptual congruence, which refers to the similarity of perception held by supervisor and subordinate, and c) actual similarity, which refers to the difference in the self-description of both supervisor and subordinate. Research has generally focused more on exploring how actual similarity (through race, gender, and so on) and perceived similarity impact relations using similarity attraction theory as the underlying theoretical model (Byrne, 1961).

In the context of selection, actual similarity research has received mixed results on the effects an applicant's gender has on recruiters' evaluation (Arvey & Faley, 1988). On the one hand, interviewees with the same gender as recruiters were found to be regarded as being less aggressive than the opposite sex applicants (Gallois, Callan, & Palmer, 1992; Wiley & Eskilon, 1985). Conversely, female recruiters identified more with male applicants and perceived them as being more qualified than female candidates (Graves & Powell, 1995). This result can be explained through social identity theory in which low status groups, in this case female

recruiters, may engage in various strategies to achieve a more positive social identity; one such strategy is to distance themselves from their own group and psychologically join a higher status group (Hogg, 2001, Hogg, van Knippenberg & Rast, 2012). Additionally, actual similarity to leader has also been linked to higher evaluations of subordinate performance, career advancement and promotions (James, 2000; Powell & Butterfield, 1994; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998) and higher performance ratings to applicants of the same race (Turban & Jones, 1988). Perceived similarity research has revealed that an individual is considered to be more attractive if similar attitudes and behaviour to the evaluator are displayed (Byrne, 1961). For example, recruitment literature shows that perceived similarities between an interviewer and a job applicant influence hiring decisions (Markham, Harlan, & Hackett, 1987; Turban & Jones, 1988).

Decision makers are more inclined to favour employees similar to them as they perceive the similar employee to be more likely to behave in a similar manner without the need of monitoring or incentives (Hogg, 2018). Moreover, evidence shows that employees who have personalities or values that differ from that of the team may struggle to communicate and cooperate with group members (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Smith et al., 1994). In such circumstances, leaders have been found to perceive the less fitting individuals as poorer performers and the more fitting individuals as potential leaders (Wright, Giammarino, & Parad, 1986).

The importance of similarity in identification with relevant others has also been supported by social psychology studies which indicate that mate selection and marital success/satisfaction are strongly linked to partners' dispositional trait similarity rather than complementarity (Antill, 1983; Banta Hetherington, 1963; Bentler & Newcomb, 1978; Kurdek,

1993; Russell & Wells, 1994). Individuals are inclined to desire partners who are similar to themselves on agreeableness, conscientiousness, extroversion, emotional stability, openness to experience (Botwin, Buss, & Shackelford, 1997) and attachment style (Klohn & Luo, 2003).

In sum, social identity theory and social attraction theory agree that perceptions of similarity between leader and followers are fundamental for positive evaluations and positive affect to develop within the dyadic relation. However, social identity theory takes a step further by suggesting that similarity will lead to identification within the dyad that will ultimately result in dyadic trust. Hence the present research programme uses social identity theory as the underlying theoretical framework.

3.6 Conclusion and Direction of Present Research

The present research proposes that leader-follower perceptions of engaging in similar levels of proactive behaviour will result in leader-follower identification and likeability. In line with SIT, a mismatch in perceptions of proactive behaviour will result in more negative evaluations of the other party which will lead to lower trust within the dyad. Therefore, perceptions of behavioural congruence between leader-follower is proposed to create more highly prototypical leaders, who are more likely to successfully lead, motivate and create trust bonds with each individual employee. Followers, on the other hand, are more likely to be considered efficient and reliable once their behaviour, values and attitudes match those of the leader. Finally, the present research programme suggests that the resulting congruence of perception between leader and follower will be associated with trust; whereas a mismatch of

perceptions will be negatively related to trust. Interpersonal trust is therefore a central topic in the present research review and as such will be reviewed in detail in chapter 4.

Social identity theory is regarded to be an appropriate framework of reference as it delivers insight on how mutual perceptions develop identity formations between leader and follower. Some trust researchers have included identification into their empirical studies of trust and for instance Gillespie et al. (2004), highlight how important shared values are within a dyad in the formation of strong trust bonds. However, Gillespie et al. (2004), and others using SET lens, assume that identity bonds are only formed after extensive interactions. Nevertheless, as social identity theory shows this might not always be the case (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Hence, the present research programme takes a step back from social exchange theory, proposing that although interactions are necessary for relations to form, they do not represent the only building block.

In sum, social exchange theory assumes that it is through interactions and knowledge sharing that relationships are formed (Blau, 1964), whereas social identity theorists suggest intrinsic or extrinsic characteristics, past experience and pre-existing cognitive/affective maps can affect relations from the onset (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). It is also true that identities can vary and change over time in response to contextual changes and challenges. These variations in identity are at times communicated by, for example, organisational leaders but are mainly developed through processes of adaptation. It is through the process of adaptation that the organisation as an entire entity adjusts to new accepted salient in-group behaviours as a response to new out-group challenges (Kramer, 1999; Hogg, 2018). In other words, it is through mutual interactions and influence that new identities are formed, with the aim of creating a

sense of community and belonging. Therefore, communication and knowledge sharing also occur within the social identity theoretical framework, but the aim of such information sharing is identity formation and not the simple completion of transactions, as social exchange theory suggests. Hence, in the present research programme, trust formation is not viewed as a consequence of high-quality interactions but as a result of a deep sense of belonging within the parties in question.

The following chapter will review interpersonal trust between leader and follower. The chapter will open by discussing how dyadic trust has been examined in the trust literature. Following, antecedents and consequences of trust between leader and follower will be reviewed. The chapter will then conclude by bringing forward its theoretical positioning within the intrapersonal trust literature.

Chapter 4

Leader-Follower Trust

4.1 Chapter Overview

To understand what makes leaders effective, scholars have taken different approaches such as studying leader's traits (Antonakis, Day, & Schyns, 2012; Day & Lord, 1988; House & Aditya, 1997; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Kenrick & Funder, 1988; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Zaccaro, 2007) and behavioural styles (Avolio, 1999; Avolio, Bass, Walumbwa, and Zhu, 2004; Avolio, Luthans, & Walumbwa, 2004; Bono & Judge, 2004; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Politis, 2001; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993). Within the literature, trust in the leader has been identified as an important predictor of employee empowerment (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, Chan, 2009; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995) and has been associated with a range of productivity related processes (Dirks, 1999; Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007).

Interpersonal trust between leader and follower is therefore a topic of significant interest in this chapter. Interpersonal trust studied under the social exchange framework posits that information exchanges between leader-follower foster trusting relationships that provide the psychological safety for employees' voice, engagement, knowledge sharing and creativity (Detert & Edmonson, 2011; Dirks & Ferin, 2002; Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Gong, Cheung, Wang & Huang, 2012). Conversely, the present thesis proposes that useful information exchange will be enhanced only after leader-follower perceptions of similarity have

been established, suggesting that leader-follower identification plays a crucial role in trust formation. The present research does not deny the importance of social exchange in the development of trust bonds between parties, but it proposes that social exchanges serve the purpose of uncovering further commonalities between the dyad creating a stronger identification bond (Gillespie et al., 2004; Hogg, 2018).

Additionally, in the leadership literature, under both social identity and social exchange theory, leaders'-followers' perceptions are predominantly explored from a follower-centric perspective (Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017; Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). The present thesis takes a less polarised route of investigation, by suggesting that mutual perceptions between leader and follower interact and contribute to the dyadic relationship (Lord & Brown, 2001).

This chapter will open by reviewing different forms of interpersonal trust specifically: reciprocal, mutual and asymmetric trust, with the aim of isolating the research, evidence and limitations underpinning the reciprocal perceptions between leader and followers. The chapter will then briefly introduce trust, its definition and the referents of trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). It will then review a number of antecedents of trust in leader and then highlight the benefits of leader-follower trust for employees, teams and the organisations. Lastly, the chapter will conclude by identifying the limitations associated with a social exchange perspective of trust in leader and uncovering the importance of identity in the creation of strong dyadic bonds.

4.2 Approaches in Interpersonal Trust Research

Korsgaard, Brower and Lester (2015) identified three diverse approaches in which

dyadic trust between the leader and follower has been explored in the literature: reciprocal, mutual and trust asymmetry.

Reciprocal trust research studies view trust as a unidirectional phenomenon, whereby the trust one party has in the other is believed to influence the other party's trust (Korsgaard, Brower & Lester, 2015). This approach has its foundations in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which suggests that individuals might differ in their initial levels of trust but that repeated interactions between the trustor and trustee will ultimately achieve a trust equilibrium, resulting in similar levels of trust. It is through these interactions that the two parties develop some sort of judgement about the integrity, benevolence and capability of the other party (Blau, 1964; Glaeser, Laibson, Scheinkman, & Soutter, 2000; Mayer et al., 1995; Serva et al., 2005). Empirical studies of reciprocal trust show that individuals' trust levels in intimate relationships are positively correlated (Butler, 1986; Shallcross & Simpson, 2012). At an organisational level, a leaders' trust in followers and subordinate trust in leader as well as leaders' trustworthiness in subordinate and subordinate trustworthiness in leader were also found to correlate, although these correlations weren't as strong as those in intimate relationship studies (Brower et al., 2009). Finally, trust between work partners was mediated by cooperative behaviours, such as job autonomy, when leaders conferred job autonomy to their follower, such trusting behaviour was reciprocated by subordinates with trust towards the leader (Seppala, Lipponen, Pirttila-Backman, & Lipsanen, 2011).

Mutual trust, on the other hand, is defined as "the mutual confidence that no party to an exchange will exploit the other's vulnerability" (Sabel 1993, p 1133). Kramer (1999) has

examined mutual trust in diverse contexts and indicated that, when people share a similar social context, trust between the parties will converge as the social context is viewed as being a unifying driver. For example, rules within the context can provide guidelines of behaviour that if they are perceived as being fair (e. g. fair hiring, promotions) can be conducive to trust (Weibel, 2010). Drawing from SIT, similar cultural values (Armstrong & Yee, 2001), and demographic similarities create a safe and familiar environment which lead to higher trust within the dyadic relationship (Glaeser et al., 2000; Schuh, Van Quequebeke, Keck, Goritz, De Cremer & Xin, 2018). Little research exists in the management literature on the impact mutual trust has on leader-follower relations. An exception is Kim, Wang, Chen, (2018) who found that increased mutual trust between leader and follower has a positive effect on employee task performance and employees' interpersonal facilitation suggesting that further research in this area may facilitate our understanding of how trust and felt trust between a dyad can impact work outcomes.

Finally, trust asymmetry studies may vary in direction, where both parties may experience similar levels of trust leading to complete trust symmetry or they may experience divergent levels of trust leading to complete asymmetry (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Tomlinson et al., 2009). Generally, trust symmetry is beneficial within a dyadic relationship as behaviours are predictable; whereas trust asymmetry limits the beneficial effects of trust (Tomlinson et al., 2009). When the leader's trust toward the team and the teams trust toward the leader are similar, then team performance is higher (Brower et al. 2009; Carter & Mossholder, 2015; De Jong & Dirks, 2012). Despite trust asymmetry research still being at its infancy, the research generally concludes that trust symmetry is more beneficial than trust asymmetry for the

attainment of positive organisational outcomes.

The research programme utilises reciprocal measures of trust as it is the most theoretically robust approach used in the management literature (Dirk & Ferrin, 2002; Gao et al. 2011; Gillespie, 2012; Luo, 2002; Smith & Barclay, 1997; Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2009). Reciprocal trust research has been criticized for generally using a follower-centric approach to assess followers' trust in leader, which assumes that followers' characteristics do not affect leaders' behavioural choices (Dass & Kumar, 2011; De Jong & Dirks, 2012; Korsgaard, Brower & Lester, 2015; Mayer et al., 1995). Follower-centric approaches explore how the effects of leadership styles or leaders' dispositional tendencies and behavioural characteristics impact followers' behaviour, specifically their identity, their performance levels and trust towards leader (Epitropaki et al., 2017; Gillespie et al. 2004; Lord & Brown, 2001; 2004). The embeddedness of the follower-centric approach in understanding employees' trust in leader is evident in the antecedent section of this review, where a limited amount of research has focused on how employees dispositional tendencies, behaviours and attitudes impact leaders' trust towards the employee (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017).

The research programme diverges from reciprocal trust studies suggesting that perceptions of mutual identity impact employees trust in leader, and therefore moves away from the strong follower-centric perspective found in reciprocal trust research. SET posits that trust is developed through repeated interactions between two parties that will ultimately achieve a trust equilibrium. In contrast, the present research programme argues that leader-

follower mutual identification is an important precursor of trust that will consequently facilitate future quality exchanges. The following section will briefly introduce interpersonal trust by defining and discussing the referents of trust.

4.3 Interpersonal Trust

Interpersonal trust is defined in the present research programme as “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intention or behaviour of another” (Rousseau et al., 1998, p 395). This definition of trust suggests that trust could only arise under two specific conditions: risk and interdependence. The first condition, *risk* (Williamson, 1993), is a necessary condition for trust to exist, as trust would not be required if actions could be taken with complete certainty or no possibility of loss. The second, *interdependence*, is crucial, as trust would not be necessary if one party could achieve a specific goal without relying on another party.

Empirical evidence has revealed that the effects of interpersonal trust on employee outcomes differ depending on the referent upon which trust is placed (Colquitt et al., 2007). Trust needs to be directed towards an identified referent; generally, either an individual (interpersonal trust), a group or team (team trust) or a firm or entity (organisational trust) (Fulmer, & Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer, & Ostroff, 2017). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) suggest that leaders who work in direct contact with subordinates affect the employee on a daily basis through operational decision making, whereas top management affect the individual employee somewhat more remotely by creating new policies and strategic decisions which guide the organisational culture (Chughtai, & Buckley, 2013; Fulmer, & Ostroff, 2017; Mayer &

Gavin, 2005).

Immediate supervisors, the referent of interest in this research programme, are the most direct link employees have to the organisation as they are responsible for voicing subordinates' concerns to top management as well as reporting back to subordinates on strategic decisions made by top management. Additionally, leadership theory recognises that trust plays a more important role when the referent of trust is in close contact with the subordinate, as close relationships often involve higher levels of interdependence and risk. Hence, subordinates are more likely to be vulnerable when relating to their immediate supervisor than top management, reinforcing the importance of trust in such dyadic relationship (Dirks, 2000; Fulmer, & Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer, & Ostroff, 2017; Lance, Johnson, Gavin, Gooty, & Bradley, 2010; Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

The present thesis focuses specifically on the trust relationship developed between a subordinate and their immediate supervisor, as such relation is fundamental for successful work relationships and positive work outcomes (Lau, Lam, & Wen, 2013; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Dirks & Ferrin, 2000; Gillespie & Mann, 2004). However, empirical research on both the immediate supervisor and top management will be reviewed, as the latter overlaps considerably with general leadership theory. In the following section the main antecedents of trust between a leader and follower will be reviewed.

4.4 Trust Antecedents of Leader-Follower

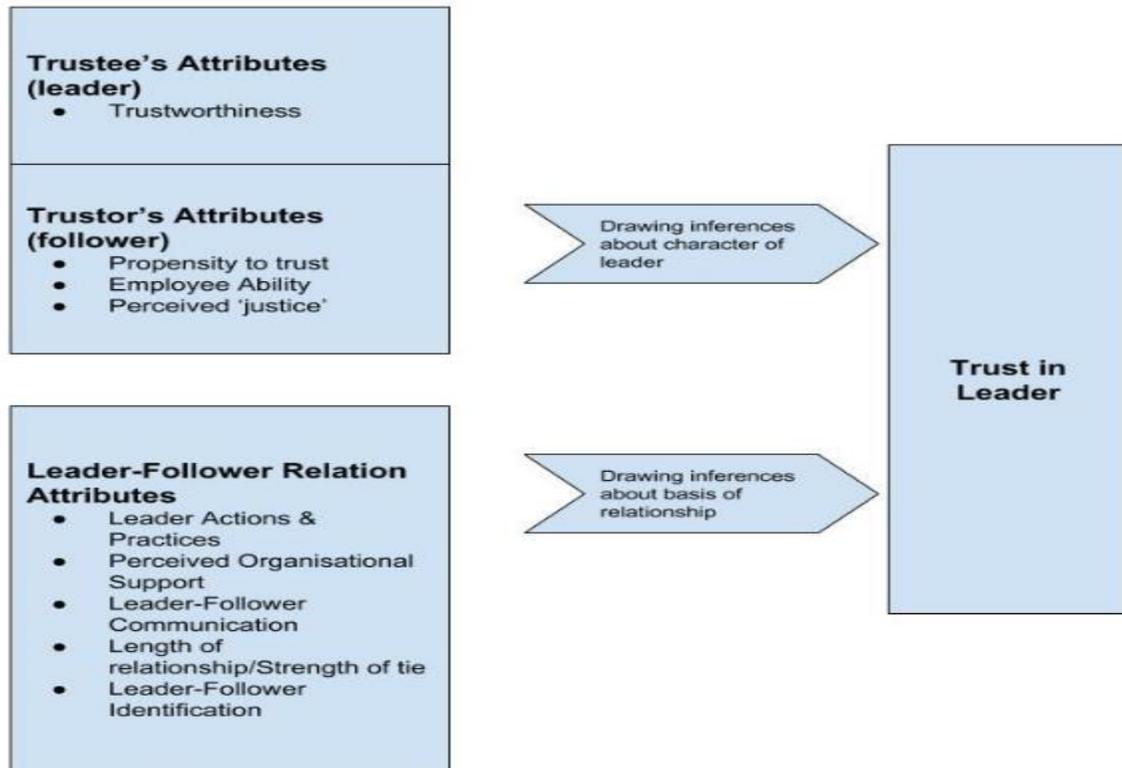
Two diverse theoretical perspectives offer an explanation on how trust develops between a leader and follower. The first focuses on the nature of the relationship between the

leader and follower, referred to as the 'relationship-based perspective' (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Supporters of the relationship-based perspective posit that trust is developed through the social exchange between leader and follower, and through this the quality of the relationship is established by both parties (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). The second theoretical 'character-based perspective' (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), focuses on followers' perception of the leader character and how this impacts the follower's sense of vulnerability (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995). This perspective argues that followers' inferences on leaders' integrity, fairness and ability, will ultimately have consequences on followers work behaviour and attitudes (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Research in this area has investigated trustees' characteristics (Mayer et al., 1995), perceptions of leader characteristics (Oldham, 1975) and leaders' behaviours (Jones, James, & Bruni, 1975). Both relationship-based and character-based perspectives will be reviewed as possible antecedents of trust, paying particular attention to all relevant precursors of leader-follower trust development.

The following two sections (4.3.1 & 4.3.2) open by discussing employees' inferences about character of leader by looking at both trustors' attributes and trustees' attributes. Following section 4.3.3 will discuss employee inference about the basis of the relationship with leader, by looking at leader-follower relationship attributes. Figure 8 was developed predominantly by using Dirks' and Ferrin's (2002) antecedent model of trust in leader and by summarising the antecedents of trust in leader discussed in the literature (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; ; Foddy & Yamagishi, 2009; Kramer, Hanna, Wei, & Su, 2000; Mayer et al. , 1995; Gillespies & Mann, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, &

MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Figure 8. Antecedents of Employees' Trust in Leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002, p613)



The antecedents of interpersonal trust have predominantly been explored within the context of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Mayer et al., 1995; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012) rather than social identity theory (Giessner & Van Knippenberg, 2008; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Jehn & Mannix, 2001), limiting the understanding of the development of leader-follower trust on only one dominant theoretical framework. Moreover, the embeddedness of the follower-centric approach is evident in this section, where employees' perceptions of leaders' attitudes and behaviours are believed to influence leader-follower trust development. The research programme seeks to add to the antecedents of trust by exploring how leader-follower mutual perceptions impact trust, through a less dominant

theoretical framework, social identity theory.

4.4.1 Trustee's Attributes (Leader)

The following section will discuss leader's attribute (trustworthiness) that influences employees' choice to trust or not to trust their leader.

4.4.1.1. Leaders Trustworthiness

Mayer et al. (1995) introduced a model of trust which not only examined trust as a dyadic process within organisations, but also began to differentiate trust from possible antecedents, where both the importance of the characteristics of the trustee as well as the disposition of the trustor were recognized. In their model perceived trustworthiness, i.e. an attribute of the trustee, and propensity to trust, i.e. an attribute of the trustor, are both conceived as precursors of trust.

Trustworthiness was differentiated from trust by Hardin (2006), who suggested that trustworthiness is a moral issue while trust is not. McEvily (2003) argued that the distinction between the two concepts lies in the fact that trustworthiness represents actual intentions, motives and competencies, while trust represents perceptions of the same phenomena. According to Mayer et al. (1995), the trustworthiness concept is instead made up of three trustworthiness dimensions (ability, benevolence, and integrity) which affect the trustee's or trustor's choice to engage in risky cooperative behaviour.

Ability is defined as "that group of skills, competencies and characteristics that enable a party to have influence in some specific domain" (Mayer, 1995, p 717). An effective leader

should be viewed as being able to ensure direction and structure for subordinates. A leader's ability to give direction depends on how knowledgeable the leader is of followers' skills, abilities, contextual circumstances and his/her competence within their role (Hackman, 2002). Leaders who are perceived by followers as being competent are generally more trusted than their less competent counterparts (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). This allows competent leaders to successfully guide subordinates through organisational goals and tasks (Gillespie & Mann, 2004). Ability, is however, domain specific as the trustee might show diverse levels of competence in diverse technical areas. Hence, the trustee can afford the trustor's trust in certain work-related areas and hinder the trustor's trust in a different domain (Zand, 1972).

Benevolence refers to genuine care subordinates perceive from their leader. Leaders' interest can be displayed by providing subordinates with training opportunities and appropriate rewards (Korsgaard et al., 2002). Followers reciprocate to caring leaders by working longer hours and engaging in extra role behaviours (Caldwell, Hayes, Bernal, & Karri, 2008; Hackman, 2002) and by putting organisational goals before personal goals (Rosen & Jerdee, 1977).

Finally, integrity is defined as "the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable" (Mayer et al., 1995, p719). Subordinates judge leaders' integrity by comparing his/her behaviour with previous behaviours, reputation and leaders' consistency between word and action (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumba, 2005). Leaders can show integrity by being accountable, by sharing value congruence with their subordinates and by being perceived as treating subordinates fairly (Burke, Sims, Lazzara & Salas, 2007). Leader fairness towards subordinates and employees' perceptions of leaders

procedural, distributive and interactional justice are also an important element in leader integrity and therefore in employees likelihood to trust the leader (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Colquitt et al., 2012; Colquitt, & Zipay, 2015; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Mayer & Davis, 1999). Furthermore, follower's trust in leader is established when leaders involve subordinates in participative decision making, allowing followers to voice their opinions and concerns in a procedurally fair manner (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Mayer, & Gavin, 2005). In contrast, leaders who engage in unfair behaviours, such as breaching integrity by for example breaking the psychological contract, are less likely to be trusted by subordinates (Restubog, Zagenczyk, Bordia, Bordia, Chapman, 2015). Finally, interactional fairness is generally attributed to one's direct leader rather than an indirect leader, as direct leaders are generally in control of processes, practices and goals that need to be implemented within teams as well as guiding subordinates' behaviour by offering feedback (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Haynie, Mayer, & Gavin, 2005; Mossholder, & Harris, 2016).

In sum, if a leader shows high levels of ability, benevolence and integrity, the individual is deemed to be highly trustworthy. Nevertheless, these three dimensions are independent but related constructs that can vary independently. Moreover, according to Mayer et al. (1995), these three characteristics of trustworthiness are also influenced by the context. For instance, changes in top management can influence the way individuals perceive a situation and their relation to a specific actor.

The Mayers et al. (1995) model is not without limitations and has indeed been criticised for portraying the trustor as a passive actor who makes trust decisions as a response to external

stimuli. Simpson (2007) offered an alternative dyadic trust model, which includes both an affective and a proactive role for both parties in the relationship. However, this model has only been explored in the context of close interpersonal relationships and has yet to be applied in organisational settings.

Gillespie (2003) criticizes the manner in which trust scholars have empirically used trustworthiness as a proxy for interpersonal trust. She argues that trustworthiness is a separate construct to trust and does not involve either risk or interdependence thus is not an acceptable proxy for trust. As a solution, Gillespie (2003) developed a construct which captured both interdependence and risk, which she refers to as reliance-based trust and disclosure-based trust. Reliance is defined as “relying on another’s skills, knowledge, judgements or actions including delegating and giving autonomy”, while disclosure is defined as “sharing work-related or personal information of a sensitive nature” (Gillespie, 2012, p183). Thus, although Mayers et al.’s (1995) model of trust has brought insightful knowledge into the trust literature, newer conceptualizations of trust have emerged.

The following section will review followers’ attributes that impact the way they draw inferences about leaders’ character.

4.4.2 Trustor’s Attributes (Follower)

The dispositional tendency to trust, also known as propensity to trust has been discussed as a central characteristic of the trustor, whereas employees’ ability and employee perception of leaders’ justice have been less explored qualities. Below, these attributes of the trustor will be reviewed.

4.4.2.1 Propensity to Trust

Propensity to trust, also referred to as dispositional trust, trait trust or generalized trust, is an enduring and generalized predisposition that does not depend on specific others or a specific context but on genetics and bio-physiological structures (Mooradian, Renzl, Matzler, 2006). Mayer et al. (1995, p 715) defined propensity to trust as the “general willingness to trust others”, where high propensity to trust increases individual’s likelihood to trust “prior to availability of information about the trustee” (Mayer, 1995, p 716). An individual’s predisposition to trust others varies considerably and is generally associated with other dispositional orientations, such as individuals’ belief about human nature and the individual’s trust-related experiences over time (Kramer, 2009; Rotter, 1971).

The relationship between trait trust and state trust has been investigated in several studies in the organisational literature. Evidence suggests that followers with high propensity to trust are more likely to trust their leader regardless of low perceptions of leaders’ trustworthiness (Grant & Sumanth, 2009; Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005). Additionally, scholars have also found a conceptual overlap between propensity to trust and agreeableness, a personality characteristic, which after closer investigation has been accepted as being a facet of trust (Colquitt et al., 2007; Ferguson, & Peterson, 2015; Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005; Mayer et al., 1995; van der Werff & Buckley, 2017). Nevertheless, dispositional trust does not explain the influence of the trustee and the context in which the trust decision is being made (Kramer, 2009; Lewicki et al., 1998). Therefore, organisational theorists have not shown much interest in further understanding such an individual difference (Ferguson, & Peterson, 2015;

McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

4.4.2.2 Employees Ability and Employee Perception of Leader's Justice

Followers who trust their leaders view themselves as possessing a high degree of ability, experience and training. In fact, followers who trust their leaders view themselves as having the ability to work in cohesive groups, receive positive feedback from the leaders and perceive the organisation as not having too many rules (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002, Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer, & Ostroff, 2017). Employees who perceive themselves as having low ability and knowledge, work in less cohesive groups, receive less feedback and feel the organisation is over formalized, tend to trust the leader less (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Additionally, employees' secure attachment style facilitates employees' autonomy which has been linked to be positively related to trust in immediate supervisor (Simmons et al., 2009).

Perceptions of the conditions necessary to engender trust between leader and subordinate might differ due to the nature of the vertical relationship (Shamir & Lapidot, 2003). Werbel and Lopes Henrique (2009) argue that leader trust in follower and follower trust in leader, are promoted by different conditions due to the social distance between the two parties. Due to their position, not only are leaders required to delegate work to subordinates but also need to trust their employees to carry out tasks effectively (Sias & Jablin, 1995). In contrast, subordinate's willingness to trust their leader is more likely to be based on employee's perception of leader trustworthiness and to justice related issues (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Hopkins & Weathington, 2006). Indeed, receptivity, availability, and discreteness are important conditions for building leader trust in employees, while availability,

discreteness, openness, integrity and competence are important building blocks in employees' decision to trust their immediate supervisor (Werbel & Lopes Henrique, 2009).

When interacting with a leader, an employee must repeatedly decide whether to cooperate with the leader or to avoid cooperation with the leader (Lind, 2002). Such a decision is made on whether the employee considers the leader to be trustworthy (Mayers et al. 1995). If the employee considers the leader to be trustworthy then the risk of exploitation seems low (Lind, 2002) and the employee engages in cooperative behaviour towards the leader. However, Van den Bos et al. (1998), argue that a leader's competence, integrity and benevolence are not easily observable qualities. Hence, when employees are faced with trustworthiness uncertainty, they observe whether leaders adhere to rules like consistency, equity, respect and justification (leaders' justice attributes) which are more easily observed (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). When employee feel respected by the leader, not only does it trigger positive emotions in the employee, but it also signals that s/he is valued within the workgroup; whereas when the employee feels treated in a biased manner, it triggers negative emotions and signals that s/he is someone of a questionable status within the group (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Hogg, 2018). The indirect effect of employee perception of leader procedural justice on work outcomes via job engagement was found to be significant when trust in leader was high. The same was not true for distributive justice were trust in leader did not play a role in the mediating model (Hayne, Mossholder, & Harris, 2016). This suggests that perceptions of leader justice might not always be sufficient in creating the cooperation leaders need from their employees to adhere to organisational goals.

In sum, when employees are faced with leader trustworthiness uncertainty, they find comfort in justice related experiences and distress in what they perceive to be unfair experiences. However, not all forms of justice appear to be the answer to followers' trustworthiness uncertainty, further exploration in this area might be necessary. Trust in leader is fundamental for subordinates' successful performance explaining why trust research has mainly focused in understanding how perceptions of leaders' dispositional tendencies, behavioural choices and attitudes impact employee trust formation. The following section will explore leader-follower relation-based attributes that function as antecedents of trust. It will be followed by a review of the consequences of trust.

4.4.3 Leader- Follower Relationship Attributes

According to trust scholars, followers not only observe leader's characteristics (section 4.4.1) but also draw inferences on the nature of the relationship between leader and follower by observing leaders' attitudes and practices (Dirks, 2000; Dirks, 2006; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017). Diverse leadership styles have been thought to facilitate employees trust in leader, thereby becoming important precursors of trust. Moreover, other attributes such as, leaders' action and practices, perceived organisational support, leader-follower communication, length of the relationship, tie strength and identification with leader have also been associated as important prerequisites of trust in leader.

The following section will review five leader-follower relationship-based attributes that research has established as being central to trust development. These are: leader actions and practices, perceived organisational support, leader-follower communication, tie strength,

leader-follower identification.

4.4.3.1 Leader Actions and Practices

The relationship between leadership style and trust has been extensively explored in the trust literature and scholars have identified diverse leadership styles as possible antecedents of trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Pillai et al., 2003; Gillespies & Mann, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990). For example, transformational and charismatic leadership styles are considered the most dominant recent models of effective leadership (House & Shamir, 1993, Antonakis, 2017; Nasra & Heilbrum, 2016) and have been argued to strongly predict trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Pillai et al., 2003; Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2009; Wang, Qian, Ou, Huang, Xu, & Xia, 2016). Moreover, the relationship between trust and other leadership styles (i.e. operant leadership, consultative leadership, authentic leadership, servant leadership, ethical, path-goal leadership, leader-member-exchange etc.) have also been explored in the trust and leadership literature, bringing further insight into how leaders' actions can affect followers' trust levels (Greenleaf, 1977; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Korsgaard et al., 1995; Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

The research programme focuses on how mutual dyadic identification impacts trust relations between two parties rather than how leadership style influences employees' trust of leader. Hence, in the present review the relationship between leadership styles and trust will not be further explored but will focus on understanding general aspects of leadership that enhance followers' trust.

4.4.3.2 Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived organisational practices such as caring for employees' well-being and acknowledging employees' contribution to organisational success have also been found to strongly predict trust in the leader (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Halbesleben, & Wheeler, 2015; Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis, 2017; Treadway et al., 2004). A cooperative and supportive organisational context induced by cooperative organisational values and a reward system that encourages teamwork promotes trust between co-workers, whereas a competitive organisational context induced by competitive organisational values which rewards individual achievements strengthens face-to-face trust interactions between co-workers (Hill et al., 2009; Tabak & Hendy, 2016). Reward structures offered by the leader were found to foster interpersonal trust when a common goal was shared by the two parties (Ferrin & Dirks, 2003).

4.4.3.3 Leader-Follower Communication

Social exchange theory posits that knowledge sharing and information exchange are important precursors of trust formation as it is through communication that individuals gather information about the other party (Hill et al., 2009). In the work place communication can occur through diverse channels, such as face to face communication, phone calls and emails. In initial interactions, face to face communication compared with online communication appears to be the channel through which stronger trust bonds are built (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1998). Nevertheless, over time and after a successful initial interaction the channel used to communicate does not seem to affect trust, as by this stage individuals sufficient trust

information about the other party (Porter, & Perkins-Williamson, 2008; Naquin & Paulson, 2003). Employees' open communication is often referred to as employees' voice (Hirschman, 1970). Voice research suggests that employees who trust their leaders are more likely to speak up about organisational concerns and solutions compared employees who do not trust the leaders (Detert & Burris, 2007; Lee, Choi, & Youn, 2016). Moreover, when leaders enable followers' voice and followers' expression of emotion it enhances knowledge sharing among subordinates and increases followers' trust to leader (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Lee, Gillespie, Mann & Wearing, 2010). Employees' trust in the leader does not always prompt employees' voice behaviour as leaders might be viewed as being capable of maintaining a favourable work environment without employees' suggestions being heard (Gao et al., 2011). However, communication appears to be influential after a violation has occurred. Sincere apologies and time as well as quality of past relationship are weighted as strongly when the trustor is deciding on whether to rebuild the trust bond (Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2004). The effect of the apology will also depend on the type of violations, where competence violations rather than integrity violations appear to be more successfully repaired (Kim et al., 2004; Gillespie & Siebert, 2018). In sum, communication is important in developing, maintaining and repairing trust between leader-follower.

The research programme views employees' voice as a consequence of leader-follower trust rather than as an antecedent of trust. Social identity theory, posits that trust between individuals that identify with each other develops by default, suggesting that knowledge sharing is not necessary for trust development. Therefore, in the research programme, employees' voice (see Chapter 5) is viewed as a consequence of leader-follower trust, through which

further commonalities can be uncovered.

4.4.3.4 Length of Relationship and Tie strength

The longer the relationship between two parties, the more it facilitates a deeper development of trust owing to the level of familiarity acquired (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Longer relationships allow both parties to gather information about previous interactions and outcomes, which if positive create stronger and deeper trust bonds (Burke et al., 2007).

Strength of tie is defined as “the combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimacy (mutual confiding), and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie” (Granovotter, 1973, 1361) is considered in the social exchange framework to lead to greater knowledge exchange (Hansen 1999; Szulanski 1996) and creative thinking (Sosa 2011). In relation to trust, Levin (2004) showed that trust mediated the relationship between strong ties and receipt of useful knowledge. In relation to social identity theory, Dokko, Kane and Tortoriello (2014) show that tie strength can moderate the impeding effect of a strong team identity. Specifically, Dokko et al. (2014) found that strong team identity provides communication with workers on other teams less generative of creative ideas; whereas identification with an over reaching superordinate team enhances creativity. In the present research model, tie strength is explored as a moderator of the relationship between leader-follower identification and trust. Building on social identity theory the present research model proposes that leader-follower identification will have a direct effect on trust. It is however acknowledged that leader-follower dyads within the organisation will interact with each other at diverse degrees, either through strong or weak ties. Therefore, the research model suggests

that the strength of tie between leader and follower might uncover similarities between the dyad that will affect the direct relation between leader-follower identification and trust, similarly to what has been proposed by Dokko et al. (2014).

4.4.3.5 Leader-Follower Identification

Social identity theory argues that in-group members attribute positive characteristics such as honesty, cooperativeness and trustworthiness to affiliates of the same social group (Antonakis, 2017; Hosmer, 1995; Kramer & Lewicki, 2010; Lewicki & Bunker, 1995), what Brewer (1996) calls “depersonalized” trust towards other in-group members. Depersonalized trust is established by (a) the awareness of a shared category of membership, and (b) the awareness of what that shared membership entails to the social perceiver. Brewer’s (1996) hypothesis suggests a link between psychological salience of in-group members and willingness to trust those in-group members, which has received empirical support (Brewer, 2008; Foddy & Yamagishi, 2009; Kramer, Hanna, Wei, & Su, 2000). Foddy and Yamagishi (2009) explain the foundation of depersonalized trust through two possible mechanisms: (1) the stereotype based trust hypothesis, where stereotypes of in-group members are generally more positive than out group members and 2) the expectation of generalized reciprocity hypothesis, where in-group members have an expectation of indirect reciprocity within the boundaries of shared identity (Yamagishi & Kiyonari, 2000; Yuki, Maddux, Brewer, & Takemura, 2005). This supports the research hypotheses of this research programme, as it is argued that leader-follower identification by default results in leader-follower trust, explained by the depersonalized trust individuals feel toward other in-group members.

Stereotype trust research shows that leaders of family businesses rely more on family-member employees than non-family member employees as a family-member employee is viewed as being more similar to the self. Non-family member employees are more likely regarded as less similar and thus possessing more negative qualities and considered less worthy of trust (Davis, Allen & Hayes, 2010; Tanis & Postmes, 2005).

From a follower perspective, leaders are more likely to be trusted when they are perceived as being similar to the self (Huang & Lun, 2006) and as sharing comparable values to their followers (Bigley & Pearce, 1998; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000). Transformational and authentic leaders influence subordinates by connecting with their self-concept which consequently makes subordinates values and beliefs more relatable to those of the leader (Avolio et al., 2004). The success of such leaders resides in creating a united identity with their followers by accentuating followers' growth and openly discussing leader and follower limitations. Therefore, leaders' values such as directness, caring about employees' career progress, transparency, honesty, fairness and integrity are all examples of values that enable followers to connect to their leader, even in the absence of incentives, which reflects the generalized reciprocity hypothesis (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Foddy & Yamagishi, 2009). Additionally, identification-based trust is higher when there is high perceived congruence between personal values and group values, suggesting that organisational identity-based trust consists of having positive expectations and associations with others (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995; 1996).

Organisations tend to be highly differentiated social systems with multiple subgroups

(teams) to which the subordinate can identify (Kramer, 1999). Therefore, subordinates hold a number of identities which are aligned to the diverse roles they play within the organisation. Consequently, roles also provide a basis for assessing the role occupants' trust related motives and capabilities. "We trust engineering and believe that engineers are trained to apply valid principles of engineering" (Dawes, 1994, p24). Therefore, the strength of trust on the role (engineer) is based on beliefs and knowledge about what the role occupancy implies or means. Thus, employees can adopt a presumptive trust to leaders, assuming that by being in a leadership role they have the competence and knowledge to carry out the duties required in that specific role (Kramer, 1999). However, such role-based trust can be fragile especially when leaders are facing novel situations or changes within the organisation which can blur the leader's role (Webb, 1996). In contrast to role behaviour trust, rule based trust is not predicted on the ability of members to predict others trust-related behaviours but is based on a collective understanding of the structure of rules guiding both the individual's and others' conduct (also called presumptive trust) (March,1994). It is through rule-based trust that organisations function without the need for monitoring their employees constantly. This not only reduces organisational costs but allows employees to feel trustworthy and valued by the organisation, which consequently creates positive expectations on the honesty and trustworthiness of other organisational members (Miller, 1992). Organisation survival depends on the ability to create stable perceptions of trust among organisational members, where leaders play a vital role in the trust building process (Kramer, 1999).

Identification between leader and follower is central in the present research programme. Perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity between leader and follower are

believed to lead to interpersonal trust. It is considered that individuals with similar level of proactivity will identify more with each other as increased identification enables individuals to feel as part of the same in-group. Identification-based trust, therefore, develops as in-group members are more capable of understanding each other's needs, choices and preferences (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). In the present thesis, quality of exchanges between parties are believed to depend on the level of identification between the dyad, thus identification is seen as an important predictor of trust.

In sum, a number of factors contribute to the development of trust between leader and follower such as the extent of communication, the length and strength of tie and identification. Building on social identity theory, the present research programme suggests that leader-follower identification is the main building block for identification to occur. Leader-follower communication, tie strength and length of the relationship are instead considered to enhance identification after identification has occurred by further uncovering commonalities. This section has concluded the antecedent section of trust and now reviews the consequences of trust.

4.5 Consequences of Trust

Trust within organisations has been associated with a number of positive organisational outcomes, not only at an individual level but also at a collective level (Kramer, 1999; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017). As social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) suggests, creating a sense of identity within the organisation which will lead employees to engage in a number of cooperative and altruistic behaviours with the aim of not only reaching

organisational goals but also promoting well-being among all staff members (Tyler & DeGoey, 1996). Furthermore, trusting organisational leaders, allows leaders to work effectively without having to always justify their decisions to subordinates, as it is assumed that any action taken by the leader is benefitting the organisation as a whole (Haynie, Mossholder, & Harris, 2016).

Trust in the leader reduces the burden and amount of time leaders need to monitor their employees, which enhances subordinates' perception of being trusted and can reduce organisational costs by their leaders. Feelings of reciprocal trust between leader and employee strengthen the trust relationship within the dyad, enhancing cooperation and organisational innovation (Hosmer, 1995; Ferrin et al., 2007; Rousseau et al., 1998). Leader-employee trust has a positive effect on employees' performance, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction and employees' commitment to the leader's decision, as well as reducing turnover (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Colquitt et al., 2012). Furthermore, research has also linked trust to other positive organisational outcomes such as: sales and profits and to employees' prosocial motivation (Davis et al., 2000; Grant & Sumanth, 2009).

A leader's job involves making decisions, guiding, assisting and giving performance feedback to their employees. Such practices are enhanced when employees trust their leader as it gives employees a sense of safety regarding their vulnerable position (Rich, 1997). On the other hand, low levels of trust in the leader can divert employees' energy into protecting themselves rather than focusing on their job performance (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Employees who don't trust their leader are more likely to quit their job as they might fear their leader's intentions (Dirk & Ferrin, 2002).

Zand (1972) posit that trust between two parties also enhances communication as individuals are less likely to discuss issues with someone they do not trust. Communication is therefore not only an antecedent of trust but also an important consequence of a trusting relationship. Bottom-up communication is specifically important within organisations to support leaders in making adjustments on things that need to be changed and promote those that work (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). Additionally, interpersonal trust has been associated with employees' feedback seeking behaviours from their leader (Hays & Williams, 2011) and employees' willingness to speak-up regardless of the risk associated with up-ward voice (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). As a result, knowledge-sharing is also a key component of learning, which without the presence of trust would put individuals at interpersonal risk (Edmondson, Bohmer, & Pisano, 2001). In the present research, in contrast to the social exchange view as previously discussed, it is considered that identity matching between leader and employee will enhance trust and consequently knowledge sharing. Therefore, in the present thesis communication is conceptualized as a consequence of trust rather than an antecedent of trust.

Trust in the leader has also been studied as a possible mediator and moderator of various work behaviours. Trust in the leader was found to mediate the relationship between leadership perception and voting behaviour (Pillai, Williams, Lowe, & Jung, 2003) and to mediate the relation between voice and organisational commitment (Farndale, Van Ruiten, Kelliher, & Hope-Hailey, 2011). Trust in leader also has a moderating effect between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, work stress and stress symptoms (Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010) and between procedural fairness and cooperation (De Cremer & Tyler, 2007) In

addition, empowering leadership was found to moderate the relationship between leader trust and employees voice (Gao, Janssen, & Shi,2011). In the present thesis, identification between the leader and follower are considered to have a direct link to trust in leader. However, trust in leader is also deemed to mediate the relationship between leader-follower identification and employee's voice and silence.

In sum, trust in leader has important consequences in the leader-follower relation and in the organisation as a whole, which justifies scholars' interest in this specific area of the literature. The following section will justify the use of social identity in the present research programme and highlight the limitations of social exchange theory.

4.6 SIT as Theoretical Framework of Present Study

Building on SIT, the present research suggests that trust is formed after social identification has occurred. Specifically, it is suggested that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity result in dyadic identification which is a precondition to trust formation. For positive trust to develop and be maintained both parties must view and categorize each other as in-group members, sharing similar core values, traits and beliefs. Once trust is formed, individuals of the same in-group will communicate and share experiences to strengthen their sense of belonging to the group, leading to unconditional trust among in-group members. The resulting unconditional trust not only gives individuals a sense of belonging and purpose but also enhances their self-worth, self-esteem and positive affect towards the self and other in-group members. In-group identity is however susceptible to environmental changes and therefore needs to constantly adapt to new circumstances. Through interpersonal

communication and observation in-group members' identities modify to effectively respond to circumstances and maintain loyalty within the in-group. Finally, trust between in-group members is only breached when an individual leaves the in-group to join the out-group.

SET, in contrast, posits that it is through positive social exchanges, therefore through communication and positively responding to good deeds received that trust between parties is developed. Consequently, SET views communication as an antecedent of trust rather than as a consequence of trust as suggested by SIT. Furthermore, according to SET trust towards a party with whom an individual shares similar identity can lead to unconditional trust within the dyad as proposed by SIT. In accordance to SET, it is through trust that positive organisational outcomes and job satisfaction are achieved. However, SET does not discuss whether a person's sense of belonging, sense of self-worth and positive affect derives from such trusting relationship. Finally, in SET trust is breached when the psychological contract between parties is broken or when good deeds are not returned. Whereas, in SIT trust is breached when an individual abandons a previous in-group membership. Table 5 summarises the main differences between SIT and SET, as discussed above.

Table 5. SIT vs. SET

	Social Identity Theory	Social Exchange Theory
	Tajfel (1978)	Blau (1964)
Pre-condition to trust	Identification	Social Exchange
Conditions for Trust Formation	1) Trust develops through social categorization, where in-group members are considered as being worthy of trust 2) Trust develops through social attraction, where individuals perceived as having similar trait to the self are more trusted	Trust develops through positive exchanges
Communication	Communication is a consequence of trust formation	Communication is a precursor of trust formation
Identification leads to...	1. Unconditional trust 2. Is generally shared by in-group members 3. Changes and evolves in response to environment and out-group members	1. Sharing values can lead dyads from conditional to unconditional trust 2. From reliance to disclosure
Trust breach is caused by...	Joining out-group	1. Breaking psychological contract 2. Not responding to good deed received
Consequences of trust	1. Positive affect towards self and others 2. Self-worth	1. Positive organisational outcomes 2. Job satisfaction

An example of how SIT theory and SET diverge can be noted by examining an influential leadership theory, leader-member exchange theory (LMX) (Brower & Schoorman, & Tan, 2000). At first, these LMX theory and SIT might appear to be similar as both theories argue that leaders develop unique bonds with each subordinate (Gomez & Rosen, 2001). Nevertheless, in LMX theory, these unique bonds are presumed to be developed through social exchange processes

rather than through a leader-follower identification process. Leader-member exchange theory (Graen, 1995) emphasises the two-way relation between leader and follower, suggesting that high quality exchanges between the two parties promote positive employees work experiences; whereas low quality exchanges develop fewer cooperative relations. Therefore, trust is dependent on the quality of the exchange and occurs only after numerous exchanges. Conversely, in SIT leaders develop unique relations with each of their subordinates, as characteristics of each employee within the team will trigger diverse responses from the leader and vice versa, resulting in identity matching or incongruence. Consequently, in SIT trust can develop even before social exchanges occur between parties and is not dependent on the quality of the exchange. The present research programme is not concerned with the quality of exchanges and how ultimately these exchanges impact trust but its aim is to uncover how perceptions of similarity enhance trust development. As a result, social identity theory is conceived as being the appropriate theoretical framework to support the present research programme.

