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Building trust through the dynamics of emotions and moods: A conceptual framework and empirical investigations on the role of affect in interpersonal trust development

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Building Trust Through the Dynamics of Emotions and Moods: A Conceptual Framework and Empirical Investigations on the Role of Affect in Interpersonal Trust Development

by

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Conceptual Framework and Empirical Investigations on the Role of Affect in

Interpersonal Trust Development

Serena Changhong Lu

Abstract

In this dissertation, I strived to understand the role of individuals' affect in

the development processes of interpersonal trust within organizations. To achieve

the goal, I conducted two studies, one conceptual framework and one empirical

investigation. Trust scholars have long recognized the affective component of

trust experience. However, previous theoretical arguments and empirical findings

are not well integrated to provide a cohesive understanding on various dynamic

roles that emotions and moods can play in the trust development. Recognizing that

the trustor and trustee may face diverse relational problems at various stages of

their trust relationship, I first suggested a Phase Model based on well-recognized

trust development models. In the phase model, a trust development process

encompasses pre-encounter, first impression, trust interaction, trust maintenance,

and trust disruption/deterioration phases. I also recognized that individuals' affect

may impact trust development through multiple ways based on two perspectives

on the roles of affect: The Affect Cognitive perspective and the Social Functional

perspective. I delineated various mechanisms that emotions and moods can play in

each phase and whether the mechanism is based on the Affect Cognitive

perspective or the Social Functional perspective. In addition, I suggested that the

trust development can go back from a latter phase to an earlier phase and that

various affective mechanisms can phase in, out, and back in again as relationships

are initiated, develop, and perhaps are even disrupted and restored. As a result, the

conceptual framework could help guide future research on affect and trust development.

　　After delineating the conceptual paper, I conducted an empirical investigation on how newcomers develop trust in their supervisors. The literature on leader behaviors and employee trust in leader has suggested that interactional justice could promote employee trust through impacting the social exchange processes between employees and their leaders. Integrating the Social Exchange theory and findings from affect literature, I investigated how supervisor interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness impact the development of newcomer trust in supervisor through influencing newcomer anxiety level and anxiety reduction. Findings of an experience sampling study suggested that high supervisor interactional justice could lead to high levels of newcomer trust through low levels of newcomer anxiety. Newcomer anxiety reduction (i.e., negative change over the encounter period of two weeks) could promote newcomer trust improvement (i.e., positive change over the encounter period), which in turn impacted the final levels of newcomer trust in supervisor at the end of encounter stage. In addition, supervisor interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness interacted to impact newcomer anxiety reduction. For low agreeable individuals, higher supervisor interactional justice led to more newcomer anxiety reduction in the encounter stage. Taken together, the empirical study offers insights into the process of interpersonal trust development starting from the first day at work, and uncovers the role of affective mechanisms underlying initial trust development.

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Chapter 1 General Introduction

Both practitioners and researchers have recognized the importance of interpersonal trust, viewed as a psychological state comprising the willingness to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998), in facilitating cooperation and teamwork in organizations. Over the past twenty years, several meta-analyses (e.g., Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; de Jong, Dirks, & Gillespie, 2015; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and reviews (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012) have firmly demonstrated the central role that trust plays in interpersonal, team and organizational effectiveness. Interpersonal trust facilitates work interactions because it affects how an individual interprets the past actions of another party, including the motives underlying those actions, and how an individual assesses the future behavior of another party with whom he/she is interdependent (e.g., Costa, Ferrin, & Fulmer, 2015; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2007).

To investigate what factors could promote interpersonal trust development, trust scholars have examined various predictors of perceived trustworthiness dimensions (e.g., ability, integrity, and benevolence) (Dietz, 2011; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). For example, some researchers have suggested that perceived trustworthiness accounts for just a portion of the variance in the decision to trust, leaving a significant amount unexplained (Colquitt et al., 2007). Rather than focusing on trustworthiness as the predictor of trust, some trust researchers have suggested that there are different types of trust and trust development is a sequential iteration in which achievement of trust at one level