Lee (2016) incorporates both SIT and SET to explain the mediating effect trust in leader and identification with leader have between ethical leadership and employees' taking charge behaviour. According to the author trust in leader develops through social exchanges and it is through those exchanges that trust in leader mediates the relation between ethical leadership and employees taking charge behaviour. On the other hand, the mediating effect that identification with a leader has between ethical leadership and employees' taking charge behaviour is explained through social categorization, therefore through SIT. Such combination of theoretical frameworks is considered a limitation in the present research programme as, as

previously discussed, identification results in trust between parties.

In sum, social identity rather than social exchange forms the central theoretical focus of the present research, whereby identity matching is believed to enhance exchange only after that identity bond has been formed. Therefore, in the present research, not only is identity matching considered to be crucial for future quality exchanges but is also acknowledged as being an important antecedent of trust. The present thesis explores identity matching from an interpersonal angle, including both the leader and follower perspectives; whereas for trust it takes a more common root of investigation by including only followers' trust to leader. Although, it is acknowledged that exclusively including followers' trust in leader is a possible limitation of the present thesis, it is also recognized that mutual identification is an important contribution to the research on the antecedents of trust. In the present research programme, leader-follower mutual identification is considered to be an important building block for trust formation. For this reason, social identity theory rather than social exchange theory was chosen as the theoretical framework supporting the present research model. Additionally, as discussed earlier in chapter 3, social exchange theory has been overused in the management literature and does not lack limitations.

4.7 Conclusion and Direction of Present Research

The present chapter has reviewed interpersonal trust between leader and follower. It has also explained the rationale behind the theoretical framework chosen for the present research programme. The following chapter explores the dependent variables of the present research model, these being affect, voice and silence. Study 1 explores the relationship

between leader-follower identification and trust and how the resulting trust influences affective relations within a dyad. Study 2 explores the relationship between leader-follower identification and trust and how the resulting trust influences employees' choice to voice or remain silent. The chapter will open by first discussing affect (section A) and then discussing voice and silence (section B). The final part of chapter 5 will make an overall conclusion of the literature review of this thesis, before moving into the research design and philosophy chapter.

Chapter 5

Dependent Variables

The aim of chapter 5 is to review the dependent variables of the present research programme. The first part will review the dependent variable of study 1, affect (section A). The second part will review the dependant variable of study 2, voice and silence (section B). The chapter will not be as extensive as a single literature review concept chapter, but will make a case of why affect, voice and silence have been tested as possible outcomes of leader-follower trust congruence. Section A will open by defining affect and exploring affect within the social identity framework. Next, it will review how by eliciting positive emotions from their subordinates' leaders manage to achieve organisational goals. Following, the importance that affect has in dyadic relationships, within the social identity framework will be discussed. Concluding, section A will discuss the research programme positioning in relation to trust and affect. Section B will open by defining voice and silence and explore the antecedents of both constructs. Next it will review employees' motives to speak-up or remain silent with specific focus at how emotions can impact such decision process. Following, the consequences of voice and silence for the employee and the organisation will be reviewed. Concluding, the role that trust in leader plays in employees speaking-up behaviour will be reviewed. Table 6 summarises the topics covered in this chapter.

Table 6. Summary of Topics covered in chapter 5

Section	Topics
Section A	Defining Affect Leadership & Affect SIT, Leadership & Affect SIT, Trust & Affect
Section B	Defining Voice & Silence Employee's Motives to engage in Voice & Silence Antecedents of Voice & Silence Consequences of Voice & Silence

Section A: Affect

5.1 Introducing Affect

The literature on the affective phenomena is a growing field that has seen multiple measures and theoretical perspectives developed. Emotions, moods and core affect have all been used interchangeably in the literature to refer to affect; although a line of demarcation was drawn by researchers to bring clarity to these diverging theoretical concepts and measures (Ashkanasy, & Dorris, 2017; Batson, Shaw, & Oleson, 1992; Beedle, Terry, & Lane, 2005; Dasborough et al. 2008; Watson, Clarke, & Tellegen, 1988).

Cognitive appraisal theory defines emotions “as an organized mental response to an event or entity” (Gooty et al., 2010 p 980). For example, emotions such as anger, fear, jealousy and love, are emotional responses to either negative or positive events. The emotion literature also explores concepts such as emotion regulation (Gross, 1998) and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995).

Moods have been defined as “a diffuse affective state that lacks a clear referent or cause that can be state or trait orientated” (Pirola-Merlo et al. 2002, p 562). Like emotions, moods have a cause but their cause is generally temporally remote (Morris, 1992) and because of this it might not always be easy to identify their source. Additionally, moods are generally longer in duration than emotions yet shorter in duration than trait affect (Fisher, 2000; Frijida, 1986).

Affect refers to the longer lasting positive or negative emotional experiences and is referred to in the literature as state affect (mood) and trait or dispositional affect.

The present research programme focuses on employees’ affective experience which dominant dimensions are differentiated by scholars as positive and negative affect but that have also been found to correspond to affective trait dimensions of positive and negative emotionality (Watson & Clarke, 1992). Positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) are conceptualised in the literature as two related but empirically distinct dimensions (Burke, Brief, George, & Roberson, 1989). High PA is a state of high concentration, high energy and enjoyable engagement, while low PA represents feelings of sadness and lethargy. Conversely, negative affect (now called negative activation) is a state of distress and unpleasant engagement and it elicits a number of aversive moods such as anger, contempt, disgust, fear and nervousness. Low NA, on the other hand, denotes a state of calm and serenity (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Watson (2000) posits that PA and NA function from diverse biological and behavioural mechanisms (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2008). Trait PA and NA roughly correspond to two dominant personality factors extroversion for PA and neuroticism for NA (EffiSEib-Pfeifer, Pugnaghi, Beauducel, & Leue, 2017; Gaudreau, Sanchez, & Blondin; 2006; Watson & Clarke, 1992;

Tellegen, 1985; Thompson, 2007), while low PA and high NA correspond to depression and anxiety (Tellegen, 1985). Individuals with high NA experience more negative emotions (anxiety, guilt, frustration, sadness, distress and worry) compared to high PA individuals and are more sensitive to negative stimuli such as personal mistakes. Finally, high NA has also been linked to counter-productive behaviours (Penney & Spector, 2005), such as: job stress (Moyle, 1995), low job satisfaction (Spector et al. 2007) and lower organisational commitment (Cropanzano, James & Konovsky, 1993).

PANAS is widely used in the literature, however regardless of its popularity, a number of criticisms have been emphasised by scholars (Crawford & Henry, 2004; Diener, Smith, & Fujita, 1995; Mossholder, Kemery, Harris, Armenakis, & McGrath, 1994). First, PANAS includes items that represent a blend of emotions (pride, guilt and shame), moods (irritable, upset and hostility) and affect (distressed, nervous and jittery), while it is debatable whether some of the items (e.g., interested, strong, inspired, attentive and determined) fall into any of these three categories and whether or not they represents emotions (Diener, Smith, & Fujita, 1995). Second, happiness, the core positive emotion is underrepresented, as less aroused mood states are included in positive mood terms (Larsen & Deiner, 1992). Third, PANAS is described as a mood measure yet it is named as an affect scale which suggests that Watson did not differentiate between the two concepts. Fourth, the scale contains high activation poles of PA and NA (scales are unipolar) whereas the underlying dimensions are conceptualised as bipolar (Larsen & Deiner, 1992; Mossholder, Kemery, Harris, Armenakis, & McGrath, 1994). For example, the scale does not measure low activation states such as pleasant states (calmness and serenity) or unpleasant states such as tiredness and fatigue (Watson & Clark, 1992).

In response to these criticisms Watson and Clark (1997), suggested that everyday life is spent in affective states that do not clearly correspond to classic emotions. Therefore, the under representation of happiness terms does not compromise the construct validity of the scale as the variance attributable to specific happiness descriptors are well captured by items in the PA scale. Moreover, the authors argue that, unipolar scales are capable of measuring bipolar dimensions. Watson and Clark (1992) did further investigations to test the validity of the two-factor scale. As previously supported, they found several factors indicating specific negative affect, but unexpectedly found that PA merged as a single dimension. However, further exploration revealed four PA factors: joviality (joyful, excited, and enthusiastic), self-assurance (bold, fearless, strong), attentiveness (attentive alert concentrating) and serenity (calm and relaxed). On the basis of these results a new scale was developed to assess these positive affective states together with the specific negative NA scale, the scale is called PANAS – X (expanded format).

The aim of this section was to define and give the reader an understanding of how affect is conceptualised in the literature, as well as introducing and defining the limitations of the affective measurement scale used in the present research programme. The following section, examines how affect has been conceptualized in the social identity literature

5.2 Leadership and Affect

The importance of affect in organisational settings is well documented in meta-analytic studies (Bratton et al., 2011; Brief & Weiss, 2002; George & Brief, 1992; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Sheard et al., 2011; Tse, & Troth, 2013). Positive affective displays have been positively related to task performance (Barsade, 2002; George, 2000; Parke & Seo, 2017) and have also been

found to be useful in negotiation settings (Van Kleef et al., 2004), sales representatives/client interaction (Grandey, 2000) and managerial processes (Staw & Barsade, 1993).

Leaders' affective displays towards subordinates have been found to be an important predictor of leaders' effectiveness (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010). For example, positive emotions displayed by a charismatic and transformational leaders were reported to stimulate subordinates' positive mood through emotional contagion (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Ashkanasy & Tse; 2000; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Cherulnik, Donley, Wiewel, & Miller, 2001). Transformational leaders utilise positive emotions to motivate and communicate vision to employees (Lewis, 2000), which results in subordinates rating of leadership effectiveness and attraction to leader (Bono & Ilies, 2006). In the leader-member exchange literature, affect is an indicator of the quality of the relationship (Graen & Uhi-bien, 1995; Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016), where individuals who experience negative affect perceive lower quality exchanges and display more cynicism towards the organisation (Davis & Gardner, 2004).

Scholars agree that leaders' positive affect is more effective than leaders' expression of negative affect (Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004; Martin et al., 1993; Troth, Lawrence, Jordan, & Ashkanasy, 2018). Indeed, leaders' display of anger evoked negative affective responses in subordinates and signalled insufficient task progress; whereas leaders' display of happiness evoked positive affective reactions and signalled adequate task progress (Van Kleef, Homan, Beersma, Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, & Damen, 2009; Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2017). A recent study has shown that leaders' positive and negative affective

displays toward subordinates are positively related to employees' upward voice, which is regarded as a positive subordinate behaviour (Liu, Song, Li & Liao, 2017). This finding suggests that further investigation might be needed to understand if different forms of voice (i.e. considerate voice, defensive voice) are triggered depending on the leader's affective display.

The leadership literature has mainly addressed how leaders' affective states are perceived and impact employees' work-related behaviours. However, research has not taken into consideration that followers' affective states could also influence the leader (Damen, van Knippenberg, & van Knippenberg, 2008; Troth, Lawrence, Jordan, & Ashkanasy, 2018). Such gap in the literature calls for further scholar attention in leader-follower affective relation.

In sum, leaders' display of emotion has important consequences on subordinates' feelings towards leader and organisational performance. Specifically, leaders' display of positive affect has been associated to have more positive effects on followers and organisational outcomes than negative affective displays. The following section will explore the relation between leadership and affect under a social identity framework.

5.3 Social Identity Theory, Leadership and Affect

In the social identity literature, affect has been explored at three different levels: intrapersonal, dyadic and group. Intrapersonal affect refers to how a person's affective state influences his/her behaviours. Dyadic affect refers to affect during interactions with others, such as a negotiation process with a leader. Finally, group affect, refers to the emotional convergences within a group (Barsade, 2002; George, 2000). The present research programme

focuses on the relation between leader and follower and as such will only discuss how social identity conceives affect in dyadic relations.

Negative emotions, at a dyadic level, are evoked when self-relevant meaning does not match one's identity standard as, for example, when there is an identity incongruence. Identity congruence between the meaning of one's identity in a certain context and the meaning held in the identity standard, results in positive emotions (Burke, 1991; Burke & Cast, 1997; Stryker, 2007; Tsushima & Burke, 1999). Therefore, negative emotions result when identity meaning falls below the individuals' identity standard and that positive emotions are the result of a match between identity meaning and identity standard, in other word when the individual's identity is confirmed (Stets, 2005).

Affect control theorists argue that when transient impressions are more positive than one's individual identity, an individual is more likely to experience positive rather than negative emotions (Averett & Heise, 1987). The same conclusion was reached by the theory of self-regulated behaviour, which argues that when an individual progresses at an equal pace set by the standard, no emotions are felt; whereas when its higher positive emotions are experienced and when its lower negative emotions are felt (Carver & Scheier, 1990). Negative emotions are therefore not experienced when an individual exceeds their identity standard as the person is receiving self-enhancing information (Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall, & Zhang, 2007). Positive emotional reactions depend on two principles accessibility principle and investment principle.

Accessibility refers to the possibility an individual is given to compare the positive feedback to the way they view themselves. If, for example, a subordinate is given positive

feedback and is immediately asked how they feel, they have no time to access their own self-views and will report positive emotions, as they are simply categorising the feedback as good or bad. Yet, if actors are given the opportunity to compare the feedback received with their own identity standards, then negative emotions might be triggered.

The investment principle suggests that self-verification will emerge if the individual is invested in the self-view. When self-views are uncertain or unimportant, individuals are more inclined towards positivity. When peoples' identity standard is somewhat exceeded, they first experience self-enhancement and then self-verification to the new standard, as self-enhancement is a more powerful motive underlying the self-concept (Stets, 2005).

Leaders, by eliciting positive emotions in their followers, such as pride and happiness, become a more salient part of subordinates' self-identity; whereas when leaders elicit negative emotions such as guilt or shame, will result in followers rejecting and disassociating from leaders, which will lead to negative managerial consequences (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Lord & Hall, 2005; Dasborough et al. 2009, Tee et al. 2013).

Emotionally intelligent leaders also have the ability to help followers deal with negative emotional events and daily frustration, as by doing so, not only will the leader increase employee productivity but will maintain the employee's loyalty to the group (Epitropaki et al., 2017; Harvey et al., 2007; Troth, Lawrence, Jordan, & Ashkanasy, 2018). Hence, it is through emotion that leaders validate their employees, as the emotion felt within the dyad, is pervasive, powerful and can be stronger than the emotion experienced by the individual alone (Mercer, 2014). Although a number of articles have been published in the area of leadership

and emotion (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Burke, 1991; Burke & Cast, 1997; Epitropaki et al.; 2017; Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000; Gooty, Serban, Thomas, Gavin, & Yammarino, 2012) there is a very limited amount of research that focuses on leader/follower emotions under the social identity framework.

The aim of this section was to focus on the importance identity congruence has on employees' affective state. Identification plays an important role in the affective relationship between leader and follower as positive affective displays of leader enhance followers' identification to leader and gives the subordinate a sense of belonging, which will consequently reinforce in-group behaviours that are essential for positive organisational outcomes. Moreover, leaders, have an important role in giving feedback to subordinates on whether the identity standard has or hasn't been met. Therefore, leaders can trigger positive or negative emotions in subordinates that can affect the subordinates' affective state and sense of belonging to the group. This suggests that leaders have a powerful role within a team in developing and maintaining subordinate's identity to the group and leader. The following section will explore how leader-follower trust and affect are conceived under the social identity framework.

5.4 Trust, Affect and Social Identity Theory

From a social identity perspective, leaders, who elicit positive emotions in subordinates, enhance followers' self-image and by doing so reinforce in-group likeability which will ultimately lead subordinates to identify with their leader. In contrast, abusive leadership puts employees' self-image under threat and consequently subordinates detach from the leader,

viewing him/her as an out-group member (Branscombe et al., 1999). Therefore, to maintain in-group identification, group members need to engage in positive behaviours that are applied only to the in-group and denied to the out-group (Grant & Brown, 1995).

Social identity theory posits that individuals or groups who identify with each other are more likely to cooperate, trust and display positive affect (Hogg, 2001; Hogg, 2018). Therefore, social identity theorists, in agreement to the present research model, view trust as a result of identification. However, social identity scholars do not make a clarify if trust is a consequence of positive affect or if trust is an antecedent of positive affect (Voci, 2006). The present research programme views positive affect as a consequence of trust and argues that in-group members identify with each other by default (Tajfel & Turner, 1978) and that positive affect is only expressed after the trust bond has formed to strengthen and maintain the trusting relationship (Niven, et al, 2012).

Interpersonal trust theory has also explored trust as having a cognitive and affective foundation (Lewis & Wiegert, 1985). According to McAllister (1995), affective foundations of trust consist of the emotional bond between parties. Trust is viewed as an emotional investment, where individuals express care and concern towards the other party. In the present research, trust is viewed as relying on reliance and disclosure rather than cognition and affect.

Maintaining trust between leader and followers is crucial to reach organisational goals and reduce turnover (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002, Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). A lack of trust in leader can in fact result in subordinates' disassociating from the leader and the organisation as a whole (Mayers et al, 2005; Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017). Leaders' positive affective displays exert

considerable impact on the group (Van Kleef, Heerdink, & Homan, 2017) not only by maintaining followers trust to leader and in-group identity but also in exerting positive organisational outcomes and employees' job satisfaction (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017).

To summarise, trust and affect are important constructs for effective team and organisational functioning. Based on social identity theory, trust towards a relevant member of a group is likely to develop when the self is categorized at a social level or individual level (Turner, 1982; Hogg, 2001 a). On the other hand, affect serves social functions that evoke complementary actions in others, particularly between leader and follower (Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Van Kleef et al., 2017). However, social identity theory does not clarify how trust and affect relate to each other. The present research programme, based on interpersonal affect regulation research, suggests that trust mediates the relation between leader-follower identification and affective displays.

Section B: Voice and Silence

Section B will focus on theory and research of employees' upward voice and silence, particularly in employees' reason to either voice or remain silent in upward communication. The present research programme suggests that perceptions of similarity between leader and follower will be positively related to trust. Additionally, it is proposed that trust between dyads that perceive each other as being similar, will be positively related to employees' prosocial silence and employees upward voice and negatively related to employees' acquiescent silence and employees' defensive silence. Conversely, a mismatch of perception between leader and

follower will be negatively related to trust which will in turn be positively related to employees' acquiescent and defensive silence and negatively related to employees' upward voice and prosocial silence.

Section B will review both voice and silence literature as they are both core to the present research programme. First, it will define and outline both voice and silence constructs. Next, it will review the antecedents and motives of employees' choice to engage in either voice or silence. In closing, it will report the consequences of both behavioural choices at an organisational level.

5.1 Introduction and Overview

Employee voice has been researched for over five decades and has emphasized the importance of keeping open communication channels within organisations to allow employees to share their opinions, ideas and possible solutions with their peers, teams or leaders (Avery, & Quinones, 2002; Janssen & Gao, 2013; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Morrison, 2014). It is through voice that employees facilitate change and make beneficial adjustments at diverse organisational levels (Deteret & Burris, 2007; Morrison, 2014; Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). However, employees do not always engage in speaking-up behaviour (voice) but refrain from speaking up and intentionally engage in what is known as employees' silence (Milliken & Morrison, 2003). Therefore, in the last two decades, scholars have begun to exert greater research effort to understand the causes and motives of employees' choice to remain silent. Silence research and development is strongly influenced by voice research, therefore the next section will first review voice theory and then review silence theory.

5.2 Voice and Silence

The voice literature contains a variety of terms to describe employee voice behaviour, such as issue selling (Detert & Burris, 2007), whistle blowing (Miceli & Near, 1985), upwards voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), civic virtue (Robinson, 1996), championing (Anderson & Bateman, 2000) and taking charge (Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Howell & Higgins, 1990; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Although these different constructs are not explicitly labelled voice, they all refer to the verbal expression of ideas, opinions, and information with the intention of improving a work-related situation. It is acknowledged that there are some important differences between these constructs, however, there are also some important commonalities.

Diverse definitions of voice constructs have been proposed (see table 6), but a number of commonalities between voice constructs are evident in its definitions. All definitions agree that voice is an act of verbal expression, where a message is conveyed from a sender to a recipient. Voice is also defined as a discretionary behaviour, where individuals choose whether or not to speak up. Voice is constructive in its intent, where the individual speaks up with the intent of bringing about change and improvement. Hence, voice is not simply a way to vent or complain (Greenberg & Edwards, 2009; Morrison, 2011; 2014). Voicing behaviour does not only include speaking up but can also consist of behaviours such as writing emails or memos (Hirschman, 1970). Thus, to be considered voice, the behaviour must be a) openly communicated, b) organisationally relevant, c) focused on influencing the work environment, and d) received by someone inside the organisation (Hirschman, 1970; Van Dyne et al., 2003). In the present review the term voice will be used as an umbrella term for all the diverse voice

constructs discussed in the voice literature. Table 7 summaries the most relevant voice constructs, their definition and their relationship to voice.

Table 7. Definitions of Voice Constructs (Morrison, 2011, p 378)

Constructs	Definition	Relationship to voice
Issue Selling (Ashford et al., 1998; Dutton & Ashford, 1993)	Attempts to call the organisational attention to key trends, development, and events that have implications for organisational performance	A subset of voice, focused specifically on information about organisation-level strategic issues or opportunities
Whistleblowing (Miceli & Near, 1992, Miceli et al., 2008)	The disclosure by organisational members (former or current) of illegal immoral or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to persons or organisations that may be able to effect action	Broader in that it includes not just communication within the organisation, but also externally. Narrower in that it focuses on just information about inappropriate activities
Upward Communication (Athanassiades, 1973; Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974)	The transference of information from lower to higher members in an organisational hierarchy	Broader, as it includes any communication between subordinate and supervisor (task related communication)
Voice as a response to dissatisfaction (Rusbult et al. 1998; Withey & Cooper, 1989)	Any attempt at all to change, rather than escape from, an objectionable state of affairs. Actively and constructively trying to improve dissatisfying conditions	Narrower in that it focus on just "dissatisfying conditions" but broader in that it includes any and all efforts to address the issue of concern
Prosocial Organisational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986)	Behaviour which is performed by an organisational member, directed towards an individual, group or organisation with who s/he interacts while carrying out his/her organisational role and performed with the intention of promoting	Two of 13 identified types of prosocial behaviour reflect voice: suggesting procedural, administrative or organisational improvements and objecting to improper directives, procedures or policies.

Silence and voice are often viewed as polar opposites. Van Dyne, Ang and Botero (2003) proposed that the key feature which distinguishes silence from voice is the employee's "motivation to withhold versus express ideas, information, and opinions about work related issues" (Van Dyne, 2003, p1361). Therefore, it excludes situations where employees engage in

silence because they do not have relevant ideas, information or opinions to share. Van Dyne, Ang and Botero (2003) did not view silence as the absence of voice but emphasized that individuals remain silent based on three motives: resignation, fear and cooperation. More recently, Brinsfield (2013), Knoll and Van Dick (2013), Knoll and Redman (2016) and Prouska and Psychogios (2016) also evidence the different motives behind diverse forms of silence and validate the assumption that silence is not merely a passive response.

Drawing on Pinder and Harlos's (2001) and Hirschman's (1970), Van Dyne, Ang, Botero's (2003) seminal paper introduced two new proactive forms of silence, defensive silence and prosocial silence, and preserved one passive form of silence previously discussed by Pinder and Harlos (2001), acquiescent silence. The main difference between the three constructs is based on the motive driving the behaviour and whether the motive is proactive rather than a passive behaviour. Acquiescent silence is a passive behaviour motivated by the individual being resigned to current unsatisfying work condition (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). On the other hand, defensive silence and prosocial silence are both proactive behaviours. Prosocial silence is motivated by concern for others, while defensive silence is motivated by fear of negative personal consequences that might occur from speaking up.

Table 8 summarises the type of behaviours (passive vs. proactive) and motives driving these three different forms of silence. The table also offers a definition of each form of silence and provides an example of each of the three constructs. Understanding these three diverse forms of silence is central for the present research programme, as these three forms of silence are included in the present research hypotheses. The following paragraph will review the

limitations on how silence research has conceptualized silence and will then focus how diverse motives of silence have recently surfaced in the silence literature (Brinsfield, 2013).

Table 8. Summary of Van Dyne, Ang and Botero (2003, p 1363) Conceptualization of three forms of silence

	Type of Behaviour	Motive	Definition	Example
Acquiescent Silence	Passive	Disengaged (Resignation)	“Withholding relevant ideas, information, or opinions, based on resignation” (Van Dyne et al., 2003, p 1366)	Employee might consider that speaking up won’t make a difference or might keep opinions and information to him/herself, based on low self-efficacy assessments about personal capability to influence the situation
Defensive Silence	Proactive	Self-Protective (Fear)	Withholding relevant ideas, information, or opinions as a form of self-protection, based on fear.” (Van Dyne et al., 2003, p 1367).	An example of defensive silence is the Mum Effect (Rosen & Tesser, 1979). The Mum Effect arises when the individual avoids giving bad news or delays giving bad news to avoid personal discomfort.
Prosocial Silence	Proactive	Other-Oriented (Cooperation, Altruistic)	Withholding work-related ideas, information, or opinions with the goal of benefiting other people or the organisation – based on altruism or cooperative” motives” (Van Dyne et al., 2003, p 1368)	An example of prosocial silence could include withholding confidential information because it is not meant for general discussion.

Brinsfield (2013) highlights three main limitations on how previous silence research has conceptualized and researched employees’ silence. First, previous research assumes that what is understood about speaking up behaviour (i.e., voice) fully applies to intentional silence

(Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Second, research on silence has been primarily conceptual and qualitative in nature (e.g., Deteret & Edmonson, 2005; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Morrison, 2014; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morrison & Milliken, 2003; Milliken & Morrison, 2003; Noelle-Newman; 1974; Van Dyne et al. 2003) although more quantitative research has been published in recent years (Dedahanov & Rhee, 2015, Kirrane, O'Shea, Buckley, Grazi & Prout, 2017; Knoll & Redman, 2016; Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bourantas, 2011; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). Finally, prior research has focused more on the risks of speaking up to the exclusion of other motives for remaining silent (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Brinsfield (2013) acknowledges that prior research has tried to uncover the motives behind individuals' choice to voice or remain silent (Pinder & Harlos, 2001; Van Dyne, Ang, Botero, 2003). However, he argues that there has been no attempt to empirically examine the nature, scope, and implications of different silence motives.

Brinsfield (2013), in contrast to Van Dyne et al (2003), proposed six different dimensions and measures of silence motives. His paper brings an important contribution on the motives behind employees' silence, which he demonstrates are not always due to fear or resignation (Van Dyne et al, 2003). It is important to highlight that silence research is still in its early days and that diverse motives of silence will probably continue to surface in the literature. However, the aim of the next paragraph is to compare and contrast the silence motives proposed by Van Dyne et al. (2003) and Brinsfield with the aim of understanding the differences and the overlaps among the two diverse perspectives.

The six silence constructs proposed by Brinsfield (2013) are: ineffectual silence, relational silence, defensive silence, diffident silence, disengaged silence, and deviant silence (see Table 8 for examples and motives). Brinsfield's (2013) ineffectual and disengaged silence overlaps with the concept of acquiescent silence previously discussed by Van Dyne et al. (2003). The distinction is that Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) acquiescent silence is based on a feeling of resignation due to low self-efficacy, while Brinsfield (2013) disengaged silence is based on a feeling of resignation but not due to low self-efficacy. Moreover, ineffectual silence is not based on a feeling of resignation but on the belief that speaking up will not positively affect the situation (Brinsfield, 2013). Defensive silence refers to the fear of extrinsic consequences associated with speaking up (i.e. losing your job) (Van Dyne et al., 2003; Brinsfield, 2013; Detert & Edmonson, 2011, Milliken et al., 2003). Brinsfield (2013) diffident silence motive overlaps with Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) defensive form of silence as it comprises items related to one's insecurities and uncertainties in regards to a situation, but in contrast to defensive silence its internally focused (i.e. individual might be scared of embarrassing him/herself). Relational silence again appears to be related to previously discussed prosocial silence (Van Dyne et al., 2003), as they both conceptualize this form of silence as an altruistic behaviour. However, in contrast to prosocial silence, relational silence can be based on deeper motives of self-interest. Finally, deviant silence is similar to a pre-existing item introduced by Gruys and Sackett (2003) in an investigation of counterproductive work behaviours, where individuals remain silent to purposely harm another individual. This form of silence does not overlap with any of Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) forms of silence. The aim of this paragraph was to compare and contrast diverse

motives of silence discussed in the literature and to acknowledge that employees remain silent for diverse motives.

Table 8 compares and contrasts Van Dyne, et al's. (2003) and Brinsfield (2013) motives of silence. It also shows the overlap between the two conceptualizations of silence motives.

Table 9. Van Dyne, et al. (2003) and Brinsfield (2013) motives of silence

Van Dyne, Ang & Botero, 2003)	Motives according to Van Dyne, Ang & Botero, (2003)	Motives according to Brinsfield, (2013)	(Brinsfield, 2013)	Examples for (Brinsfield, 2013)
Prosocial Silence	Other-Oriented (Cooperation, Altruistic)	Self-interest	Relational Silence	Individual might remain silent as they don't want to harm a relationship which might be useful to them
Defensive Silence	Self-Protective (Fear)	Externally focused Fear	Defensive Silence	Fear of losing their job
		Internally focused fear	Diffident Silence	Fear of embarrassing him/her self
Acquiescent Silence	Disengaged (Resignation)	belief that speaking up will not positively affect the situation	Ineffectual Silence	belief that speaking up will not be useful to solve an issue at hand
		Disengaged but not due to low-self-efficacy	Disengaged Silence	Individual does not speak up as the issue did not personally affect them
Does not overlap with pre-existing constructs		Counterproductive behaviour	Deviant Silence	An individual remains silent to purposely harm another person

Van Dyne's et al. (2003), three forms of silence will be used in the present research programme. It is acknowledged that Brinsfield (2013) has introduced a newer and more

thorough understanding of employees' motives behind their choice of remaining silent. However, Van Dyne's et al. (2003) construct has been more frequently used (cited by 1282 scholars since 2003) and validated by silence researchers, specifically when analysing the relationship between silence and trust in leader (Dedahanov & Rhee, 2015, Zhou, Liao, Liu, & Liao, 2017; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011).

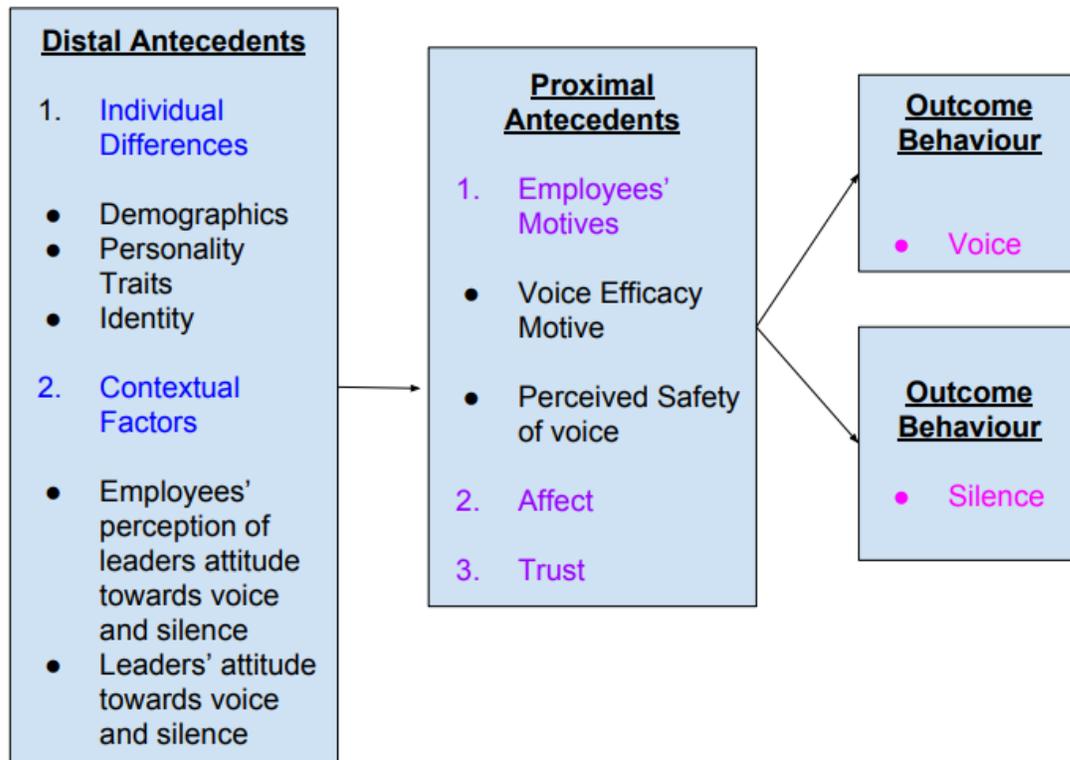
The present section has defined and reviewed the concepts of voice and silence. It has highlighted that employees speak-up or remain silent based on diverse motives. Employees can voice to bring change within an organisation or remain silent due to fear, disengagement or altruistic motives.

5.3 Antecedents of Voice and Silence

The following section will review the antecedents of both voice and silence. The research programme suggests that employees' voice or engage in prosocial silence when they identify with and trust their leader. Conversely employees engage in acquiescent and defensive silence when they don't identify with and don't trust their leader. Therefore, the present research programme assumes that leader-follower identification and trust are crucial antecedents of employees' choice to voice or remain silent. This section will start by reviewing distal antecedents, such as individual differences and contextual factors, and will then review more proximal antecedents, such as individuals' motives, affect and trust. Figure 9 was developed by summarising employees' antecedents, of both voice and silence, found in the literature (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Detert & Burris, 2007; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011; LePine & Van

Dyne, 1998; Miceli et al., 2008; Noelle-Newmann (1974), Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Van Dyne et al. 2003)

Figure 9. Antecedents of Employees Voice and Silence



5.3.1 Distal Antecedents

This section is divided in two parts, the first will describe individual differences as a distal antecedent of voice and silence and the second will describe contextual factors as a distal antecedent of voice and silence

5.3.1.1 Individual Differences

This section will explore three diverse individual differences namely, demographics, self-monitoring/self-esteem/locus of control and identity. Important for the present research review is the final part of this section, as in the present research programme it is proposed that leader-follower identification is a distal antecedent of voice/silence via trust.

5.3.1.1.1 Demographics

Research in the area of voice has shown that some individuals are more likely than others to voice their opinion. Early research proposed that there might be a difference in voicing due to gender, suggesting that female employees are more likely to engage in upward voice compared to their male counterparts (Lauterbach & Weiner, 1996). In contrast, more recent findings showed the opposite effect or found no significant difference in voicing behaviour between male and female employees (Detert & Burris, 2007; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Miceli et al., 2008). Such evidence suggests that there is still confusion in the literature on whether gender influences voicing behaviour and that further investigation is needed.

New employees have been found to be more reluctant to speak-up due to their ability to voice effectively compared to more veteran employees (Greenberg & Edwards, 2009). Conversely, veteran employees voiced more often, as they felt a greater sense of investment in the organisation. Thus, veteran employees had a greater motivation to ensure organisational success (Miliken et al., 2003).

Work status (full-time versus part-time) has also been linked to voice behaviour (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). Principally, full-timers are more prone to define their jobs in terms of social rather than economic exchanges and are consequently more likely to engage in discretionary behaviours, of which voice is an example (Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001). Full-time employees also hold higher social status roles than part-timers and as such have higher efficacy perceptions when it comes to voicing behaviour (Tangirala & Ramanujam; 2008).

Individual position within the organisation affects an employee decision to voice or remain silent. Employees that are at a higher hierarchical level have a greater sense of felt responsibility for change (Islam & Zyphur, 2005; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010) and greater control over their jobs (Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008) which is associated with speaking-up behaviour

Personality differences, such as extroversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability have been found to be strong predictors of employees' voice behaviour towards immediate supervisor but not top management (Le Pine and Van Dyne, 2001; Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bourantas, 2008).

In sum, veteran employees, full-time employees and higher ranked employees are more likely to speak up than their counterparts. Whereas, it is still not clear whether employees' gender impacts employees' voicing behaviour. Finally, extroversion, conscientiousness and emotional stability have been associated to employees' voice.

5.3.1.1.2. Self-monitoring, Self-Esteem and Locus of Control

Employees are not only alert to what are considered to be socially acceptable and dominant opinions, but they are also concerned about how others perceive them. This is what is known as self-monitoring, which measures the extent to which the individual observes, regulates and controls their public appearance in interpersonal relationships (Snyder, 1974; Snyder & Gangestad, 1982). Low self-monitors have been found to be more likely to speak up compared to high self-monitors. Low self-monitors are in fact more aware than high self-monitors of their inner reality which guides their behaviour.

When self-esteem is controlled on its own, individuals with a low self-esteem are less likely to speak up as they don't want to put themselves in a position of vulnerability (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). However, when self-esteem and self-monitoring behaviour are explored together, low self-monitors, have been found to be more likely to speak-up when self-esteem increased. Conversely, high self-monitors who are more susceptible to the opinions and approval of others were less likely to voice when self-esteem was high as a means of gaining social approval (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). When self-esteem is controlled on its own, individuals with low self-esteem are less likely to speak up as they don't want to put themselves in a position of vulnerability (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998).

There are two form of locus of control (LOC); internal LOC and external LOC. Individuals with an external LOC believe that their destinies are beyond their control and are determined by chance or fate, their counterparts (internal LOC), in contrast believe that they have control over their lives (Philips & Gully, 1997). Individuals with an external LOC have a more passive

attitude towards life compared to individuals with an internal LOC (Rotter, 1992). LSM with an internal LOC were found to be more likely to engage in voice, indicating the willingness of low self-monitors' to speak up to exert control over their lives. The opposite effect occurred for high self-monitors' with an internal LOC (Morrison & Milliken, 2003).

In sum, employees' self-monitoring behaviour, self-esteem and locus of control influence employees' choice to voice or remain silent.

5.3.1.1.3 Identity

Minority groups scan their environment to understand and determine the most dominant opinion. In the case of homosexuality, the homosexual individual will scan the environment to understand whether the dominant group accepts such diversity. Once the individual identifies what the dominant idea is, s/he will express the majority opinion more readily than the minority one (Felix, Mello & von Borell, 2018; Noelle-Newmann; 1974).

Dominant public opinion exerts control over individuals through the threat of isolation for deviance. Scholars argue that fear of isolation might be a particularly powerful among invisible diversities (i.e. gay, lesbians, bisexuals, transsexuals), who will tend to minimize their social exchanges to maintain their identity as heterosexuals or asexual secure (Crow, Folk, & Hartman, 1995; McFadden & Crowley-Henry, 2018; Noelle-Newman, 1974). Minority group silence does not only affect the individual but also the group and the overall organisation. Minority group silence on one issue might escalate and spiral to a broader silence on other issues within the organisation (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Noelle-Newmann, 1974).

The cost of silence is high for organisations as opinions from diverse populations are not heard (Crow, Folk, & Hartman, 1995), which results in minority group employees committing less to the organisation due to their inability to communicate their true self (Felix, Mello, Borell, 2018; McFadden & Crowley-Henry, 2018). Moreover, minority group employees consume organisational time as their focus is on covering their identity rather than in their role as a worker (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003).

Being labelled is another common cause of silence in the workplace (McFadden & Crowley-Henry, 2018). Through labels individuals lose respect and risk damaging social and task-related ties. Employees might be labelled as the trouble maker or complainer, which implicitly assigns them to a negative category, the out-group (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998). Therefore, employees might not only fear the label in itself but the interpersonal consequences that the label might enact (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). An example of interpersonal consequences are: loss of trust, credibility, social rejection, weakened interpersonal ties, lower likelihood to be promoted and diminished power (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003).

Finally, organisational identification has been found to play a mediating role between personal control in work, employees' perceptions of autonomy and impact at work, and voice. Where employees with high personal work control voiced more than employees with low personal work control, but only when they identified with the organisation (Tangirala & Ramunujam, 2008)

In sum, employees' identification to the organisation and its organisational members is crucial in predicting employees' voice and reducing negative forms of silence. It is through identification that employees feel a sense of belonging to the in-group, which will ultimately facilitate speaking-up behaviour. Poor identification, on the other hand, leads to employees' silence, loss of trust and weakened interpersonal ties (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003), which is detrimental to achieve organisational goals.

Concluding, diverse individual difference can have an effect on employees' choice to speak up or remain silent. The role leader-follower mutual identification plays in employees' voice or silent behaviour is still limited in the literature. A contribution of the present research programme is to explore how leader-follower mutual identification (distal antecedent) impact employees' choice to voice or remain silent, via employees' trust in leader. The following section explores contextual factors that influence employees' communication strategies.

5.3.1.2 Contextual Factors

The following section is divided in four parts: employees' upward voice, leader attitude towards voice/silence, the role emotions play in triggering either voice or silence and finally how employees' trust in leader increases employees' likelihood to engage in upward voice. This section emphasizes the importance that leader-follower perceptions have in employees' decision to whether speak-up or remain silent. Employees scan their environment to comprehend whether the leader is open to a two-way communication. Employees then weigh the costs of speaking-up and if they consider the costs to be too high then they remain silent. Therefore, leaders' attitudes towards silence and voice have an important impact on

employees' decision-making process. Moreover, leaders' attitudes towards voice and silence trigger diverse emotions in the employee which will guide the employees' decision-making process. Depending on the emotion experienced the employee will decide whether to engage in voice, acquiescent silence, defensive silence or prosocial silence. Additionally, employees' trust in leader is also a crucial antecedent of employees' upward voice and it is through trust that employees experience the psychological safety to engage in a risky behaviour such as voice.

5.3.1.2.1 Employee Upward Voice and Silence

The silence literature argues that the main motive why employees engage in silence behaviour is the fear to communicate up-wards (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003, Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morrison, 2014). Leaders' behaviour generally affects employees' choice to speak or remain silent, for two main reasons. First, speaking up, by definition involves sharing one's ideas with someone who is perceived as having the power to devote organisational attention; consequently, leaders are an important target in the voice process. Secondly, leaders being at a higher hierarchical level have power over employees, as they can administer rewards or punishments. Research shows that when employees feel involved in the selection process of the leader, therefore when it reflects their personal choice, voice is more likely to emerge from employees as they feel less threatened by the leader's position of power (De Cremer & Alberts, 2004).

When employees perceive both leaders and the organisational culture as being supportive to employees' voice, then the fear of speaking up lessens (Morrison, 2014). Based

on this, employees will decide whether to raise an issue reading the context for clues concerning context favourability (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Detert & Burris, 2007). Thus, employees are more likely to voice their ideas or opinions to management if they perceive it as being psychologically safe (Detert & Burris, 2007; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). Psychological safety (the belief that engaging in risky behaviours like voice will not lead to personal harm) has been described as a key affect-laden cognition influencing voice (Ashford et al., 1998; Edmondson, 1999). When individuals perceive that the costs of speaking are too high then they are more likely to engage in silence. For example, when employees are faced with an abusive supervisor, they resort to remain silent, due to feelings of emotional exhaustion and psychological discomfort (Xu, Loi, & Lam, 2015).

Research has also established that there is a difference in employees voicing behaviour depending on employees' performance. Better performers are more likely to believe that they are more credible in the eyes of their supervisor, therefore are more likely to engage in upward voice. Additionally, good performers are more likely to see voice as a job responsibility rather than an optimal citizenship behaviour (Detert & Burris, 2007).

5.3.1.2.2 Leaders' Attitude to Voice and Silence

Leader behaviour has a strong impact on an employee's decision to speak up or remain silent. Supervisors' attitude towards silence has been found to be the strongest predictor of employees' silence behaviour (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Thus, if a supervisor is engaged in a two-way communication, subordinates are more likely to follow practice and produce voice (Mowbray, Wilkinson, & Tse, 2014). This is further supported by

evidence suggesting that retail employees are more likely to voice about work related issues when they perceive their supervisors as being reliable, helpful and willing to listen to their opinions (Boichuk & Menguc, 2013).

Organisational silence and the lack of upward voice is more a product of forces within the organisation rather than a single individual choice. Silence has been argued to be the outcome of two managerial forces, which systematically reinforce silence (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). First, managers fear negative feedback whether it's negative feedback about themselves or about an organisational situation with which they can identify. This is in line with proactivity research that suggests that employees' voice, a form of proactive behaviour, might be viewed as a threat by leader (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010) and therefore leader reinforce a climate of silence among followers. Secondly, research has revealed that managers consider their employees as being self-interested and untrustworthy (Ghoshal & Moran, 1996). In support of the latter, employees that progress up the ladder have been found to identify less with those below them and assume that because one holds a position of power, that one knows best (Pfeffer & Leblebici, 1973). This managerial belief leads employees to feel resentful towards the untrusting leader, which in turn reinforces managers' initial belief (Ghoshal & Moran, 1996). In addition, the climate of silence managers create in an organisation might be due to the fact that managers themselves have lived in an organisational environment of fear, intimidation and silence. This results in leaders believing that this is the right way to lead a group (Senge, 1990).

Leaders might need to take into account personality attributes that increase voice when hiring individuals, by selecting and attracting employees who are likely to voice. For instance,

leaders can shape employees' general propensity to voice by hiring proactive employees, who have been found to be more likely to voice (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Detert & Burris, 2007). The present research suggests that regardless of how proactive employees are, a match in leader-follower proactive behaviour perceptions will result in employees' upward voice via trust. Previous research has linked employees' voice (proactive behaviour) to employees' trust in leader (Gao, Janssen & Shi, 2011). Thus, the present research programme suggests that employees' trust in leader is the key to employees' upward voice or prosocial silence and this is proposed to also be true also leader-follower matches that score low in proactive behaviour. Conversely, a mismatch of perception between leader and follower will result in low trust and employee's acquiescent and defensive silence.

Diverse leadership styles impact employees' choice to voice or remain silent (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu, Ramanujam, & Tangirala, 2013; Chan, 2014; Liu, Renhong, Yonkang, 2010). However, the purpose of the present research programme is not to address whether diverse leadership styles impact employees silence of voice behaviour, but to uncover how the resulting trust between leader and follower perceptions of identification can result in employees making different choices to whether speak up or remain silent. Therefore, this area of the literature will not be further reviewed.

In conclusion, by modelling what they value and believe leaders can send a powerful symbolic message to the rest of the organisation that the expression of voice is desirable. Furthermore, leaders can influence employee voice by developing systems and structures that encourage upward information (Greenberg & Edwards, 2009).

5.3.3 Proximal Antecedents

This section reviews the proximal antecedents of voice and silence, these being employees' motives for speaking up or remaining silent, affect and trust.

5.3.3.1 Employees motives to Speak-up or remain Silent

In the voice literature, it is presumed that the driving motive for voice is employees' desire to help the organisation or work unit to perform more effectively, therefore voice is viewed as a constructive behaviour. It is important to highlight that if employees choose to remain silent, the motive to bring improvement might still exist but might be overpowered by other motives, such as fear (Kirrane, O'Shea, Buckley, Grazi, & Prout, 2017; Knoll & Redman, 2016; Morrison, 2011). Voice and silence literature emphasize that both voice and silence reflect a deliberate decision process whereby the employee considers both the positive and negative consequences of speaking up or remaining silent. Two outcome related considerations have been described in the voice literature.

First, individuals consider whether speaking up is likely to be effective, often referred to as perceived efficacy of voice. Employees choose to remain silent when they perceive that speaking up will not accomplish anything as they perceive that top management is not willing to listen (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Expected efficacy of voice affects the decision to engage in voice, and perceived efficacy is a central construct in models of whistle blowing (Whitney & Cooper, 1989; Miceli & Near, 1992) and issue selling (Ashford et al., 1998).

Second, employees consider whether speaking up might have a negative personal outcome, this is often referred to as perceived safety of voice. Self-protective motives play a central role in the decision to voice. Issue selling literature shows that employees assess whether speaking up might damage their image in front of top management as they might be concerned of being labelled the trouble maker or the complainer (Ashford et al., 1998). Furthermore, employees might also fear tangible career related costs such as poor performance evaluation, undesirable job assignments, or even job termination (Milliken et al., 2003).

Understanding the causes of this intentional withholding of information is undeniably important, as the consequences are usually more negative than positive, for both the organisation and the employer. The organisation could be affected as illegal and unethical practices may not be reported and organisational learning may become impossible (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Ryan & Oestreich, 1991). On the other hand, silence is ineffective for the individual as over time it may result in a sense of helplessness, diminished job satisfaction, burnout, decreased turnover and other long-lasting personal effects (Knoll, Hall, & Weight, 2018; Milliken & Morrison, 2003).

5.3.3.2 Emotion and Voice and Silence

Leader positive affect towards followers and followers' affective attachment towards the organisation plays an important role in employees' decision to voice (Detert & Edmondson, 2009; Knoll & Redman, 2016). In fact, leaders' positive affect influences employees' decision to speak up through emotional contagion (Liu, Song, Li, & Liao, 2017). Conversely, when

employees experience negative affect towards leader (i.e. fear) employees up ward silence increases (Detert & Edmondson, 2009; Madrid, Patterson, & Leiva, 2015). Nonetheless, diverse types of negative affect can produce diverse effects in employees' choice to remain silent or speak up. High levels of aggression triggered by witnessing a transgression have been related to speaking up behaviour, whereas lower levels of aggression were associated with employees' silent behaviour (Kirrane, O'Shea, Buckley, Grazi, & Prout, 2017).

Employees use affect as a cue to facilitate decision-making processes regarding their choice to either speak-up or remain silent in a specific work situation (Clare, Gaspar, & Gavin, 2001). Fear has been strongly associated to employees' silent behaviour (Kish-Gephart, Detert, Trevino, & Edmondson, 2009). Feelings of hopelessness have instead been associated to employees' acquiescent silence (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Anger, as mentioned above, has been associated with both employees' voice and silence depending on the level of anger experienced by the individual (Kirrane, O'Shea, Buckley, Grazi, Prout, 2017). Guilt instead has been linked to voice, while shame to silence (Edwards, Ashkanasy, & Gardner, 2009).

In sum, the emotions expressed by leader and the emotions experienced by the employee is a crucial antecedent of employees' choice to voice or remain silent. It is important to understand that employees regulate emotions differently and therefore might act on them in diverse ways. Table 10 summarises how different emotions have been linked to either voice, acquiescent silence or defensive silence (Edwards, Ashkanasy, & Gardner, 2009; Kirrane, O'Shea, Buckley, Grazi, Prout, 2017; Pinder & Harlos, 2001; Liu, Song, Li, & Liao, 2017).

Table 10. Emotions that motivate employees to speak-up or remain silent

Voice	Acquiescent Silence	Defensive Silence
	Shame	
Frustration	(Edwards et al., 2009)	
Anger		
Disappointment	Low Aggression	
(Grant,2013)	(Kirrane et al. 2017)	
Guilt		
(Edwards et al., 2009)		
Leaders Positive affect	Hopelessness	Fear
(Liu, Song, Li, & Liao, 2017)	(Pinder& Harlos,2001)	(Kish-Gephart,2009)
High Aggression		
(Kirrane et al. 2017)		

This section has reviewed how employees’ perception of leaders’ attitude towards voice influences employees’ choice to engage or not in speaking-up behaviour. The present research explores how leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence results in leader-follower identification and trust. Therefore, it is through perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence that the present research programme suggest leader-follower identification is formed (distal antecedent) and it is through identification that trust in leader is developed (proximal antecedent). Hence, the present research programme views both identification and trust as the two key antecedents of employee’s decision to speak-up or remain silent

5.3.3.3 Trust in Leader and Employees Choice to Voice or Remain Silent.

Research in the area of trust suggests that perceptions of interpersonal trust allow individuals to accept vulnerability to others and thus promotes risk behaviours (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Scholars agree that employees who trust their leader are more likely to feel safe and comfortable about voicing their opinion and suggestions (Alexopoulos & Buckley, 2013; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011; Zhou, Liao, Liu, & Liao, 2017). This effect was also found to be true when trust in leader mediated the relationship between leader impression management and voice (Zhou, Liao, Liu, & Liao, 2017). This suggests that trust in leader predicts employee voice only when employees are clear of leader intentions. In contrast, if employees trust in leader is low, employees will consider expressing ideas and opinions about work related issues to be too risky (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Lack of trust in supervisor has been linked to defensive silence but not acquiescent silence. When employees perceive their immediate supervisor as being reluctant to share information, the subordinates try to access information from top management. In contrast, when employees perceive supervisors as not having good intentions and motives then speaking-up is perceived by subordinates as being too risky and therefore engage in defensive silence (Dedahanov & Rhee, 2015).

Organisational climate of procedural injustice has been positively related to employee's silence via trust in leader (Tulubas & Celep, 2012). Suggesting that employees trust in leader has a stronger influence on employees' silence than perceptions of procedural justice. Trust in leader was also found to mediate the relationship between destructive leadership and

employee silence (Song, Qian, Wang, Yang & Zhai, 2017). Destructive leaders lay blame on others and can consider subordinates as untrustworthy. These leaders' attitudes can drive employees to lose trust in the leader, as they can fear that the leader will penalize them for expressing opinions (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005).

Self-monitoring has also been found to moderate the relationship between trust in the supervisor and speaking up behaviour (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). Low self-monitors compared to high self-monitors were more likely to speak up as trust levels towards supervisor increased, which can be explained by low self-monitors preferring situations that allow them the freedom to be themselves. Therefore, high self-monitors were generally found to be less trusting than low self-monitors and thus less likely to be influenced by consequences stemming from trust (Snyder & Gandestad, 1982).

Finally, evidence shows that when employees convey negative information to superiors they tend to distort or minimize the negative information. This is known as the Mum Effect (Rosen & Tesser, 1979; Athanassiades, 1973). The Mum effect occurs as communicating bad news creates discomfort for the conveyer (Rosen & Tesser, 1979). Such discomfort becomes greater when employees' trust in leader is low (Glauser, 1984).

In sum, regardless of mediator or moderators influencing the relationship between trust in leader and speaking up behaviour, the studies discussed above confirm that the more employees trust their leader the safer subordinates feel about the way the leader will react to their voice behaviour, which will ultimately increase subordinates' willingness to speak up. In turn, low levels of trust in leader will inhibit employees to accept vulnerability, who will

therefore be more likely to choose silence as the most effective and self-protective response. In the present research programme, it is proposed that leader-follower identification will lead to trust and will ultimately result in employees' voice and prosocial silence. A mismatch of perception between leader-follower is instead argued to be negatively related to trust and to ultimately result in employees' acquiescent and defensive silence.

Chapter 5 reviewed the dependant variables of the present research programme. It also concludes the literature review of this thesis. The forthcoming chapter will discuss and review the research design and the philosophical foundations of the present research programme.

5.4 Consequences of Voice and Silence

A central premise in the literature is that voice has more benefits for organisations and work groups, while silence is viewed as having a more negative impact on the work force. These arguments stem from diverse research streams. Milliken, Morrison and Hewlin (2003), suggest that organisational silence will compromise the success of organisational decision making and change process. Morrison (2000) highlights the importance of upward communication for more effective organisational decision making and better error detection. Other scholars have highlighted the importance of contributing with voice for organisational learning, innovation learning and crisis prevention, as remaining silent could compromise top management decision making and change process (Detert & Burris, 2007; Dutton & Ashford, 1993; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). Emphasis has also been placed on the importance of voice within work groups (Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, &

Kamdar, 2011). In support of these arguments, Edmonson (2003) established that voice facilitates the successful implementation of new practices within interdisciplinary action teams.

Voice also has positive effects on the individual actor as it enhances employees' feeling of control, which increases satisfaction and motivation and decrease stress. Furthermore, being able to express one's concerns or views has a more beneficial impact on psychological and physiological health, compared to remaining silent (Cortina & Magley, 2003, Morrison, 2014). Feeling unable to speak about concerns brings in the long run a sense of helplessness, as well as reduced job satisfaction, turnover and other long-lasting personal consequences (Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

The effects of voice might not always be positive as speaking up can damage public image (being labelled the complainer/trouble maker) or lead to sanctions (a lower performance evaluation, a bad job assignment) (Milliken et al., 2003; Pinder & Harlos, 2001). The most direct evidence comes from research that shows that whistle-blowers often suffer retaliation (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Miceli & Near, 1992).

The effects of voice for the individual actor are still mixed in the literature. For example, Seibert, Kraimer, and Crant (2001) found that voice has a negative relationship with promotions and salary increases. Conversely, Maynes and Podsakoff's (2014) experimental study showed a positive effect of voice on performance appraisals, above and beyond the effects of task behaviour and helping. In an attempt to answer the question whether voice has a positive or negative impact on the individual, Burris, Detert, and Romney (2010) argued that personal outcomes of voice depend on whether both manager and employee hold the same perception

of the voice behaviour. When both manager and employee agree that the employee is engaging in frequent and high-quality voice then voice has positive outcomes for the actor. On the other hand, negative results will tend to result when employees over estimate the volume, variety and value of their voice behaviour.

Voice and silence do not solely impact the actor but can also impact colleagues. Others play an important role in the decision to speak up or remain silent. For example, work issue might embarrass others or cast them in a negative light, while ideas of change could create friction between colleagues (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Milliken et al., 2003). Voice can bring benefits to others, such as when one speaks up about unfair conditions in the workplace and these conditions are then remedied, or when one offers a suggestion that makes work processes more efficient (Morrison, 2014). The same can occur with silence, where an individual might choose to remain silent to protect a colleague or the organisation, creating a more peaceful and trusting environment within the workplace (Van Dyne et al, 2003).

Conversely, individuals can engage in more disruptive forms of silence such as giving colleagues the silent treatment, which can ultimately create an environment of discomfort among team members (Milliken, et al., 2003). Employees might also choose to remain silent when faced with a wrong doing, with the intention of protecting the self (Premeaux, & Bedeian, 2003). Such silent choices can have disruptive consequences as they can deteriorate the work relation between the employee who has chosen to remain silent and the employee who suffered the wrong doing (Sommer, Williams, Ciarocco, & Baumeister, 2001). Given these conflicting possibilities it would be important to theorise more fully about the effects that both voice and silence have on the actor and observers.

Chapter 5 reviewed the dependant variables of the present research programme. It also concludes the literature review of this thesis. The forthcoming chapter will discuss and review the research design and the philosophical foundation of the present research programme.

Chapter 6

Research Philosophy and Design

This chapter discusses the approach taken to the design of the present research programme. The programme consists of two separate studies and this chapter will outline the approach taken, the philosophical foundations underpinning the programme, the methodological issues considered, and the survey design employed. The design of each study, including sample characteristics, measurements and analysis will be outlined in the separate chapters dedicated specifically to each study. Chapter 7 will focus on study 1 (vignette study) and chapter 8 will focus on study 2 (field study).

6.1 Research Development

The first aim of this research programme is to test whether social identification impacts trust development. Although, social psychology and organisational psychology have both explored the impact of identification in dyadic relations and trust, it has generally examined perceptions only from one party in the dyadic relation. The present study seeks an understanding on how the mutual perceptions of individuals (a dyad) at different hierarchical levels impact trust development. Second, by examining how mutual perceptions of proactive behaviour between leader-follower impact trust relations, it is hoped to bring a deeper understanding of the dark side of proactivity. Finally, the present research programme seeks to explore how poor trust relations with an immediate leader can motivate employees to engage in negative forms of silent behaviour. On the other hand, strong trust bonds between leader and follower are expected to lead to employees engaging in voice or positive forms of silence.

Study 1 seeks to test the proposition that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity will lead to trust. It explores how the resulting trust impacts affective displays, suggesting that higher levels of trust will lead to positive affect, whereas lower levels of trust will lead to negative affect. Finally, it also seeks to bring insight on whether role (whether the participant is a leader or a subordinate) impacts the way proactive behaviour is perceived. In study 2 proactive behaviour similarity is rated by both individuals in the dyadic relationship. Furthermore, Study 2 also explores the moderating effect that strength of tie between leader and follower has between proactive behaviour asymmetry and trust and it is expected that the stronger tie strength between leader-follower the greater the trust within the dyad, as tie strength is considered to uncover further similarities between the two parties. Finally, Study 2 explores how the resulting trust between the dyad impacts employees' choice to engage in voice or silent behaviour. Before moving into the following section, the hypotheses for study 1 and study 2 are listed below.

Study 1

Hypothesis 1 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence is positively related to trust which results in employee experiencing positive affect towards the other party (leader or follower).

Hypothesis 2 a: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence is negatively related to trust.

Hypothesis 2 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence is negatively related to trust which result in employee experiencing negative affect towards the other party (leader or follower).

Hypothesis 3: Role moderates the relationship between leader-follower perceptions of similarity and trust.

Study 2

Hypothesis 1 a: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence is positively related to trust

Hypothesis 1 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence is positively related to trust which results in employees engaging in prosocial silence

Hypothesis 1 c: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence is positively related to trust which results in employees engaging in upward voice

Hypothesis 2 a: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence is negatively related to trust

Hypothesis 2 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence is negatively related to trust which result in employees engaging in defensive silence.

Hypothesis 2 c: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence is negatively related to trust which result in employees engaging in acquiescent silence

Hypothesis 3: Strength of tie moderates the relationship between leader-follower perceptions of similarity and trust.

6.2 Philosophical Foundations

The philosophical foundations underpinning specific research areas influence and determine research questions and research designs (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Wicks & Freeman, 1998). The majority of research in the field of organisational psychology is rooted in the positivist tradition (Daft, 1983), which “holds that a scientific explanation must thoroughly eschew appeal to what is in principle beyond experience” (Manicas, p9).

Positivism studies society relying mainly on scientific methods (experiments, statistics) to understand if there are natural laws that can be applied to how society operates within the empirical framework (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Following this approach, positivist researchers construe hypotheses around a specific phenomenon and empirically test the truth of those hypotheses. These hypotheses are generally tested through very structured methods of data collection and analysis (statistics). Although positivists traditionally suggest that scientists can only study what is observable, in more recent years it has become acceptable to use deduction (inference) as a way of observing inner psychological processes.

Organisational researchers use self-report questionnaires to observe variables such as individual perceptions and attitudes. These inferred variables collected through questionnaire responses are then analysed using adequate statistical techniques. Much research in the area of organisational psychology has relied on positivists experimental methods to observe and understand the relation between variables with the aim of uncovering the general laws that govern them (Axelrod, 1984; McGuire, 1986; Remenyi, Williams, Money, & Schwartz, 1998).

The dominance of positivism in organisational psychology literature has been criticised from proponents of alternative perspectives as it argued that no single method can explain and understand multifaceted phenomenon. For example, trust researchers have isolated themselves in their own research area held together by shared views and specific academic language which prevents them from communicating with scholars outside their own perspective (Sheperd & Challenger, 2013).

Regardless of the criticisms and limits of positivism, the present research is still strongly influenced by the positivist tradition as the majority of recent research investigating trust, proactivity, voice/silence and affect (researchers variables of interest) in the area of organisational psychology are still using field-based methods such as questionnaires (Mantere & Ketokivi,2013). The reason behind the use of questionnaires is the general agreement among organisational researchers that self-report surveys are the ultimate measure of dispositional tendencies and personality traits.

6.3 Research Design

Methodological fit is aligned to the concept of methodological context (Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Johns, 2006; Johnson & Cassell, 2001) which entails giving relevant information of research access, research decisions and benefits or costs of utilised research interventions.

The present study was designed to create methodological fit, based on a positivist tradition, which entails investigating theoretical propositions and testing research hypotheses by using previously validated measures (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Constructs tested in the

present research programme, have all been previously examined using self-report questionnaires in the organisational literature.

Self-report questionnaires have been widely used in the organisational literature as they represent a quick and inexpensive way of gathering data from a big sample (Saunders et al., 2007). Furthermore, self-report questionnaires, limit researcher bias by allowing participants to report without fearing consequences and grants respondent anonymity (Tourangeau & Smith, 1996). Overall self –report questionnaires represents the most valid method of gathering objective information about individual perceptions in the workplace (Chan, 2009), although they have been criticized for their validity in measuring objective aspects of the work environment (Spector, 1994).

The present research has taken a number of steps, to control for possible limitations created by the use of self-reported questionnaires, by controlling for specific sources of errors produced by the rater, by item characteristics, by item context and by errors produced by measurement context (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

6.3.1 Common Method

The most common systematic measurement error is common method variance (CMV) which refers “to variance attributable to the measurement at different levels of abstraction, such as the content of specific items, scales type, response format and general context” (Fiske, 1982, p 81)

Self-report questionnaires are a common source of CMV as both the predictor and the criterion variable are generally rated by the same source (same respondent) and this leads to a

number of possible issues (Brannick, Chan, Conway, Lance, & Spector, 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Williams, & McGonagle, 2016). Such as, social desirability, where the participant might try to put him/her-self in a favourable light when responding to questionnaire (Crowne & Marlow, 1964), participants implicit theories, where the ratees' responses constitute a true relationship but also artefactual covariations based on the ratees' implicit theories (Smither et al., 1989) and finally, consistency motive, where the ratee might try to maintain consistency in his/her responses that would generally not occur in real life (Osgood & Tannenbaum, 1955).

Various techniques have been developed to control for CMV (a) design of the study's procedures and (b) statistical control. As data for both studies were collected through self-report questionnaires, a number of measures were taken to counter for the effects of CMV (Brannick et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012). In both surveys clear and concise measures were used to help respondents discriminate between concepts. Surveys were clearly divided into sections and each section had clear instructions to emphasize the referent in question. Sections and items within sections were randomized to reduce the risk of ratees' consistency motive and ratees' implicit theories (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Moreover, ratees' responses were marked using Likert scales, which had both numerical and verbal anchors to ensure accurate positioning of response. Finally, respondents were informed of the confidentiality of the survey and were reassured that there was no right or wrong answer, to reduce social desirability (Chang et al., 2010).

A variety of statistical remedies are offered in the literature to limit CMV, the most popular technique is Harman's single-factor test, which entails loading all survey variables into an exploratory factor analysis and finding if there is a common method variance among gathered data (Mossholder, Bennett, Kemery & Wesolowski, 1998). When data in this study was subject to Harman's single-factor test a single factor in Study 1 accounted for 39% (for proactive Pat) and 34% (for Passive Pat) and one single factor accounted for 38.7% in Study 2, suggesting that constructs in both studies did not suffer from common method variance as a variance percentage inferior to 50% show that there is no common method bias. Methodology theorists claim that the existence of non-significant correlations is an indication that a baseline level of correlation does not occur between all constructs measured in the same survey method (Spector, 2006). In the data collected for the present research programme, non-significant correlations exist, suggesting that CMV is not a limitation of the present research programme (displayed in full in chapter 7 & 8). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) which is a more sophisticated approach to test if one single factor can account for all the variance in the data set, also supports that CMV is not a limitation of the present research programme. Results of CFA will be presented in chapter 7 and 8.

6.3.2 Experimental Designs

To maximise the construct and predictive validity of the present research programme experimental survey designs were adopted. Experimental survey designs are considered to be the most rigorous research designs with respect to internal validity (Borden & Abbott, 2008). Experimental designs are indeed the most effective way to establish the casual relationship between variables due to two defining characteristics: manipulation of independent variables

and control over extraneous variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Haslam & McGarty, 2003; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 2013). Despite their strength in identifying casual relationships experimental designs present potential limitations:

First, experimental designs can't be used if researchers cannot manipulate the hypothesized casual variable. Second the control exerted by the researcher over the extraneous variable may reduce the ability to apply findings to everyday scenarios (Borden & Abbott, 2008). Finally, the sample may be too small to provide statistically valid results (lack of power) (Breakwell et al., 2012). The sample size required for the two studies in the present research programme was determined by reviewing similar experimental designs, (i.e., De Jong, & Dirks, 2012; Senior, Weinman, & Marteau, 2002; Shapiro et al. 2011; Zhang, Wang, & Shi, 2012)

The present research programme used two different forms of experimental designs, study 1 used a vignette study (discussed in chapter 7) while study 2 used a cross sectional study (discussed in chapter 8).

Chapter 7

Study 1

The following chapter will open by introducing the research design of Study 1 and focuses on explaining the 'experimental vignette design' utilised in the questionnaire for study 1. The pretesting of the questionnaire is described to ensure the validity of the questionnaire. Next, the methodology will describe the sample, the measurements and the procedure employed in Study 1. Following, the analysis strategy utilised to test the research hypotheses will be explained and results of Study 1 presented. Concluding, a preliminary discussion of Study 1 will be conferred.

7.1 Introduction

Consistent with social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978), study 1 suggests that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence will be positively related to trust. Conversely, leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence will be negatively related to trust. Additionally, study 1 explores the impact that trust relations have on employees' affect. Therefore, study 1 suggests that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence will be positively related to trust which will ultimately result in the employee experiencing positive affect towards the other party. Conversely, leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence is negatively related to trust which will ultimately result in the employee experiencing negative affect towards the other party. Finally, Study 1 explores

whether being a leader or a subordinate (role), moderates the relation between leader-follower congruence/incongruence and trust. Specifically, the hypotheses of study 1 propose:

Hypothesis 1 a: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust.

Hypothesis 1 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust which results in employee experiencing positive affect towards the other party (leader or follower).

Hypothesis 2 a: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust.

Hypothesis 2 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust which result in employee experiencing negative affect towards the other party (leader or follower).

Hypothesis 3: Role moderates the relationship between leader-follower perceptions of similarity and trust.

Figure 10 and Figure 11 outline the theoretical model of Study 1 and the expected relationship among the research variables.

Figure 10. Theoretical Model Study 1 a

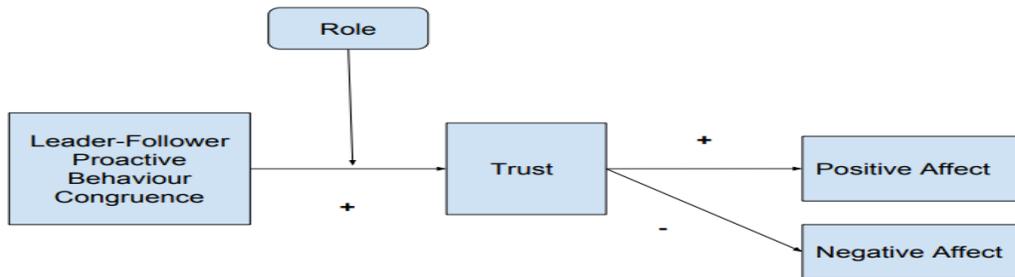
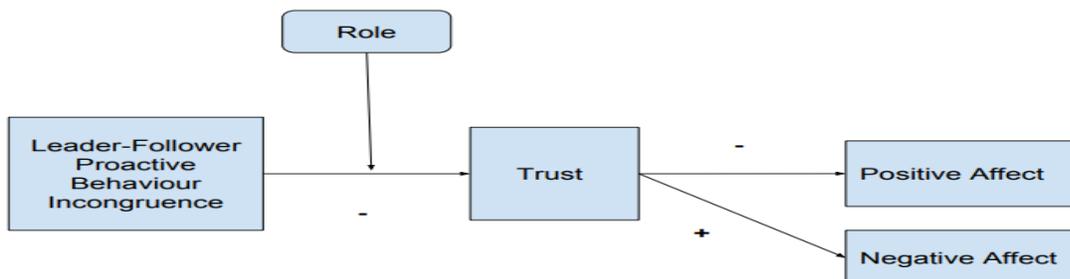


Figure 11. Theoretical Model Study 1 b



7. 2 Research Design

Study 1 utilised an experimental vignette method (EVM) to test its hypotheses. Particularly, it employed a paper people vignette study which consists of presenting participants with vignettes generally in a written format and then asking participants to express judgements, choices or decisions (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014).

Compared to cross sectional studies, EVM studies, allow the researcher to enhance experimental realism and to manipulate the independent variables (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010; Hughes & Huby, 2002). Through experimental designs the researcher can explore the direction

and nature of experimental variables yielding high levels of internal validity but are challenged by difficulties regarding to external validity as the use of a controlled environment might not be generalizable to a real-life context (Aguinis & Edwards, 2014).

EVM methodology has consistently been published in top ranked journals in organizational behaviour and human resource management (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Aguinis & Lawal, 2012; Kruschke, Aguinis, & Joo, 2012).

In study 1, EVM was chosen as it offers the opportunity to include factors that are essential to answer the research hypotheses and exclude all factors that could confound such results (i.e. social desirability). EVM was chosen to test the theoretical propositions before assessing the research model in a field study (study 2). By replicating the first part of the model (how leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence/incongruence impacts trust) in both Study 1 and 2 the present research programme aimed to validate in both a controlled and non-controlled environment that identification is crucial in trust formation (Hughes & Huby, 2002).

7. 3 Experimental Vignette Design

Aguinis and Bradley (2014) recommend raising the realism experienced by participants when reading vignette studies as it increases the external validity of the scripted scenarios that closely approximate real-world situations, bringing also a greater engagement from participants (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010; Heslin, Vandewalle, & Latham, 2006). Participants in Study 1 were instructed to imagine that they were either a leader or an employee of a big retail shop. In condition 1 the respondent was asked to imagine that they were Pat's leader and in condition 2 two the respondent was asked to imagine they were Pat's subordinate (see Appendix B). In all

the vignettes, Pat and the participant were at different hierarchical levels. To reduce further gender bias the fictional character used in the vignettes was given a gender-neutral name: Pat.

The aim of Study 1 was to investigate whether proactive behaviour similarity between leader-follower would ultimately lead to trust. To create both a proactive and passive Pat, 8 vignettes were developed, four of which were generated using the Proactive Behaviour Scale (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010) and four using the Proactive Personality scale (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), as a foundation of the vignette narrative. The Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) proactive behaviour scale includes 11 items, with three different proactive behaviour foci: Organisational foci (3 items), Interpersonal Foci (4 items) and Personal Foci (4 items); whereas Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer, (1999), shortened version of proactive personality scale includes 10 items.

The vignettes retained the language used in the original scale for the proactive Pat character and used the same language polarized for the passive Pat. However, the behaviours described in the proactivity scales were regarded as being highly socially desirable behaviours. Hence, to create a more realistic scenario and to enhance the likeability of both proactive/passive Pat, some negative aspects of proactivity were added when describing proactive Pat, such as “team members have more than once complained of Pats’ behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things ” and some positive aspects of passivity were added to passive Pat, such as “Pat, reaches his/her monthly goals, gets along with staff and costumers and has never caused the organization any problems”(see Appendix C).

A total of 4 surveys were developed, each survey contained 2 vignettes, where Pat was either a leader or a subordinate, and in one vignette Pat was proactive while in other Pat was passive. Each vignette was followed by a questionnaire, which measured participants trust and affect towards Pat and participants perception of similarity towards Pat.

Section 1 of the questionnaire contained standard demographic questions, specifically age and gender, as previous research suggests that these variables can have an effect on some of the research variables tested in this research programme (Parker's et al. 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Section 2 contained two vignettes, in one vignette Pat was proactive and in the other Pat was passive. After each vignette the participants were presented with questionnaire containing scales which measure respondents' perception of similarity with Pat, their trust in Pat, and their affective reaction to Pat. The completed questionnaire was presented online using Qualtrics surveys.

7.3.1 Pre-Testing Survey tools

To ensure the face validity of the eight vignettes, copies were sent to five subject matter experts (SMEs) to assess the consistency of the descriptions of proactive or passive Pat with the validated constructs in proactive research. The SMEs were all organisational psychologists holding PhDs and were research experienced and faculty at Dublin City University. The five SMEs were supplied with definitions of proactivity and passivity (Belschak & DenHartog, 2010) and scored 100% accuracy in the allocation of vignette character (Pat) to the Passive and Proactive conditions (see Appendix F).

The vignettes with scales (questionnaire given to participants) were then piloted on two experienced researchers within DCU Business School to confirm the clarity of instructions and the presentation style of the questionnaire. Both experienced researchers agreed that both instructions and presentation style were clear. The questionnaire was then given to a small focus group of four students (one student for each questionnaire condition) to ensure face validity and that the language and instructions were clear. The focus group was timed while completing the questionnaire, averaging on 10 minutes per participant. Respondents were encouraged to provide feedback on survey items and instructions. Based on students' feedback, no significant changes were made to the four questionnaires.

7.4 Methodology

Ethical approval was sought for the research programme from Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee and approval was granted (see REC letter of approval Appendix I).

7.4.1 Procedure

Full-time and part-time students enrolled in Dublin City University Business School and University of Limerick Business School were accessed and invited to participate in the research. The background of the research and assurances of anonymity was supplied to all participants by email (see Appendix A). Students' emails were accessed through lecturers who volunteered to support the present research. Each participant accessed the questionnaire via an online link (Qualtrics). On assessing the questionnaire each respondent was presented with a cover letter and a consent form to which they had to approve in order for the questionnaire to begin. If the respondents did not approve, Qualtrics automatically terminated the survey. Respondents were

randomly allocated to one of the four conditions and when they entered, they activated the vignette and questionnaire. The presentation of the post vignette scales (trust, similarity and affect) were randomized expect for Section1-demographics.

The survey was put online on the 17th of October 2016 and was left open until the 16th of December 2016 (see Appendix A & C).

7.4.2 Participants

Study 1 sample consisted of 273 students, (126 males, 145 females and 1=unknown) from two universities in Ireland (Dublin City University and University of Limerick), where 33.9% were part-time students and 66.1 % were fulltime students. The sample level of education: 44.5% had a leaving certificate or equivalent (high school diploma), 52.3% a degree and the remainder did not identify an education level. The majority of the sample had work experience (80.6%), while 19.4% did not. The majority of the sample was Irish (71.8 %) and the remaining 28.2% where from different countries (Chinese 6.3%, Italian 3.3%, British 2.2 %, French, 2.1 %, Indian, 1%, all other nationalities did not exceed 1%)(see full sample characteristics in Appendix G) The average age was 29.9 years with an age range going from 18 to 68 years. Participants took on average 10 minutes to complete the online questionnaire.

7.4.3 Measures

Trust

Trust in the fictional character Pat was measured using the Gillespie's 10 item Behavioral Trust Inventory (BTI; Gillespie, 2003). The BTI was developed to capture a behavioural aspect of

willingness to be vulnerable rather than the traditional trustworthiness proxy used for measuring trust (Gillespie, 2003).

The BTI was developed to capture both interdependence and risk and measure two dimensions of trust intentions, intention to rely and intention to disclose. Gillespie (2012, p 183) defines reliance as “relying on another’s skills, knowledge, judgements or actions including delegating and giving autonomy” and disclosure as “sharing work-related or personal information of a sensitive nature”. The BTI scale has delivered strong reliability, for both reliance, consistently $> .89$ (Gillespie, 2003; Lam, Loi, & Leong; 2013; Van der Werff & Buckley; 2017) and disclosure $> .91$ (Gillespie, 2003; Lam, Loi, & Leong; 2013; Van der Werff & Buckley; 2017).

The items of the original BTI scale were adapted to reflect Pat as the referent. The original statement “your leader” was replaced with “Pat”. A sample item in study 1 now reads “How willing are you to rely on your Pat’s work-related judgement?”. When the participant was the immediate supervisor, the instructions read “This section asks about your willingness, as Pat’s supervisor, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat”. Whereas when the participant was a subordinate instruction read “This section asks about your willingness, as Pat’s employee, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat”. Respondents were asked to indicate their willingness to trust behaviour on a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 = Strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.

Affect

Participants' affect towards Pat was measured using PANAS affect scale was used (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Twenty affect term descriptors are included in the scale, ten items are descriptors of positive affect (PA) and ten items are descriptors of negative affect (NA). The PANAS has been found to be both a valid and reliable measure of affect, $\alpha = 0.88$ positive affect scale and $\alpha = 0.85$ negative affect scale (Crawford & Henry, 2004), $\alpha = 0.85$ positive affect scale and $\alpha = 0.90$ negative affect scale (Ostir, Smith, Smith & Ottenbacher, 2005) $\alpha = 0.89$ positive affect scale and $\alpha = 0.85$ negative affect scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Participants rated their response on a scale of 1 to 7 (1= don't feel this at all towards Pat, 7= strongly feel this towards Pat). Instructions read "This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your work colleague Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now".

Similarity

Similarity between the participant and fictional character Pat was measured using the McCroskey, Richmond, and Daly (1975) homophily scale based on a subset of scales developed by McCroskey et al. (1974). The scale delivered strong reliability ($\alpha = 0.85$). This scale was then revised by Mc Croskey and Young (1981) and it consists of a 3-item scale, this also showed strong reliability ($\alpha = 0.87$). McCroskey, Richmond, and Daly (1975) homophily scale, had also been used in more recent studies showing reliabilities of $\alpha > 0.79$ (Amsbary, Vogel, Hickson, Wittig, & Oakes, 2009; Nowak & Rauh, 2005).

A sample item in study 1 now reads “is very similar to me/is very dissimilar from me”. Participants rated their response on a scale of 1 to 7 Likert scale (1= I feel very similar to Pat, 7= I feel very different from Pat). Instructions read “Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Pat by ticking the appropriate box.

7.4.4 Responses

315 respondents completed the survey. After screening the data (see section 7.4.5 below), out of the 315 responses only 273 responses were used for the proactive Pat while only 264 for the passive Pat. All participant responses were then transferred and securely stored on an SPSS file with access restricted to the researcher alone.

7.4.5 Data Preparation

Before analysis, a number of steps were taken to prepare the data. First, questionnaires were screened for missing data. Second, data was checked for normality, skewness and outliers. Finally, the raw data was examined for potential issues such as multicollinearity.

Missing data occurs when respondents decide to not take part in the research all together or might opt not to answer a specific item or skip a precise section in the survey. Participants’ failure to respond to questionnaire items can lead to statistical power and validity issues. In the initial examination of Study 1 surveys, a significant amount of data was found to be missing due to 42 participants in the proactive Pat survey and 53 in the passive Pat survey not completing the entire questionnaire. The missing data cases were classified as missing completely at random which refers to data that is unrelated to any other observed or missing data, in other words there is a non-systematic pattern of missing data (Little & Rubin, 2002). As

no pattern was found in terms of date or sequence of participation, the missing data cases were removed. Once these cases were eliminated, the other 273 (proactive Pat survey) and 264 (passive Pat survey) of responses showed 100 percent of completeness at item level.

Descriptive statistics and frequencies for all variables in Study 1 were carefully analysed to gain insight into the sample characteristics, distribution of responses and to ensure that no errors had occurred during data entry. Means, trimmed means, medians, standard deviation, minimum and maximum score and visual examination of boxplots were used to locate and determine univariate outliers for each variable (Pallant, 2005) and to ensure that values were within expected range. Plotting of the data showed the data was normally distributed and the skewness of 0.41 which showed that the data was approximately centred. Outliers were retained depending on combination of their box plot scores, 5% trimmed mean comparison, Z scores and visual examination of case responses. In Study 1, no case showed excessive outliers.

Next correlations between data variables check if multicollinearity (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007) was an issue. Multicollinearity is not an issue in the present study (see result section 7.5), suggesting that research variables are separate constructs that do not predict each other.

7.4.6 Data Analysis Strategy

The data analysis strategy employed in Study 1 involved two stages. Firstly, the measurement model specified in the study was inspected to confirm the factor structure, the internal consistency of each measure and finally examined the descriptive statistics and the

relationships between study variables. Secondly, the analysis focused on the structural model and the testing of study 1 hypotheses.

To understand how well a factor model fits the data, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Bollen & Stine, 1989) was utilised. CFA was run using all items present in a questionnaire as indicators (total disaggregation) (Bollen & Stine, 1989; Williams, 2000; Williams et al., 2009) as it has the advantage of providing key information on the strength of the relationship between indicators and latent variables (i.e. standardized factor loadings and error variance) on all items participants responded to (Williams et al., 2009). Finally, the CFA model in study 1 used reflective measurements which are 'observed manifestations of unobserved latent variables', the direction of casualty goes from the latent variable to the indicator (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999; Williams et al., 2009)

The CFA used the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation procedure to analyse the interrelationship among variables to assure that all observed covariances correctly represent the population (Kline, 2011). Following Hu and Bentler (1999), and Bentler (1995, 2007) the present research assessed 4 goodness of fit. The most basic model test statistics is the model chi-square (χ^2), Kline (2005) suggests that a good model can be indicated by χ^2/df (Chi square/degrees of freedom) below 3. The root mean square error (RMSEA) is a commonly used measure which assess the difference between values (sample values) predicated by a model estimator and the actual observed values, generally a RMSEA indices of less than .06 are considered good model fits. The Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is an incremental fit index which measures the improvement of fit between the hypothesised model and the

independence model. CFI above .90 are considered to be a good model fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend using CFI together with standardized root mean square residuals (SRMR). The SRMR is the measure of differences between observed and predicted correlation. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested a threshold of less than .08 for acceptable fit.

The aim of structural equation modelling (SEM) is to analyse the structural relationship between observed variables and latent constructs combining factor analysis (measurement analysis) and multiple regression analysis (path analysis) under one single data analysis tool (Bagozzi, 2011). After running the CFA of the path model a structural model was run to test the hypotheses using SEM. SEM is a widely employed technique “to evaluate the validity of substantive theories with empirical data” (Lei & Wu, 2007).

An advantage of SEM is that it allows to simultaneously study direct and indirect effects between endogenous and exogenous variables. An indirect effect occurs when the effect of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables is mediated by one or more intervening variables (Kline, 2005).

7. 5 Results Study 1

The following section will present the descriptive statistics of study 1, the CFA of the measurement model and the SEM analysis.

7.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

In the tables below (table 10) the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and correlation and Cronbach alphas on the diagonal) of all tested variables of proactive and passive Pat are displayed. The sample size is slightly smaller for the participants who answered the passive Pat questionnaire (N= 264 v's N=273). The variable means for both passive and

proactive Pat are broadly similar with some variations in means can be noted in positive affect, suggesting more positive emotions towards a proactive Pat rather than a passive Pat.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics for Proactive Pat sample

	Mean	S.D.	Trust	Similarity	Positive Affect	Negative Affect
Trust	4.35	1.64	(.95)			
Similarity	4.05	1.94	.69**	(.97)		
Positive Affect	3.91	1.57	.64**	.51**	(.95)	
Negative Affect	2.8	1.36	-.58**	-.45**	-.26	(.86)

N=273

Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are in parentheses.

** p < .01; * p < .05

The correlation results for both the proactive and passive Pat sample variables show a significant and positive relation between trust and similarity, trust and positive affect and similarity and positive affect. On the other hand, the correlation results for both the proactive and passive Pat sample variables show a significant and negative relation between trust and negative affect, similarity and negative affect.

The internal consistency of each of the study variables was assessed using Cronbach's alpha.

The commonly accepted threshold for reliability is .75. (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). All variables showed acceptable levels of reliability as can be seen below.

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics for Passive Pat sample

	Mean	S.D.	Trust	Similarity	Positive Affect	Negative Affect
Trust	4.2	1.5	(.93)			
Similarity	4.4	1.0	.65**	(.97)		
Positive Affect	2.7	1.36	.56**	.35**	(.87)	
Negative Affect	2.3	1.1	-.47**	-.40**	-0.08	(.82)

N=264

Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are in parentheses.

** p < .01; * p < .05

7.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To examine the interrelationships among the variables, structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed in AMOS 23, with Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation. To confirm the three-factor structure (trust, similarity and affect) for the measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model was employed. When running the CFA, a number of items showed poor loading, specifically in the affect scale and the IOS scale. In the positive affect scale for both the proactive and passive Pat sample the positive affect item “excitement” loaded poorly (.09) and again for both the proactive and passive sample the negative affect item “jittery” loaded poorly (1.3). Due to poor loading these items were removed.

The hypothesised CFA model for the three factor model yielded a good fit of data, $\chi^2 (423) = 749$, $p < .001$, SMRM=.062, RMSEA=.053, CFI=.062 (for proactive Pat sample) and $\chi^2 (451)=863$, $p < .001$, SMRM=.087, RMSEA=.059, CFI=.092 (for passive Pat sample). The hypothesised models were then compared using the Chi Square difference test (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), these models achieved superior fit to the alternative models (see Table 12).

Table 13. Test of diverse Alternative CFA models Specifications- Proactive Pat Sample

Model Tested	χ^2	Df	$\Delta\chi^2$	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI
1. Hypothesised model	749.0	423	-	.062	0.54	.94
2. Nested model	940.36	485	150.36*	0.68	0.59	.92

Note: χ^2 = Chi-square discrepancy, df = degrees of freedom; $\Delta\chi^2$ = difference in chi-square; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean-square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. *p < .001

Table 14. Test of diverse Alternative CFA models Specifications- Passive Pat Sample

Model Tested	χ^2	Df	$\Delta\chi^2$	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI
1. Hypothesised model	863.0	451	-	.088	.059	.92
2. Nested model	970.3	485	107.3*	0.89	0.62	.91

Note: χ^2 = Chi-square discrepancy, df = degrees of freedom; $\Delta\chi^2$ = difference in chi-square; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean-square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. *p < .001

7.5.3 Structure equation modelling (SEM) analysis

Following the CFA for the measurement model, the hypothesised model was tested using structure equation modelling (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), which examined whether participants' perception of similarity to a fictional character Pat was positively related to trust in Pat and positive affect; while perception of dissimilarity to a fictional character Pat was negatively related to trust and negative affect.

The model indicated full mediating effect of trust between leader-follower perceptions of similarity and affect and displayed an adequate fit to data , χ^2 (396)=710.74, p < .001, SMRM=.062, RMSEA=.054, CFI=.94 (for proactive Pat sample) and χ^2 (453)=867, p < .001, SMRM=.088, RMSEA=.059, CFI=.92 (for passive Pat sample). In both, the 'Proactive Pat' and 'Passive Pat' path model perceptions of similarity between the participant and the fictional

character Pat reached significance, suggesting that perceptions of similarity lead to trust, supporting hypotheses 1a and hypothesis 2a. The two path models further tested whether the resulting trust was positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect. Once again, the path model supported the hypothesised relationships among study variables, supporting hypothesis 1b and 2b.

Figure 12 and 13 below shows the path model for both proactive and passive Pat sample and standardized estimates.

Figure 12. Proactive Pat Model- Relationships between congruence, trust, positive/negative affect **p<.01.

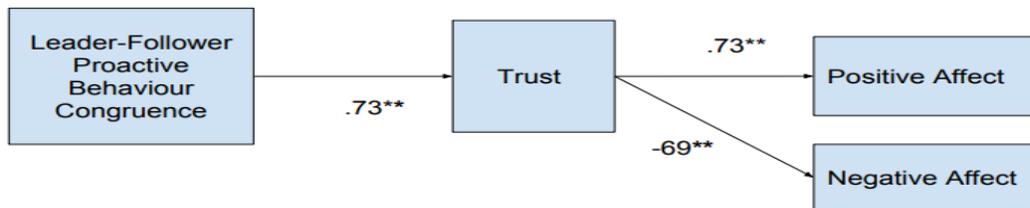
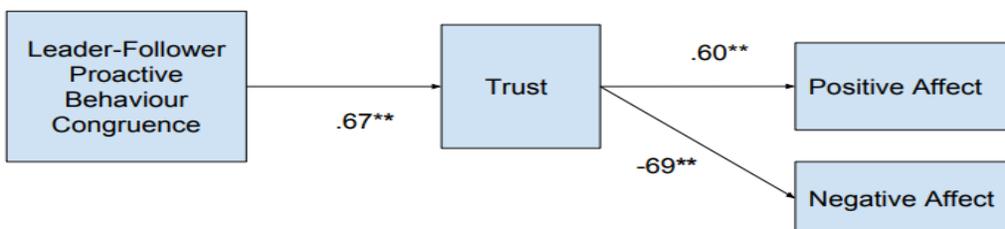
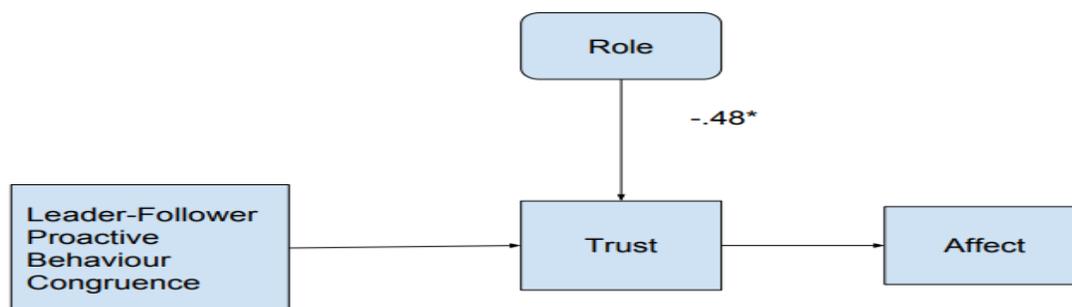


Figure 13. Passive Pat Model-Relationships between congruence, trust, positive/negative affect **p<.01.



The path model indicates a full mediation effect of trust between similarity and affect for both the proactive and passive Pat sample. Role was not found to moderate the relationship between similarity and trust, rejecting hypothesis 3. Notably, the analysis revealed that role did have a direct effect on trust when Pat was proactive, suggesting that leaders regardless of similarity are less likely to trust a proactive Pat (see Figure 14). The model showed an adequate fit $\chi^2(454) = 792.8, p < .001, SRMR = .062, RMSEA = .052, CFI = .094$.

Figure 14. Pat Proactive Model-Relationships between congruence, trust, positive/negative an affect role $p < .01$, * $p < .05$**



Gender was also controlled for in both samples (proactive and passive Pat) and showed no significant effect in the proactive Pat sample on trust ($b = -.04, SE = .13, t = -.33$) and no significant effect in the proactive Pat sample on affect ($b = -.02, SE = .10, t = -.20$). In the passive Pat sample gender also showed no significant effect on trust ($b = -.12, SE = .13, t = -.92$) nor on affect ($b = -.15, SE = .16, t = -.93$). Age was also controlled for and showed no significant effect on the passive Pat sample on trust ($b = .003, SE = .008, t = -.46$) and on affect ($b = -.003, SE = .006, t = -.57$). Finally, age was also controlled for in the proactive Pat sample and again showed no effect on both trust ($b = -.009, SE = .007, t = -.11$) and affect ($b = -.009, SE = .005, t = -1.66$).

7.6 Preliminary Discussion of Results of Study 1

The aim of study 1 was to verify whether perceptions of similarity between the participant and the fictional character Pat was positively associated to trust, and if the resulting trust was positively related to affect. On the other hand, perceptions of dissimilarity between the participant and fictional character Pat were expected to be negatively related to trust and the resulting trust negatively related to positive affect. Furthermore, role was also expected to moderate the relation between similarity and trust.

Results showed that leader-follower perception of similarity was positively related to trust and that the resulting trust was positively related to positive affect. Conversely, leader-follower mismatch of perception was negatively related to trust and the resulting trust was negatively related to negative affect. These results confirm the hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a and 2b of Study 1. Hypothesis 3 was instead rejected, suggesting that role did not moderate the relation between leader-follower congruence/incongruence and trust. Notably, role was found to have a direct effect on trust when Pat was proactive.

The results provide evidence that similarity of perception does influence trust within the dyad regardless of whether Pat is proactive or passive. Participants' perception of similarity was in fact positively related to trust, which suggests that identification plays an important role in trust formation. Therefore, in line with social identity theory, the present research confirms that similarity does enhance trust between individuals also if they are at different hierarchical levels within the organisation. In fact, individuals' identification with others enhances their self-worth and self-esteem and limits uncertainty about one's self-concept, reinforcing that who they are is the "right" way to be (Tajfel, 1978; Voci, 2006). It can therefore be argued that

individuals are more likely to trust people who do not challenge their self-worth and their self-concept as such challenge would create a self-concept crisis.

Trust between individuals is therefore not only formed through social exchanges as the majority of the empirical trust research suggests but is also formed through social identification (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Hogg, 2001).

Participants in study 1 were immersed in the scenario and had to make immediate judgements on Pat, suggesting that social identity impacts trust formation from an initial encounter (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). From a social exchange perspective, it could be argued that after a number of exchanges individuals' opinion of others might evolve over time depending on the level of cooperation between the parties involved (Blau, 1964). Whether or not social identification impacts trust levels within enduring relationships will be further explored in Study 2.

The finding also supports interpersonal affect regulation theory (Niven et al., 2012) which suggests that when an individual perceives the other party as in-group members then they trust them by default, while perceptions of dissimilarity are associated with lower levels of trust. In the present research, affective displays appear to develop after the trust bond has been formed. Results of study 1 show that positive affect is displayed once in-group trust has been developed, whereas negative affective displays are associated with low trust towards the out-group members. It would be interesting for future research to further test if these results can be confirmed through a longitudinal study.

Results deliver insight into the dark side of proactivity. Although no moderation effect of role was found between leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour and trust, some

important findings concerning how proactive behaviour is perceived by leaders has come to light. Although employees' proactive behaviour has been generally deemed important for organisational success, leaders appear to not always be fond of subordinates' proactive behaviour (Belschak, Den Hartog, & Fay, 2010). In agreement with Belschak et al. (2010), results of study 1 suggest that generally leaders are less trusting of proactive employees compared to more passive employees. This finding appears to be similarly true when leader perceives themselves as engaging in similar levels of proactive behaviour to the subordinate. This result therefore suggest that a dark side of proactivity does exist, however the reason behind this result needs further investigation to better understand what is causing leader to generally trust less proactive employees compared to more passive employees.

Chapter 8

Study 2

This chapter will open by discussing the research design of Study 2, focusing on explaining cross-sectional designs. Next, it will discuss how the survey tools were pretested to ensure the validity of the questionnaire. Following, the methodology will describe the sample, the measurements and the procedure employed. Next, a theoretical insight into the analysis strategy utilised to test the research hypotheses will be given and results will be presented. Concluding, a preliminary discussion of Study 2 will be conferred.

8.1 Introduction

Building on social identity theory, study 2 suggests that leader-follower congruence will be positively related to trust. On the other hand, leader-follower incongruence will be negatively related to trust. Study 2 replicates in a field study this first part of the theoretical model that has been already tested in study 1. However, in study 1 participants' perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity was only measured in one direction; whereas in study 2 perceptions of proactive behaviour are measured in two directions: the leader's and the followers' perception. Additionally, study 2 tests the moderating effect tie strength has between leader-follower congruence and trust. Research shows that the closer the relationship is between employees (tie strength) the more likely they are to share and acquire knowledge from each other (Levin & Cross, 2004; Hansen, 1999). Such interactions can uncover commonalities which can strengthen identification between parties resulting in greater trust (Dokko et al., 2014).

Next study 2, explores how the resulting trust impacts employees' decision to engage in voice or silent behaviour. It is suggested that leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence will be positively related to trust which will ultimately result in employees engaging in pro-social silence or voice. Whereas, leader- follower proactive behaviour incongruence will be negatively related to trust this will ultimately result in employees engaging in defensive silence or acquiescent silence. Specifically, the research hypotheses of study 2 propose:

Hypothesis 1 a: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust

Hypothesis 1 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust which results in employees engaging in prosocial silence

Hypothesis 1 c: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust which results in employees engaging in upward voice

Hypothesis 2 a: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust

Hypothesis 2 b: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust which result in employees engaging in defensive silence.

Hypothesis 2 c: Leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust which result in employees engaging in acquiescent silence

Hypothesis 3: Strength of tie moderates the relationship between leader-follower perceptions of similarity and trust.

Figure 15 and 16 illustrate the theoretical model for study 2.

Figure 15. Theoretical Models Study 2: Leader-Follower Congruence

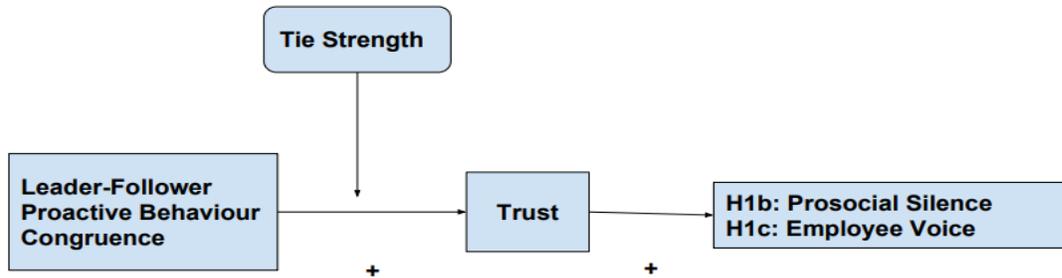
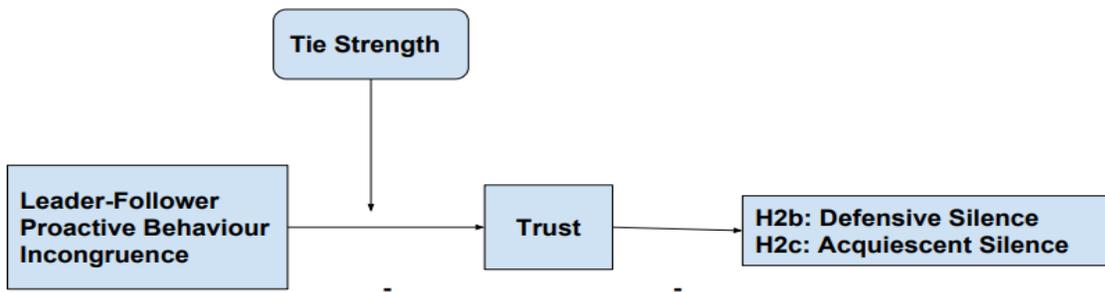


Figure 16. Theoretical Models Study 2: Leader-Follower Incongruence



8.2 Research Design

Study 2 adopted a positivist quantitative approach to test the relevant hypotheses using validated scales (Bartlett, 2005; Edmondson & McManus, 2007; McGuire, 1986). Study 2 utilised a cross sectional design collecting data from a population at one point in time, a snapshot of that population (Creswell, 1994).

A self-report questionnaire format was chosen for the following reasons. Self-report questionnaires provide a relatively inexpensive, quick, efficient, and accurate means of administering and collecting data from a specific population (Saunders et al., 2007). It also

allows respondents to answer questionnaires anonymously and confidentially without the interference of the researcher (Tourangeau & Smith, 1996). Finally, self-report questionnaires provide the ability to identify potential causal relationships that can later be tested experimentally (Bordens & Abbott, 2008).

Self-report questionnaires have limitations including response rates (Bryman & Bell, 2007), which is generally lower than in other methods. Secondly, common method variance, describes the potential threat to construct validity and distorted covariances posed by the use of a particular method of measuring research variables (Brannick, Chan, Conway, Lance, & Spector, 2010). Finally, the third disadvantage is that causal inferences cannot be clearly drawn from correlational data due to two issues: 1) existence of a confounding variable and 2) directionality of relationships between focal variables (Borden & Abbott, 2008; Haslam & McGarty, 2003).

To minimize the limitations of self-report questionnaires a number of steps and strategies were adopted to minimize the limitations of the self-report format (8.3.5).

8.2.1 Pre-Testing Survey Tools

To assure the face validity of the questionnaires utilised in study 2, two experienced researchers at Dublin City University were asked to assess the clarity of the questionnaire instructions, the suitability of the questionnaire's structure and that all relevant theoretical variables were included. Both experienced researchers agreed that the questionnaire was at a suitable standard to be administered to employees. Next, the questionnaire was given to a small focus group, consisting of two leaders and four employees, to ensure that items had had

face validity for respondents and that the language used and instructions were clear. All participants were timed, to give the researcher insight into the time required to complete the questionnaire (leader questionnaire took on average 10 minutes; while employee questionnaire took on average 8 minutes). Respondents were encouraged to provide feedback on survey items and instructions. As a result of respondents' feedback no significant alteration were made to the questionnaire.

8.3 Methodology

Ethical approval was sought from Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee and approval was granted (see REC letter of approval Appendix I).

8.3.1 Participants

Study 2 was answered by employees at different hierarchical levels in three different organisations in Ireland, a multinational organisation and two community services.

The sample consisted of 43 leaders, (males= 18, females=24; unknown = 1), 28 of whom were Irish while the rest were of diverse origins (Appendix H). The average age of leaders was 41.9 years with the youngest leader being 26 years old and the oldest being 64-year-old. Participants who decided to take part in the study took on average 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The education level varied in the sample with 6.9% holding a leaving certificate (high school diploma), 16.2 % holding a Diploma, 34.8 % holding a Bachelor's degree, 39.5 % holding a Master's Degree and 2.3 % unknown.

The employee sample consisted of 124 participants, (males = 49, females =73; unknown = 2) 73.3 % while the remainder were of diverse origins (4% Brazilians, 3.2% Italian, 3.2% French, see Appendix H). The average age of employees was 37.2 years with a range from 21 to 65 years. The education level varied with in the sample with 18.8% holding a leaving certificate (high school diploma), 40.3 % holding a Diploma, 30.6 % holding a Bachelor's Degree, 17.7 % holding a Master's Degree, 0.8% holding a PhD and 1.6 % unknown.

8.3.2 Measures:

Proactive Behaviour

Belschak and Den Hartog's (2010) 11 item proactive behaviour scale was used in study 2. The scale has three subscales relating to three different proactive behaviour foci: 3 organizational foci items, 4 interpersonal foci items and 4 personal foci items. The present study only utilised the organizational foci items and the interpersonal foci items (7 items in total). The proactive behaviour scale was used to measure leaders' perception of followers' proactive behaviour and subordinates' perception of leaders' proactive behaviour. Hence, the personal foci items were not included as it was considered that subordinates might not be familiar with leaders' proactivity level when engaging in personal tasks.

The wording was maintained as much as possible to the original scale, however, the word "colleague" was changed to "immediate supervisor" in the employee questionnaire or "employee" in the leader questionnaire.

The instructions for leader respondent read: "This section relates to your perception of Employee 1, 2 3, 4 &5. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following

statements by ticking the appropriate box". The instructions for subordinates read: "This section asks you for your perception of your current immediate supervisor behaviour. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box". Original item wording in the leader respondent questionnaire such as "at work, your colleague acquires new knowledge that will help the company", was modified to "at work, the employee acquires new knowledge that will help organisation", for the leader questionnaire; while in the follower questionnaire the modified statement read "My immediate supervisor acquires new knowledge that will help the organisation"(see Appendix, D). Respondents were asked to indicate their perception of immediate supervisor/subordinate on a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 = Strongly disagree and 7= Strongly agree.

The CFA conducted by Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) confirmed that the three different foci in the proactive behaviour scale were factorially distinct. The CFA included both self-rated and peer-rated proactive behaviour. Results showed that self-rated and peer-rated proactive behaviour may measure different, yet significantly correlated constructs. To investigate the convergent validity of the proactive behaviour scale, Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) computed a multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) matrix including self- and peer-ratings of proactive behaviour. Altogether MTMM correlations were large and significantly different from zero (ranging from .30 to .41, $p < .01$) showing that convergent validity was achieved. Discriminant validity was instead achieved through CFAs. Cronbach alphas for peer rated were respectively $\alpha = .87$ (organisational proactive behaviour), $\alpha = .87$ (interpersonal proactive behaviour) and $\alpha = .88$ (personal proactive behaviour). In the present research programme the proactive behaviour scale showed good reliabilities both for leaders questionnaire ($\alpha = .94$) for

the organisational proactive behaviour and ($\alpha = .93$) for the interpersonal proactive behaviour and the employees questionnaire ($\alpha = .95$) for the organisational proactive behaviour and ($\alpha = .92$) for the interpersonal proactive behaviour.

Trust

Subordinate trust in leader was measured using the Gillespie's Behavioral Trust Inventory (BTI; Gillespie, 2003), the same scale used in Study 1. The BTI has previously been discussed in Chapter 7, section 7.4.2. and it will therefore not be reviewed again in this chapter.

The BTI scale was only rated by subordinates. The original statement "your leader" was replaced with "immediate supervisor?". A sample item in study 2 now reads "How willing are you to rely on your immediate supervisor work-related judgement?". Instructions read "This section asks about your willingness to relate to your immediate supervisor. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on your immediate supervisor".

Respondents were asked to indicate their willingness to trust behaviour on a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 = Strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing. The scale in the present study showed a good reliability ($\alpha = .96$)

Voice

Van Dyne and Le Pine's (1998) six item upward voice scale was utilised to rate follower's upward voice to leader. Only leaders rated their perception of employees' upward voice behaviour.

A sample item “This particular co-worker develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group” was changed into “The employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work place”. Instructions read “The following section involves the likelihood of Employee 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5 to engage in the following behaviour. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box”. The scale consists of six items and respondents were asked to indicate their willingness to trust behaviour on a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 = Strongly disagree and 7= Strongly agree.

Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) measured the reliability of the scale in a longitudinal study which showed significant reliability for self, peer and supervisor rating, with Cronbach's alphas of .88, .95, and .94 at time 1 and .89, .96, and .94 at time 2. Van Dyne and Le Pine (1998) voice scale has been widely used in the literature, showing generally acceptable reliabilities $\alpha > .90$ (Detert & Burris, 2007; Venkataramani, Le Zhou, Wang, Liao & Shi, 2016). In the present research programme the voice scale showed a good reliability of $\alpha = .93$.

Silence

To measure employees silence Van Dyne, Ang and Botero (2003) items of silence were used. The scale consists of three forms silence, Acquiescent Silence, Defensive Silence and Prosocial silence. Each scale contains 5 items, for a total of 15 items. This scale was answered by subordinates.

The original statement “This employee is unwilling to speak up with suggestions for change because he/she is disengaged” was adapted to read “I am unwilling to speak up with

suggestions to change because I am disengaged". Instructions read "This section relates to how you often you exhibit the following behaviours. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box". Respondents were asked to indicate their likelihood to remain silent on a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 = Strongly agree and 7= Strongly disagree.

Recent studies show acceptable reliabilities, acquiescent silence, $\alpha > .82$ (Dedahanov & Rhee, 2015; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008) and defensive silence, $\alpha = .85$ (Dedahanov & Rhee, 2015). In the present research programme acquiescent silence, defensive silence and prosocial silence showed acceptable Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of .88, .93 and .71 respectively.

Tie strength-closeness of working relationship scale

Tie strength between immediate supervisor and subordinate was measured using the tie strength-closeness of working relationship scale (Levin & Cross, 2004).

The original statement "how close was your working relationship with each person?" was changed into "how close is your relationship". Instructions read "The following section involves your relation to Employee 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5 to engage in the following behaviour. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box". Respondents were asked to indicate the strength of tie on a seven-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly distant and 7= Very close.

The reported reliability of the scale has been positive ($\alpha = .80.$; Levin & Cross, 2004). In the present study the Cronbach alpha reliability was .74.

8.3.3 Procedure

The CEOs of a number of organisations were approached by the researcher and those who agreed to participate were given a briefing which explained the research and the procedure. Three CEO's consented to their organisations becoming involved. It was emphasised that it was vital to the success of the study that the leader and follower are matched correctly. As this could not be accomplished with an online questionnaire, in the research context, a pen and paper questionnaire was employed.

Questionnaires were distributed to employees at different hierarchical levels in the three participating organisations in Ireland. Two different questionnaires were distributed: one questionnaire was specifically designed for subordinates and the other for leaders (immediate supervisors). Subordinates rated themselves on a silence scale and rated their willingness to trust their immediate supervisor and their perception of immediate supervisor' proactive behaviour (see Appendix B & D). The, immediate supervisors rated the perceived proactive behaviour, upward voice and tie strength of their five subordinates (see Appendix B & E). Table 14 lists the diverse measurement scales utilised in Study 2 and indicates who rated each scale.

Table 15. Summary of measurement scales and who rated each scale

	Rated by Leader	Rated by Follower
Proactive Behaviour Scale (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010)	X	X
Trust Scale (Gillespie, 2003)		X
Voice (Van Dyne & Le Pine, 1998)	X	
Silence (Van Dyne, Ang & Botero, 2003)		X
Strength of tie (Levin & Cross, 2004)	X	

Each supervisor rated on average 5 employees within their team, while 5 employees of the same team rated the same immediate supervisor (43 supervisor, 124 employees).

The supervisors received their own questionnaire and 5 subordinate focused questionnaires. Supervisors were asked to pick 5 employees from their team as randomly as possible. Each employee focused questionnaire was labelled as Employee 1,2,3,4 and 5 of Team number x. The supervisor was required to distribute the employee questionnaire to the five selected participants within his/her team, for these subordinates to complete. However, as the present research programme is interested in the perceived congruence/incongruence between leader and employee, the leader had to confidentially identify who s/he was giving the labelled questionnaires too, to assure that employee 1 on the leaders' questionnaire was the same employee 1 who was rating the leader. The leaders were then recommended to dispose of any identifiers.

All participants were given sealed envelopes together with their questionnaire to assure employees confidentiality and anonymity. All employees were then asked to drop their sealed envelope into boxes that were supplied by researcher to organisations. The researcher collected the boxes one month after the delivery of the questionnaires. The survey was distributed on the 6th of January 2017 and completed questionnaires were collected on the 15th February 2017.

8.3.4 Responses

196 respondents in total completed the survey. After screening the data 28 questionnaires had to be eliminated as they were either blank (N=18) or no leader-follower match (N=10) was found. Only 43 leader responses were admissible and 125 subordinate responses. Once questionnaires were collected all data was manually and securely moved on an SPSS file with access restricted to researcher alone.

8.3.5 Data Preparation

Before analysis, a number of steps were taken to prepare the data. First, questionnaires were screened for missing data. Second, data was checked for normality, skewness and outliers. Finally, the raw data was examined for potential issues such as multicollinearity

The 28 questionnaires that were eliminated were classified as MCAR as no pattern was found in terms of data or sequence of participation and were therefore removed (see section, 8.3.4; Newman, 2009). The 43 leaders' questionnaire and 125 employee questionnaire showed 100 percent of completeness at item level.

Descriptive statistics and frequencies for all variables in Study 2 were carefully reviewed for normality of response distribution into the sample characteristics, distribution of responses and that no errors had occur during data entry. Means, trimmed means, medians, standard deviation, minimum and maximum score and boxplots were reviewed to locate and determine univariate outliers for each variable (Pallant, 2005) and to ensure that values were within expected range. Plotting of the data showed the data was normally distributed and the skewness of $-.48$ showed that the data was approximately centred. Outliers were retained depending on combination of their box plot scores, 5% trimmed mean comparison, Z scores and visual examination of case responses. In Study 2, one case showed excessive outliers with extreme box plot scores and excess Z scores across numerous variables. Following visual examination of the case, identical low responses were found for all items across the questionnaire, this case was deleted (employee questionnaire N=124).

Correlations between data variables were reviewed for multicollinearity (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Multicollinearity is not an issue in the present study (see result section 7.5) suggesting that research variables are separate constructs that do not predict each other.

8.3.6 Data Analysis Strategy

CFA was run for study variables and the same 4 goodness of fit used in Study 1 were assessed (χ^2 , CFI, RMSEA, SRMR) (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Bentler, 1995).

To test the study hypotheses, two diverse techniques were employed: (a) a polynomial regression method was utilised to analyse the impact leader-follower congruence had on trust

and (b) a moderated mediation was conducted on PROCESS to analyse the whole theoretical model.

Congruence studies found in the management literature (Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison & Heggstad, 2010; Li & Thatcher, 2015; Zhan, Wang & Shi, 2012) have utilised polynomial regression to assess congruence between two constructs and their relationship to various outcomes. According to Edwards (2002), a polynomial regression approach is based on three assumptions. First, polynomial regression should only be used when the component measures are commensurate. In Study 2, perceptions of proactive behaviour are being measured using the same scale by both immediate supervisor and subordinate, making the component measure commensurate. Second, the component measure must use the same numeric scale. In Study 2, immediate supervisor and the subordinate rate each other on a 1 to 7 Likert scale, therefore using the same numeric scale. Third, it is assumed that component measure contains no measurement error (Pedhazur, 1997). The last assumption is rarely satisfied in the social sciences as measurements always contain some degree of error (Edwards, 2002; Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison & Heggstad, 2010). The general equation to test for relationships using polynomial regression is:

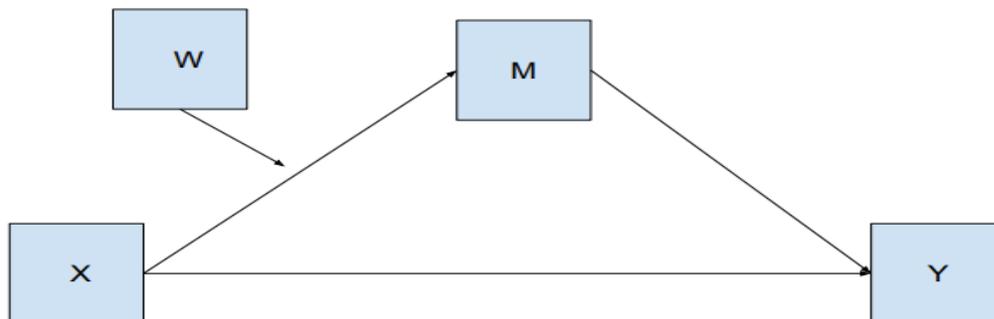
$$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + e$$

Z is a dependent variable (trust), X is Predictor 1 (leader perception of follower proactive behaviour) (LP), and Y is Predictor 2 (follower perception of leaders' proactive behaviour) (EP). Thus, the outcome variable is regressed on each of two predictor variables (X

and Y), the interaction between the two predictor variables (XY), and the squared terms for each of the two predictors (X^2 and Y^2) (Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993)

To analyse the research model as a whole, mediation and moderation analysis needed to be combined and analytically integrated into a unified statistical model called the conditional process model (Hayes, 2012). Edwards and Lambert (2007, p. 6-7) define moderated mediation as: “moderated mediation refers to a mediated effect that varies across levels of a moderator variable”. A conditional process model allows the direct/indirect effects of the independent variable (leader-follower congruence) on a dependent variable (voice or prosocial silence or defensive silence or acquiescent silence) through one mediator (trust) to be moderated (tie strength). Although moderated mediation is not a new concept in the literature (Baron & Kenny, 1986), only recently have tools and systematic procedures been provided for researchers (Hayes, 2015). In the present research programme PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) was utilised as the statistical package to carry the moderated mediation of the present research model. Specifically, model 7 in model templates of PROCESS was utilised to answers the hypotheses of study 2. Figure 17 shows the model template used for data analysis.

Figure 17. PROCESS Template 7



The model of study 2 is a mediated model, as focus is on the estimation of the indirect effect of X (leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence) on Y (the four dependent variables: voice, prosocial silence, acquiescent silence and defensive silence) through an intermediary mediator variable M (trust) casually located between X and Y. Study 2 also tests the moderating effect of W (tie strength) on the X M pathway. As the theoretical model has 4 different dependent variables, the model had to be run four times so as to answer all the hypotheses of study 2.

8.4 Results Study 2

The following section will present the descriptive statistics of all tested variables in study, the CFA of the measurement model, the polynomial regression analysis and SEM analysis.

8.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 15 displays the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and correlations and Cronbach alphas on the diagonal) for both leader and follower sample.

The correlation results for both the employees' perspective of leader proactive behaviour (EP) and leaders' perspective of employee proactive behaviour (LP) show a significant positive relationship to trust and tie strength. EP shows a negative significant relationship to defensive and acquiescent silence. LP shows a positive significant relationship to employees' up-ward voice. Trust shows a positive significant relationship to voice (H 1c) and tie strength and a negative significant relationship to acquiescent (H 2c) and defensive silence (H 2b). The internal consistency of each of the study variables was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, all variables showed acceptable levels of reliability alpha= > .75.

Table 16. Descriptive Statistics

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. EP	5.1	1.3	(.95)								
2.LP	5.2	1.2	.14	(.94)							
3.Trust	5	1.5	.73**	.42**	(.96)						
4.Voice	5.2	1.2	.04	.84**	.27**	(.93)					
5.Defensive Silence	3.4	1.9	-.20*	-.10	-.31**	-.10	(.93)				
6.Acquiescent Silence	3.4	1.8	-.31**	-.17	-.38**	-.11	.82**	(.88)			
7.ProSocial Silence	4.9	1.2	.071	-.05	-.00	-.08	-.02	-.00	(.71)		
8.Strength of Tie	5.5	0.9	.52**	.27**	.75**	.20*	-.29	-.32*	-.06	(.83)	

EP= Employee Perception of Leader's proactive behaviour

LP= Leaders Perception of Leader's proactive behaviour

N=124

Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are in parentheses.

** p < .01; * p < .05

8.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model fit of the SEM model was evaluated based on four goodness of fit indices: χ^2 value; the Root Means Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA); the Standardised Root Means Square Residuals (SRMR) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). To confirm the six-factor structure (trust, strength of tie, prosocial silence, employees' voice, acquiescent silence and defensive silence) for the measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model was employed. When running the CFA, the prosocial silence tool showed poor loading and two items had to be eliminated (item2 and 4 in the questionnaire). Item 2 loaded .13 and item 4 loaded at .15. After eliminating these two items the CFA was run again. The hypothesised CFA model for the six-factor model yielded a good fit of data, $\chi^2 (441) = 638.14$, $p < .001$, SMRM=.060, RMSEA=.059, CFI=.94

The hypothesised model was then compared using the Chi Square difference test (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), the hypothesised model achieved superior fit to the alternative model (see Table 16).

Table 17. Test of diverse Alternative CFA models Specifications

Model Tested	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	SMRM	RMSEA	CFI
1. Hypothesised model	638.14	441	-	.060	0.59	.94
2. Nested model	696.29	441	58.15*	0.58	0.69	.92

Note: χ^2 = Chi-square discrepancy, df = degrees of freedom; $\Delta\chi^2$ = difference in chi-square; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean-square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. * $p < .001$

8.4.3 Testing for Leader-Follower proactive behaviour congruence/incongruence

The effects of leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence/incongruence on trust (H1a & H2a) were tested using polynomial regression. The polynomial regression explores the effect leaders-follower perceptions of congruence or incongruence have on trust. Hence it focuses on testing hypothesis 1a and 2a of Study 2.

Hypothesis 1a was partially supported, results showed that congruence was only positively related to trust when leader and follower perceived each other as engaging in similarly high levels of proactive behaviour. Whereas leader-follower perceptions of engaging in similarly low levels of trust was negatively related to trust ($\beta_1 = 1.02^{***}$).

Hypothesis 2a was instead fully supported, with results showing that leader-follower mismatch of perception was negatively related to trust $\beta_4 (-.33^{***})$. Results are summarised in the table 17.

Table 18. Leader-Follower perception of proactive behaviour as a predictor of trust

Variables	Trust
	b(SE)
Constant b0	4.16 (.14)**
Perceived LP b1	.56 (.06)**
Perceived EP b2	.46 (.08)**
Perceived LP squared b3	-.06 (.03)*
Perceived LP x EP b4	.13 (.03)**
Perceived EP squared b5	-0.12(.03)**
R²	.69 **
Surface tests	
a₁	1.02(.07)**
a₂	.05(.03)
a₃	.10 (.13)
a₄	-.33(.07)**
a₅	.05 (.05)

N = 124

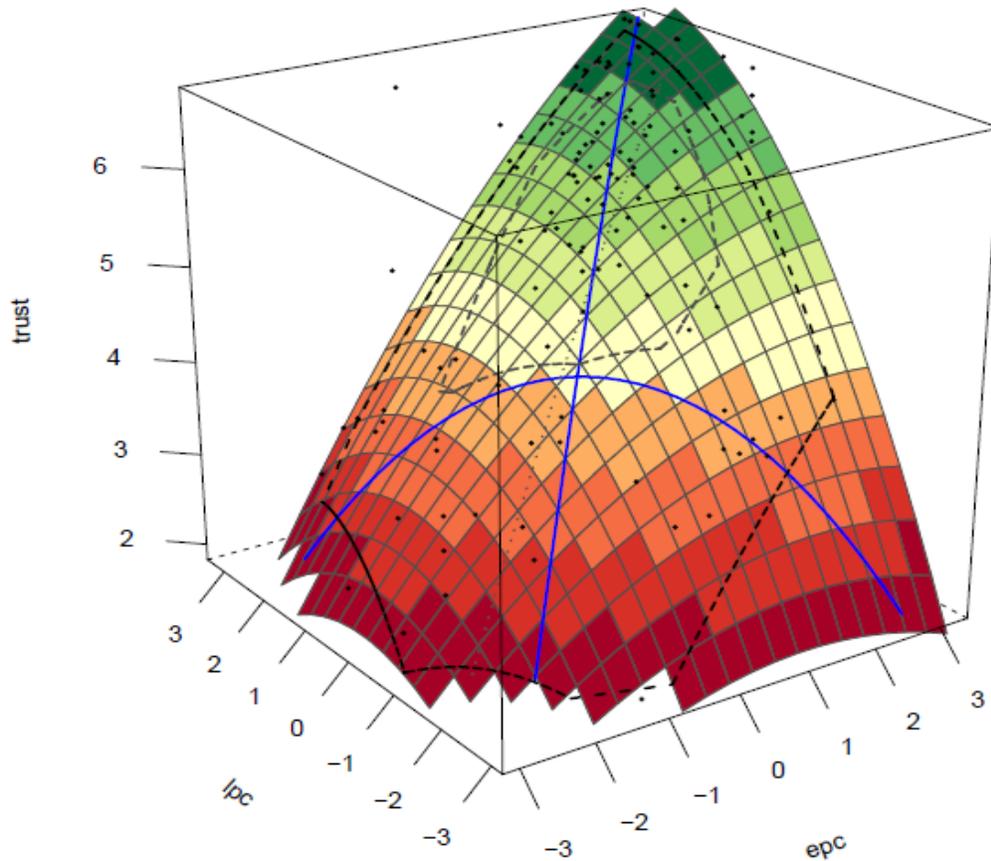
$a_1 = \{b_1 + b_2\}$, where b_1 is beta coefficient for leader perception of employees' proactive behaviour (LP) and b_2 is beta coefficient for employees perception of leader proactive behaviour (EP). $a_2 = (b_3 + b_4 + b_5)$, where b_3 is beta coefficient for PSS squared, b_4 is beta coefficient for the cross-product of LP and EP, and b_5 is beta coefficient for POS squared. $a_3 = \{b_1 - b_2\}$. $a_4 = (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$

b unstandardized regression coefficient, SE standard error. Significance depends in part on standard errors, thus a value of equivalent magnitude may not both be significant * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Results of the polynomial regression show that the overall polynomial regression is significant as the regression coefficient (R²) is strongly significant (.69 ***). The response surface analysis allowed us to examine how proactive behaviour perceptions from both leader-follower are related to trust (see Figure 18). The results show a linear relationship along the line of perfect agreement (X=Y) as it relates to trust, as a_1 is significant ($a_1 = 1.02***$). Results

further suggest a_1 is positive, this suggests that the outcome variable (trust) increases as leaders' perception of employee (LP) and employees' perception of leader (EP) increases. The vertical blue line in Figure 18, represents the line of perfect agreement, which shows how trust increases the more leader-followers perceive each other as engaging in similarly high levels of proactivity. A significant a_2 would suggest a nonlinear relationship between LP and EP, and has resulted insignificant in the present research programme ($a_2=.05$) as there is a linear relationship between LP and EP. To assess the line of incongruence ($X=-Y$) between LP and EP as it relates to trust, the a_4 line was analysed. In the present research programme, a_4 ($-.33^{***}$) is significant and negative which indicates a concave surface. In fact, trust decreases sharply as the degree of discrepancy between LP and EP increases. The line of incongruence is represented by the concave blue line in Figure 18. Finally, the direction of the discrepancy is assessed by a_3 . A significant positive a_3 would suggest that trust is higher when the discrepancy is such that EP is higher than LP than vice versa. In the present research programme a_3 (.10) is positive but not significant meaning that the direction of the discrepancy is centred although so slightly moved to the right. This suggests that when there is a mismatch of perception the direction of the discrepancy does not matter. Results are summarised in the figure below.

Figure 18. Congruence and Incongruence Effect of Leader and Follower perceptions of Proactive Behaviour on Trust



8.4.4 Moderated Mediation regression analysis using PROCESS

The polynomial regression showed that only leader-follower perceptions of similarly high levels of proactive behaviour lead to trust, whereas low levels of congruence and a mismatch were negatively related to trust. To prepare data for PROCESS analysis, all leader-follower matches that scored each other as being similarly high on proactivity were scored as 1 whereas all the rest of the leader-follower matches were scored as 0. The cut-off point of what was considered high was calculated by adding a standard deviation to the mean score.

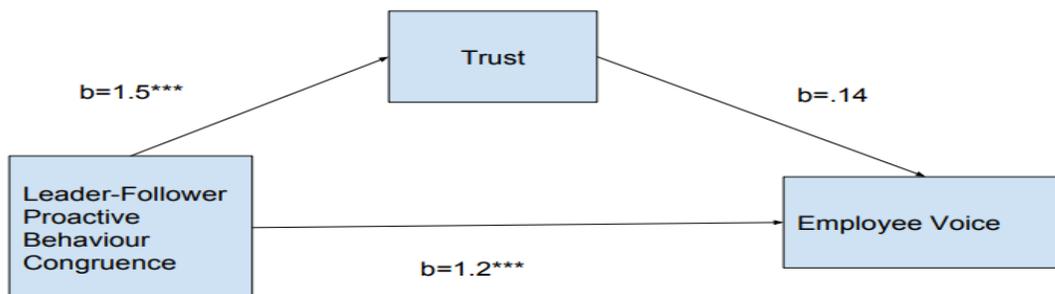
Therefore, when both leader and follower matches rated each other higher than 6.4 they were appointed a 1 (Biemann & Kearney, 2010).

Testing of Model 1-Voice

The research model proposed that trust mediated the relationship between leader-follower congruence and voice. In particular, it was assumed that congruence would be positively related to trust (hypothesis 1a) and that the resulting trust would be positively related to voice (hypothesis 1c). Next it was considered that strength of tie would moderate the relationship between congruence and trust (hypothesis 3). Finally, it was hypothesised that organisational identity would moderate the relationship between trust and voice (hypothesis 4).

The first step that was taken in this analysis was to explore whether trust mediated the relationship between congruence and voice, using model 4 of PROCESS.

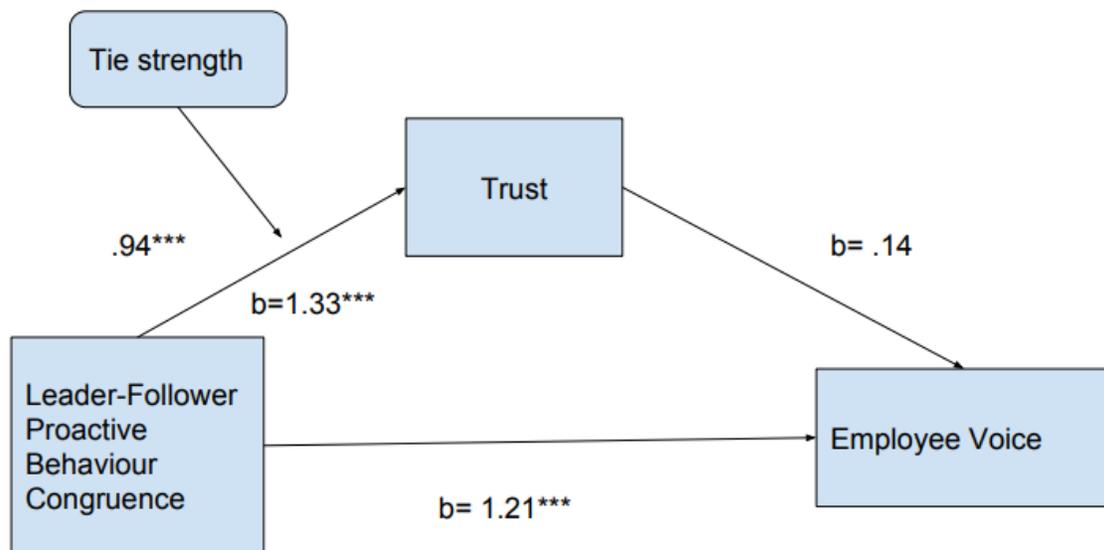
Figure 19. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Voice Relationship



Results of the mediation model show that there is a significant relationship between congruence and trust, supporting hypothesis 1a ($b=1.5$, $SE=.35$, $t= 38.9$, $p<.001$). However, these results are only true when perceptions of proactive behaviour between leader and follower are high and not low as it was previously shown in the polynomial regression. The mediating model, however, shows that there is no significant direct relationship between trust and voice ($b= .14$, $SE=.08$, $t= 1.7$). This suggests that trust does not mediate the relationship between congruence and voice, rejecting hypothesis 1c. In contrast to what was expected leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence was found to have a direct relationship to voice ($b= 1.2$, $SE=.35$, $t= 3.4$, $p<.001$).

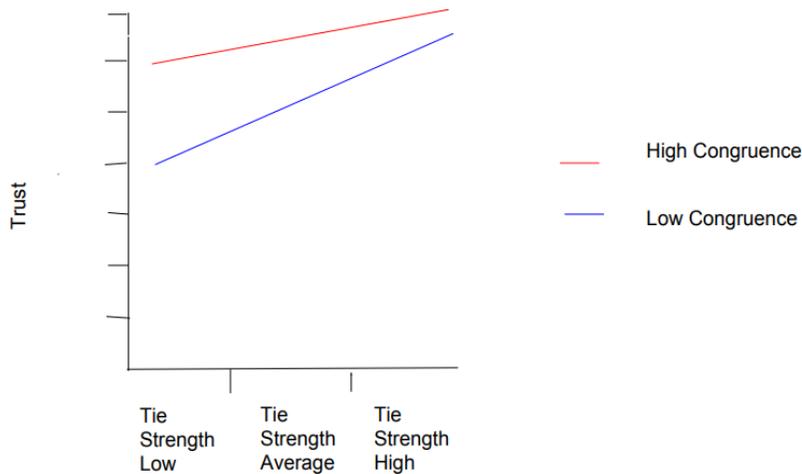
After running the mediated model, the full model was tested. To test the full model, model 7 on PROCESS was used.

Figure 20. Congruence effect on Trust and Voice, moderated by Tie Strength



In line with hypothesis 3, strength of tie was found to moderate the relationship between congruence and trust ($b=.94$, $SE=.07$, $t= 13.29$, $p<.001$). The figure below suggests that when leader-follower view each other as being similarly high in proactivity levels then strength of tie does not have a major effect on trust. On the other hand, when leader-follower perception of proactive behaviour is low or when there is a mismatch of perception between leader and follower then higher tie strength levels increase trust.

Figure 21. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Path



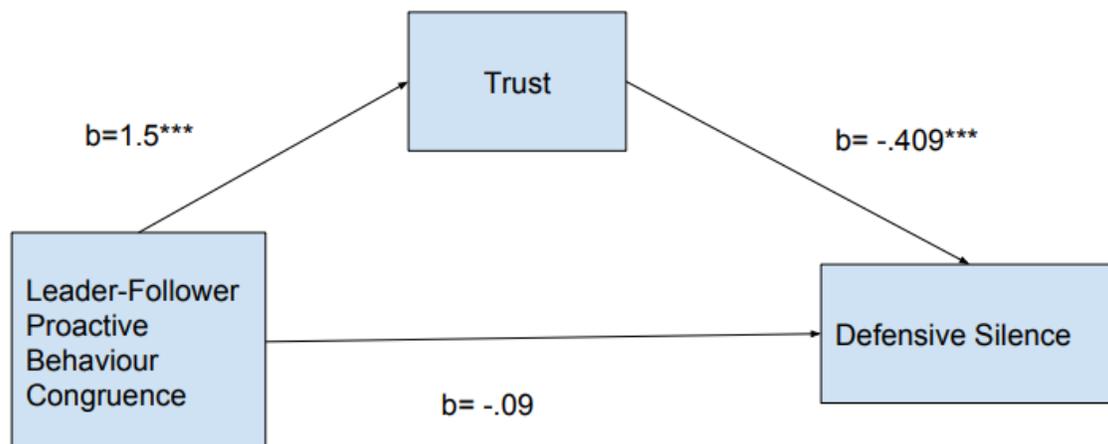
Age and gender were entered in the analysis and no significant effect of age was found on trust ($b= -.008$, $SE=.007$, $t= -1.26$) and on voice ($b= -.009$, $SE=.009$, $t= -1.0$). A significant effect of gender was found for trust ($b= .38$, $SE=.17$, $t= 2.21$, $p<.05$) but not for voice ($b= -.08$, $SE=.22$, $t= .38$). Results show that female respondents are more trusting of their leaders compared to their male counterparts.

Testing of Model 2- Defensive Silence

The research model proposed that trust mediates the relationship between leader-follower congruence and defensive silence. In particular it was proposed that congruence would be positively related to trust (hypothesis 1a) and that incongruence was negatively related to trust (hypothesis 1b). Next it was hypothesised that the resulting trust would be positively related to defensive silence (hypothesis 1c). Following, it was suggested that strength of tie would moderate the relationship between congruence and trust (hypothesis 3).

The first step that was taken in this analysis was to explore whether trust mediated the relationship between congruence and defensive silence, using model 4 of PROCESS.

Figure 22. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Defensive Silence Relationship

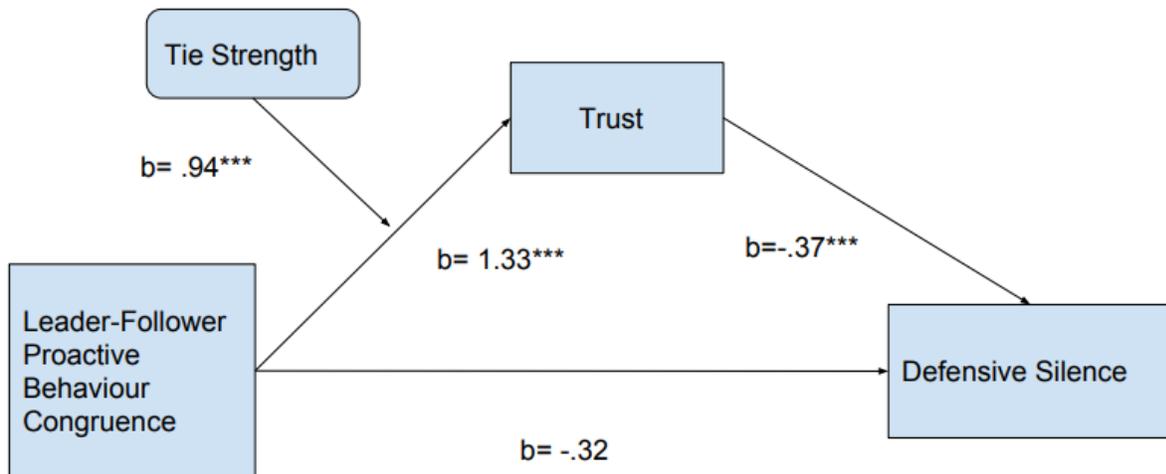


Results of the mediation model show that there is a significant relationship between congruence and trust, supporting hypothesis 1a and supporting hypothesis 2 b ($b=1.5$, $SE=.37$, $t= 4.47$, $p<.001$). However, these results are only true when perceptions of proactive behaviour

between leader and follower are high and not low as it was previously shown in the polynomial regression. The mediating model shows that there is a direct negative relationship between trust and defensive silence ($b = -.409$, $SE = .13$, $t = -3.11$). This suggests that trust mediates the relationship between congruence and defensive silence, fully supporting hypothesis 2b. No direct relationship between congruence and trust was found ($b = -.09$, $SE = .55$, $t = -.17$).

After running the mediated model, the full model was tested, using model 7 on PROCESS.

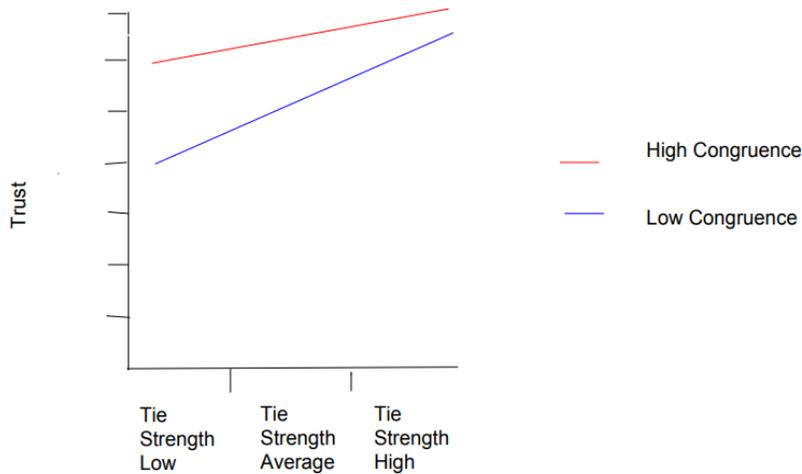
Figure 23. Congruence effect on Trust and Defensive Silence, moderated by Tie Strength



Consistent with findings of the regression analysis, high congruence was positively related to trust and negatively related to incongruence ($b = 1.33$, $SE = .26$, $t = 5.14$, $p < .001$). In line with hypothesis 3, strength of tie was found to moderate the relationship between congruence and trust ($b = .94$, $SE = .07$, $t = 13.29$, $p < .001$). Figure 24 indicates that when leaders-followers view each other as being similarly high in proactivity levels then strength of tie does not have a

significant effect on trust. On the other hand, when leader-follower perception of proactive behaviour is low or when there is a mismatch of perception between leader and follower then higher tie strength levels increase trust.

Figure 24. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Path



Hypothesis 2b was also supported as a negative relationship between trust and defensive silence was found ($b = -.37$, $SE = .13$, $t = -5.84$, $p < .001$). Leader-follower congruence was also found to not have a direct relationship with defensive silence ($b = -.32$, $SE = .63$, $t = -.52$), supporting hypothesis 2b that trust negatively mediates the relation between leader-follower incongruence and trust.

Age and gender were entered in the analysis and no significant effect of age was found on trust ($b = -.008$, $SE = .007$, $t = -1.26$) and no significant effect of age was found on defensive silence ($b = -.03$, $SE = .01$, $t = 2.4$). A significant effect of gender was found for trust ($b = .38$,

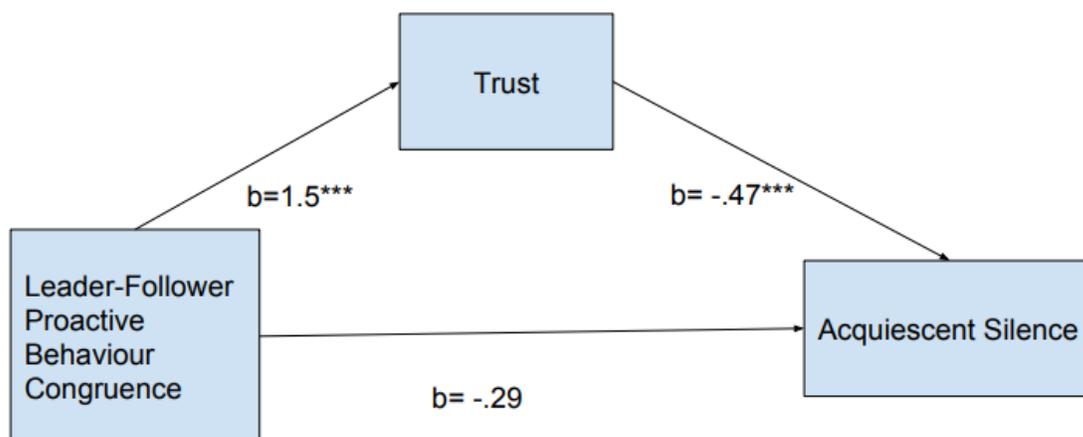
SE=.17, $t= 2.21$, $p<.05$) but not for defensive silence ($b= .62$, SE=.35, $t= 1.7$). Results show that female respondents were more trusting of their leaders than male respondents.

Testing of Model 3- Acquiescent Silence

The research model proposed that trust mediated the relationship between leader-follower congruence and acquiescent silence. In particular, it was asserted that congruence would be positively related to trust (hypothesis 2b) and that the resulting trust would be negatively related to acquiescent silence (hypothesis 2c). It further suggested that strength of tie would moderate the relationship between congruence and trust (hypothesis 3).

The first step that was taken in this analysis was to explore whether trust mediated the relationship between congruence and defensive, using model 4 of PROCESS.

Figure 25. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Defensive Silence Relationship

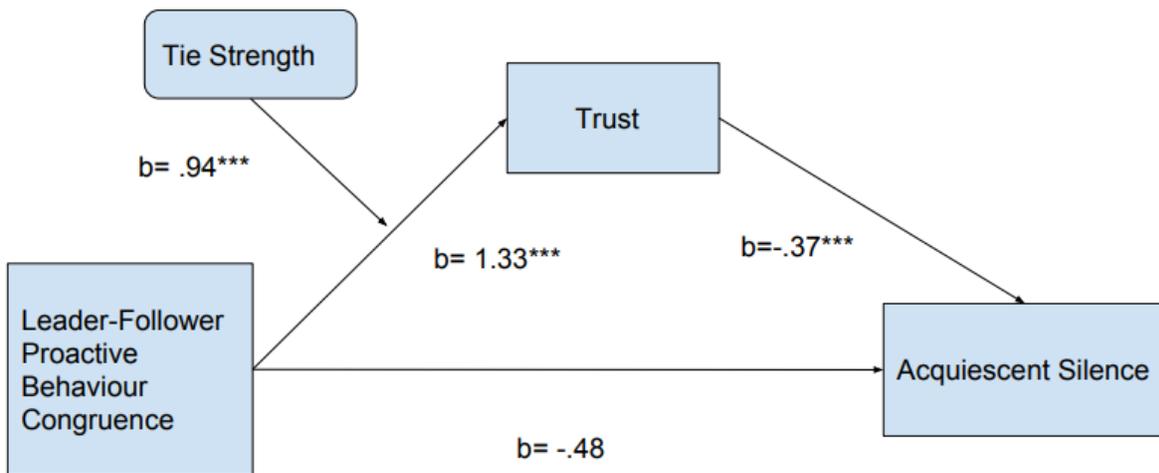


Results of the mediation model show that there is a significant relationship between congruence and trust, supporting hypothesis 1a and supporting hypothesis 2 b ($b=1.5$, SE=.35,

t= 4.47). However, these results are only true when perceptions of proactive behaviour between leader and follower are high and not low as it was previously shown in the polynomial regression. The model shows a direct relationship between trust and acquiescent silence ($b = -.47$, $SE = .11$, $t = 4.00$) indicating that trust mediates the relationship between congruence and acquiescent silence, fully supporting hypothesis 2c. No direct relationship between congruence and trust was found ($b = -.29$, $SE = .49$, $t = -.59$).

After running the mediated model, the full model was tested, using model 7 on PROCESS.

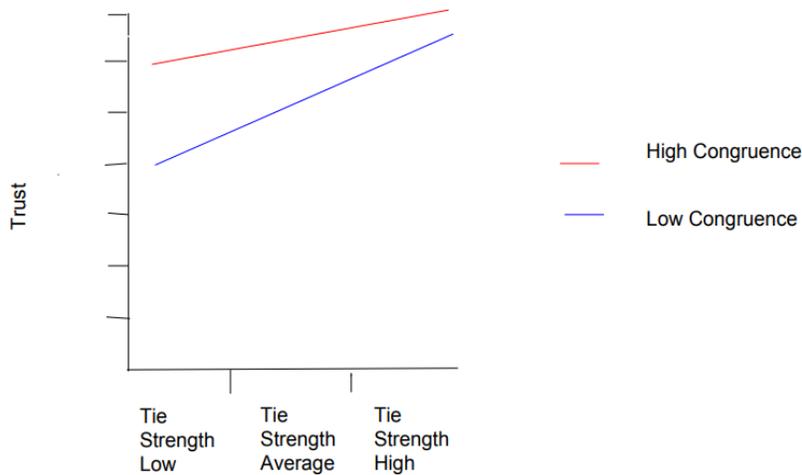
Figure 26. Congruence effect on Trust and Defensive Silence, moderated by Tie Strength and Organisational Identity



Consistent with findings of the polynomial regression, high congruence was positively related to trust and negatively related to incongruence ($b = 1.33$, $SE = .26$, $t = 5.14$, $p < .001$). In line with hypothesis 3, strength of tie was found to moderate the relationship between congruence

and trust ($b=.94$, $SE=.07$, $t= 13.29$, $p<.001$). Figure 23 suggests that when leader-follower view each other as being similarly high in proactivity levels then strength of tie does not have a significant effect on trust. On the other hand, when leader-follower perception of proactive behaviour is low or when there is a mismatch of perception between leader and follower then higher tie strength levels increase trust.

Figure 27. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Path



Hypothesis 2c was also supported as a negative relationship between trust and acquiescent silence was found ($b= -.37$, $SE=.12$, $t= -3 .01$). Leader-follower congruence was also found to not have a direct relationship with acquiescent silence ($b= -.48$, $SE=.56$, $t= - .85$), supporting the research hypothesis 2c that trust mediates the relationship between leader-follower congruence and trust.

Age and gender were entered for analysis and no significant of age was found on trust ($b= -.008$, $SE=.006$, $t= -1.26$) and acquiescent silence ($b= -.01$, $SE=.01$, $t= .95$). A significant effect

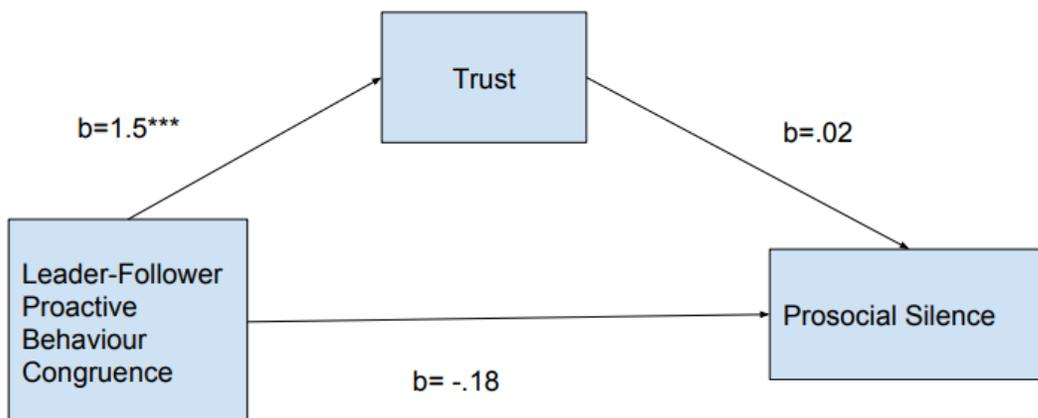
of gender was found on trust ($b = .38$, $SE = .17$, $t = 2.21$) but not for acquiescent silence ($b = -.19$, $SE = .33$, $t = .58$). Results show that female respondents are more trusting of their leaders than male respondents.

Testing of Model 4- Prosocial Silence

The research model suggested that trust would mediate the relationship between leader-follower congruence and voice. In particular, it was asserted that congruence would be positively related to trust (hypothesis 1a) and that the resulting trust would be positively related to prosocial silence (Hypothesis 1b). It further suggested that strength of tie would moderate the relationship between congruence and trust (hypothesis 3).

The first step that was taken in this analysis was to explore whether trust mediated the relationship between congruence and voice, using model 4 of PROCESS.

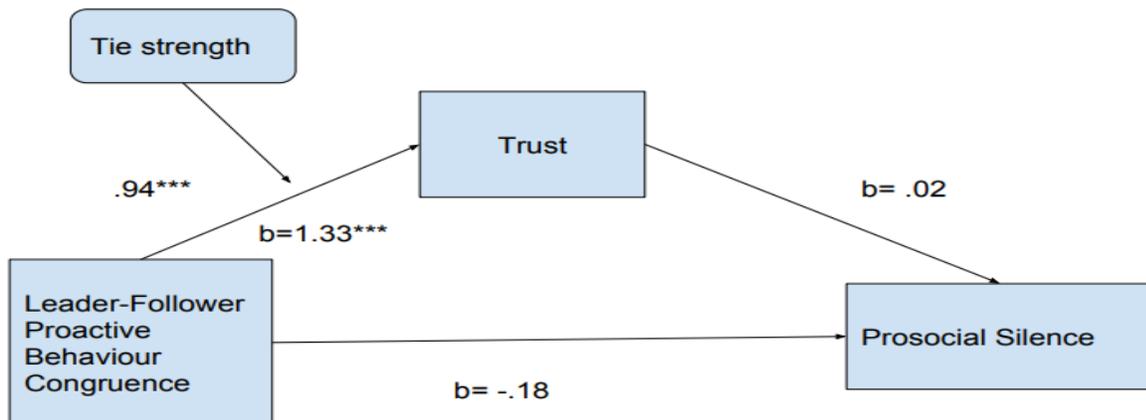
Figure 28. Mediating effect of Trust on the Congruence-Prosocial Silence Relationship



Results of the mediation model show that there is a significant relationship between congruence and trust, supporting hypothesis 1a ($b=1.5$, $SE=.35$, $t= 4.47$). However, these results are only true when perceptions of proactive behaviour between leader and follower are high and not low as it was previously shown in the polynomial regression. The mediating model, however, shows that there is no direct relationship between trust and prosocial silence ($b= .02$, $SE=.08$, $t= .23$). This suggests that trust does not mediate the relationship between congruence and prosocial silence, rejecting hypothesis 1b. No direct relationship between congruence and prosocial silence was found ($b= -.18$, $SE=.37$, $t= -.48$).

After running the mediated model, the full model was tested. To test the full model, model 7 on PROCESS was used.

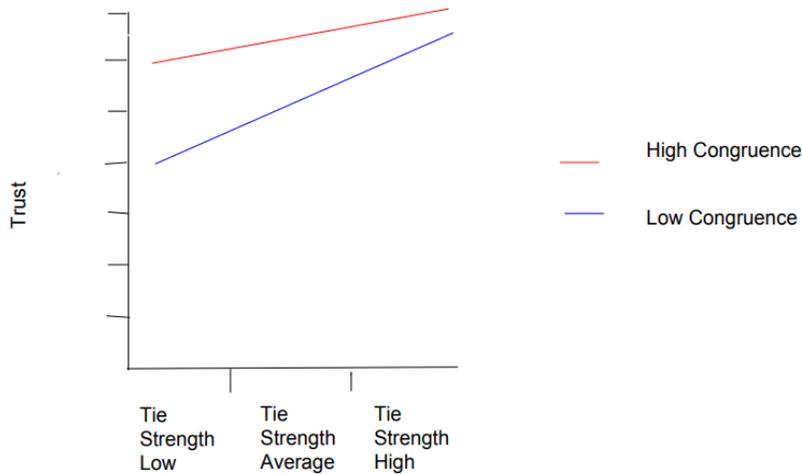
Figure 29. Congruence effect on Trust and Voice, moderated by Tie Strength



In line with hypothesis 3, strength of tie was found to moderate the relationship between congruence and trust ($b=.94$, $SE=.07$, $t= 13.29$, $p<.001$). The figure below suggests that when leaders-followers view each other as being similarly high in proactivity levels then

strength of tie does not have a major effect on trust. On the other hand, when leader-follower perception of proactive behaviour is low or when there is a mismatch of perception between leader and follower then higher tie strength levels increase trust.

Figure 30. Effect of Tie Strength on the Congruence-Trust Path



Hypothesis 1b was also not supported as no relation between trust and prosocial silence was found ($b = .06$, $SE = .09$, $t = .68$). Leader-follower congruence was also found to not have a direct relation with prosocial silence ($b = -.26$, $SE = .49$, $t = -.53$). This does not support the research hypothesis that trust would mediate the relationship between leader-follower congruence and trust.

Age and gender were entered for analysis and no significant effect of age was found on trust ($b = -.008$, $SE = .006$, $t = -1.26$) and prosocial silence ($b = -.002$, $SE = .01$, $t = -.22$). A significant effect of gender was found on trust ($b = .38$, $SE = .17$, $t = 2.21$,) but not for prosocial silence ($b =$

.20, SE=.24, $t = .82$). Results show that female respondents are more trusting of their leaders than male respondents.

8.5 Preliminary Discussion

The aim of study 2 was to verify that perceptions of similarity between the leader and follower was positively associated with trust, and if this resulting trust was positively related to voice and prosocial silence. Conversely, perceptions of dissimilarity between the leader and follower were expected to be negatively related to trust and the resulting trust was expected to be negatively related to defensive silence and acquiescent silence. Furthermore, tie strength was expected to moderate the relation between leader-follower congruence and trust.

Results showed that leader-follower congruence was positively related to trust only when both leader and follower perceived each other as being high on proactive behaviour. Conversely when leader-follower perceived each other as being similarly low in proactive behaviour it was negatively related to trust. As expected, leader-follower incongruence was negatively related to trust. Tie strength was found to moderate the relationship between leader-follower congruence/incongruence and trust. Leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence was found to be positively related to trust but the resulting trust was not related to either voice or prosocial silence. A direct effect of high leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence to voice was found. Leader-follower proactive behaviour incongruence was found to be negatively related to trust and the resulting trust was positively related to acquiescent and defensive silence.

Results of Study 2 partially support the research hypothesis 1a as identification was not always found to be positively related to trust. Evidence shows that similarity of perception positively influence trust within the dyad, but only when leader and follower perceive each other as being similarly high in proactive behaviour. In contrast, when leaders and followers view each other as being similarly low in proactive behaviour, then trust within the dyad is low. On the other hand, results of study 2 fully support the research hypothesis 2a, suggesting that a mismatch of perception between leader and follower is negatively related to trust. Such results, although they do not fully support the research hypotheses, are evidence that identification has an impact on trust relations before social exchange occurs. Low proactive behaviour congruence between the leader and follower has been found to be negatively related to trust. Such result could be explained by the passive attitude held by people who engage in low proactive behaviour (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Low proactive individuals are less likely to speak up about organisational or team issues and are also less likely to take initiative under circumstances that need immediate decisions or solutions (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). Therefore, a leader might view a low proactive employee as unable to make organisational decisions if not supervised, while a subordinate might view the low proactive leader as not having the skills to enact beneficial organisational changes. As a result, such passive proactive behaviours may lead to a lack of trust from both sides of the dyadic relationship.

Strength of tie between leader and follower appears to have the strongest effect when leader and follower view each other as being similarly low in proactive behaviour congruence or when there is a mismatch of perception. Under such circumstances strength of tie appears to

increase the trust bond between the dyad. Therefore, if identification between leader and follower is low the closeness of the relationship between leader and follower increases the likelihood of developing a more solid trust bond. Whereas when identification between leader and follower is high, strength of tie hardly has any effect on trust within the dyad. This can be explained through social identity theory which suggests that through interactions individuals can uncover further similarities of out-group members to which they can identify with (Tajfel, 1978).

Hypotheses 1b and 1c were not supported as results showed that trust is not positively related to prosocial silence and employees' voice. The results contradict empirical evidence that suggests that employees are more likely to voice or engage in prosocial silence when they trust their leader (Detert & Burris, 2007). As the three silence scales were mixed together and randomized to reduce the risk of rates consistency motif and ratees' implicit theories (Podsakoff; MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012), it is possible that this design factor confused respondents

Trust was not found to mediate the relationship between leader-follower congruence and voice, however a direct relationship between leader-follower congruence and voice was also established. The direct relationship between leader-follower high proactive behaviour congruence and voice can be explained using the proactivity literature. Voice, in the proactivity literature, is in fact viewed as a form of proactive behaviour (Parker & Collins, 2010). Therefore, dyads that are highly proactive might expect the other party to use their voice by default, explaining the direct relationship between leader-follower congruence and voice.

Hypotheses 2b and 2c were, instead fully supported. Results showed that leader-follower incongruence or leader-follower low congruence was negatively related to trust and negatively related to defensive silence and acquiescent silence. These results are supported by empirical evidence in the silence literature which suggests that low trust levels towards different organisational foci can lead employees to engage in negative forms of silence (Dedahanov & Rhee, 2015; Gao et al. 2011). Moreover, it also supports the present theoretical model by suggesting trust mediates the relationship between leader-follower perception of proactive behaviour and the decision to engage in silence.

Chapter 9

Discussion

9.1 Chapter Overview

The overall objective of the present research programme was to investigate the effects of leader-follower identification on employees' trust. It further investigated if the leader-follower congruence and trust relationship was moderated by tie strength. Finally, it explored how the resulting trust within the dyad related to employees affect, employees voice, prosocial silence, acquiescent silence and defensive silence.

Central to this research programme is the assumption that identification is an antecedent of trust development and that information sharing is enhanced after identification has occurred. As a result, the present research programme departs from the main theoretical view that trust is built through social exchanges (Blau, 1964).

To test such theoretical propositions, this thesis included two research studies. The aim of study 1 was to test the hypothesis that leader-follower identification plays an important role in trust development. It also aimed to determine whether positive emotions between the dyad occurred after trust formation.

Study 2, a field study, tested whether leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence were positively related to trust and whether such a relationship was

moderated by strength of tie. It further explored how the resulting trust affected employees' choice to speak up or remain silent. Building on the voice and silence literature the research programme suggested that employees would engage in voice or prosocial silence when trust towards their leader was high. Conversely when trust towards their leader was low employees were expected to engage in acquiescent or defensive silence (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Nikolaou, Vakola, & Bouradas, 2011; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003).

By examining the afore mentioned hypotheses, this research makes a number of contributions to the theory and literature in organisational behaviour field. The chapter will begin by discussing the findings of study 1 and study 2. Next, the chapter will give an overview of the contributions of the research and the implications for research and practice. In closing, the chapter will present the limitations of study 1 and study 2 and recommendations for future research.

9.2 Research Findings

The results of this research (presented in Chapter 7 and Chapter 8), provide interesting insight into the role that identification plays in trust development between leaders and followers. It also enhances our understanding of how trust influences employees' affect and choice about whether to speak-up or remain silent. This section outlines and discusses the results of each of the research hypotheses.

9.2.1 Identification and Trust

Hypotheses 1a and 2a in study 1 proposed that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust and that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust and these hypotheses were supported. These findings support the theoretical proposition that identification between the leader and follower may be an important element in trust formation. In line with social identity theorists (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and social attraction theorists (Berscheid & Reis, 1998), the research findings confirm that individuals who view each other as being similar may be more likely to trust each other.

Results of study 1 not only recognises the importance of identification in engendering trust among employees but also calls into question the sole focus in much literature of social exchange theory to explain trust development. As discussed, (chapter 3 and 4), social exchange theorists propose that trust is formed through an exchange of good deeds (Blau, 1964). Conversely, social identity theorists would suggest that individuals trust others who they view as being similar to the self (Foddy & Yamagishi, 2009; Voci, 2006). Although trust scholars have explored identification under the social exchange framework, identification has received little attention from scholars (Gillespie & Mann, 2004). Reflecting on social identity theory, the findings confirm that identification is a crucial antecedent of trust and that social exchange between individuals is not uniquely necessary for trust to develop. Hence, results of study 1, support the identity based theoretical proposition of the research model and highlight the importance for researchers to adopt a social identity approach when planning trust research.

The field study (study 2), proposed that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour congruence are positively related to trust and that leader-follower perceptions of proactive behaviour incongruence are negatively related to trust. Findings showed partial support for these hypotheses in that leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence was only positively related to trust when leader-follower viewed each other as being similarly high in proactive behaviour. On the other hand, leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence was negatively related to trust when leader-follower viewed each other as being similarly low in proactive behaviour. Social identity theory suggests that the aim of identification is not only to create a sense of belonging but also to enhance the individual's self-esteem and self-efficacy (Hogg, 2000). This is reflected in the results of study 2 where employees identified more strongly with leaders who demonstrated strong in-group salient behaviours (Platow & Van Kippenberg, 2001).

Proactive behaviour is generally considered to be a socially desirable behaviour in the workplace (Siebert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). Thus employees that are similarly high in proactive behaviour to their leader not only identify with the leader based on similarity but also identify with what is considered a socially attractive in-group behaviour, which will enhance their sense of self-esteem and self-concept (Berscheid & Reis, 1998, Hogg & Mullin, 1999; Gillespie & Mann, 2004). Conversely, employees who are similarly low in proactive behaviour to their leaders might not want to identify with what is socially perceived as not being a desirable trait, as that would be detrimental to their own self-concept. Social identity theorists propose that low status groups, in this case subordinates and leaders who show low proactive behaviour, may engage in various strategies to achieve a more positive social identity. One such strategy is

to distance themselves from their own group and psychologically join a higher status group (Hogg, 2001).

In study 1, leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence regardless of the direction was positively related to trust; whereas in the field study (study 2), congruence resulted in trust only when leader-follower congruence was high in proactive behaviour. The difference may stem from the fact that in study 1 participants were asked to rate their similarity to a fictional character Pat. Proactive behaviour is a socially desirable behaviour, so it is possible that participants rated themselves to be more similar to the proactive Pat than to the passive Pat. Hence the proactive Pat became the source of the participants' internalised identity and of the resulting trust. Social desirability was less of an issue in study 2, where participants were not rating their likelihood to be proactive but were asked to rate proactive behaviour of a real-life work colleague. In this situation participants were more likely to be honest about their perceptions of the other person's proactive behaviour. Indeed, a closer review of Study 1 reveals that participants identified more strongly with proactive Pat compared to the passive Pat (only 9 % identified with passive Pat and 38% strongly identified with the proactive Pat). In study 2 on the other hand, participants' perceptions of similarity were more homogeneously distributed (with 26% matching at low proactivity, 24 % matching at high proactivity and 50 % not matching) with similar amounts of individuals matching at the high and low end of the proactive behaviour scale.

Social desirability might have played a stronger role in study 2 when employees had to rate their trust towards their leader (Siebert et al. 1999). In study 1, when participants rated

themselves as identifying with the passive Pat, they were also more likely to trust the passive Pat as they identified with that passive fictional character. In study 2, instead participants were rating real life colleagues and it may not have been socially acceptable to rate someone as being an incompetent leader and then rate that same leader as being worthy of their trust.

Leader-follower incongruence regardless of the direction is negatively related to trust, which supports the research hypotheses (hypothesis 2b, study 1; hypothesis 2a, study 2). These results align with the social identity theory perspective suggesting that identification does not occur when individuals perceive each other as being different from the self (Hogg, 2018, Tajfel, 1979).

Overall the results of both studies suggest that social identification is an antecedent of trust and that perceptions of similarity can impact on the way in which employees interact and build trust bonds (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Table 18 summarises the results of the relations between leader-follower identification and trust for both Study 1 and Study 2.

Table 19. Leader-Follower Identification and Trust

Leader/Follower Congruence	Leader perception of Employee Proactivity		Employee perception of Leader Proactivity		Study 1- Trust Results		Study 2- Trust Results	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
High P.B. Congruence	✓		✓		✓		✓	
Low P.B. Congruence		✓		✓	✓			✓
Incongruence 1	✓			✓		✓		✓
Incongruence 2		✓	✓			✓		✓

9.2.2 Proactivity and Trust

Proactivity theory suggests that proactive individuals take initiative, come up with suggestions and solutions, challenge ideas and take charge of situations without the need for constant supervision (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). Therefore, from an employee’s perspective, a passive leader might resemble someone who will not stand up for their subordinates or who will not bring forward their ideas or concerns to a leader. In contrast, from a leader’s perspective a passive employee might represent someone who does not voice work-related issues or will not take the initiative to solve imminent work problems without consulting superiors. Hence, passive employees, regardless of their hierarchical level, tend to lack the initiative to bring fast solutions to work related problems and are dependent on others to make decisions. It is not surprising that trust in these individuals may be low, as they may be perceived as not being reliable and slow to react.

Crossley, Cooper and Wernsing (2013) report that trust governs employees’ perception of leader proactive behaviour and that employees who do not trust their proactive leader, are more likely to leave the organisation. Low trust towards a proactive leader might stem from a lack of proactive behaviour congruence between leader and follower, or as proactivity theory

suggests that leaders' proactive behaviour is viewed by employees as having self-serving purposes (Allen & Rush, 1998). On the other hand, Den Hartog and Belschak (2010) suggest employees will read the context and develop an understanding of leaders' openness to proactive behaviour. If leaders are viewed as not being supportive of employees' proactive behaviour then such employees will hold back from exploring new behaviours and sharing ideas, which is not only detrimental for the organisation but can also be counterproductive in leader-followers' trust development (Morrison, 2011).

9.2.3 Tie Strength as a moderator of the Identification-Trust Relation

Strong ties are an important interpersonal connection characterised by frequent interactions (or history of interactions), emotional intensity and intimacy (Granovetter, 1973; Perry-Smith, 2006). In accordance with homophily theory, it is reasonable to propose that tie strength moderates the relationship between leader-follower congruence and trust (hypothesis 3) (Dokko, Kane & Tortoriello, 2014; Homans, 1950). Results fully supported hypothesis 3 showing that when leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence was high then strength of tie did not have a strong effect on trust. Whereas when leader-follower congruence was low or there was a mismatch of perception, high tie strength increased the trust within the dyad. This suggests that rich interactions can uncover commonalities between individuals and enhance their sense of similarity resulting in an increase in trust (Dokko, Kane & Tortoriello, 2014).

To a certain extent strong ties can compensate for the negative effect of strong dyadic identity. When individuals strongly identify with each other, they are more likely to display dismissive behaviours towards individuals whom they don't identify with (Gaertner & Dovidio,

2000). By doing so, individuals might not acknowledge information that comes from what is considered the out-group (Tajfel, 1979). However, uncovering commonalities through intense interactions (tie strength) can help individuals overcome the tendency to ignore ideas that come from what was previously considered the out-group (Dokko, Kane & Tortoriello, 2014).

9.2.4 Identification, Trust and the Dark side of Proactivity

In the current study leader-follower identification was measured using perceived proactive behaviour match. The research programme investigated how perceptions of leader-follower proactive behaviour relates to the dyadic relationship, with the aim to further clarifying the dark side of proactivity. As discussed in chapter 2, employees' proactive behaviour is generally associated with an increase in job performance (Siebert, Crant, & Kramer, 1999). However, employees' proactive behaviour is not always appreciated by organisational leaders as such behaviour might raise questions regarding the abilities and skills of the leader. Leaders tend to avoid circumstances where their decisions might be challenged or questioned (Morrison & Milliken, 2000), as such behaviour can be perceived as a personal affront or threat (Frese & Fay, 2001).

Study 1 hypothesised that role (whether the participant was a leader or a subordinate) moderated the relationship between leader-follower perceptions of similarity and trust (hypothesis 3). Hypothesis 3 was rejected, as role did not moderate the similarity-trust relation. However, it was found that role did have a direct effect on trust with findings suggesting that leaders, regardless of the direction of congruence, were less trusting of proactive employees. These findings support and confirm a dark side to proactivity, which might be due to leaders

perceiving employees proactive behaviour as a personal threat (Frese & Fay, 2001) or that leaders might want to avoid circumstances where their decision might be challenged or questioned (Morrison & Milliken, 2002). However, further investigation is needed to understand the motives behind that lack of trust towards proactive employees.

Study 2 revealed that that congruence is only positively related to trust when leader and follower perceptions of proactive behaviour is similarly high. Therefore, dyadic trust was found to be high only when both employee and leader engage in similarly high levels of proactive behaviour. The same was not found to be true when congruence was low and when there was a mismatch of perception. Under those circumstances trust was negatively related to incongruence or low congruence. This may be explained through a social identity theory lens, which suggests that individuals prefer to belong to the in-group that is perceived as having the strongest salient behaviour (Hogg, 2001). Proactive behaviour is viewed as a socially desirable behaviour (Siebert et al. 1999) and it is perhaps not surprising that employees show more trust towards the in-group that they perceive as having the most salient behaviour.

The divergence in results might be explained by the different procedures used in the two studies. In study 1, participants were immersed in a very controlled environment, where they had to make judgements based on the vignette; whereas in study 2 other factors beyond the control of the researcher may have impacted results. Importantly however, study 1 participants had a choice to take the leader's role or the subordinate's role. Participant's then rated how much they would trust "Pat" both as a leader (when the participant was the leader in vignette) or as a subordinate (when the participant was the subordinate in the vignette). In

other words, trust was measured in study 1, by both the leader and the employee. Study 2, employees' trust in their leader was measured and perhaps different results could have occurred if leaders rated their trust in the employee (Schuh, Van Quequebeke, Keck, Goritz, De Cremer & Xin, 2018). This will be further discussed in the limitation section of this chapter.

9.2.5 Dependent Variables

The present research investigates 5 dependent variables. Study 1 explored how the resulting trust between leader and follower impacted on employees affect. Study 2 explored how the resulting trust between leader and follower impacted on employees' voice, prosocial silence, defensive silence and acquiescent silence.

9.2.5.1 Affect

Following social identity and affective regulation theory, study 1 proposed that leader-follower congruence was positively related to trust and trust was positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect (hypotheses 1b and 2b). Hypothesis 1b and 2b were fully supported.

Social identity theorists suggest that it is through positive affect that identity security is maintained (Voci, 2006). The present research programme confirms that positive emotions are shared between in-group members and negative emotions are expressed towards out-group members. In fact, in Study 1, leaders'-followers' congruence resulted in employees experiencing more positive emotions compared to incongruent dyads (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Results of Study 1, further show that trust is a psychological state which develops by default between individuals who view each other as being part of the same in-group and that positive affect is not a necessary condition for trust to develop. In accordance with social identity theory, trust is an unconditional response between two individuals that identify with each other (Hogg, 2018). However, once trust is formed positive affect is necessary to maintain and deepen that trust bond between in-group members, while a negative affect can in the long run hinder the trust bond (Niven, 2012).

9.2.5.2 Voice

Study 2 proposed that leader-follower congruence will be positively related to trust and that trust will be positively related to voice (hypothesis 1b, Study 2). Hypothesis 1b was rejected as the regression analysis showed that trust did not mediate the relationship between leader-follower congruence and voice, an unanticipated. However, a direct positive relationship between congruence and voice was found.

These findings contrast with both voice and trust theory which propose that trust in leader enhances employees' voice (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). Indeed, research shows that when employees trust their leaders they are more likely to engage in such risky behaviour (Gao, Janssen & Shi, 2011). In accordance to this research, the correlation matrix for study 2 shows that voice is positively correlated with trust suggesting that the more the individual trusts their leader the more likely they are to voice their opinions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Zhou et al., 2017). However, the regression analysis did not reveal such association and three explanations are given for these confounding findings.

First, voice was only measured by 43 leaders making the sample size somewhat restrictive, although similar congruence studies used similar samples (De Jong & Dirks, 2012; Zhang, Wang, & Shi 2012). Second, leaders' perceptions of employees' voice might have not reflected employees real voicing behaviour. Research shows that both manager and employee must hold the same perception of the voice behaviour for voice to have a positive outcome. When both the manager and the employee agree that employee is engaging in frequent and high-quality voice then voice has positive outcomes for the actor. On the other hand, negative results will tend to result when employees over estimate the volume, variety and value of their voice behaviour (Burris, Detert, & Romney, 2010). Third, proactivity theory can explain the direct effect between congruence and voice. In the proactivity literature voice is viewed as form of proactive behaviour (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Therefore, the direct effect between leader-follower perception of high proactive behaviour congruence and voice, has a theoretical foundation. When both leader and follower view each other as being similarly high in proactive behaviour they are also more likely to voice regardless of the trust they have in each other, as they might view such voicing behaviour as being acceptable and part of their proactive behaviour identity.

In sum, in line with social identity theory, leader-follower congruence was found to result in trust. However, in contrast to voice and trust theory, trust was not found to lead to voice.

9.2.5.3 Prosocial Silence

Study 2 proposed that leader-follower congruence will be positively related to trust and that trust will be positively related to prosocial silence (hypothesis 1b). Hypothesis 1b was rejected as the regression analysis showed that trust did not mediate the relationship between leader-follower congruence and prosocial silence. Although a significant relationship was found between leader-follower congruence and trust, no direct relationship was found between trust and prosocial silence. These findings are counter to both silence and trust theory, which propose that trust in leader enhances employees' likelihood to engage in prosocial silence (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003).

The prosocial silence scale showed poor factor loading on two items (.34; .31) which were then eliminated, and the three remaining items were found to be just about reliable ($\alpha = .71$). On review this result may have been due to a research design artefact. The 5-item prosocial silence scale was mixed with the 10 items of the defensive and acquiescent silence scale in an effort to reduce the risk of ratees' consistency motif and ratees' implicit theories (Podsakoff; MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). However, it could be speculated that participants found it confusing to rate 10 items that related to negative forms of silence together with 5 items that relate to a more positive form of silence.

9.2.5.4 Acquiescent Silence and Defensive Silence

Study 2 reflecting, social identity and trust theory, proposed that leader-follower congruence will be positively related to trust and that trust will be negatively related to defensive silence (hypothesis 2b). Hypothesis 2b was fully supported as the regression analysis

showed a significant positive effect between congruence and trust and a significant negative effect between trust and defensive silence but no relation between congruence and defensive silence. These results suggest that trust mediates the relationship between congruence and acquiescent silence supporting hypothesis 2b.

Study 2 proposed that leader-follower congruence will be positively related to trust and trust will be negatively related to acquiescent silence (hypothesis 1b). Hypothesis 1b was fully supported as the regression analysis showed that there was a significant positive relationship between congruence and trust and a significant negative relationship between trust and acquiescent silence but no relationship between congruence and acquiescent silence. These results suggest that trust mediates the relationship between congruence and acquiescent silence supporting hypothesis 1b.

The results are in line with existing silence theory and research which suggest that employees will engage in acquiescent and defensive silence behaviour when trust towards their leader is low (Van Dyne, Ang & Botero, 2003). Defensive and acquiescent silence are therefore an employees' behaviour of choice when they feel that that they need protect themselves from the leader. The findings contribute to theory and evidence as it positions leader-follower identification as an antecedent of employees' silent behaviour. Prior silence research has attributed employees silence to a number of individual differences and contextual factors (see chapter 5 for discussion). However, this is the first research to demonstrate a link between an employees' choice to remain silent with leader-follower identification mismatch. Leader-follower identification therefore appears to play an important role in the attributions'

employees make of their leaders, steering employees to make decisions to trust or not trust their leader and on whether speaking up is regarded as being a too risky behaviour.

9.2.5.5 Gender and Trust

Results show that female employees are more trusting than male employees this result supports empirical research that considers female employees to be more trusting than male employees (Carnevale & Wechsler, 1992).

9.3 Research Contributions

The research programme offers a number of valuable contributions to the social identity, trust and silence literature. The research contribution section will firstly discuss the importance of identification in trust development, secondly it will discuss how positive affect is only expressed towards in-group members, thirdly it examines how identification is a distal antecedent of employees' silence, fourth it will bring to light how mutual perceptions rather than follower centric perceptions were used to unravel the research hypotheses and, finally, it will discuss how the research hypotheses were explored using an alternative methodology.

First, the central aim of the present research programme was to understand the effects social identification had between employees at different hierarchical levels, specifically between immediate supervisors and subordinates. Results of Study 1 show that when leader and follower view each other as being similarly low or high in proactive behaviour, then trust between the dyad is high. Hence, results of study 1, support the identity based theoretical proposition of the research model highlighting that leader-follower identification plays an

important role in interpersonal trust development. Findings of study 2 showed that trust between leader and follower is only developed when leader and follower perceive each other as being similarly high in proactive behaviour and not low, therefore only partially supporting the theoretical proposition of the present research model. These results can be explained through social identity theory which suggests that the aim of identification is not only to create a sense of belonging but also to enhance the individual's self-esteem and self-efficacy (Hogg, 2000). This is reflected in the results of study 2 where employees identified more strongly with leaders who demonstrated strong in-group salient behaviours (i.e. proactive behaviour) (Platow & Van Kippenberg, 2001). Therefore, the overall findings of the research programme support social attraction research (Powell & Butterfield, 1994; Turban & Jones, 1988; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998) and social identity research (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) which suggest that identification impacts leader-follower trust relations from the onset.

Secondly, a major contribution of the present research programme is that it provides evidence that social identity theory is also an important underpinning theoretical framework in the understanding of leader-follower perceptions and resulting trust. As discussed in chapter 3 and 4, the theoretical framework that generally underpins trust research is social exchange theory which posits that it is through positive exchanges that trust between parties is developed (Blau, 1964).

Both study 1 and study 2 provide evidence that social exchange theory is not the only theoretical framework underpinning trust development. In fact, both studies confirm that leader-follower identification is an important antecedent of trust, where the trust between the

dyad is solely based on viewing each other as being part of the same in-group (Tajfel, 1979). Thus, through social identification individuals trust each other by default and the trust between parties is unconditional (Tajfel, 1979; Voci, 2006). Moreover, the present research programme also brings evidence that leader-follower mismatch of perception is negatively related to trust. The results lend further support to the social identity perspective, as perceptions of dissimilarity are usually attributed to the out-group, someone not worthy of the individual's trust. Study 2 provides evidence that leader-follower perceptions of low proactive behaviour congruence results in low trust. However, such a result might be due to the negative connotation that passive individuals have, "passivity" might be viewed as an "out-group" behaviour that no one wants to belong to. As social identity theorists suggest individuals will typically want to belong to the most powerful in-group (Hogg, 2000) and will reject out-group behaviours and engage in behaviours accepted by the in-group. Results suggest being proactive is seen as a powerful in-group behaviour and therefore individuals might try to cover their true identity (being passive) by engaging in behaviours accepted by the proactive in-group (i.e. not trusting passive employees).

Thirdly, the social identity perspective of trust formation proposed in the present research model is further supported by the moderating effect that tie strength has on the congruence-trust relation. In fact, when leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence is high, tie strength has little effect on trust, suggesting that social exchanges do not increase trust. On the other hand, when there is a mismatch of perception or low proactive behaviour congruence, then tie strength has a stronger impact on trust. These results provide evidence that when identity is high social exchanges are not necessary for trust to form which further

confirms that when individuals highly identify with each other, trust between them is unconditional (Voci, 2006). Conversely, when identity is low or when individuals belong to a similar powerless “out-group” within an organisational context, then social exchanges can aid the development of trust between the dyad. Therefore, these findings reveal that social identification plays an important role in trust development and that social exchanges only increase trust between leader and follower when trust has not been previously formed through leader-follower perceptions of similarity. This suggests that further understanding the role social identification and social exchanges play in trust development might be crucial in understanding and developing future trust theory.

Fourthly, the research confirms that positive affect is solely reserved to in-group members while negative affect is mainly directed towards the out-group, further supporting social identity theory (Tajfel, 1979). Most importantly, the results provide important evidence that positive affect is not a necessary condition for trust to develop under a social identity framework (Niven, 2012). Trust in fact plays a mediating role between identification and positive affect, further supporting the premise that trust towards in-group members is unconditional (Niven, 2012).

Fifthly, the research adds to the silence literature as another distal antecedent to employee’s choice to engage in silent behaviour. It reveals that a mismatch of perception between leader and follower will ultimately lead to low trust which will result in employees’ defensive and acquiescent silence. Hence, low identification is a distal antecedent of employees’ defensive and acquiescent silence. The silence research indicates that minority

groups (out-groups) are less likely than in-groups to voice their opinion as they might perceive their voice as further putting their identity at risk (Noelle-Newman, 1975). Therefore, minority groups engage in silence to avoid isolation for deviance (Bowen & Blackmon, 2003). The present research, although not exploring minority groups, confirms that a mismatch of identity between leader and follower, leads to silence via poor dyadic trust.

Sixthly, the research contributes to the management literature by including the perspectives of both the leader and follower in the development of trust bonds. Generally, trust scholars only include the perspective of one party typically the subordinate, assuming that that one's perspective serves as a proxy which reflects the trust experienced by the other party (Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2009; Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2008). More recent research has uncovered the importance of including both felt trust and trust towards the other party to better understand the dynamics of work behaviour (Skiba & Wildman, 2018). The present research, although not measuring trust from both perspectives diverges from previous studies by providing evidence that perceptions of mutual identity impact trust relations. SET posits that trust is developed through repeated interactions between two parties that will ultimately achieve a trust equilibrium. In contrast, the present research programme shows that leader and follower mutual identification alone are an important precursor of trust.

Finally, this study uses an innovative methodology to explore the research hypotheses. The majority of studies in the management literature do not use experimental designs to explore their hypotheses; in fact, data in the management literature are largely collected through field studies (Creswell, 1994). The vignette study employed in study 1 was fundamental

in understanding the process of identification in a controlled environment. The results were an important building block to interpret the results of the field study (study 2). Therefore, the present study highlights the value of using diverse methodologies in the design and development of a research model and analysing data to add more insightful understanding and greater empirical evidence of a social phenomenon (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014).

In sum, these findings offer a unique insight for researchers studying trust development. The results show that identification is an important antecedent of trust and that scholars might need to further investigate the role of identification in trust formation. Moreover, it might be interesting to further explore how social exchange and social identity theory work together in developing and maintaining trust. Isaeva, Bachmann, Bristow and Saunders (2015) argue that trust research brings together diverse disciplines, such as management and organizational studies, sociology and psychology, which build on diverse epistemological traditions. The present research programme is an example of how no single theoretical tradition or methodology can provide the perfect understanding of such a multifaceted phenomenon such as trust, whereby openness to different perspectives could bring useful insight to researchers in diverse disciplines (Lyon et al., 2015).

9.4 Implications for Practice

The present research programme offers many insights for practitioners striving to build effective work relations between colleagues, specifically between leaders and followers.

First, the research presents a clearer picture of how leader-follower perceptions can impact the relationship dynamic, which can ultimately have important effects on organisational

outcomes. For example, the present research reveals that leader-follower perceptions can impact the trust levels between organisational members. Therefore, leaders need to be more aware of the role identification plays in trust development. Leaders need to be conscious of how readily they develop healthy trust bonds with subordinates with whom they identify. However, leaders also need to build strong trust relations with employees they do not identify with to benefit the team and organisation. A possible solution to this problem is for the leader to create a closer relationship tie with the employees they feel do not identify with, by for example listening to their opinion and suggestions, as such closeness has been shown to uncover further commonalities that will ultimately enhance trust within the dyad.

Second, leaders could also encourage subordinates, who clearly do not identify with one another, to collaborate in work related tasks with the aim of allowing them to further deepen their relationship. A core leadership role is to manage and create well-functioning teams (Avolio, 1999; Avolio, Bass, Walumbwa, and Zhu, 2004), therefore making sure individuals share commonalities that will ultimately result in trust, is a concern a leader should take seriously.

Third, proactive behaviour is generally encouraged within organisations as proactive employees are regarded as having the skills and abilities of managing complex situations and voicing possible solutions or concerns to other organisational members (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010; Ashford & Black, 1996). However, study 2 shows that proactive individuals only trust each other when they perceive each other as being similarly high in proactivity. This implies that although proactive behaviour is encouraged within organisations identification plays an important role on how the other employees' proactive behaviour is perceived. In fact,

similarly low proactive individuals and individuals who view each other as having divergent proactive behaviour levels actually tend to trust each other less, suggesting that under such conditions proactive behaviour can actually be detrimental for the organisations. Therefore, for proactivity to have a positive impact within organisations, leaders need to guide and encourage employees into similarly high proactivity levels, to guarantee identification and ensure trust among staff members remains high.

The results imply that leaders might need to be more aware of their own proactivity level and also more responsive to subordinates' proactivity level. If a leader is proactive and a subordinate is naturally a more passive individual, and proactivity is a desired behaviour within the organisation, then the leader might need to craft a more proactive work task to showcase these characteristics to the subordinate. Moreover, it could also be beneficial for the leader to reward subordinate's proactive behaviour until being proactive becomes part the subordinates work role. On the other hand, if a leader is more passive than the subordinate, the leader might need to work on his/her low proactivity levels to keep the proactive subordinate engaged and motivated. Furthermore, the leader could also encourage the proactive worker to apply for a role within the organisation that will be better suited to his/her proactive nature.

The challenge arises when both the leader and the employee are passive as such combination appears to be detrimental for the organisation and the leaders might not be motivated to encourage any change. Under such circumstances the CEO of the organisation might need to either consider training the leader or be stricter in their selection process making sure that only leader that fulfil the role requirements are hired.

Fifth, leaders, recruiters and HR professionals should keep in mind that social identification applies not only to proactive behaviour but also to demographics, personality traits and other organisational behaviours. Identification between employees therefore can occur under a number of diverse personal and social aspects. The more an individual perceives themselves as being similar to the other party the more likely they are to unconditionally trust and like that individual. Identification keeps in-group members together, however in doing so it also marginalises out-group members as not worthy of their trust. Hence, leaders need to be mindful that for innovation to occur the ideas and thoughts of out-group also need to be heard and need to be taken into account, otherwise solutions and ideas will only be discussed between likeminded people. Results of the present research programme support the latter outcome, by revealing evidence that low levels of trust are directly linked to employees engaging in acquiescent and defensive silence.

Sixth, when employees from the out-group feel threatened by the in-group, they appear to be more likely to engage in silent behaviour. Organisations and leaders would benefit from understanding how their behaviours towards out-group members may be causing them to remain silent, either by fear of negative repercussions or by disengagement as the employee might consider that their voice will not make any difference (Detert & Burris, 2007). Consideration should therefore be given to create a work environment where out-group members as in-group members feel valued and appreciated.

Seventh, it is important for leaders to be aware that identification between employees does not only lead to trust development but, as suggested by social identity theory, results in

higher positive affect experienced among employees (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Leaders' ability to maintain positive affect within the workplace has been positively related to employees' task performance (Barsade, 2002), sales representative/client interactions (Grandey, 2000) and managerial processes (Staw & Barsade, 1993). Therefore, leader's awareness of the role identification plays is fundamental in the development of healthy trust bonds and the resulting positive affect solely reserved to the in-group (Tajfel, 1979) to both maintain open communication channels (De Cremer & Alberts, 2004; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) and higher performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Parke & Seo, 2017).

9.5 Limitations and Future Research

As in any research, a number of limitations to the implications of this study can be identified. Firstly, all of the measures used were completed by self-report, increasing the risk of common method bias in the results. The present research used both a vignette study and a cross sectional design to explore its theoretical proposition, allowing some aspects of this bias to be limited (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The use of self-report questionnaires is typical way of collecting data within organisational studies; perceptions of others and intentions to behave are within person variables which are arguably only measurable through self-report (Chan, 2009). In support of the present research programme, congruence studies in the management literature have also employed similar methodologies to uncover similar theoretical proposition (Li & Thatcher, 2015; Zang, Wang, & Shi, 2012). To further reduce common method variance a number of steps were taken, for example when developing the questionnaire design, measures and scales were counterbalanced and both online and paper and pen questionnaire were

distributed randomly to participants (Conway & Lance, 2010). Additionally, results from the Harman one factor test (reported in Section 6.3.1) indicate that common method bias is not a major concern in this data set. However, in correlational research self-report questionnaires may have the potential of allowing response bias to impact results, adopting a longitudinal research approach would control, for these issues (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

Secondly, the trust referent used in both studies was the “immediate supervisor” as the majority of decision making interactions occur at these level and are fundamental for a successful work relationship and positive work outcomes (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Lau, Lam & Wen, 2013). However, future research might explore a different referent such as co-workers, teammates or subordinates and managers as these may add some further insight into how identification governs such relations.

Thirdly, study 2 measured trust only from an employee’s perspective, as it is assumed in the trust literature that subordinates perspective serves as a proxy which reflects the trust experienced by the leader (Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2008; Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2009). However, it would be interesting for future research to measure trust from both the leader and follower perspective rather than assuming that trust is best measured as a unidirectional phenomenon (Korsgaard, Brower & Lester, 2015).

According to Kramer (1999) when people share a similar social context trust between the parties will converge as the social context, is viewed as being unifying driver. However, in the present research programme although leader and follower shared a similar context differences in hierarchical levels might affect the way that social context is perceived. To limit

this issue the present research programme used a vignette study, to explore in a more controlled environment whether role had an impact on the congruence-trust relationship. Although the results were not significant, they did however show that leaders are generally less likely to trust proactive employees regardless of similarity, supporting the dark side of proactivity research. Hence, exploring leaders' trust in employees could have further clarified leaders' perception of employees' proactive behaviour, as leaders appear to be ones that feel threatened by such behaviour (Belshak & Den Hartog, 2010).

The fourth limitation comes from a smaller sample of leader compared to the subordinate sample. The limited sample size of leaders was due to poor leader response rate or missing matching subordinate data was due to either leaders not responding to questionnaires or not finding leader's matching subordinate. A larger sample size would have been added to the potential to generalize the results. The sample size was however considered to be big enough to run the analysis based on sample sizes of previous studies (Zhang, Wang, & Shi, 2012; De Jong & Dirks, 2012). The sample size could have impacted the results of leaders' perceptions of employees' voice due to low statistical power. Moreover, employees' upward voice could have been also measured by the employee as they as they could have given a more accountable measure of their voicing behaviour compared to leaders. Future research should endeavour to include leaders' perception of employees' upward voice as well as employees self-rating of their voice, to that leaders are perceiving employees' voice correctly.

Fifth, the prosocial scale could have been worded more appropriately as items in the prosocial scale were more directed toward the follower- organisation relation rather than

toward the leader-follower relation. Blending items is common practice (Brannick, 2010) but this did not work in this research, future research should try to separate the defensive and acquiescent silence scale from the prosocial silence scale, to prevent this issue from reoccurring.

Finally, study 2 utilised a cross sectional design to answer the research hypotheses. Due to the methodological complexity of matching leaders to their subordinates, a cross-sectional design was considered to be the most effective way to have a snapshot of the theoretical proposition of the present research model in a natural environment. The study took a first step in investigating how dyadic identification impacts trust formation. The hypotheses were tested by using both a cross-sectional design (study 2) and an experimental design (study1), these combined methodologies were recognized as being a strong first foundation to shed light on the role identification plays in trust development. Building on the present research, future research might want to adopt a longitudinal design to isolate the impact that identification has on trust over time. For example, a longitudinal study might explore how identification impacts trust development when individuals enter a new organisation and if such trust is then maintained a year later.

In light of these limitations, the results reported in Chapter 7 and 8, need to be treated with some caution. However, recognising these limitations and overcoming them offers signposts to a number of additional and promising avenues for future researcher. In particular, although social exchange theory has been the dominant theoretical foundation in studying interpersonal trust in the field of organisational psychology, the present research provides

evidence that other theoretical frameworks need to be taken into account when exploring trust development. Future research should be encouraged to consider diverse theoretical frameworks as further explanatory mechanisms for trust development.

The present research solely focused on the impact that perceptions of proactive behaviour similarity have on leader-follower trust development. It would be interesting for future research to explore how other valuable behaviours are perceived within the leader-follower relation, for example how voice is perceived by both leader and follower. Future research might acknowledge that what is considered a positive behaviour by management might not be interpreted as such by the employee, therefore understanding how perceptions influence behaviour might be crucial in understanding the dynamics of employees' work behaviour. It would also be interesting for future research to further explore how leader-follower proactive behaviour congruence is interpreted by leaders, by measuring leaders' trust in employees. Moreover, research should also expand on the role emotions play in maintaining solid trust bond once identification has occurred.

Finally, the present research explored how low trust levels result in employees' silence using the Van Dyne's et al. (2003) scale. This scale was chosen as it the most widely and validated scale in silence literature. However, it would be interesting to explore the relationship between trust and Brinsfield's (2013) silence scale, as it is richer than Van Dyne's et al. (2003) scale as it includes more silence motives. This could further clarify if all negative forms of silence are associated with employees' trust to leader, or if different forms of silence might be associated to different referents. The present research took a first step in confirming that

employees' silence is a direct effect of employee's low trust towards leader, but further investigation would benefit the silence literature.

9.5 Conclusion

This research provides the first in-depth empirical examination of the role that social identification has within leaders-follower trust development. The results of the studies demonstrate that social identification is an important antecedent of trust and that social exchanges only enhance trust when identification is low. In doing so, this research clarifies scholars' understanding of trust development and responds to recent calls for trust theory and research to incorporate diverse epistemological approaches (Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2009). The findings of the studies have important implications for the evolution of trust development theory and the improvement of organisational practice, particularly in understanding the role identification plays within the leader-follower trust relationship. As such, this study serves as a strong platform for further development of this scholarly field.

References

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M.A. (2001). Collective Identity; Group membership and self-conception.

In: MA Hogg & RS Tindale (Eds), *Blackwell handbook of social psychology: Group*

processes (pp425-460) Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K.J., (2014). Best Practice Recommendations for Designing and

Implementing Experimental Vignette Methodology Studies. *Organizational Research*

Method, 7 (4), 351-371.

Aguinis, H., & Edwards, J. R. (2014). Methodological wishes for the next decade and how to

make wishes come true. *Journal of Management Studies*, 51, 143-174.

Aguinis, H., & Lawal, S. O. (2012). Conducting field experiments using eLancing's natural

environment. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 27, 493-505.

Agyriss, C. (1997). Double loop learning in organizations. *Harvard Business Review*, 55 (5), 113

129.

Alexopoulos, A.N. & Buckley, F. (2013). What Trust Matters When. The Temporal Value of Professional and Personal Trust for Effective Knowledge Transfer. *Group and Organizational Management*, 38 (3), 361-391.

Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behaviour on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 247-260.

Ambrose, M.L., & Schminke, M. (2003). Organization structure as a moderator of the relationship between procedural justice, interactional justice, perceived organizational support, and supervisory trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 295-305.

Amsbary, J. H., Vogel, R., Hickson, M. Wittig, J. W., & Oakes, B. (2009). Smoking artefacts as indicators of Homophily, attraction, and credibility: A replication. *Communication Research Reports*, 11 (2), 161-167.

Anderson, L.M., & Bateman, T.S. (2000). Individual Environmental Initiative: Championing Natural environmental issues in U.S. Business organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(4), 548-570.

Anderson, J. C., Gerbing, D. W. (1998). Structural Equation Modelling in Practice: A review and recommended two step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103 (3), 411-423.

Anseel, F., Beatty, A. S., Shen, W., Lievens, F., & Sackett, P. R. (2015). How are we doing after 30 years? A meta-analytic review of the antecedents and outcomes of feedback seeking behaviour. *Journal of Management*, 41(1), 318-348.

Antill, J.K. (1983). Sex role complementarity versus similarity in married couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 145-155.

Antonakis, J. Day, D.V & Schyns, B. (2012). Leadership and individual differences: At the cusp of a renaissance. *Leadership Quarterly*, 23(5), 643-650.

Antonakis, J. (2017). Charisma the “New Leadership”. The nature of Leadership, Third edition.

Editors John Antonakis and David V. Day, Sage Publications, Inc.

Armstrong, R. W., & Yee, S. M. (2001). Do Chinese trust Chinese? A study of Chinese buyers and sellers in Malaysia. *Journal of International Marketing*, 9, 63-86.

Aron, A., Aron, E. N. ,& Smollan, D. (1992). Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale and the structure of interpersonal closeness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63(4), 596-612.

Arvey R.D.,& Faley, R.H. (1998).*Fairness in selecting employees(2nd edition)*. Reading MA: Addison-Wesley.

Ashford, S. J., & Black, J. S. (1996). Proactivity during organizational entry: the role of desire for control. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81 (2), 199-214.

Ashford, S. J., Blatt, R., Walle, D. V. (2003). Reflections on the Looking Glass: a Review of Research on Feedback-Seeking Behavior in Organizations, *Journal of Management*, 29(6), 773-799.

Ashforth, S.J., & Cummings, L. L. (1983). Feedback seeking as an individual resources: personal strategies of creating information. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 32, 370-398.

Ashford, B.E., & Meal, F. (1989). Social identity Theory and the Organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 20-39.

Ashford, S. J., Rothbard, N. P., Piderit, S. K., & Dutton, J. E. (1998). Out of limb: the role of context and impression management in selling gender-equity issues. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43(1), 23-57.

Ashforth, B. E., & Saks, A. M. (1996). Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 149–178.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Dorris, A. D. (2017). Emotion in the workplace. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 4, 67-90.

Ashkanasy, N. M., Humphrey, R. H. (2011a). *A multi-level view of leadership and emotions: leading with emotional labor*. In Sage Handbook of Leadership, ed. A Bryman, D Collinson, K Grint, B Jackson, M Uhl-Bien, pp. 363–77. London: Sage Publ.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Jordan, P. J. (2008). A multi-level view of leadership and emotion. In R. H. Humphrey (Ed.), *Affect and emotion: New directions in management theory and research* (pp. 17–39). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Tse, B. (2000). Transformational leadership as management of emotion: A conceptual review. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. E. Härtel, & W. J. Zerbe (Eds.), *Emotions in the workplace: Research, theory, and practice* (pp. 221-235). Westport, CT, US: Quorum Books/Greenwood Publishing Group.

Athanassiades, J. C. (1973). The distortion of upward communication in hierarchical organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 16(2), 207-226.

Atwater, L. E., Ostroff, C, Yammarino, F. J., & Fleenor, J. W. (1998). Self-other agreement: Does it really matter? *Personnel Psychology*, 51, 577-598.

Atzmüller, C., & Steiner, P. M. (2010). Experimental vignette studies in survey research. *European Journal of Research Methods for the Behavioural and Social Sciences*, 6, 128-138.

Averett, C. & Heise, D. R. (1987). Modified social identities: Amalgamations, attributions and emotions. *The Journal of Mathematical Sociology*, 13 (1-2).

Avery, D.R. & Quinones, M.A. (2002).Disentangling the effects of voice: The Incremental role of opportunity, behaviour, and instrumentality in predicating procedural fairness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1),81-86.

Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999).Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using Multifactor leadership. *Journal of Organizational and Occupational Psychology*, 72 (4), 441-462.

Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., Walumbwa, F., & Zhu, W. (2004). MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Technical report, leader form, rater form, and scoring key for MLQ Form 5x-short (3rd ed.). Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden

Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O. ,Luthans, F. & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: a look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviours. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 801-823.

Avolio, B. J. (1999). Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Avolio, B.J., Luthans, F., & Walumbwa, F.O., (2004). Authentic leadership: Theory-building for veritable sustained performance. Working paper. Gallup Leadership Institute, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

Avolio, B. J., Reichard, R. J. Hannah, S.T. Walumbwa, F. O., Chan, A. (2009). A meta-analytic review of leadership impact research: Experimental and quasi-experimental studies. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20 764–784.

Axelrod, R. (1984). *The evolution of cooperation*. Basic Books, New York.

Axtell, C. M., Holman, D. J., Unsworth, K. L., Wall, T. D., Waterson, P. E. & Harrington, E. (2000). Shop floor innovation: Facilitating the suggestion and implementation of ideas. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73(3), 265-285.

Axtell, C. M. & Parker, S. K. (2003). Promoting Role breadth self-efficacy through involvement, work redesign and training. *Human Relations*, 56 (1), 113-131.

Azjen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behaviour. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), 179-211.

Bachmann, R. (2011). At the crossroads: Future directions in trust research. *Journal of Trust Research*, 1, 203-213.

Baer, M. & Frese, M. (2003). Innovation is not enough: climates for initiative and psychological safety, process innovations, and firm performance. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 24(1), 45-68.

Bagozzi, R.P. (2011). Measurement and Meaning in Information Systems and Organizational Research: Methodological and Philosophical Foundations *MIS Quarterly*, 35 (2), 261-292.

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37(2), 122-147.

Bandura, A. (1985). Model of Causality in Social Learning. *Theory, Cognition and Psychotherapy*, 81-99

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman

Banta, T. J., & Hetherington, M. (1963). Relations between needs of friends and fiancées.

Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 66, 401-404.

Baron, R.M. & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction

in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical

considerations. *Journal of personality and Social psychology*, 51(6), 1173

1182.

Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group

behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47, 644–675.

Bartlett, K. R. (2005). Survey research. In R. A. Swanson & E. F. Holton (Eds.), *Research in*

organizations: Foundations and methods of inquiry (pp.97-113). San Francisco, CA:

Berrett-Koehler.

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*, Free Press, New York, NY.

Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behaviour.

Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 14(2), 103-118.

Batson, C. D., Shaw, L. L., & Oleson, K. C. (1992). Differentiating affect, mood, and emotion:

Toward functionally based conceptual distinctions. In M. S. Clark (Ed.), *Review of*

personality and social psychology, No. 13. Emotion (pp. 294-326). Thousand Oaks, CA,

US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal

attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(3), 497

529.

Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., DeWall, N. C., & Zhang, L. (2007). How Emotion Shapes Behavior:

Feedback, Anticipation, and Reflection, Rather Than Direct Causation. *Personality and*

Social Psychology Review, 11 (2), 167-203.

Beach, L. R. (1990). *Image theory: Decision making in personal and organizational contexts.*

New York: Wiley.

- Becherer, R. C., & Maurer, J. G. (1999). The proactive personality disposition and entrepreneurial behaviour among small company presidents. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 37(1), 28-36.
- Beedie, C., Terry, T. & Lane, L. (2005). Distinctions between emotion and mood, *Journal of Cognition and Emotion*, 19 (6), 847-878.
- Bell, N.E., & Staw, B.M. (1989). *People as sculptors versus sculpture: The role of personality and personal control in organizations*. Handbook of Career Theory. Edited by Michael Bernard Arthur.
- Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D.N. (2010). Being proactive at work-blessing or bane? *The Psychologist*, 23,886-889.
- Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2010). Pro-self, prosocial and pro-organizational foci of proactive behaviour: Differential antecedents and consequences, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 475-498.

Belschak, F.D., Den Hartog, D.N. & Fay, D. (2010). Exploring positive, negative and context dependent aspects of proactive behaviours at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83 (2), 267-273.

Bentler, P.M. (1995). Estimates and Tests in structural equation modelling. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modelling: Concepts, issues, and applications* (pp. 37-55). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Bentler, P.M. (2007). On test of Indices for evaluating structural models, *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42(5), 825-829.

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88, 588-606.

Bentler, P. M., & Newcomb, M. D. (1978). Longitudinal study of marital success and failure. *Journal of Counselling and Clinical Psychology*, 46, 1053-1070.

Benton, T., & Craib, I. (2001). *Philosophy of social science: The philosophical foundations of social thought*. Palgrave.

Berscheid, E., & Reis, H. T. (1998). *Attraction and close relationships*. In DT Gilbert, ST Fiske &

G Lindzey (eds) *the handbook of social psychology* (4th ed, vol 2, pp193-281). New York:

McGraw Hill.

Biemann, T., & Kearney, E. (2010). Size does matter: How varying group sizes in a sample affect

the most common measures of group diversity. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13,

582–599

Bigley, G. A., & Pearce, J.L. (1998). Straining for shared meaning in Organization Science:

problems of Trust and Distrust. *Academy of Management Review*, 3, 405-421.

Bindl, U. K., Parker, S. K., Totterdell, P., Hagger-Johnson, G. (2012). Fuel of the self-starter:

How mood relates to proactive goal regulation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1),

134-150.

Black, J. S., & Ashford, J. (1995). Fitting in or making jobs fit: factors affecting mode of

adjustment for new hires. *Human Relations*, 48 (4), 421-437.

Blatt, R. (2009). *Though Love: How Communal Schemas and Contracting practices Build*

Relational Capital in Entrepreneurial Teams. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(3), 533-551.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.

Boichuk, J. P. and Menguc, B. (2013) Engaging Dissatisfied Retail Employees to Voice promotive Ideas: the role of continuance. *Commitment*, 89(2), 207-218.

Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 52-66.

Bolino, M., Valcea, S. & Harvey, J. (2010). Employee, manage thyself: The potentially negative implications of expecting employees to behave proactively. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(2), 325-345.

Bollen, K. A. & Stine, R. (1990). Direct and indirect effects: Classical and bootstrap estimates of variability. *Sociological Methodology*, 20, 115-140.

Bono, J. E., & Ilies, R. (2006). Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(4), 317-334.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership:

A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 901–910

Bordens, K. S., & Abbott, B. B. (2008). *Research design and methods: A process approach, 7th*

edition. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Botwin, M. D., Buss, D. M., & Shackelford, T. K. (1997). Personality and Mate Preferences: Five

Factors In Mate Selection and Marital Satisfaction. *Journal of Personality*, 65(1)107-

136.

Bowen and Blackmon (2003) Spirals of Silence: The Dynamic Effects of Diversity on

Organizational Voice, *Journal of Management Studies*, 40 (6), 1393-1417.

Boyle, R. & Bonacich, P. (1970). The development of trust and mistrust in mixed-motive games.

A social network perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 70-82.

Brannick, M. T., Chan, D., Conway, J. M., Lance, C. E. & Spector, P. E. (2010). What is method

variance and how can we cope with it? A panel discussion. *Organizational Research*

Methods, 13, 407-420.

Branscombe, N. R., Ellemers, N., Spears, R., & Doosje, B. (1999). The context and content of social identity. In N. Ellemers, R. Spears, & B. Doosje (Eds.), *Social identity* (pp. 35-58). Oxford: Blackwell.

Bratton, V. K., Dodd, N. G. and Brown, F. W. (2011), "The impact of emotional intelligence on accuracy of self-awareness and leadership performance", *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 32 (2), 127-149.

Breakwell, G. M., Smith, J. A., & Wright, D. B. (2012). *Research methods in psychology*, 4th edition. London: Sage.

Brewer, M. B. (1981). *Ethnocentrism and its role in interpersonal trust*. In *Scientific Inquiry and the Social Sciences*, ed. M.B., Brewer, B. E., Collins, pp. 345–59. New York: Jossey-Bass.

Brewer, M. B. (1991). The social self: On being the same and different at the same time. *Personality and Social psychology Bulletin*, 17, 475-482.

Brewer, M. B. (1996). In-group favouritism: the subtle side of intergroup discrimination. In *Codes of Conduct: Behavioural Research and Business Ethics*, ed. D.M., Messick, A.,

Tenbrunsel, pp. 160–71. New York: Russell Sage Found. 407 pp.

Brewer, M. B. (2008). Depersonalized trust and in-group cooperation. In J.I. Krueger (Ed.),

Rationality and social responsibility: Essays in honour of Robyn Mason Dawes (pp.

215–232). New York: Psychology Press.

Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is the “We”? Levels of collective identity and self

representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71, 83-93.

Brewer, M. B., & Kramer, R. M.(1985). The psychology of intergroup attitudes and behaviour,

Annual Review of Psychology 36, 219-243.

Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behaviour: Affect in the workplace. *Annual*

Review of Psychology, 53(1), 279–307.

Brinsfield, C. T. (2013). Employee silence motives: Investigation of dimensionality and

development of measures. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 34 (5), 671-697.

Bromily, P., & Cummings, L.L.(1992). *Transaction costs in organizations with trust*. Working

paper n28. Strategic management research centre, university of Minnesota,

Minneapolis in Homer 1995.

Brower, H., Lester, S., Korsgaard, A., & Dineen, B. (2009). A closer look at trust between Managers and Subordinates: Understanding the effects of both trusting and being trusted on subordinate outcomes. *Journal of Management*, 35, 327-347.

Brower, H., Schoorman, F. D., & Tan, H. (2000). A model of leadership: The integration of trust and leader-member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 227–250.

Brown, D. J., Cober, R. T., Kane, K., Levy, P. E. & Shalhoop, J. (2006). Proactive personality and the successful job search: A field investigation with college graduates. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 717-726.

Brown, M. E., & Trevino, L. K. (2009). Leader–Follower Values Congruence: Are Socialized Charismatic Leaders Better Able to Achieve It? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), 478-490.

Brown, M. E., Trevino, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behaviour and*

Human Decision Process, 97(2), 117-134.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business Research Methods*, 2nd edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burke, P.J. (1991). Identity Processes and social stress. *American Sociological Review*, 56 (6), 836-849.

Burke, M. J., Brief, A. P., George, J. M., Roberson, L., & Webster, J. (1989). Measuring affect at work: Confirmatory analyses of competing mood structures with conceptual linkage to cortical regulatory systems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1091-1102.

Burke, P. J., & Cast, A. D.(1997). "Stability and Change in the Gender Identities of Newly Married Couples." *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 60, 277-290.

Burke, C. S., Sims, D., Lazzara, E. H., Salas, E.(2007). Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 606-632.

Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organizational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life*. London: Heinemann, 1979.

Burris, E.R. (2012). The risks and rewards of speaking up: managerial responses to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(4), 851-875.

Butler, J. K., Jr. (1986). Reciprocity of dyadic trust in close male-female relationships. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 126, 579-591.

Butler, J. K. Jr. (1991). Toward understanding and measuring conditions of trust: evolution of a condition of trust inventory. *Journal of Management*, 17, 643-663.

Butler, J., K. Jr.(1995). Behaviours, trust and goal achievement in win-win negotiating role play. *Group and Organization Management*, 20, 486-501.

Byrne, D. (1961). Interpersonal attraction and attitude similarity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 62, 713-715.

Byun, G., Dai, Y., Lee, S., Kang, S. (2017). Leader Trust, Competence, LMX, and Member Performance. A Moderated Mediation Framework. *Psychological Reports*, 120(6), 1137-1159.

Caldwell, C., Hayes, L., Bernal, P., & Karri, R. (2008). Ethical stewardship—Implications for leadership and trust. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 78, 153-164.

Campbell, D. J. (2000). The proactive employee: managing workplace initiative. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(3), 52-66.

Carnevale, D. G. & Wechsler, B. (1992). Trust in the Public Sector, Individual and Organizational Determinant. *Administration and Society*, 23 (4), 471-494.

Carter, M. Z., Mossholder, K. W. (2015). Are we on the same page? The performance effects of congruence between supervisor and group trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(5), 1349-1363.

Carver, C. S. & Scheier, M. F. (1990). "Principles of Self-Regulation: Action and Emotion." Pp. 352 in Handbook of Motivation and Cognition: Foundations of Social Behavior, Vol. 2,

edited by E. Tory Higgins and Richard M. Sorrentino. New York: Guilford Press.

Casson, M., & Della Giusta, M. (2006). *The economics of trust*. In R. Bachmann & A. Zaheer (Eds.), *Handbook of trust research* (pp. 334-356). Edward Elgar.

Chan, D. (2006). Interactive effects of situational judgment effectiveness and proactive personality on work perceptions and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(2), 475-481.

Chan, D. (2009). *So why ask me? Are self-report data really that bad?* In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg (Eds.), *Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends: Doctrine, verity, and fable in the organizational and social sciences* (pp. 309-332). Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

Chan, S. CH (2014). Paternalistic leadership and employee voice: Does information sharing matter? *Human Relations*, 67(6) 667-693.

Chang, S., Van Witteloostuijn, A. & Eden, L. (2010). From the editors: Common method variance in international Business Research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41 (2), 178-184.

Chatman, J. A., & Barsade, S. G. (1995). Personality, organizational culture and cooperation: Evidence from business simulation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 423-443.

Cherulnik, P., D., Donley, K., A., Wiewel, T. R. & Miller, S. R. (2001). Charisma is Contagious: The Effect of leaders Charisma on Observers Affect. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 31(10), 2149-2159.

Clegg, C. & Spencer, C. (2007). A circular and dynamic model of the process of job design. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80 (2), 321-339.

Clore, G. L., Gasper, K., & Gavin, E. (2001). *Affect as information*. In J. P. Forgas (Ed.), *Handbook of affect and social cognition* (pp. 121–144). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cohen, A., Nahum-Shani, I. & Doveh, E. (2010). Further Insight and additional Inference methods for polynomial regression Applied to Analysis of Congruence. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 45(5), 828-852.

Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A., Piccolo, R. F., Zapata, C. P., & Rich, B. L. (2012). Explaining the justice-performance relationship: Trust as exchange deepener or trust as uncertainty reducer? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97, 1-15.

Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., & LePine, J. A. (2007). Trust, trustworthiness, and trust propensity: meta-analytic test of their unique relationships with risk taking and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 909-927.

Conger, J. A. (1999). Charismatic and Transformational leadership in Organizations: An insider's perspective on these developing streams of research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 145-179.

Conger, J. A., & Kanuga, R. N. (1987). Towards a behavioural theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 12, 637-647.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1998). Charismatic leadership in organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2003). Raising voice, risking retaliation: Events following interpersonal mistreatment in the workplace. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 8*(4), 247-265.

Cote, S. & Hideg, I. (2010). The ability to influence others via emotional displays: A new dimension of emotional intelligence. *Organizational Psychology Review, 1*, 53-71.

Crant, J. M. (1995). The Proactive Personality Scale and objective job performance among real estate agents. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(4), 532-53.

Crant, J. M. (1996). The proactive personality scale as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Small Business Management, 34*(3), 42-49.

Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive Behaviour in Organisations, *Journal of Management, 26* (3), 435-462.

Crant, J. M., & Bateman, T. S. (2000). Charismatic Leadership Viewed from above: The Impact of Proactive Personality. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(1), 63-75.

Crawford, J. R. & Henry, J. D. (2004). The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS): Construct validity, measurement properties and normative data in a large non-clinical sample. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 43 (3), 245-265.

Creswell, J. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*, 2nd edition. Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.

Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2017). *Entity justice and entity injustice*. *Organizational Justice: International perspectives and conceptual advances*. Edited by Carolina Moliner, Russell Cropanzano, Vicente Martínez-Tur. Routledge.

Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Konovsky, M. A. (1993). Dispositional affectivity as a predictor of work attitudes and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 14 (6), 595-606.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social Exchange Theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.

Crossley, C. D., Cooper, C. D. & Wernsing, T. S, (2013). Making Things Happen through Challenging Goals: Leader proactivity, trust, and business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(3), 540-549.

Crow, S. M., Folk, L. Y., & Hartman, S. J. (1998). Who is at greatest risk of work-related discrimination: Women, blacks, or homosexuals? *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 11, 15–26.

Crowne, D., & Marlowe, D. (1964). *The approval motive: Studies in evaluative dependence*. New York: Wiley.

Cunningham, J. B., & MacGregor, J. (2000). Trust and the design of work: Complementary

constructs in satisfaction and performance. *Human Relations*, 53, 1575–1591.

Daft, R. L. (1983). Learning the craft of organizational research. *Academy of Management Review*, 8, 539-546.

Damen, F., Van Knippenberg, B., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2008). Affective Match in Leadership: Leader Emotional Displays, Follower Positive Affect, and Follower Performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 38 (4), 868-902.

Danserau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. (1975). A vertical dyad approach to leadership within formal organizations. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 13, 46-78.

Dasborough, M. T., Ashkanasy, N. M., Tee, E. E. J., & Tse, H. H. M. (2009). What goes around comes around: how meso level negative emotional contagion can ultimately determine organizational attitudes toward leaders. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 571–85.

Dasborough, M. T., Sinclair, M., Russell-Bennett, R., Tombs, A. (2008). Measuring emotion: methodological issues and alternatives. In *Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations*, ed. NM Ashkanasy, CL Cooper, pp. 197–208. Cheltenham, UK: Edward

Elgar Publ. Ltd.

Dass, M., & Kumar, P. (2011). The impact of economic and social orientation on trust within teams. *Journal of Business & Economics Research*, 9, 1-16.

Davis, J.H., Allen, M., R., & Hayes, H. D. (2010). *Is Blood Thicker Than Water? A Study of Stewardship Perceptions in Family Business. Entrepreneurship theory and Practice*, 34(6), 1093-1116.

Davis, W.A. & Gardner, W. L. (2004). Perceptions of politics and organizational cynicism: An attributional and leader–member exchange perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(4), 439-465.

Davis, J. H, Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Tan, H. (2000). The trusted general manager and business unit performance: Empirical evidence of a competitive advantage. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21, 543–576

Dawes R.M. (1994). *House of Cards: Psychology and Psychotherapy Built on Myth*. New York: Free Press.

Day, D. V., & Lord, R. G. (1988). Executive leadership and organizational performance:

Suggestions for a new theory and methodology. *Journal of Management*, 14(3), 453-464.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 227-268.

De Cremer, D. & Alberts, H. J. E. M. (2004). When procedural fairness does not influence how positive I feel: the effects of voice and leader selection as a function of belongingness need. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 34(3), 333-344.

De Cremer, D., & Tyler, T. R. (2007). The effects of trust in authority and procedural fairness on cooperation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 639-649.

Dedahanov, A.T. & Rhee, J. (2015). Examining the relationship among trust, silence and organizational commitment. *Management Decision*, 53 (8), 1843-1857.

De Jong, S. B., & Dirks, K. (2012). Beyond shared perceptions of trust and monitoring in teams: Implications of asymmetry and dissensus. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97, 391-406.

- Deluga, R. J. (1994). Supervisor trust building, leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 67 (4), 315-326.
- Deluga, R. J. (1998). American Presidential Proactivity, Charismatic leadership, and rated performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9(3), 265-291.
- DeNeve, K. M., & Cooper, H. (1998). The happy personality: A meta-analysis of 137 personality traits and subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124(2), 197-229.
- Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2007). Personal initiative, commitment and affect at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(4), 601-622.
- Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2012). When does transformational leadership enhance employee proactive behaviour? The role of autonomy and role breadth self efficacy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1), 194-202.
- DeRue, D. S., & Ashford, S. J. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity constructions. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(4), 627-647.

Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behaviour and employee voice: is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50 (4), 869-884.

Detert, J. R., & Edmondson, A. C. (2005). No exit, no voice: The bond of risky voice opportunities in organisations. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1,

Detert, J. R., & Edmondson, A. C. (2011). Implicit voice theories: taken for granted rules of self censorship at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54 (3), 461-488.

Diefendorff, J.M., Richard, E.M. & Yang, Y. (2008). Linking emotion regulation strategies to affective events and negative emotions at work. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 73 (3), 498-508.

Diener, E. D. , Smith, H., Fujita, F. (1995). *The personality structure of affect* *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69 (1), 130-141.

Dietz, G., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2006). Measuring trust inside organizations. *Personnel Review*, 35, 557-588.

Dillman, D.A. (2007). *Mail and Internet Surveys: The tailored design method*. New Jersey: Wiley

and Sons, Inc.

Dirks, K. T. (1999). The effects of interpersonal trust on work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 445-455.

Dirks, K.T. (2000), Trust in Leadership and Team Performance: Evidence from NCAA Basketball, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(6), 1004-1012.

Dirks, K. T. (2006). Three fundamental questions regarding trust in leaders. In R. Bachmann & A. Zaheer (Eds.), *Handbook of trust research* (pp. 15-28). Cheltenham, UK, Edward Elgar.

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2001). The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organization Science*, 12, 450-467.

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4), 611-628.

Dokko, G. Kane, A. & Tortoriello, M.(2014). One of Us or One of My Friends: How Social Identity and Tie Strength Shape the Creative Generativity of Boundary-Spanning Ties.

Organization Studies, 35 (5), 703-726.

Dovidio, J. F.; Gaertner, S. E.; Kawakami, K; Hodson, G (2002). Why can't we just get along?

Interpersonal biases and interracial distrust. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 8(2), 88-102.

Duck, J. M., & Fielding, K. S. (1999). Leaders and Subgroups: One of us or one of them? *Group*

Processes Intergroup Relations, 2(3)203-230.

Dutton, J. E., & Ashford, S. J. (1993). Selling issues to top management. *Academy of*

Management Review, 18(3), 397-428.

Eby, L. T., Butts, M. & Lockwood, A. (2003). Predictors of success in the area of the

boundaryless career. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 24(6), 689-708.

Edelman, P. J. & Van Knippenberg, D. (2017). Training Leader Emotion Regulation and

Leadership Effectiveness. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 32 (6), 747–757.

Edmondson, A. C. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behaviour in work teams.

Administrative Science Quarterly, 44, 350-383.

Edmondson, A. C. (2003). Speaking up in the operating room: How team leaders promote learning in interdisciplinary action teams. *Journal of Management studies*, 40(6), 1419-1452.

Edmondson, A. C. (2004). Psychological safety, trust, and learning in organizations: A group level lens. In R. M. Kramer & K. S. Cook (Eds.), *Trust and distrust in organizations: Dilemmas and approaches* (pp. 239-272). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Edmondson, A. C., Bohmer, R. M., & Pisano, G.P. (2001). Disrupted Routines: Team learning and New Technology Implementation in Hospitals. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46 (4), 685-716.

Edmondson, A. C., & McManus, S. E. (2007). Methodological fit in management field research. *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 1155-1179.

Edwards, J. R. (2002). Alternatives to Difference of Scores, Polynomial Regression analysis and response surface methodology. *Measuring and analysing Behaviour in organisations*

Edwards, M. S., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Gardner, J. (2009). Deciding to speak up or to remain silent following observed wrongdoing: The role of discrete emotions and climate of silence. In J. Grenberg & M. S. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and silence in organisations* (pp. 83–111). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Edwards, J. R., Cable, D. M. (2009). The value of value congruence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(3), 654-677.

Edwards, J.R. Lambert, L. S., (2007) *Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. Psychological Methods*, 12(1), 1-22

Edwards, J.F. & Parry, M. E. (1993). On the use of polynomial regression equations as an alternative to difference scores organizational research. *Academy of Management*, 1577-1613.

Edwards, J.F. & Rothbard, N. P. (1999). Work and Family Stress and Well-Being: An Examination of Person-Environment Fit in the Work and Family Domains. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 77(2), 85-129.

Eib-Pfeifer, L., Pugnaghi, G., Beauducel, A., & Leue, A. (2017). On the replication of factor structures of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). *Personality and Individual Differences* Volume 107 (1), 201-207

Ellemers, N., De Gilder, D., & Haslam (2004). Motivating Individuals and groups at work: A social identity perspective on leadership and group performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 29 (3), 459-478.

Ellemers, N., & Jetten, J. (2013). The many ways to be marginal in a group. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 17, 3–21.

Ellemers, N., Spears, R. & Doosje, B. (Eds.) (1999). *Social Identity*, Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Epitropaki, O., Kark, R., Mainemelis, C., & Lord, R.G. (2017). Leadership and followership

identity processes: A Multilevel review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28(1),104-129.

Farndale, E., Van Ruiten, J., Kelliher, C., & Hope-Hailey, V. (2011). The influence of perceived employee voice on organizational commitment: An exchange perspective. *Human Resource Management*, 50 (1), 113-129.

Felix, B., Mello, A. & von Borell, D. (2018). Voices unspoken? Understanding how gay employees co-construct a climate of voice/silence in organisations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 29 (5),

Ferguson, A. J., & Peterson, R. S. (2015). Sinking slowly: Diversity in propensity to trust predicts downward trust spirals in small groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100 (4), 1012.

Ferrin, D. L., Bligh, M. C., & Kohles, J. C. (2007). Can I trust you to trust me? A theory of trust, monitoring, and cooperation in interpersonal and intergroup relationships. *Group and Organization Management*, 32, 465-499.

Ferrin, D. L., Bligh, M. C., & Kohles, J. C. (2008). It takes two to tango: An interdependence

analysis of the spiralling of perceived trustworthiness and cooperation in interpersonal and intergroup relationships. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 107, 161-178.

Ferrin, D. L., Shah, P. P. & Dirks, K.T. (2006). Direct effects of third party relationships on interpersonal trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91 (4), 870-883.

Fisher, H. (2010). Lust, Attraction, Attachment: Biology and Evolution of the Three Primary Emotion Systems for Mating, Reproduction, and Parenting. *Journal of Sex Education and Therapy Volume*, 25 (1), 96-104.

Fisher, C. D., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2000). The emerging role of emotions in work life: An introduction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 123-129.

Fiske, D. W. (1982). Convergent–discriminant validation in measurements and research strategies. In D. Brinbirg & L. H. Kidder (Eds.), *Forms of validity in research* (pp. 77–92). San Francisco: JosseyBass

Fitness, J. (2000). Anger in the workplace: an emotion script approach to anger episodes

between workers and their superiors, co-workers and subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 21,147-162.

Flores, F., & Solomon, R. C. (1998). Creating trust. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 8, 205-232.

Foddy, M., & Yamagish, T. (2009). *Group-based trust*. In K. Cook, M. Levi, & R. Hardin (Eds.), *Who can we trust?* (pp. 17–41). New York: Russell Sage Foundation

Forgas, J. P. (1995). Mood and judgment: The affect infusion model (AIM). *Psychological Bulletin*, 117, 39–66.

Frese, M. & Fay, D. (2001). Personal Initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. *Research in Organisational Behaviour*, 23,133-161.

Frese, M., Fay, D., Hilburger, T., Leng, K., & Tag, A. (1997). The concept of personal initiative: Operationalization, reliability and validity in two German samples. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70 (2), 139-161.

Frese, M., Garst, H., Fay, D. (2007). Making things happen: Reciprocal relationships between work characteristics and personal initiative in a four-wave longitudinal structural equation model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1084-1102.

Frese, M., Kring, W., Soose, A. & Zempel, J. (1996). Personal Initiative at work: Differences between East and West Germany. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(1), 37-63.

Frese, M., Teng, E. & Wijnen, C. J. D. (1999). Helping to improve suggestions systems: predictors of making suggestions in companies. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(7), 1139-1155.

Frijda, N. H. (1986). *The Emotions (Studies in Emotion and Social Interaction)*. Cambridge University Press (April 24, 1987).

Fritz, C., & Sonnentag, S. (2007). Antecedents of day-level proactive behaviour: A look at job stressors and positive affect during the workday. *Journal of Management*, 35, 94-111.

Frohman, A. L. (1997), Igniting organizational change from below: The power of personal initiative. *Organizational Dynamics*, 25 (3), 39-53.

Fu, P. P., Tsui, A. S., Liu, J., & Li, L. (2010). Pursuit of Whose happiness? Executive leaders' transformational behaviours and personal values. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 55(2), 222-254.

Fuller, B., Marler, L. E., Hester, K., & Otondo, R. F. (2015). Leader reactions to follower proactive behaviour: Giving credit when credit is due. *Human Relations*, 68(6), 879-898.

Fulmer, C., & Gelfand, M. J. (2012). At what level (and in whom) we trust: Trust across multiple organizational levels. *Journal of Management*, 38, 1167-1230.

Fulmer, C. A., & Ostroff, C. (2017). Trust in direct leaders and top leaders: A trickle-up model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(4), 648.

Gaddis, B., Connelly, S., Mumford, M.D. (2004). Failure feedback as an effective event: Influences of leader affect on subordinate attitudes and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15 (5), 663-686.

Gaertner, S. L., & Dovidio, J. F. (2000). Reducing intergroup bias—The common in-group identity model. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 331-362.

Gallois, C., Callan, V.J., & Palmer, J.M. (1992). The influence of applicant communication style and interviewer characteristics on hiring decisions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 22, 1041-1060.

Gambetta, D. (1988). *Trust: Making and breaking cooperative relations*. Oxford, Blackwell.

Gao, L., Janssen, O. and Shi, K. (2011). Leader trust and employee voice: The moderating role of empowering leader behaviours. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(4), 787-798.

Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R & Walumbwa, F.(2005). “Can you see the real me?” A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (3), 343-372.

Gardner, W. L., Fischer, D., & Hunt, J. G. (2009). Emotional labour and leadership: A threat to

authenticity? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20 (3), 466-482.

Gaudreau, P. Sanchez, X. & Blondin, J.; (2006). Positive and Negative Affective States in a Performance-Related Setting. Testing the Factorial Structure of the PANAS Across Two Samples of French-Canadian Participants. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment* (2006), 22, pp. 240-249

George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: the role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations*, 53(8), 1027–1055.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good—doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work—organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 310–329.

Ghosal, S. & Moran, P. (1996). Bad for practice: A critique of the transactional cost theory. *Academy of Management*, 21 (1), 13-47.

Gibson, C. B., & Birkinshaw, J. (2004). The Antecedents, Consequences, and Mediating role of organizational ambidexterity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47 (2), 209-226.

Giessner, R. & VanKnippenberg, D. (2008). “License to fail”: Goal definition, leader group

prototypicality and perceptions of leadership effectiveness after leader failure.

Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 105(1), 14-35.

Giessner, S. R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2008). "License to fail": Goal definition, leader group

prototypicality, and perceptions of leadership effectiveness after leader failure.

Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 105, 14–35.

Gill, H., Boies, K., Finegan, J. E., & McNally, J. (2005). Antecedents of trust: Establishing a

boundary condition for the relation between propensity to trust and intention to trust.

Journal of Business and Psychology, 19(3), 287-302.

Gillespie, N. (2003). Measuring interpersonal trust in work relationships. *Australian Journal of*

Psychology, 55, 124-124.

Gillespie, N. (2012). Measuring trust in organizational contexts: An overview of survey-based

measures. In F. Lyon, G. Möllering, & M. N. K. Saunders (Eds.), *Handbook of research*

methods on trust (pp.175-188). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar

Gillespie, N. & Mann, L. (2004). Transformational leadership and shared values: The building blocks of trust. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19, 588-607.

Gillespie, N. & Siebert, S.(2018). Organizational Trust repair (chap 16). *The routledge companion of trust*. Searl, R.H., Nienaber, A.I., Sitkin, S. B. (2018). Routledge

Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical Analysis of its Determinants and Malleability. *Academy of Management Review*, 17(2), 183-211.

Glaeser, E. L., Laibson, D., Scheinkman, J. A., &Soutter, C. (2000). Measuring trust. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 115, 811-846.

Glauser, M. J. (1984). Upwards information flow in organizations: Review and Conceptual Analysis. *Human Relations*, 37(8), 613-643.

Goel, S., Bell, G. G.,& Pierce, J. L. (2005). The Perils of Pollyanna: Development of the over-trust construct. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 58, 203-218.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam

Books

Gomez, C. & Rosen, B. (1991). The leader-member exchange as a link between managerial trust and employee empowerment. *Group and Organization Management*, 26(1), 53-69.

Gong, J., Cheung, S., Wang, M., & Huang, J. (2012). Unfolding the proactive process for creativity. Integration of the employee proactivity, information exchange, and psychological safety perspective. *Journal of Management*, 38 (5), 1611-1633.

Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J & Gupta, A. (2010). Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21 (6), 979-1004.

Gooty, J., Serban, A., Thomas, J. S., Gavin, M. B., & Yammarino, F. J. (2012). Use and misuse of levels of analysis in leadership research: An illustrative review of leader-member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 1080-1103.

Graebner, M. E. (2009). Caveat venditor: Trust asymmetries in acquisitions of entrepreneurial firms. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53, 435-472.

Graen, G. B. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level

domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6 (2), 219-247.

Graen, G.B. & Uhi-bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219-247.

Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotion regulation in the work place: A new way to conceptualize emotional labour. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5, 95-110.

Granovetter, M. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78, 1360-1380.

Grant (2013). Rocking the boat but keeping it steady: the role of emotion regulation in employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56(6), 1703-1723.

Grant, A.M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in Organization Behaviour*, 28, 3-34.

Grant, P. R. & Brown, R. (1995). From Ethnocentrism to Collective protest: Responses to Relative Deprivation and Threats to Social identity. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 58 (3), 195-212.

Grant, A. M., Gino, F., & Hofmann, D. A. (2011). Reversing the extraverted leadership advantage: the role of employee proactivity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(3), 528-550.

Grant, A. M., & Parker, S. K. (2009). Redesigning work Design Theories: The Rise of Relational and proactive Perspectives. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 3(1)317-375.

Grant, A. M., Parker, S.K. & Collins, C. (2009). Getting credit for proactive behaviour: Supervisor reaction depend on what you value and how you feel, *Personnel Psychology*, 62(1), 31-55.

Grant, A. M., & Sumanth, J. J. (2009). Mission possible? The performance of prosocially motivated employees depends on manager trustworthiness. *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, 94, 927-944.

Graves, L.M., & Powell, G.M. (1995). The effect of sex similarity on recruiters' evaluations of actual applicants: a test of the similarity-attraction paradigm. *Personal Psychology*, 48 (1), 85-98.

Greenberg, J. & Edwards, M.S. (2009). *Voice and silence in organizations*, Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Greenglass, E. R., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2009). Proactive Coping, Positive Affect, and Well-Being, Testing for mediation using path analysis. *European Psychologist*, 14(1), 29-39.

Greenleaf, R.K. (1977). *Servant Leadership: A Journey into the Nature of Legitimate Power and Greatness*, Paulist Press, New York, NY.

Griffin, M. A., Neal, A. & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of role performance: Positive behaviour in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50 (2), 327-347.

Griffin, M. A., Parker, S. K. & Mason, C. M. (2010). Leader vision and the development of adaptive and proactive performance: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 174-182.

Gross, J. J. (1998). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology*, 2(3), 271-299.

Gruys, M. L. & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Investigating the dimensionality of counterproductive work behaviour. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 11, 30-42.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). *Competing paradigms in qualitative research*. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 105-117). London: Sage.

Hackman, J. R. (2002). *Leading Teams: Setting the Stage for Great Performances*. Harvard Business school press: Boston, Massachusetts.

Halbesleben, J. R., & Wheeler, A. R. (2015). To invest or not? The role of co-worker support and trust in daily reciprocal gain spirals of helping behaviour. *Journal of Management*, 41(6), 1628-1650.

- Hambrick, D.C. (1994). Top management groups: A conceptual integration and reconsideration of the “team” Label. In BM Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds) *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, 16:171-213. Greenwich, C.T.: JAI Press
- Hansen, M. T. (1999). The search-transfer problem: The role of weak ties in sharing knowledge across organization subunits. *Admin. Sci. Quart.* 44 82–111.
- Harvey, S., Blouin, C., & Stout, D. (2006). Proactive personality as a moderator of outcomes for young workers experiencing conflict at work. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 40 (5), 1063-1074.
- Haslam, S. A., & McGarty, C. (2003). *Research methods and statistics in psychology*. London and Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Haslam, A. S., Oakes, P. J., & Reynolds, K. J. (1999). Social identity salience and the emergence of stereotype consensus. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25(7), 809-818.

- Haslam, A. S., Platow, M. J., Turner, J. C.(2001). Social Identity and the Romance of Leadership: The importance of being seen to be “doing it for us”. *Group Process and Intergroup Relations*, 4 (3), 191-205.
- Haslam, A. S., & Turner, J. C. (2014). Social identity, Organizations, and Leadership. Groups at Work Theory and Research. Edited by Turner, M. E.
- Hays, J. C.& Williams, J.R.(2011). Testing multiple motives in feedback seeking: the interaction of instrumentality and self-protection motive. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modelling [White paper]. Retrieved from [http://www.afhayes.com/ public/process2012.pdf](http://www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf)79(2),496-504.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis: A Regression-Based Approach. New York, NY: The Guilford Press
- Hayes, A. F. (2015). An Index and test of Linear moderated mediation. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 50 (1), 1-22.

Haynie, J. J., Mossholder, K. W., & Harris, S. G. (2016). Justice and job engagement: The role of senior management trust. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 37(6), 889-910.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Heslin, P. A., Vandewalle, D., & Latham, G. P. (2006). Keen to help? Managers' implicit person theories and their subsequent employee coaching. *Personnel Psychology*, 59, 871-902.

Hewstone, M., Jaspars, J. M.F. & Lalljee, M. (1982). Social representations social attribution and social identity: the inter-group images of "public" and "comprehensive" schoolboys. *European Journal of Social psychology*, 12(3), 241-269.

Higgins, E.T., Roney, C., Crowe, E., & Hymes, C. (1994). Ideal versus ought predilections for approach and avoidance: Distinct self-regulatory systems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66, 276-286.

Hill, S. N., Bartol, K. M., Tesluk, P. E., & Langa, G.A.(2009). Organizational context and face to face interaction: Influences on the development of trust and collaborative behaviour in computer-mediated groups. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*,

108, 187-201.

Hirschman, A.O. (1970) *Exit, voice and loyalty; responses to decline in firms, organizations, states*. Cambridge, MA:Harvard University press.

Hogg, M. A. (1992). *The social psychology of group cohesiveness: From attraction to social identity*. New York: New York University Press.

Hogg, M. A. (2000). Subjective uncertainty reduction through self-categorization: A motivational theory of social identity processes. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 11, 223-255.

Hogg, M. A. (2018). Self-Uncertainty, Leadership Preference, and Communication of Social Identity, *Atlantic Journal of Communication*, 26(2), 111-121

Hogg, M.A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*,5, 184-200.

Hogg, M. A., & Abrams, D. (1993a). *Group motivation: Social psychological perspectives*. London: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Hogg, M.A., & Abrams, D.(1998). *Social identifications: A social psychology of intergroup relations and group processes*. London: Routledge

Hogg, M. A., & Hains, S. C. (1996). Intergroup relations and group solidarity: Effects of group identification and social beliefs on depersonalized attraction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70,295-309.

Hogg, M. A., & Mullin, B.A. (1999). Joining groups to reduce uncertainty: Subjective uncertainty reduction and group identification. In D. Abrams & M.A. Hogg (Eds.), *Social identity and social cognition* (p 249-279). Maldem: Blackwell Publishing.

Hogg, M. A., van Knippenberg, D., Rast, D. E. (2012). The social identity theory of leadership: A decade of research and conceptual development. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 23, 258-304.

Hollander, E.P. (1964).*Leaders, groups and Influence*. Oxford, England: Oxford U. Press.

Hollander, E.P. (1992). Leadership, followership, self and others. *Leadership Quarterly*, 3, 43-54.

Homans, G. C. (1950). *The human group*. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace

Hong, Y., Raub, S., Liao, H., & Han, J.H. (2016). What it takes to Get Proactive: An Integrative

Multilevel Model of the Antecedents of personal Initiative. *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, 10 (5), 687-701.

Hopkins, S. M., & Weathington, B. L. (2006). The relationships between justice perceptions, trust

and employee attitudes in a downsized organization. *The Journal of Psychology*, 140 (5),

447-498.

Hornung, S., Rousseau, D. M. (2007). Active on the job-proactive in change. How autonomy

at work contributes to employee support for organizational change. *The Journal of*

Applied Psychology, 43 (4), 401-426.

Hosmer, L.T. 1995. Trust: the connecting link between organizational theory and ethics.

Academy of Management Review, 20379–400.

House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal*

of Management, 23(3), 409–473.

House, R. J., Shamir, B.C., Martin M. (Ed); Ayman, Roya (Ed). (1993). Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories. In M. M. Chemers & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions* (pp. 81-107). San Diego, CA, US: Academic Press.

Howell, J. M. & Boies, K. (2004). Champions of technological innovation: The influence of contextual knowledge, role orientation, idea generation, and idea promotion on champion emergence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15 (1), 123-143.

Howell, J. M., & Higgins, C. A . (1990). Leadership behaviours, influence tactics and career experiences of champions of technological innovation. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1(4), 249-264.

Howell, J.M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The role of Followers in the Charismatic Leadership Process: Relationships and their Consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 30 (1), 96-112.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cut off criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis:

Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modelling: A*

Multidisciplinary Journal, 6 (1), 1-55.

Huang, X., & Lun, J. (2006) The impact of subordinate–supervisor similarity in growth-need

strength on work outcomes: the mediating role of perceived similarity. *Journal of*

Organizational Behaviour, 27(8), 1121-1148.

Hughes, R., & Huby, M. (2002). The application of vignettes in social and nursing research.

Journal of Advanced Nursing, 37, 382-386.

Ibarra, H. Wittman, S., Petriglieri, G. & Day, D.V. (2014). *Leadership and identity an*

examination of three theories and new research directions. The Oxford Handbook of

leadership and direction.

Ilies, R., & Judge, T. A. (2005). Goal regulation across time: The effects of feedback and affect.

Journal of Applied Psychology, 90, 453-467.

Isaeva, N., Bachmann, R., Bristow, A., & Saunders, M. N. K. (2015). Why the epistemologies of trust research matter. *Journal of Trust research*, 5 (2), 153-169.

Islam, M. R., & Hewstone, M. (1993). Dimensions of contact as predictors of intergroup anxiety, perceived out-group variability, and out-group attitude: An integrative model. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 19, 700–710.

Islam, G & Zyphur, M. J. (2005). Power, Voice, and Hierachy: Exploring the antecedents of speaking up in groups. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 9 (2), 93-103.

Jackson, S., Brett, J., Sessa, V., Cooper, D., Julin, D. & Peyronnin, K. (1991). Some differences make a difference: Individual dissimilarity and group heterogeneity as correlates of recruitment, promotion and turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 675-689.

Jackson, D. L., Gillaspay, J. A., Jr., & Purc-Stephenson, R. (2009). Reporting practices in confirmatory factor analysis: An overview and some recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 14, 6–23.

James, E.H. (2000). Race-related differences in promotions and support: Underlying effects of human and social capital. *Organization Science*, 11, 493-508.

Janssen, O. & Gao, L. (2013). Supervisory Responsiveness and Employee Self-Perceived Status and Voice Behaviour. *Journal of Management*, 41 (7), 1854-1872.

Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Leidner, D. E. (1999). Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organization Science*, 10, 791-815.

Jehn K. A.& Mannix, E. A. (2001).The dynamic nature of conflict: A Longitudinal Study of Intragroup Conflict and Group Performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(2) 238-251.

Johns, G. (2006). The essential impact of context on organizational behaviour. *Academy of Management Review*, 31, 396-408.

Johnson, P. & Cassell, C. (2001). Epistemology and work psychology: New agendas. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 74 (2), 125-143.

Johnson, H. M., Spector, P.E.(2007).Service with a smile: Do emotional intelligence, gender,

and autonomy moderate the emotional labor process? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12(4), 319-333.

Jones, G.R., George, J.M. (1998). The Experience and Evolution of Trust: Implications for Cooperation and Teamwork. *Academy of Management Review*, 23 (3), 531-546.

Jones, A., James, L., & Bruni, J. (1975). Perceived leadership behaviour and employee confidence in the leader as moderated by job involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60,146–149.

Jordan, P.J. and Troth, A.C. (2011), “Emotional intelligence and leader member exchange: the relationship with employee turnover intentions and job satisfaction”, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 32 (3), 260-280.

Judge, T. A., Colbert, A. E., & Ilies, R. (2004). Intelligence and leadership: A quantitative review and test of theoretical propositions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3), 542–552.

Judge, T. A., Weiss,H.M., Kammeyer-Mueller,J.D.,&Hulin,C.L. (2017). Job attitudes, job satisfaction, and job affect: A century of continuity and of change. *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, 102(3), 356-374.

Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). Opening the Black Box: An Experimental Investigation of the Mediating Effects of Trust and Value. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 21, 949-964.*

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 33, 692-724.*

Kanfer, R., & Ackerman, P. L. (1989). Motivation and cognitive abilities: An integrative/aptitude treatment interaction approach to skill acquisition. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 657-690.*

Kanfer, R., Wanberg, C. R., Kantrowitz, T. M. (2001). Job search and employment: A personality–motivational analysis and meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86(5), 837-855.*

Kark, R., Shamir, B., & Chen, G. (2003). The two faces of transformational leadership: Empowerment and dependency. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(2), 246-255.*

Karniol, R., & Ross, M. (1996). The motivational impact of temporal focus: Thinking about the future and the past. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 47, 593–620.

Keltner, D., & Haidt, J. (1999). Social functions of emotions at four levels of analysis. *Journal of Cognition and Emotion*, 13 (5), 505-521.

Kenrick, D. T., & Funder, D. C. (1988). Profiting from controversy: Lessons from the person situation debate. *American Psychologist*, 43(1), 23–34

Kim, P. H., Ferrin, D. L., Cooper, C. D., & Dirks, K. T. 2004. Removing the shadow of suspicion: The effects of apology versus denial for repairing competence- versus integrity-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 104-118.

Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond Self-Management: Antecedents and Consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(1), 58-74

Kirrane, M., O’Shea, D., Buckley, F., Grazi, A., & Prout, J. (2017). Investigating the role of discrete emotions in silence versus speaking up. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 90(3), 354-378.

Kish-Gephart, J. J., Detert, J. R., Trevino, L. K., & Edmondson, A. C. (2009). Silenced by fear: The nature, sources and consequences of fear at work. In B. Staw & A.P. Brief (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, 29, 163-193. Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Kline, R. B. (2005). Principles and practice of structural equation modelling. New York: Guilford.

Kline, R.B. (2011). Principles ad practice of structural equation modelling Third Edition. New York: Guilford

Klohnen, E. C., Luo, S. (2003). Interpersonal attraction and personality: What is attractive self, similarity, ideal similarity, and complementarity or attachment security? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(4), 709-722.

Knoll, M., Hall, R. & Weight, O. (2018). A longitudinal study of the relationship between four differentially motivated forms of employee silence and burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health psychology*

Knoll, M. & Van Dick, R. (2013). Do I hear the whistle...? A first attempt to measure four forms of employee silence and their correlates. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 113, 349-362.

Knoll, M. & Redman (2016). Does the presence of voice imply the absence of silence? The necessity to consider employees affective attachment and job engagement. *Human Resource Management*, 55 (5), 829-844.

Koehler, D. J. (1991). Explanation, imagination, and confidence in judgment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 110, 499–519.

Koivisto, S., Lipponen, J., & Platow, M. J. (2013). Organizational and supervisory justice effects on experienced threat during change: The moderating role of leader in-group representativeness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24, 595–607

Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. D. (1994). Citizenship behaviour and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 656-669.

Korczynski, M. & Ott, A. (2005). Sales work under marketization: the social relations of cash nexus? *Organizational studies*, 26 (5), 707-728.

Korsgaard, M.A., Brodt, S. E., & Whitener, E. M. (2002) Trust in the face of conflict: The role of managerial trustworthy behaviour and organizational context. *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, 87(2), 312-319.

Korsgaard, M. A., Brower, H. H., & Lester, S. W. (2015). It isn't always mutual: A critical review of dyadic trust. *Journal of Management*, 41 (1), 47-70.

Korsgaard, M.A, Sapienza, H. J., & Schweiger, D. M. 2002. Beaten before begun: The role of procedural justice in planning change. *Journal of Management*, 28: 497-516.

Korsgaard, M.A., Schweiger, D. M., & Sapienza, H. J. (1995). Building commitment, attachment and trust in strategic decision-making teams: the role of procedural justice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(1)60-84.

Kramer, M. W. (1999). Trust and distrust in organizations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 569-598.

Kramer, R. M. (2009). Rethinking trust. *Harvard Business Review*, 87, 68-78. Kramer, M. W., &

Miller, V. D. (1999). A response to criticisms of organizational socialization research: In support of contemporary conceptualizations of organizational assimilation.

Communication Monographs, 66, 358-367.

Kramer, R. M., Brewer, M. B., & Hanna, B. A. (1996). Collective trust and Collective Action. Trust in Organizations: Frontiers of Theory and Research, edited by R.M. Kramer and T.R.

Tyler.

Kramer, R. M., Hanna, B., Wei, J., & Su, S. (2000). Collective identity, collective trust, and social capital: Linking group identification and group cooperation. In Marlene Turner (Ed.), Groups at work: Advances in theory and practice (pp. 173–196). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kramer, R. M., & Lewicki, R. J. (2010). Repairing and enhancing trust: Approaches to reducing organizational trust deficits. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 4, 245–277.

Kruschke, J. K., Aguinis, H., & Joo, H. (2012). The time has come: Bayesian methods for data analysis in the organizational sciences. *Organizational Research Methods*, 15, 722-752.

Kurdeck, L.A.(1993). Predicting marital dissolution: A 5-year prospective longitudinal study of newlywed couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64, 221-242.

Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R., Ford, M. T., Buffardi, L. C., Stewart, K. A., & Adis, C. S. (2017).

Perceived organizational support: A meta-analytic evaluation of organizational support theory. *Journal of Management*, 43(6), 1854-1884.

Ladd,D.,&Henry,R.A.(2000). Helping co-workers and Helping the Organization: The Role of Support Perceptions, Exchange Ideology, and Conscientiousness. *Journal of Applied and Social Psychology*, 30 (10), 2028-2049.

Lam, W, Lee, C., Taylor, S.M., Zhao, H.H. (2018). Does Proactive Personality Matter in Leadership Transitions? Effects of Proactive Personality on New Leader Identification and Responses to New Leaders and their Change Agendas. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61 (1), 245-263.

Lam, C. F., Spreitzer, G., & Fritz, C. (2013). Too much of a good thing: Curvilinear effect of positive affect on proactive behaviour. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 35(4), 530-546.

Lam, L. W., Loi, R., & Leong, C. (2013). Reliance and Disclosure: How supervisory justice affects trust in supervisor and extra role behaviour. *Asia pacific Journal of Management*, 1(30), 231-149.

Larsen, R. J., & Diener, E. (1992). Promises and problems with the circumplex model of emotion. In M. S. Clark (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology, No. 13. Emotion* (pp. 25 59). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Latham, G.P. & Locke, E. A. (1991). Self-regulation through goal setting. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50 (2), 212-247

Lau, D. C., Lam, L. W., & Wen, S. S. (2013). Examining the effects of feeling trusted by supervisors in the workplace: A self-evaluative perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 35(1)112-127.

Lauterbach, K. E. & Weiner, B. J. (1996). Dynamics of upward influence: How male and female managers get their way. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7 (1), 87-107.

Lavelle, J. J., Rupp, D. E., & Brockner, J. (2007). Taking a multifoci approach to the study of justice, social exchange, and citizenship behavior: The target similarity model. *Journal of*

Management, 3, 841–866.

Lee, K. (2016). Ethical Leadership and Followers' Taking Charge: Trust In, and Identification with, Leader as Mediators. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 44(11), 1793–1802.

Lee, D., Choi, Y., & Youn, S. (2016). The Unique and Interactive effects of Employees' Trust in Leader and Felt Trust on Voice Behaviour. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1

Lee, P., Gillespie, N., Mann, L. & Wearing, A. (2010). Leadership and trust: Their effect on knowledge sharing and team performance, management learning. *Management Learning*, 41, 473-491.

Lei, P. & Wu, W. (2007). Introduction to structure equation modelling: issues and practical considerations. *Educational Measurement Issue and Practices*, 26 (3)33-43.

LePine, J.A. & Van Dyne (1998). Predicting voice behaviour in work group. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83 (6), 853-68.

LePine, J.A. & Van Dyne (2001). Voice and cooperative behaviour as contrasting forms of contextual performance: Evidence of differential relationships with Big Five personality characteristics and cognitive ability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(2), 326-336.

Levin, D.Z. & Cross, R., (2004). The Strength of Weak Ties You Can Trust: The Mediating Role of Trust in Effective Knowledge Transfer, *Management Science*, 50(11), 1477-1490.

Lewicki, R. J., & Bunker, B. B. (1995). Trust in relationships: A model of trust development and decline. In B. Bunker, & J. Rubins (Eds.), *Conflict, cooperation and justice* (pp. 133–173). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lewicki, R. J., & Bunker, B. B. (1996). Developing and maintaining trust in work relationships. In R. M. Kramer, & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 114–139). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Lewicki, R. J., McAllister, D. J., & Bies, R. J. (1998). Trust and distrust: New relationships and realities. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 438-458.

- Lewicki, R. J., Tomlinson, E. C., & Gillespie, N. (2006). Models of interpersonal trust development: Theoretical approaches, empirical evidence, and future directions. *Journal of Management*, 32, 991–1022.
- Lewis, K. M. (2000). When leaders display emotion: how followers respond to negative emotional expression of male and female leaders. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(2), 221–234.
- Lewis, J. D., & Weigert, A. 1985. Trust as a social reality. *Social Forces*, 63, 967-985.
- Li, P. P. (2011). The rigour relevance balance for new engaged scholarship: New frame and new agenda for trust research and beyond. *Journal of Trust Research*, 1(1), 1–21.
- Li, A., & Tatcher, S.M.B. (2015). Understanding the Effects of Self and Teammate OCB Congruence and Incongruence. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 30 (4), 641-655.
- Liang, J., Farh, C.I.C., & Farh, J.(2012). Psychological Antecedents of Promotive and Prohibitive Voice: A Two-Wave Examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55 (1), 71-92.

Lind, E.A., & Tyler, T.R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. Plenum Press
NewYork.

Little, L. M., Gooty, J., & Williams, M. (2016). The role of leader emotion management in
leader–member exchange and follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27, 85-97.

Little, R. J. A., & Rubin, D. B. (2002). *Statistical analysis with missing data*, 2nd ed. Wiley, New
York.

Liu, W., Ramanujam, R. and Tangirala, S. (2013). The relational antecedents of voice targeted
at different leaders. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98 (5), 5841-851.

Liu, W., Renhong, Z., &Yonkang, Y.(2010). I warn you because I like you: Voice behaviour,
employee identifications and transformational leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 21 (1),
189-202.

Liu,J.,Siu,O.,&Shi,K. (2010). Transformational leadership and employee well-being: the
mediating role of trust in the leader and self-efficacy. *Applied Psychology*, 59(3), 454-
479.

Liu, W., Song, Z., Li, X., & Liao, Z.(2017). Why and when leaders' affective states influence employee upward voice. *Academy of management Journal*, 60(1), 238-263.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G.P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: prentice Hall.

Locke, E. A. & Latham, G.P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist*, 57(9), 705-717.

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., (2001). Leadership, values and subordinates self-concepts. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12, 133-152.

Lord, R. G., & Brown, D. J. (2004). *Leadership processes and follower self-identity*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associate.

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the Dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-Concepts in the Leader/Follower relationship. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 78(3)167-203.

Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A Meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 402–410.

Lord, R. G. & Hall, R. J. (2005). Identity deep structure and the development of leadership skills. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(4), 591-615.

Luhmann, N. (1980). *Trust and power*. New York: Wiley

Luo, Y. 2002. Building trust in cross-cultural collaborations: Toward a contingency perspective. *Journal of Management, 28*: 669-694.

Luo, J., & Zheng, J. B. (2018). The Impact of Servant Leadership on Proactive Behaviours: A Study Based on Cognitive Evaluation Theory. *Psychology, 9*, 1228-1244.

Lyon, F., Möllering, G., Saunders, M. N. K., (2015). *Handbook of Research Methods on Trust*, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Madrid, H. P., Patterson, M. G., & Leiva, P. I. (2015). Negative core affect and employee silence: How differences in activation, cognitive rumination, and problem-solving demands

matter. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(6), 1887-1898.

MacKenzie, S. B, Podaskoff, P. M., & Rich, G. A. (2001). Transformational and Transactional leadership and salesperson performance. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 29 (2), 115-134.

Maguire, S., Philips, N. (2008). "Citibankers" at Citigroup: A study of the Loss of Institutional Trust after Merger. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(2), 372-401.

Manicas, Peter T. (1987), *A History of Philosophy of the Social Sciences*, New York: Basil Blackwell.

Mantere, S., & Ketokivi, M. (2013). Reasoning in organization science. *Academy of Management Review*. Forthcoming.

Markham, W.T., Harlan, S.L., & Hackett, E.J. (1987). Promotion opportunity in organizations: Causes and consequences. In G.R., Ferris & K.M, Rowland (Eds) *Research in personnel and human resource management*, 6, 223-287. Greenwich CT:JAI Press

Martin, S. L., Liao, H., & Campbell, E. M. (2013). Directive versus empowering leadership: A field experiment comparing impacts on task proficiency and proactivity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56 (5), 1372-1395.

Martin, L. L., Ward, D. W., Achee, J. W., & Wyer, R. S. (1993). Mood as input: People have to interpret the motivational implications of their moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64, 317– 326.

Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 123-136.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 709-734.

Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. (2005). Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 874-888.

Mayers, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter

(Eds), *Emotional Development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications:*

3-31. New York: Basic.

Maynes, T.D. & Podsakoff, P.M. (2014) Speaking More broadly: An Examination of the

Nature, Antecedents, and Consequences of an Expanded Set of Employee Voice

Behaviours. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(1), 87-112.

McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal

cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 24–59.

McCauley, D.P. & Kuhnert, K.W. (1992). A theoretical review and empirical investigation of

employee trust in management. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 16, 265-28.

McCroskey, J. C, & McCain, T. A. (1974). The measure of interpersonal attraction. *Speech*

Monographs, 47,261-266.

McCroskey, J.C., Richmond, V. P., & Daly, J. A. (1975). The Development of a Measure of Perceived Homophily in Interpersonal Communication. *Human Communication Research*, 1 (4), 323-332.

McCroskey, J. C. & Young, T. J. (1981). Ethos and credibility: The construct and its measurement after three decades. *Central States Speech Journal*, 32, 24-34.

McEvily, B. & Tortoriello (2010). Measuring trust in organisational research: Review and recommendations. *Journal of Trust Research*, 1(1), 23-63.

McFadden, C., & Crowley-Henry, M. (2018). My People': the potential of LGBT employee networks in reducing stigmatization and providing voice. *The international Journal of Human Resource management*, 29 (5), 1056-1081.

McGuire, J. B. (1986). Management and research methodology. *Journal of Management*, 12, 5
17.

McKelvie, A., Haynie, J. M., & Gustavsson, V. (2011). Unpacking the uncertainty construct: Implications for entrepreneurial action. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 26, 273-292.

McKnight, D. H., Cummings, L., & Chervany, N. L. (1998). Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 473- 490.

McNulty, S. E., & Swann, W. B. (1994). Identity negotiations in roommate relationships: The self as architect and consequence of social reality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 130, 385-396.

Mercer, J. (2014). Feeling like a state: social emotion and identity. *International Theory*, 6 (3), 515-535.

Mesu, J., Sanders, K., & Van Riemsdijk, M. (2015). Transformational leadership and organisational commitment in manufacturing and service small to medium-sized enterprises: The moderating effects of directive and participative leadership. *Personnel Review*, 44(6), 970-990.

Miceli, M.P.& Near, J.P. (1985). Characteristics of organizational climate and perceived wrongdoing associated with whistle blowing decisions. *Personnel Psychology*, 38 (3), 525-544.

Miceli, M.P. & Near, J.P. (1992). *Blowing the Whistle. The organizational and Legal implications for Companies and Employees*. Lexington Books

Michaelis, B., Stegmaier, R., & Sonntag, K., (2009). Affective commitment to change and innovation implementation behaviour: the role of charismatic leadership and employees' trust in top management. *Journal of Change Management*, 9(4), 399-417.

Miller, G. J. (1992). *Managerial dilemmas: The political economy of hierarchy*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Miller, G. J. (1992). *Managerial dilemmas: The political economy of hierarchy*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Miller, V. D., & Jablin, F. M. (1991). Information seeking during organizational entry: influences, tactics and models of this process. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(1), 92-120.

Milliken, F.J. & Morrison, E. W. (2003). Shades of silence: Emerging themes and future directions for research on silence in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1563-1568.

Milliken, F. J., Morrison, E.W., & Hewlin, P. F. (2003). An Exploratory Study of Employee Silence: Issues that Employees Don't Communicate Upward and Why. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40 (6), 1453-1476.

Möllering, G. (2006). Trust, institutions, agency: Towards a neo institutional theory of trust. In R. Bachmann & A. Zaheer (Eds.), *Handbook of trust research* (pp. 355-376). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Möllering, G. (2013). The elephant tale, or the myth of trust research's interdisciplinary. Symposium Presentation (Essay), 7th FINT Workshop, Singapore Management University, 21 November.

Möllering, G., Bachmann, R., & Lee, S. H. (2004). Understanding organizational trust: Foundations, constellations, and issues of operationalization. *Journal of Managerial*

Psychology, 19, 556-570

Mooradian, T., Renzl, B., & Matzler, K. (2006). Who trusts? Personality, trust and knowledge sharing. *Management Learning*, 37(4), 523-540.

Morris, W. N. (1992). A functional analysis of the role of mood in affective systems. In M. S. Clark (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology*, No. 13. *Emotion* (pp. 256-293). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Morrison, E. W. (1994). Role Definitions and organizational citizenship behaviour: The Importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(6), 1543-1567.

Morrison, E.W. (2011) Employee Voice Behaviour. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 373-412.

Morrison, E.W (2014). Voice and Silence, *Annual Review of Organisational Psychology and Organizational Behaviour*, 1, 173-197.

- Morrison, E. W., & Milliken, F. J. (2000). Organizational Silence: A barrier to change and development in a pluralistic world. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 706-725.
- Morrison, E. W., & Milliken, F. J. (2003). Speaking up, remaining silent: The dynamics of voice and silence in organisations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40 (6), 1353-1358.
- Morrison, E. W., & Phelps, C. C. (1999). Taking charge at work: Extra role efforts to initiate workplace change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42 (4), 403-419.
- Morrison, E. W., Wheeler-Smith, S. L., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Speaking up in groups: A cross level study of group voice climate and voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(1), 183-191.
- Mossholder, K. W., Bennett, N., Kemery, E. R., & Wesolowski, M. A. (1998). Relationships between Bases of Power and Work Reactions: The Mediation Role of Procedural Justice. *Journal of Management*, 24 (4), 533-552.
- Mossholder, K. W., Kemery, E. R., Harris, S. G., Armenakis, A. A., & McGrath, R. (1994). Confounding constructs and levels of constructs in affectivity measurement: An empirical investigation. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 54(2), 336-349.

Mowbray, P.K. Wilkinson, A. & Tse, H.H.M., (2014). An Integrative Review of Employee Voice: Identifying a Common Conceptualization and Research Agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*. 17 (3), 382-400.

Moyle, P. (1995). The role of negative affectivity in the stress process: Tests of alternative models. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 16, 369-398.

Nasra, M. A. & Heilbrum, S. (2016). Transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviour in the Arab educational system in Israel. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 44(3), 380-396.

Newman, D. A. (2009). Missing data techniques and low response rates. In C. E. Lance & R. J. Vandenberg. Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends: Doctrine, verity, and fable in the organizational and social sciences (pp. 7-35). Routedledge, Taylor & Francis Group

Newman, A., Schwarz, G., Cooper, B., & Sendjaya, S. (2017). How servant leadership influences organizational citizenship behaviour: the roles of LMX, Empowerment, and Proactive

personality. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 145 (1), 49-62.

Nguyen, H., Johnson, A., Collins, C., & Parker, S.K. (2017). Confidence matters: self-efficacy moderates the credit that supervisors give to adapt and proactive role behaviours.

British Journal of Management, 28, 315-330.

Nikolaou, I., Vakola, M., & Bourantas, D. (2008). Who speaks up at work? Dispositional influences on employees' voice behaviour'. *Personnel Review*, 37 (6), 666-679.

Nikolaou, I., Vakola, M., & Bourantas, D. (2011). The role of silence on employees' attitudes "the day after" a merger. *Personnel Review*, 40 (6), 723-741.

Niven, K., Holman, D., & Totterdell, P. (2012). How to win friendship and trust by influencing people's feelings: An investigation of interpersonal affect regulation and the quality of relationships. *Human Relations*, 65 (6), 777-805

Noelle-Neumann, E. (1974). The spiral of silence: a theory of public opinion. *Journal of Communication*, 24 (1), 43-51.

Nowak, K.L., Rauh, C. (2005). The Influence of the Avatar on Online Perceptions of Anthropomorphism, Androgyny, Credibility, Homophily, and Attraction. *Journal of Computer mediated communication*, 11 (1), 153-178.

Oakes, P. J., Haslam, S. A., & Turner, J. C. (1994). *Stereotyping and social reality*. Oxford: Blackwell.

O'Donnell, G. (1986). On the fruitful convergence of Hirschman's exit, voice and loyalty and shifting involvements: Reflections from the recent Argentine experience. In: A. Foxley, M. McPherson & G. O'Donnell (eds), *Development, Democracy and the Art of Trespassing: Essays in Honour of Albert Hirschman*, Notre Dame: Notre Dame Press

Oettingen, G., Mayer, D., Thorpe, J. S., Janetzke, H., & Lorenz, S. (2005). Turning fantasies about positive and negative futures into self-improvement goals. *Motivation and Emotion*, 29, 237-267.

Ohly, S. & Fritz, C. (2007). Challenging the status quo: What motivates proactive behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 80 (4), 623-629.

Oldham, G. R. (1975). The impact of supervisory characteristics on goal acceptance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 18, 461–475.

Oldham, G. R., & Cummings, A. (1996). Employee Creativity: Personal and Contextual factors at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(3), 607-634.

Olekals, M., & Smith, P.L. (2007). Loose with the truth: predicting deception in negotiation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 76 (2), 225-238.

O'Reilly, C.A., Caldwell, D.F., & Barnett, W.P. (1989). Work group demography, social integration and turnover. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 34, 21-37.

Osgood, C. E., & Tannenbaum, P. H. (1955). The principle of congruity in the prediction of attitude change. *Psychological Review*, 62(1), 42-55.

Ostir, G. V., Smith, P.M., Smith, D. & Ottenbacher, K. J. (2005). Reliability of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) in medical rehabilitation, *Clinical Rehabilitation*, 19 (7), 767-679.

Paolini, S., Hewstone, M., Voci, A., Harwood, J. & Cairns, E. (2006). Intergroup contact and the promotion of intergroup harmony: The influence of intergroup emotions. In R. Brown and D. capozza(eds). *Social identities: Motivational, emotional, cultural influences* (209-238). Hove, England: Psychology press.

Parke, M. R. & Seo, M.(2017). The Role of Affect Climate in Organizational Effectiveness. *Academy of Management Review*, 42(2) 334-360.

Parker, S. (1998). Enhancing role breadth self-efficacy: the roles of job enrichment and other organizational interventions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83 (6), 835-852.

Parker, S. (2000). From Passive to Proactive Motivation: The Importance of Flexible Role Orientations and Role Breadth Self-efficacy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 49(3)447-469.

Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K (2017). *Proactivity at work, Making things happen in organizations.* Edited by Parker. S.H. and Bindl, U.K. : Routledge

Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making Things Happen: A model of proactive Motivation. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 827-856.

Parker, S. K. & Collins, C. G., (2010). Taking stock: integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviours. *Journal of Management*, 36 (3), 633-662.

Parker, S. K., & Spigg, C. A. (1999). Minimizing strain and maximising learning: the role of job demands, job control and proactive personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(6) 925-939.

Parker, S. K., Williams, H. M., & Turner, N. (2006) Modelling the antecedents of proactive behaviour at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 636-652.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). Multiple regression in behavioural research (3rd ed.) New York: Holt

Pedhazur, E. J., & Schmelkin, L. P. (2013). *Measurement, design, and analysis: An integrated approach*. Psychology Press.

Penney, L. M. & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB): the moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 26(7), 777-796.

Perry-Smith, J. E. (2006). Social yet creative: The role of social relationships in facilitating individual creativity. *Academy Of Management Journal*, 49(1), 85–101.

Pfeffer, J., & Leblebici, H. (1973). The effect of competition on some dimensions of organizational structure. *Social Forces*, 52 (3), 268-279.

Phillips, J. M. & Gully, S. M. (1997). Role of goal orientation, ability, need for achievement and locus of control in the self-efficacy and goal setting process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 792-802.

Pideret, S.K. & Ashford, S.J. (2003). Breaking the silence: Tactical choices women managers make in speaking up about gender-equity issues. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40 (6), 1477-1502.

Pillai, R., Schriesheim, C.A., Williams, E.S. (1999). Fairness Perception and trust as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership: A two-sample study. *Journal of Management*, 25 (6), 897–933.

- Pillai, R., Williams, E. A., Lowe, K. B., & Jung, D.I.(2003). Personality, transformational leadership, trust and the 2000 U.S. presidential vote. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14 (2), 161-192.
- Pinder, C. C. (1984). *Work motivation: Theory, issues, and applications*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman
- Pinder, C.C.& Harlos, K. P.(2001) Employee silence: quiescence and acquiescence as responses to perceived injustice. In Rowland, K. M. and Ferris, G.R. (Eds) *Research in personnel and Human Resources Management*, 20 new York: JAI Press 331-69
- Pirola-Merlo, A., Härtel, C., Mann, L., &Hirst, G. (2002). How leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climate and performance in R&D teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(5), 561-581.
- Platow, M.J., Hoar, S., Reid, S., Harley, K. & Morrison, D. (1997). Endorsement of distributively fair and unfair leaders in interpersonal and intergroup situations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 27, 465-494.

- Platow, M. J., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2001). A social identity analysis of leadership endorsement: the effect of leaders' in-group prototypicality and distributive intergroup fairness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(11), 345-352
- Platow, M. J., Hoar, S., Reid, S., Harley, K., & Morrison, D. (1997). Endorsement of distributively fair and unfair leaders in interpersonal and intergroup situations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 27, 465-494.
- Podsakoff, P., Bommer, W. H., Podsakoff, N. P., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). Relationship between leader reward and punishment behaviour and subordinate attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours: A meta-analytic review of existing and new research. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Process*, 99 (2), 113-142.
- Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., & Bommer, W. (1996). Transformational leader behaviours and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust and organizational citizenship behaviours. *Journal of Management*, 22, 259-298.
- Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990) Transformational leader

behaviour and their effect on followers trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviour. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1,107-142

Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., Bachrach, D.G. (2000).Organizational

Citizenship behaviour: a critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26 (3), 513-563.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., &Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases

in behavioural research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies.

Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 879-903.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., &Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social

scienceresearch and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of*

Psychology, 63, 539-569.

Politis, J. D. (2001). The relationship of various leadership styles to knowledge management.

Leadership &Organizational development Journal, 22(8), 354-364.

Powell, G.N., & Butterfield, D. A. (1994). Investigating the “glass ceiling” phenomenon. An empirical study of actual promotions of top management. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 68-86.

Premeaux, S. F. & Bedeian, A. G. (2003). Breaking the Silence: The Moderating Effects of Self Monitoring in Predicting Speaking Up in the Workplace. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40 (6), 1537-1562.

Prouska, R. & Psychogios, A. (2016). Do not say a word! Conceptualizing employee silence in a long-term crisis context. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27 (1)1-30

Rast, D.E., Hogg, M.A. & van Knippenberg, D. (2018). Intergroup Leadership Across Distinct Subgroups and Identities. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 44(7), 1090-1103.

Raub, S., & Liao, H. (2012). Doing the right thing without being told: joint effects of initiative climate and general self-efficacy on employee proactive customer service performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(3), 651-667.

Reagans, R., & McEvily, B. (2003). Network structure and knowledge transfer: The effects of cohesion and range. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 48(2), 240–267.

Reicher, S.D., & Hopkins, N. (1996). Seeking influence through characterising self-categories.

An analysis of anti-abortionist rhetoric. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 35, 297

311.

Remenyi, D., Williams, B., Money, A., & Swartz, E. (1998). *Doing research in business and management*. London: Sage.

Restubog, S. D. L., Zagenczyk, T. J. Bordia, P., Bordia, S., Chapman, G.J. (2015). If You Wrong Us,

Shall We Not Revenge? Moderating Roles of Self-Control and Perceived Aggressive Work

Culture in Predicting Responses to Psychological Contract Breach. *Journal of*

Management, 41(4), 1132–1154

Rich, G. A. (1997). The sales manager as a role Model: Effects on Trust, Job Satisfaction, and

performance of Salespeople. *Journal of the Academy of marketing*, 25(4), 319-328.

Riggle, R.J., Edmondson, D.R., & Hansen, J.D. (2009). A meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 years of research. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(10) 1027-1030.

Robins, G., & Boldero, J. (2003). Relational Discrepancy Theory: The Implications of self discrepancy Theory for Dyadic Relationships and for the emergence of social structure. *Personality and Social psychology Review*, 7(1), 56-74.

Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and Breach of Psychological Contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41 (4), 574-599.

Rosen, B., & Jerdee, T. H. (1977). Influence of subordinate characteristics on trust and use of participative decision strategies in a management simulation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62(5), 628-631.

Rosen, S. R. & Tesser, A. (1979). On the reluctance to communicate undesirable information: the mum effect. *Sociometry*, 33, 253-63.

Rosenthal, R. (1994). Interpersonal expectancy effects: A 30-year perspective. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 3, 176–179.

Rotter, J. B. (1971). Generalized expectancies for interpersonal trust. *American Psychologist*, 26, 443-452.

Rotter, J. B. (1992). Some comments on the cognates of personal control. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 1, 127-9.

Rothbard, N. P., & Wilk, S. L. (2006), May. Waking up on the right side of bed: The influence of mood on work attitudes and performance. Paper presented at the 21st Annual Conference of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Dallas, TX

Rotundo, M., Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 66-80.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 393-404.

Rubin, R. S., Munz, D. C., & Bommer, W. H. (2005). Leading from within: The effects of emotion recognition and personality on transformational leadership behaviour. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 845-858.

Rubin, R. S., Bommer, W. H., & Backrach, D. G. (2010), Operant leadership and employee citizenship: A question of trust? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(3)400-408.

Rusell, R. J., & Wells, P. A. (1994). Predictors of happiness in married couples. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 17, 313-321.

Ryan, K. D., & Oestreich, D. K. (1991). *The Jossey-Bass management series. Driving fear out of the workplace: How to overcome the invisible barriers to quality, productivity, and innovation*. San Francisco, CA, US: Jossey-Bass

Sabel, C. F. (1993). Studied trust: Building new forms of cooperation in a volatile economy.

Human Relations, 46, 1133-1170.

Salancik, G.R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A Social Information Processing Approach to Job Attitudes and Task Design. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 23,(2) 224-253.

Sargeant, J., Loney, E., Murphy, G.(2008) Effective inter professional teams:"Contact is not enough" to build a team. *Journal of continuing Education in Health Professions*, 28(4), 228-234.

Sauer, S. J. (2011). Taking the reins: The effects of new leader status and leadership style on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96, 574-587.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). Research methods for business students, 5th Ed. Pearson Education.

Schaubroeck, J., & Lam, S.S. (2002).How similarity to peers and supervisor influences organizational advancement in different cultures. *Academy of Management Journal*,45, 1120-1136.

Schmitt, A., Den Hartog, D. N., and Belschak, F. D. (2016). Transformational leadership and proactive behaviour: A moderated mediation model including work engagement and job strain. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 89, 588-610.

Schneider, B. (1983) "Interactional Psychology and Organizational Behavior," Research in Organizational Behavior. Ed. Larry L. Cummings and Barry M. Staw. Greenwich, Conn.: JAI Press, 1-31.

Schriesheim, C., Castro, S., & Cogliser, C. (1999). Leader-member exchange (LMX) research: A comprehensive review of theory, measurement, and data-analytic procedures. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10, 63–113.

Schuh, S. C., Van Quequebeke, N., Keck, N. Goritz, A. S., De Cremer, D. & Xin, K.R. (2018). Does it Take More Than Ideals? How Counter-Ideal Value Congruence Shapes Employees' Trust in the Organization. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 149, 987-1003.

Seibert, S.E., Crant, J. M., & Kraimer, M. L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(3), 416-427.

Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Crant, J. M. (2001). What do proactive people do? A longitudinal model linking proactive personality and career success. *Personnel psychology*, 54(4), 845-874.

Senge, P.M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of learning organizations*. London : Century Business.

Senior, V., Weinman, J., & Marteau, T. M. (2002). The influence of perceived control over causes and responses to health threats: A vignette study. *British Journal of Health Psychology*, 7(2), 203-211

Seppälä, T., Lipponen, J., Pirttilä-Backman, A., & Lipsanen, J. (2011). Reciprocity of trust in the supervisor-subordinate relationship: The mediating role of autonomy and the sense of power. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20, 755-778.

Serva, M. A., Fuller, M. A., & Mayer, R. C. 2005. The reciprocal nature of trust: A longitudinal study of interacting teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26: 625-648

Shallcross, S. L., & Simpson, J. A. (2012). Trust and responsiveness in strain-test situations: A

dyadic perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102, 1031-1044.

Shamir, B., (1995). Social distance and charisma: theoretical notes and an exploratory study.

Leadership Quarterly, 6(1)19-47.

Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic

leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organizational Science*, 4, 577-594.

Shamir, B., & Lapidot, Y. (2003). Trust in organizational superiors: Systemic and collective

considerations. *Organization Studies*, 24, 463-491.

Shamir, B., Zakay, E., Breinin, E., & Popper, M.,(1998). Correlates of charismatic leader

behaviour in military units: subordinates attitudes, unit characteristics, and

superiors' appraisals of leader performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41,

387-409.

Shanock, L. R., Baran, B. E., Gentry, W. A., Pattison, S. C. & Heggstad (2010). Polynomial

regression with response surface analysis: A powerful approach for examining

limitations of difference scores. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 25, 543-554.

Shapiro, D. L., Boss, A. D., Salas, S. & Van Glinow, M. A. (2011). When Are Transgressing Leaders

Punitively Judged? An Empirical Test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96 (2), 412– 422.

Sheard, G., Kakabadse, N.K. and Kakabadse, A.P. (2011), “Organizational politics: reconciling

leadership’s rational-emotional paradox”, *Leadership and Organization Development*

Journal, 32 (1), 78-97.

Shepherd, C., & Challenger, R. (2013). Revisiting paradigm (s) in management research: A

rhetorical analysis of the paradigm wars. *International Journal of Management Reviews*,

15(2), 225–244.

Sheppard, B. H., & Sherman, D. M. (1998). The grammars of trust: A model general implications.

Academy of Management Review, 23, 422-437.

Shin, Y., & Kim, M.J. (2015). Antecedents and Mediating Mechanisms of Proactive Behaviour:

Application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*,

32 (1), 289-310.

Sias, P. M. & Jabilin, F. M. (1995). Differential superior-subordinate relations, perceptions of

fairness and co-worker communication. *Human Communication Research*, 22(1)5-38

Siebert, S., Crant, S. E., and Kraimer, M. L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success.

Journal of Applied Psychology. 84(3), 416-427.

Siebert, S., Martin, G., Bozic, B., & Docherty, I. (2015). Looking 'beyond the factory gates':

Towards more pluralist and radical approaches to intra organizational trust research.

Organization Studies, 36 (8), 1033-1062.

Simmons, B. L., Gooty, J., Nelson, D. L., & Little, L. M. (2009). Secure attachment: Implications

for hope, trust, burnout, and performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30, 233-

247

Simmons, B. L., Gooty, J., Nelson, D. L., & Little, L. M. (2009). Secure attachment: Implications

for hope, trust, burnout, and performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30, 233

247.

Simpson, J. A. (2007). Psychological foundations of trust. *Current Directions in Psychological*

Science, 16, 264-268.

Sitkin, S. B., & Roth, N. L. (1993). Explaining the limited effectiveness of legalistic "remedies" for trust/distrust. *Organization Science*, 4, 387-392.

Smith, E. R. (1993). Social identity and social emotions: Toward new conceptualizations of prejudice. In D. M. Mackie & D. L. Hamilton (Eds.), *Affect, cognition, and stereotyping: Interactive processes in group perception* (pp. 297–315). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Smith, J. J., & Barclay, D. W. (1997). The effects of organizational differences and trust on the effectiveness of selling partner relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 61(1): 3-21.

Smith, K. G., Olian, H. P., Smith, K. A., O'Bannon, D.P., & Scully, J.A. (1994). Top management team demography and process: the role of social integration and communication. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39, 412-438.

Smith, H.J., Tyler, T.R., Huo, Y. J., Ortiz, D. J. & Lind, E. A. (1998). The self-relevant implications of the group-value model: group membership, self-worth, and treatment quality. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 34 (5), 470-493.

Smither, J. W., Collins, H., & Buda, R. (1989). When rate satisfaction influences performance evaluations: A case of illusory correlation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 599–605.

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behaviour. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 30*(4), 526-537.

Snyder, M. & Gangestad, S. (1982). Choosing social situations: two investigations of self monitoring process. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology, 43*(1), 123-135.

Sommer, K. L., Williams, K. D., Ciarocco, N. J.& Baumeister, R. F. (2001). When silence speaks louder than words: Explorations into the intrapsychic and interpersonal consequences of social ostracism. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 23*(4), 225-243.

Song, B. Q. Ian, J., Wang, B., Yang, M.,& Zhai, A. (2017). Are You Hiding from Your Boss? Leader's Destructive Personality and Employee Silence. *Social Behaviour and Personality: an International Journal, 45* (7), 1167-1174.

Sosik, J. J., Avolio, B. J., & Jung, D. I. (2002). Beneath the mask: Examining the relationship of self-presentation attributes and impression management to charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 217-242.

Spector, P. E. (1994). Using self-report questionnaires in OB research: A comment on the use of a controversial method. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15, 385-392.

Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Methods*, 9, 221-232.

Spector, P. E., Allen, T. D., Poelmans, S. Y., Lapierre, L. M., Cooper, C.L., O'Driscoll, M., Sanchez, J. I., Abarca, N., Alexandrova, M., Beham, B., Brough, P., Ferrero, P., Fraile, G., Lu, L., Moreno-Velazquez, I., Pagon, M., Pitariu, H., Salamatov, V., Shima, S., Simoni, A. S., Siu, O. L., & Widerszal-Bazyl, M. (2007). Cross-national differences in relationships of work demands, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions with work-family conflict, *Personnel Psychology*, 60 (4), 805-835.

Stamper, CL & Van Dyne, L 2001 Work status and organizational citizenship behavior: a field study of restaurant employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(5), 517-536.

Staw, B. M. & Sigal, G. Barsade, S.G. (1993). Affect and Managerial Performance: A Test of the Sadder-but-Wiser vs. Happier-and-Smarter Hypotheses. *Administrative Science Quarterly* Vol. 38, No. 2 (Jun., 1993), pp. 304-331.

Steffens, N. K., Schuh, S. C., Haslam, S. A., Pérez, A. and vanDijk, R.(2015), 'Of the group' and 'for the group': How followership is shaped by leaders' prototypicality and group identification. *European Journal Social Psychology*, 45, (180-190).

Steiger, J. H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 25, 173-180.

Stets, J.E.(2005). Examining Emotions in Identity Theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 68(1)39

56.

Stobbeleir, K. E. M., Ashford, S. J., & Sully de Luque, M. F. (2010). Proactivity with image in mind: How employees and manager characteristics affect evaluations of proactive behaviour, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(2), 347-369.

Strauss, K., Barrick, M. R., & Connerly, M. L. (2001). An investigation of personality similarity effects (relational and perceived) on peer and supervisor ratings and the role of familiarity and liking. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(5), 637-657.

Strauss, K., Griffin, M. A., & Rafferty, A. E. (2008). Proactivity directed toward the team and organization: The role of leadership, commitment and role-breadth self-efficacy. *British Journal of Management*, 20 (3), 279-291.

Strauss, K., Parker, S. K., & O'Shea, D. (2017). When does proactivity have a cost? Motivation at work moderates the effect of proactive work behaviour on employees' job strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 100, 15-26.

Stryker, S. (2007). Identity Theory and Personality Theory: Mutual Relevance. *Journal of Personality*, 75(6), 1083–1102.

Stryker, S. & Burke, P. J. (2000) The Past, Present, and Future of an Identity Theory Social Psychology Quarterly, Vol. 63, No. 4, Special Millennium Issue on the State of Sociological Social Psychology (Dec., 2000), pp. 284-297

Swann, William B., Jr. (1983). "Self-Verification: Bringing Social Reality Into Harmony With the Self." Pp. 33-66 in *Psychological Perspectives on the Self*, edited by Jerry Suls and Anthony Greenwald. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum

Szulanski, G. (1996). Exploring internal stickiness: Impediments to the transfer of best practice within the firm. *Strategic Management J.* 17(Winter) 27–43.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics. 5 th edition*. Pearson International Edition.

Tabak, F. & Hendy, N.T. (2016) Work Engagement: Trust as a Mediator of the Impact of Organizational Job Embeddedness and Perceived Organizational Support, *Organization Management Journal*, 13(1), 21-31.

Tajfel, H., (1978). Social categorization, social identity and social comparison. In H. Tajfel (Ed.)

Differentiation between social groups: studies in the social and intergroup relations,

pp 61-70.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. (1979). The Social Identity Theory of Intergroup Behaviour. *Psychology*

of Intergroup Relations, 5, 7-24.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. The psychology of

intergroup theory. In W. G. Austin, & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of*

intergroup relations (pp. 33-37). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Tan, H. H., & Lim, A., (2009). Trust in co-workers and trust in organizations. *The Journal of*

Psychology, 143, 45-66.

Tan, H.H. & Tan C.S.F (2000). Toward the differentiation of Trust in supervisor and trust in

organization. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, 126, 241-260.

Tangirala, S. & Ramanujam, R. (2008). Employee silence on critical work issues: the cross level

effects of procedural justice climate. *Personnel Psychology*, 61 (1), 37-68.

Tanis, M., & Postmes, T. (2005). A social identity approach to trust: Interpersonal perception, group membership, and trusting behavior. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 35, 413–424.

Tee, E.Y.J., Ashkanasy, N. M., Paulsen N. (2013). The influence of follower mood on leader mood and task performance: evidence for an affective, follower-centric perspective of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 24, 496–515.

Tellegen, A. (1985). Structures of mood and personality and their relevance to assessing anxiety, with an emphasis on self-report. In A. H. Tuma & J. D. Maser (Eds.), *Anxiety and the anxiety disorders* (pp. 681-706). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C. & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 109 (2), 156-167.

Thomas, J. P., Whitman, D. S., & Viswesvaran, C. (2010). Employee proactivity in organisations:

A comparative meta-analysis of emergent proactive constructs. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83 (2), 275-300.

Thompson, E. R. (2007). Development and Validation of an Internationally Reliable Short-Form

of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). *Journal of Cross-cultural*

psychology, 38,2, 227-242

Tomlinson, E. C., Dineen, B. R., & Lewicki, R. J. 2004. The road to reconciliation: Antecedents of

victim willingness to reconcile following a broken promise. *Journal of Management*, 30:

165-187.

Tomlinson, E. C., Dineen, B. R., & Lewicki, R. J. (2009). Trust congruence among integrative

negotiators as a predictor of joint-behaviour outcomes. *International Journal of Conflict*

Management, 20, 173-187.

Tourangeau R. & Smith, T.W. (1996). Asking Sensitive questions: the impact of data collection

mode, question format, and question context. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 60 (2), 275–304.

Treadway, D. C., Hochwarter, W.A., Ferris, G. R., Kacmar, C.J., Douglas, C., Ammeter, A. P.,

Buckley, R. M.(2004). Leader political skill and employee reaction. *The leadership Quarterly*, 15(4), 493-513.

Triandis, H.C. (1989).The self and social behaviour in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*,96, 506-520.

Troth, A. C., Lawrence, S. A., Jordan, P. J., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2018). Interpersonal emotion regulation in the workplace: A conceptual and operational review and future research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 20, 523-543.

Tse, H. H., & Troth, A. C. (2013). Perceptions and emotional experiences in differential supervisor-subordinate relationships. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 34, 271-283.

Tsui, A. S., Egan, T. D., & O'Reilly, C. A.(1992). Being different: relational demography and organizational attachment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37-549-579.

Tsushima, T. & Burke, P. J. (1999). "Levels, Agency, and Control in the Parent Identity." *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 62,173-89.

Tulubas, T. & Celep, C. (2012). Effect of Perceived Procedural Justice on Faculty Members' Silence: The Mediating Role of Trust in Supervisor *Procedia . Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 47, 1221-1231

Turban, D. B., & Jones, A. P. (1988). Supervisor-subordinate similarity: Types, effects, and mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(2), 228-234.

Turner, J. C. (1982). *Towards cognitive redefinition of social group*. In H. Tajfel (Ed.), *Social identity and intergroup relations*, 15-40. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

Turner, J. (1987). *Rediscovering the social groups: A self-categorization theory*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Turner, J.C., & Haslam, A.S. (2001). *Social identity, organizations and leadership. Groups at work: Theory and Research*. Marlene E. Turner (Editor)

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S.D., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). Rediscovering the social group: a self-categorization theory. New York: Basil Blackwell.

Tyler, T. R., & DeGoey, P. (1996). Trust in organizational authorities: The influence of motive attributions on willingness to accept decisions. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 331-356). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Ullrich, J., Wieseke, J., Christ, O. Schulze, M., & Van Dick R. (2007). The identity-matching principle: Corporate and organizational identification in franchising system, *British Journal of Management*, 18, 29-44.

Vakola, M. & Bouradas, D. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of organizational silence: empirical investigation. *Employee Relations*, 27 (5),441-458

van der Werff, L., & Buckley, F. (2017). Getting to know you: A Longitudinal Examination of trust cues and Trust development during socialization. *Journal of Management*, 43 (3), 742-770.

van Dick, R., & Schuh, S. C. (2010). My boss' group is my group: Experimental evidence for the leader–follower identity transfer. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 31, 551–563.

van Dijke, M. V., & De Cremer, D. (2010). Procedural fairness and endorsement of prototypical leaders: Leader benevolence or follower control? *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 46, 85–96.

van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Botero, I. C. (2003). Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40 (6), 1359–1392.

van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, operationalization, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 765–802.

van Dyne, L. & Le Pine, J. A. (1998). Helping and Voice Extra-role behaviour: Evidence of Construct and Predictive Validity. *Academy Of Management Journal*, 41(1), 108–119.

van Kleef, G. A., De Dreu, C. K. W., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2004). The Interpersonal Effects of Anger and Happiness in Negotiations *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86 (1), 57-76.

van Kleef, G. A., Homan, A. C., Beersma, B., Van Knippenberg, D., Van Knippenberg, B., & Damen, F.(2009). Searing Sentiment or Cold Calculation? The Effects Of Leader Emotional Displays On Team Performance Depend On Follower Epistemic Motivation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52 (3), 562-580.

van Kleef, G. A Heerdink, M. W., & Homan, A.C. (2017). Emotional influence in groups: the dynamic nexus of affect, cognition, and behaviour. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 17,156-161.

van Knippenberg ,D., Van Knippenberg, B., De Cremer, D.,& Hogg, M. A.(2004). Leadership, self and identity: A review and research agenda. *Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 825-856.

van Quaquebeke, N. Kerschreiter, R. Buxton, A. E., & Van Dick, R.(2010). Two lighthouses to navigate: effects of ideal and counter-ideal values on follower identification and

satisfaction with their leader. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 93 (2), 293-305.

Venkataramani, V., & Tangirala, S. (2010). When and why do central employees speak up? An examination of mediating and moderating variables. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 582-591

Venkataramani, V., Zhou, L., Wang, M., Liao, H., & Shi, J. (2016). Social networks and employee voice: the influence of team members' and team leaders' social network position on employee voice, *Organizational Behaviour and Human decision Making*, 132, 37-48.

Vittengl, J. F. & Holt, C. S. (1998). A Time-Series Diary Study of Mood and Social Interaction. *Motivation and Emotion*, 22 (3), 255–275.

Voci, A. (2006). The link between identification and in-group favouritism: Effects of threat to social identity and trust-related emotions. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 45, 265-284

Voci, A., & Hewstone, M. (2003). Intergroup contact and prejudice towards immigrants in

Italy: The mediational role of anxiety and the moderational role of group salience.

Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 6, 37–54.

Wanberg, C. R., Kammeyer-Mueller, D. (2000). Predictors and outcomes of proactivity in the

socialization process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(3), 373-385.

Wang, B., Qian, J., Ou, R., Huang, C., Xu, B., & Xia, Y. (2016). Transformational Leadership and

Employees Feedback seeking: the mediating role of trust in Leader. *Social Behavior*

and Personality, 44(7), 1201–1208.

Wang, P., & Rode, J.C. (2010). Transformational leadership and follower creativity: The

moderating effects of identification with leader and organisational climate. *Human*

Relations, 63(8), 1105-1128.

Warr, P., & Fay, D. (2001). Age and personal initiative at work. *European Journal of work and*

Organizational Psychology, 10(3), 343-353.

Watson, D. (2000). Basic Problems in Positive Mood Regulation. *Psychological Inquiry* Vol. 11, No. 3 (2000), pp. 205-209.

Watson, D., Clark, L.E., (1992). On Traits and Temperament: General and Specific Factors of Emotional Experience and Their Relation to the Five-Factor Model, 60(2), 441–476.

Watson, D., Clark, L.E., (1997). Measurement and Missmeasurement of Mood: Recurrent and Emergent issues.

Watson, D., Clark, L.A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54 (6), 1063-1070

Weibel, A. (2010). Managerial objectives of formal control: High motivation control mechanisms. In S. B. Sitkin, L. B. Cardinal, & K. M. Bijlsma-Frankema (Eds.), *Organizational control*: 434-462. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press

Weick, K. E., & Roberts, K. (1993). Collective mind in organizations: Heedful interrelating on flight decks. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38 (3), 357-381.

Werbel, J. D., & Lopes Henriques, P. (2009). Different views of trust and relational leadership:

Supervisor and subordinate perspectives. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24, 780

796.

Whitener, E. M., Brodt, S. E., Korsgaard, M. A. & Werner, J. M (1998). Managers as Initiators of

trust: An Exchange Relationship Framework for understanding managerial trustworthy

behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3)513-530.

Whitener, E., Brodt, S., Korsgaard, M. A., & Werner, J. (1998). Managers as initiators of trust: An

exchange relationship for understanding managerial trustworthy behavior. *Academy of*

Management Journal, 23, 513–530.

Wicks, A. C., & Freeman, R. E. (1998). Organization studies and the new pragmatism: Positivism,

anti-positivism, and the search for ethics. *Organization Science*, 9, 123-140.

Wilder, D., & Simon, A. F. (2001). Affect as a cause of intergroup bias. In R. Brown & S. L.

Gaertner (Eds.), *Blackwell handbook of social psychology: Intergroup processes* (pp.

153–172). Malden, MA & Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Wiley, M.G., Eskilson, A. (1985). Speech style, gender stereotypes and corporate success:

What if women talk more like men? *Sex Roles*, 12, 993-1007.

Williams, H. M., Parker, S. K., & Turner, N. (2010). Proactively performing teams: The role of

work design, transformational leadership, and team composition. *Journal of*

Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83(2), 301-324.

Williams, K.Y., & O'Reilly, C.A. (1998). Demography and diversity in organizations: A review

of 40 years of research. In BM Staw (ed). *Research in organizational behaviour* 20-77

140. Greenwich, CT, JAI Press.

Williams, R. L. (2000). A Note on Robust Variance Estimation for Cluster-Correlated Data.

Journal of international Bio metric Society, 56 (12), 645–646.

Williams, L. J., Edwards, J., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2009). Structural equation modelling in

management research: A guide for improved analysis. *The Academy of Management*

Annals, 3, 543-604.

- Williams, L. J., Vanderberg, R.J. & Edwards, J.R. (2009). Structural equation Modelling in management research: A guide for improved analysis. *Academy of Management Annals*, 3 (1), 543-604.
- Williams, M. (2001). In whom we trust: Group membership as an affective context for trust development. *Academy of Management Review*, 26, 377-396.
- Williams, L. J., & McGonagle, A. K. (2016). Four research designs and a comprehensive analysis strategy for investigating common method variance with self-report measures using latent variables. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 31(3), 339-359.
- Williamson, O. (1993). Calculativeness, trust, and economic organization. *Journal of Law and Economics*, 36, 453-486.
- Withey, M.J. and Cooper, W.H. (1989) predicting Exit, Voice, Loyalty and neglect. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 34, 521-539.
- Wong, C. A., & Cumming, G. G. (2009). The influence of authentic leadership behaviours on trust and work outcomes of health care staff. *Journal of leadership Studies*,3(2), 6-23.

Worsch, C., Scheier, M. F., Miller, G. E., Schulz, R. & Carver, C. S. (2003). Adaptive Self-Regulation of Unattainable Goals: Goal Disengagement, Goal Reengagement, and Subjective Well Being, 29 (12), 1494-1508.

Wright, J.C., Giammarino, M., & Paras, H.W. (1986). Social status in small groups: Individual group similarity and social "misfit". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, 523-536.

Wrightsman, L. S., Robinson, J. P., Shaver, P. R., Wrightsman, L. S. (1991). *Interpersonal trust and attitudes toward human nature*. Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes, (pp. 373-412). San Diego, CA, US: Academic Press, xiv, 753

Wu, C., & Parker, S. K. (2017). The role of leader support in facilitating work behaviour. *Journal of Management*, 43(4), 1025-1049.

Wu, C., & Parker, S. K. & Lee, C. (2017). When and why people engage in different forms of proactive behaviour: interactive effects of self construals and work characteristics. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 60(5)

Wu, C., & Wang, Z. (2015). How transformational leadership shapes team proactivity: the mediating role of positive affective tone and moderating role of team task variety.

Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, & Practice, 19(3), 137-151.

Xin, S., Xin, Z & Lin, C. (2016). Effects of trustors' social identity complexity on interpersonal and intergroup trust. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 46(4), 428-440.

Xu, J., Loi, R., & Lam, L. (2015). The bad boss takes it all: How abusive supervision and leader member exchange interact to influence employee silence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26 (5), 763-774.

Xu, A. J., Loi, R. & Ngo, H. (2016). Ethical leadership behaviour and employee justice perceptions: The mediating role of trust in organization. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 134 (3) 493-504.

Yakovleva, M., Reilly, R. R., & Werko, R. (2010). Why do we trust? Moving beyond individual to dyadic perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95 (1), 79-91.

Yamagishi, T., & Kiyonari, T. (2000). The group as the container of generalized reciprocity. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 63, 116–132.

- Yuki, M., Maddux, M., Brewer, M. B., & Takemura, K. (2005). Cross-cultural differences in relationship- and group-based trust. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31, 48–62.
- Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Trait-based perspectives of leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 6-16.
- Zand, D. E. (1972). Trust and managerial problem solving. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 229-239.
- Zapata, C. P., Olsen, J. E. & Martins, L. L. (2013). Social exchange from supervisors' perspective: Employee trustworthiness as a predictor of interpersonal and informational justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 121 (1), 1-12.
- Zhang, Z., Wang, M. & Shi, J. (2012). Leader-Follower congruence in proactive personality and work outcomes: The mediating role of leader-member exchange, *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(1), 111-130.

Zhao, X., Frese, M., & Giardini, A. (2008). Business owners network size and business growth in China: The role of comprehensive social competency. Unpublished manuscript.

Zhou, X, Liao, J. Liu, Y. & Liao, S. (2017). Leader impression management and employee voice behaviour: Trust and suspicion as mediators. *Social Behaviour and Personality: an International Journal*, 45 (11), 1843-1854.

Appendix A – Plain Language Statement- Study 1

Study on perceptions in the workplace (LAB STUDY)

Dear Participant

This study is being conducted by Dr Finian Buckley and Adele Grazi from DCU Business School, as part of the latter's Doctoral programme.

The research is being conducted to capture how perceptions impact work relations. In particular we are interested on how differences in hierarchical levels in the workplace impact relations and perceptions among staff members. Participation in the study involves the completion of a 10 minute questionnaire (attached).

Information compiled from the questionnaire will only be reported in aggregate form and **the information you provide will remain strictly confidential**. However confidentiality of information provided cannot always be guaranteed by researchers and can only be protected within the limitations of the law – i.e., it is possible for data to be subject to subpoena, freedom of information claim or mandated reporting by some professions. The data will be stored in DCU and will be accessible only to the research team. When the hard copy questionnaires are disposed this will be done in a secure and confidential manner. Your participation in the study is voluntary and is very much appreciated. It is possible to withdraw from the study at any point. Choosing to participate or not will not affect your on-going assessment for this course in any way.

Thank you in advance for your time and effort in participating in our research. If you have any questions regarding the survey, or the progress of our project, please do not hesitate to contact the research team at, finian.buckley@dcu.ie or donnamonza@yahoo.com. If you have any concerns about the study and wish to contact an independent person, please contact: The Secretary, Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee, c/o Research and Innovation Support, Dublin City University, Dublin 9. Tel 01-7008000

Yours faithfully,

DrFinian Buckley
Adele Grazi

Informed Consent Form

Research Study Title

Proactive Behaviour Asymmetries: The impact on trust and employee upward voice

Clarification of the purpose of the research

The research is being conducted to capture how perceptions impact work relations.

Confirmation of particular requirements as highlighted in the Plain Language Statement

Participant – please complete the following (Circle Yes or No for each question)

<i>I have read the Plain Language Statement (or had it read to me)</i>	Yes/No
<i>I understand the information provided</i>	Yes/No
<i>I am aware I have an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study</i>	Yes/No
<i>I am aware I may withdraw from the Research Study at any point.</i>	Yes/No
<i>I am aware the questionnaire is strictly confidential and that confidentiality of information provided cannot always be guaranteed by researchers and can only be protected within the limitations of the law</i>	Yes/No

Appendix B – Plain Language Statement-Study 2



Proactive Behaviour Asymmetries: The impact on trust, employee upward voice and innovation

Dear Participant,

This study is being conducted by doctoral scholar, Adele Grazi and graduate Michael Burns under the supervision of Prof. Finian Buckley at DCU Business School.

The aim of the research is to capture your perception and experience on open communication channels and reliance within your work unit and the impact this can have on innovation in your organisation. The research findings will be documented in our PhD & M.Sc. thesis and general results will only be communicated to your organisation.

Information compiled from the questionnaire will only be reported in aggregate form and **the information you provide will remain strictly confidential**. However confidentiality of information provided cannot always be guaranteed by researchers and can only be protected within the limitations of the law – i.e., it is possible for data to be subject to subpoena, freedom of information claim or mandated reporting by some professions. The data will be securely stored in DCU and will be accessible only to the three people of the research team. Following data entry hard copy questionnaires will be disposed of in a secure and confidential manner. Your participation in the study is voluntary and is very much appreciated. It is possible to withdraw from the study at any point. Choosing to participate or not will not affect your performance evaluation in any way or form.

For the purpose of the present research supervisors will be asked to handout five questionnaires (or more) to any member of the school as randomly as possible. S/he will code his/her questionnaire to identify who s/he gave questionnaire too. Once the supervisor completes the questionnaire it will be sealed and the identification code will be shredded, the completed questionnaire will then be sent to DCU. Employees questionnaires do not need any identification code and once completed it will be sealed by employee and sent back to DCU. **Employee's questionnaire results will not be seen by the school principal and the principal will not see employee's questionnaires, results are strictly confidential.**

Thank you in advance for your time and effort in participating in our research. If you have any questions regarding the survey, or the progress of our project, please do not hesitate to contact

the research team at, finian.buckley@dcu.ie, adele.grazi@dcu.ie, or reardonburns@gmail.com. If you have any concerns about the study and wish to contact an independent person, please contact: The Secretary, Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee, c/o Research and Innovation Support, Dublin City University, Dublin 9. Tel 01-7008000

Yours faithfully,

Prof. Finian Buckley
Adele Grazi
Michael Burns

Informed Consent Form

Clarification of the purpose of the research

The aim of the survey is to capture your perception and experience on open communication channels and reliance within your team

Confirmation of particular requirements as highlighted in the Plain Language Statement

Participant – please complete the following (Circle Yes or No for each question)

I have read the Plain Language Statement (or had it read to me) Yes/No

I understand the information provided Yes/No

I am aware I have an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study Yes/No

I am aware I may withdraw from the Research Study at any point. Yes/No

I am aware the questionnaire is strictly confidential and that confidentiality of information provided cannot always be guaranteed by researchers and can only be protected within the limitations of the law Yes/No

Appendix C – Participant Questionnaire 1,2,3,4 -Study 1

SECTION 1 –LAB STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE 1

Please complete the following section

1. I have read and understood the above consent form
2. Are you? Male Female
3. Please indicate your nationality? Irish Other (please specify) _____
4. What age are you? _____ years
5. What is the highest education level you have completed? Leaving Cert Bachelors Masters
Other (please specify) _____
6. Are you? Part-time studentFull time student
7. Do you have any work experience? No Yes
If Yes (please specify) _____
8. Please estimate your total work experience in your field (years/months) _____

SECTION 2, Part A

Please read each the vignettes below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are the Team Leader in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes managing your team, managing customers, maintaining sales records and reporting to top management about concerns or suggestions. You have 10 people in your team, females and males of diverse ages with different levels of experience. Pat, one of the sales assistants in your team, is constantly on the outlook for new ways to improve work situations, spots opportunities long before others and can be a powerful force for constructive change within the team and shop. For instance Pat offers suggestions to improve customers' interactions but also suggests recommendations on how to increase team performance. There is nothing more exciting to Pat than seeing his/her ideas turn into reality. Pat loves to be the champion for his/her ideas, even when opposed to others. At times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with you or any other senior staff first, which has put you in an uncomfortable position in front of your own boss and other subordinates. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats' behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things. Nevertheless, no matter what the odds, if Pat believes in something he/she will make it happen. In other words, if Pat sees something he/she doesn't like Pat will fix it.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Pat by ticking appropriate box number

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat’s Manager, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7=Very willing.

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Strongly Unwilling ← → Very willing </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How willing are you to rely on Pat’s work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How willing are you to rely on Pat’s task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your work colleague Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1= Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this towards Pat

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 2, Part B

Please read each the vignette below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are the Team Leader in a big retail shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes managing your team, managing costumers, maintaining sales records and reporting to management about concerns or suggestions. You have 10 people in your team both females and males of diverse ages with different levels of experience. Pat one of the sales assistants in your team, does what he/she is expected to do in his/her role but doesn't come up with any suggestions on how to improve the service for clients or on how to maximize team performance. Pat would rarely look for new ways to improve work situations or spot new opportunities and is generally not a powerful force for positive change within the team. If there is any issue or emergency Pat will generally step back and let other team members take the lead or will report to you the team supervisor. Furthermore, Pat rarely challenges the opinion of others and tends not to express his/her personal opinion during meetings or other work related situations. Nevertheless Pat, reaches his/her monthly goals, gets along with staff and costumers and has never caused the organization any problems.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Pat by ticking appropriate box number.

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat's Manager, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Strongly Unwilling ← → Very willing </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How willing are you to rely on Pat's work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How willing are you to rely on Pat's task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering you work colleague Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1 = Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this toward Pat



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please use the space below if you have any comments you wish to add on issues raised in the survey.

.....

.....

You are at the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your participation

SECTION 1 –LAB STUDY QUEST 2

Please complete the following section

- 2. I have read and understood the above consent form
- 2. Are you? Male Female
- 3. Please indicate your nationality? Irish Other (please specify) _____
- 4. What age are you? _____ years
- 5. What is the highest education level you have completed? Leaving Cert Bachelors Masters
Other (please specify) _____
- 6. Are you? Part-time studentFull time student
- 7. Do you have any work experience? No Yes
If Yes (please specify) _____
- 8. Please estimate your total work experience in your field (years/months) _____

SECTION 2, Part A

Please read each the vignettes below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are a sales assistant in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about concerns or suggestions. Pat, your supervisor, is constantly on the outlook for new ways to improve work situations, spots opportunities long before others and can be a powerful force for constructive change for your team and organization. Pat always looks at better ways of doing things; for instance Pat offers suggestions to improve costumer’s interactions but also suggests recommendations on how to increase team performance. There is nothing more exciting to Pat than seeing his/her ideas turn into reality. Pat loves to be the champion for his/her ideas, even when opposed to others. At times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with senior staff first, which has created confusion within the team in regards to what they were expected to do. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats’ behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things. Nevertheless, no matter what the odds, if Pat believes in something he/she will make it happen. In other words, if Pat sees something he/she doesn’t like Pat will fix it.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Patby ticking appropriate box number.

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat's Employee, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Strongly Unwilling ← → Very willing </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How willing are you to rely on Pat's work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How willing are you to rely on Pat's task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your supervisor Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1= Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this towards Pat

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 2, Part B

Please read each the vignette below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are the sales assistant in a big retail shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about any concerns or suggestions. Pat your supervisor, does what he/she is expected to do in his/her role and is also very knowledgeable of the organization but seldom comes up with suggestions on how to improve the service for clients or on how to maximize team performance. Pat rarely suggests new ways to improve work effectiveness, is not one to spot opportunities and is generally not a force of change within the team. If there is any issue or emergency Pat will generally step back and will report his/her immediate supervisor. Furthermore Pat tends not to challenge other people's opinion or force his/her personal opinion during meetings. Nevertheless, Pat can be very flexible towards the needs of staff in your team and treats all staff with respect. Pat welcomes feedback from staff and passes that along to top management.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Patby ticking appropriate box number.

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat's Employee, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Strongly Unwilling ← → Very willing </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How willing are you to rely on Pat's work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How willing are you to rely on Pat's task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your supervisor Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1= Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this towards Pat



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please use the space below if you have any comments you wish to add on issues raised in the survey.

.....

.....

You are at the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your participation!

SECTION 1 –LAB STUDY QUEST 3

Please complete the following section

1. I have read and understood the above consent form
2. Are you? Male Female
3. Please indicate your nationality? Irish Other (please specify) _____
4. What age are you? _____ years
5. What is the highest education level you have completed? Leaving Cert Bachelors Masters
Other (please specify) _____
6. Are you? Part-time student Full time student
7. Do you have any work experience? No Yes
If Yes (please specify) _____
8. Please estimate your total work experience in your field (years/months) _____

SECTION 2, Part A

Please read each the vignettes below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are the Team Leader in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes managing your team, managing customers, maintaining sales records and finally reporting to management about concerns or suggestions. You have 10 people in your team both females and males of diverse ages with different levels of experience. Pat, one of the sale assistants in your team, on average reaches personal work goals and Pat’s philosophy is generally “why change something that works”. Even though Pat is a hard worker s/he doesn’t come across as being too ambitious as s/he seldom seeks new insight or tasks that will support his/her career advancement. Furthermore, Pat, is private and tends not to actively seek to share work information with other staff members and rarely takes over colleague’s tasks when needed, unless asked by you or other management. Nevertheless, when asked to do something Pat will engage positively and can be relied upon to complete the job successfully. Pat gets on with all staff members and is well liked within the team but would not be known to assist colleagues develop and implement new ideas and rarely offers assistance to orient new staff members on his/her own free will. When top management seek staff input on new ideas or improvements, Pat’s voice is often absent.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Patby ticking appropriate box number.

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat’s Manager, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Strongly Unwilling ← → Very willing </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How willing are you to rely on Pat’s work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How willing are you to rely on Pat’s task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your work colleague Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1=Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this towards Pat

1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 2, Part B

Please read each the vignette below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are the Team Leader in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes managing your team, managing costumes, maintaining sales records and reporting to top management about concerns or suggestions. You have 10 people in your team both females and males of diverse ages with different levels of experience. Pat, one of the sales assistants in your team, generally reaches personal work goals and finds new ways to execute his/her task so that s/he can be more successful. Pat also tries to acquire new knowledge and takes on tasks that will help him/her in his/her career. Furthermore Pat shares useful work information with other staff members and takes over colleague's tasks when needed even though s/he is not obliged to. Pat also helps colleagues develop and implement new ideas and Pat is also helpful in orienting new staff members. Finally Pat also suggests ideas to top management about possible solutions to company problems, and acquires new knowledge that will optimize the organization of work to further organizational goals. Nevertheless, at times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with you or any other senior staff first, which has put you in an uncomfortable position in front of your own boss and subordinates. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats' behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Pat by ticking appropriate box number.

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat's Manager, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Strongly Unwilling ←————— —————→ Very willing </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How willing are you to rely on Pat's work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How willing are you to rely on Pat's task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your work colleague Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1= Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this towards Pat

1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please use the space below if you have any comments you wish to add on issues raised in the survey.

.....

.....

You are at the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your participation!

SECTION 1 –LAB STUDY QUEST 4

Please complete the following section

1. I have read and understood the above consent form
2. Are you? Male Female
3. Please indicate your nationality? Irish Other (please specify) _____
4. What age are you? _____ years
5. What is the highest education level you have completed? Leaving Cert Bachelors Masters
Other (please specify) _____
6. Are you? Part-time student Full time student
7. Do you have any work experience? No Yes
If Yes (please specify) _____
8. Please estimate your total work experience in your field (years/months) _____

SECTION 2, Part A

Please read each the vignettes below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are a sales assistant in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about concerns or suggestions. Pat, your supervisor, generally reaches personal work goals and finds new ways to execute his/her task so that s/he can be more successful. Pat also tries to acquire new knowledge and takes on tasks that will help him/her in his/her career. Furthermore, Pat shares useful work information with other staff members, takes over colleague’s tasks when needed even though s/he is not obliged to and helps colleagues with developing and implementing new ideas. Pat is also helpful in orienting new staff members. Finally Pat also suggests ideas to top management about possible solutions to company problems, acquires new knowledge that will help the organization and optimizes the organization of work to further organizational goals. However, at times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with senior staff first, which has created confusion within the team in regards to what they were expected to do. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats’ behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Patby ticking appropriate box number.

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat’s Employee, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.



1.	How willing are you to rely on Pat's work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	How willing are you to rely on Pat's task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your work colleague Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1 is= Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this towards Pat

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 2, Part B

Please read each the vignette below and answer the questions as instructed.

You are the sales assistant in a big retail shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about any concerns or suggestions. Pat your supervisor, generally reaches personal work goals and Pat's philosophy is generally "why change something that works". Even though Pat is a hard worker s/he doesn't come across as being too ambitious as s/he seldom seeks new insight or tasks that will support his/her idea. Furthermore, Pat, is private and tends not to actively seek to share work information with other staff members and rarely takes over colleague's tasks when needed, unless instructed to do so by management. Nevertheless, when asked to do something Pat will engage positively and can be relied upon to complete the job successfully. Pat gets on with all staff members and is well liked by people in the team but would not be known to assist colleagues or subordinates develop or implement new ideas and rarely offers assistance to orient new staff members on his/her own free will. When top management seek supervisors input on new ideas or improvements, Pat's voice is often absent.

Please indicate how you perceive yourself in relation to Pat by ticking appropriate box number.

Similar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dissimilar
Alike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Diverse
Close	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Distant

This section asks about your willingness, as Pat's Employee, to relate to Pat. Please indicate the extent to which you agree how willing you are to rely on Pat. Where 1 = strongly unwilling and 7= Very willing.

	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Strongly Unwilling ←————— —————→ Very willing </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How willing are you to rely on Pat's work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How willing are you to rely on Pat's task-related skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How willing are you to depend on Pat to handle an important issue on your behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. How willing are you to rely on Pat to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. How willing are you to depend on Pat to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. How willing are you to share your personal feelings to Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How willing are you to confide in Pat about personal issues that are affecting your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. How willing are you to discuss with Pat honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. How willing are you to discuss with Pat work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with Pat?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Now, considering your work colleague Pat described in the vignette above, please indicate the extent you feel the following emotions toward Pat now. Where 1= Don't feel this at all towards Pat and 7= Strongly feel this towards Pat

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please use the space below if you have any comments you wish to add on issues raised in the survey.

.....

.....

You are at the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your participation!

Appendix D – Employee Questionnaire - Study 2

SECTION 1 – Please answer the following questions appropriately

1. I have read and understood the above consent form Yes No
2. Are you? MaleFemale
3. Please indicate your nationality? Irish Other (please specify) _____
4. What age are you? _____ years
5. What is the highest education level you have completed? Leaving CertDiplomaBachelors Masters Other
(please specify) _____
6. What is your current position?_____
7. Time in current position (years/months) _____
8. How long have you been working in this school (years/months)_____

SECTION 1- This section asks you for your perception of your current immediate supervisor behaviour. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box.

	1=Strongly Disagree 7=Strongly Agree						
1-My immediate supervisor shares knowledge with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2-My immediate supervisor takes over colleagues' task when needed even though he/she is not obliged to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3-My immediate supervisor helps orient new colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4-My immediate supervisor helps colleagues with developing or implementing new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5-My immediate supervisor suggests ideas for solutions for organisational problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6-My immediate supervisor acquires new knowledge that will help the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7-My immediate supervisor optimises the organisations work to further organisational goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 2-This section asks about your willingness to relate with your current immediate supervisor. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box.

	1=Strongly unwilling 7=Very willing						
1- How willing are you to rely on your immediate supervisor's work-related judgement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2- How willing are you to rely on your immediate supervisor's task-related skills and abilities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3-How willing are you to depend on your immediate supervisor to handle an important issue on your behalf?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4- How willing are you to rely on your immediate supervisor to represent your work accurately to others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5- How willing are you to depend on your immediate supervisor to back you up in difficult situations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6- How willing are you to share your personal feelings to your immediate supervisor?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7- How willing are you to confide in your immediate supervisor about personal issues that are affecting your work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8- How willing are you to discuss with your immediate supervisor honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9-How willing are you to discuss with your immediate supervisor work-related problems or difficulties that could be potentially used at your disadvantage?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10- How willing are you to share your personal beliefs with your immediate supervisor?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 3-This section relates to how often you exhibit the following behaviours. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box.

	1=Always 7=Never						
1-I am unwilling to speak up with suggestions to change because I am disengaged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2-I withhold confidential information, based on cooperation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3-I passively withhold ideas, based on resignation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4-I protect proprietary information in order to benefit the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5-I passively keep ideas about solutions to problems to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6-I withstand pressure from others to tell organizational secrets.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7-I keep any ideas for improvement to myself because I believe my opinions make no difference.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8-I refuse to divulge information that might harm the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9-I withhold ideas about how to improve the work around here, based on being disengaged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10-I do not speak up and suggest ideas for change, based on fear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11- I withhold relevant information due to fear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12- I protect confidential organisational information appropriately, based on concern for the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13- I omit pertinent facts in order to protect myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14- I avoid expressing ideas for improvements, due to self-protection	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15- I withhold solutions to problems because motivated by fear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please use the space below if you have any comments you wish to add on issues raised in the survey.

.....

Thank You!

Appendix E – Leader Questionnaire - Study 2

Section 2-This section relates to your perception of Employee 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box.							L1
		Employee1	Employee2	Employee3	Employee4	Employee5	
		1= strongly disagree 7= strongly agree					
1	The employee shares knowledge with colleagues	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2	The employee takes over colleagues' task when needed even though they are not obliged to.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3	The employee helps orient new colleagues	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4	The employee helps colleagues with developing or implementing new ideas	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5	The employee suggests ideas for solutions for organisations problems	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6	The employee acquires new knowledge that will help organisation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
7	The employee optimises the organisations work to further organizational goals.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Section 3-The following section involves the likelihood of Employee 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5 to engage in the following behaviour. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box.							
		Employee1	Employee2	Employee3	Employee4	Employee5	
		1= strongly disagree 7= strongly agree					
1	The employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work place	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2	The employee speaks up and encourages others in group to get involved in issues that affect the organisation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3	The employee communicates his/her opinion about work issues to others in the workplace even if his/her opinion is different to others and others in the workplace disagree with it	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
4	The employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this organisation	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
5	The employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of the work life here in the workplace	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
6	The employee speaks up in the team with ideas for new projects or changes in procedure	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Section 4-The following section involves your relation to Employee 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5 to engage in the following behaviour. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking the appropriate box.							
		Employee1	Employee2	Employee3	Employee4	Employee5	
		1=very distant; 7= very close	1=to no extent; 7=to a very great extent	1= Daily; 7= Once every three months	1= Daily; 7= Once every three months	1= Daily; 7= Once every three months	
1	How close is your relationship (1=very distant; 7= very close)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
2	To what extent do you typically interact (1=to no extent; 7=to a very great extent)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
3	How often do you communicate with each other? 1. Daily 2. Twice a week 3. Once a week 4. Twice a month 5. Once a month 6. Once every couple of months 7. Once every three months	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

Appendix F – SMEs - Vignettes

Please read the following vignettes and decide whether Pat is Proactive or Passive. Please tick the appropriate box underneath each vignette

Definition of Proactive Behaviour: *"taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions"* (Crant, 2000)

Definition of Passive Behaviour: *"influenced, acted upon, or affected by some external force, cause, or agency; being the object of action rather than causing action; not*

You are the sales assistant in a big retail shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about any concerns or suggestions. Pat your supervisor, does what he/she is expected to do in his/her role and is also very knowledgeable of the organization but seldom comes up with suggestions on how to improve the service for clients or on how to maximize team performance. Pat rarely suggests new ways to improve work effectiveness, is not one to spot opportunities and is generally not a force of change within the team. If there is any issue or emergency Pat will generally step back and will report his/her immediate supervisor. Furthermore Pat tends not to challenge other people's opinion or force his/her personal opinion during meetings. Nevertheless, Pat is very flexible towards the needs of staff in your team and treats all staff with respect. Pat welcomes feedback from staff and passes that along to top management.

Pat is Proactive

Pat is Passive

You are a sales assistant in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about concerns or suggestions. Pat, your supervisor, is constantly on the outlook for new ways to improve work situations, spots opportunities long before others and can be a powerful force for constructive change for your team and organization. Pat always looks at better ways of doing things; for instance Pat offers suggestions to improve costumer's interactions but also suggests recommendations on how to increase team performance. There is nothing more exciting to Pat than seeing his/her ideas turn into reality. Pat loves to be the champion for his/her ideas, even when opposed to others. At times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with senior staff first, which has created confusion within the team in regards to what they were expected to do. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats' behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things. Nevertheless, no matter what the odds, if Pat believes in something he/she will make it happen. In other words, if Pat sees something he/she doesn't like Pat will fix it.

Pat is Proactive

Pat is Passive

Please read the following vignettes and decide whether Pat is Proactive or Passive. Please tick the appropriate box underneath each vignette

Definition of Proactive Behaviour: *"taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions"* (Crant, 2000)

Definition of Passive Behaviour: *"influenced, acted upon, or affected by some external force, cause, or agency; being the object of action rather than causing action; not*

You are the sales assistant in a big retail shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about any concerns or suggestions. Pat your supervisor, does what he/she is expected to do in his/her role and is also very knowledgeable of the organization but seldom comes up with suggestions on how to improve the service for clients or on how to maximize team performance. Pat rarely suggests new ways to improve work effectiveness, is not one to spot opportunities and is generally not a force of change within the team. If there is any issue or emergency Pat will generally step back and will report his/her immediate supervisor. Furthermore Pat tends not to challenge other people's opinion or force his/her personal opinion during meetings. Nevertheless, Pat is very flexible towards the needs of staff in your team and treats all staff with respect. Pat welcomes feedback from staff and passes that along to top management.

You are a sales assistant in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about concerns or suggestions. Pat, your supervisor, is constantly on the outlook for new ways to improve work situations, spots opportunities long before others and can be a powerful force for constructive change for your team and organization. Pat always looks at better ways of doing things; for instance Pat offers suggestions to improve costumer's interactions but also suggests recommendations on how to increase team performance. There is nothing more exciting to Pat than seeing his/her ideas turn into reality. Pat loves to be the champion for his/her ideas, even when opposed to others. At times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with senior staff first, which has created confusion within the team in regards to what they were expected to do. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats' behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things. Nevertheless, no matter what the odds, if Pat believes in something he/she will make it happen. In other words, if Pat sees something he/she doesn't like Pat will fix it.

Pat is Proactive

Pat is Passive

Pat is Proactive

Pat is Passive

Please read the following vignettes and decide whether Pat is Proactive or Passive. Please tick the appropriate box underneath each vignette

Definition of Proactive Behaviour: *"taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions"* (Crant, 2000)

Definition of Passive Behaviour: *"influenced, acted upon, or affected by some external force, cause, or agency; being the object of action rather than causing action; not participating readily or actively"* (Dictionary)

You are the Team Leader in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes managing your team, managing costumes, maintaining sales records and reporting to top management about concerns or suggestions. You have 10 people in your team both females and males of diverse ages with different levels of experience. Pat, one of the sales assistants in your team, generally reaches personal work goals and finds new ways to execute his/her task so that s/he can be more successful. Pat also tries to acquire new knowledge and takes on tasks that will help him/her in his/her career. Furthermore Pat shares useful work information with other staff members and takes over colleague's tasks when needed even though s/he is not obliged to. Pat also helps colleagues develop and implement new ideas and Pat is also helpful in orienting new staff members. Finally Pat also suggests ideas to top management about possible solutions to company problems, and acquires new knowledge that will optimize the organization of work to further organizational goals. Nevertheless, at times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with you or any other senior staff first, which has put you in an uncomfortable position in front of your own boss and subordinates. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats' behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things.

You are the Team Leader in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes managing your team, managing customers, maintaining sales records and finally reporting to management about concerns or suggestions. You have 10 people in your team both females and males of diverse ages with different levels of experience. Pat, one of the sale assistants in your team, on average reaches personal work goals but struggles to find new ways to execute his/her task so that s/he can be more successful. Even though Pat is a hard worker s/he doesn't come across as being too ambitious as s/he seldom seeks new insight or tasks that will support his/her career advancement. Furthermore, Pat, is private and tends not to actively seek to share work information with other staff members and rarely takes over colleague's tasks when needed, unless asked by you or other management. Nevertheless, when asked to do something Pat will engage positively and can be relied upon to complete the job successfully. Pat gets on with all staff members and is well liked within the team but would not be known to assist colleagues develop and implement new ideas and rarely offers assistance to orient new staff members on his/her own free will. When top management seek staff input on new ideas or improvements, Pat's voice is often absent.

Pat is Proactive

Pat is Passive

Pat is Passive

Pat is Proactive

Please read the following vignettes and decide whether Pat is Proactive or Passive. Please tick the appropriate box underneath each vignette

Definition of Proactive Behaviour: "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions" (Crant, 2000)

Definition of Passive Behaviour: "influenced, acted upon, or affected by some external force, cause, or agency; being the object of action rather than causing action; not participating readily or actively" (Dictionary)

You are the sales assistant in a big retail shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about any concerns or suggestions. Pat your supervisor, generally reaches personal work goals but struggles to find new ways to execute tasks to maximize success. Even though Pat is a hard worker s/he doesn't come across as being too ambitious as s/he seldom seeks new insight or tasks that will support his/her idea. Furthermore, Pat, is private and tends not to actively seek to share work information with other staff members and rarely takes over colleague's tasks when needed, unless instructed to do so by management. Nevertheless, when asked to do something Pat will engage positively and can be relied upon to complete the job successfully. Pat gets on with all staff members and is well liked by people in the team but would not be known to assist colleagues or subordinates develop or implement new ideas and rarely offers assistance to orient new staff members on his/her own free will. When top management seek supervisors input on new ideas or improvements, Pat's voice is often absent.

Pat is Passive

Pat is Proactive

You are a sales assistant in a big Retail Shop. You have been working there for the last 5 years and you enjoy the work that you do, which includes collaborating with your team, managing costumers, stocking the shop and finally reporting to your immediate supervisor, Pat, about concerns or suggestions. Pat, your supervisor, generally reaches personal work goals and finds new ways to execute his/her task so that s/he can be more successful. Pat also tries to acquire new knowledge and takes on tasks that will help him/her in his/her career. Furthermore Pat shares useful work information with other staff members, takes over colleague's tasks when needed even though s/he is not obliged to and helps colleagues with developing and implementing new ideas. Pat is also helpful in orienting new staff members. Finally Pat also suggests ideas to top management about possible solutions to company problems, acquires new knowledge that will help the organization and optimizes the organization of work to further organizational goals. However, at times Pat has brought forward ideas without consulting with senior staff first, which has created confusion within the team in regards to what they were expected to do. Furthermore other team members have more than once complained of Pats' behaviour as they felt s/he abandoned accepted procedures in favour of new ways of doing things.

Pat is Proactive

Pat is Passive

Appendix F. Nationality Characteristics of the Sample-Study 1

Nationality	N of Participants in sample	Percentage in the sample
American	1	.4
Belgian	1	.4
British	6	2.2
Chinese	17	6.3
Czechoslovakian	2	0.7
Dutch	1	.4
French	6	2.1
German	1	.4
Indian	3	1
Irish	196	71.8
Italian	9	3.3
Lithuanian	3	1
Maltese	1	.4
Nigerian	3	1
Norwegian	1	.4
Pakistani	1	.4
Polish	2	.7
Saudi	4	1.4
Spanish	1	.4
Others(not known)	14	6.1

N=273

Appendix H– Nationality Characteristics of the Sample-Study 2

Nationality Characteristics of Leaders in the sample

Nationality	N of Participants in sample	Percentage in the sample
American	1	2.3
Australian	1	2.3
English	1	2.3
Greek	1	2.3
Irish	28	65.1
Italian	1	2.3
Nigeria	1	2.3
Polish	1	2.3
Spanish	3	6.9
Unknown	4	9.3

N=43

Nationality Characteristics of Employees in the sample

Nationality	N of Participants in sample	Percentage in the sample
American	2	1.6%
Brazilian	5	4.0%
English	2	1.6%
French	4	3.2%
Irish	91	73.3%
Italian	4	3.2%
Japanese	3	2.4%
Korean	2	1.6%
Lithuanian	1	0.8 %
Polish	1	0.8 %
Romanian	1	0.8 %
Spanish	3	2.4%
Unknown	5	4.0%

N=124

Appendix I– Ethical Approval Letter

Ollscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath
Dublin City University



Dr Finian Buckley
DCU Business School

31st March 2015

REC Reference: DCUREC/2015/005

Proposal Title: Can an auditory feedback system (“SoftRun”) reduce impact accelerations when running on a treadmill

Applicant(s): Dr Finian Buckley ; Ms Adele Grazi ;

Dear Finian

Further to Expedited Review, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this research proposal. Materials used to recruit participants should note that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee.

Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'Dónal O'Mathúna'.

Dr Dónal O'Mathúna
Chairperson
DCU Research Ethics Committee



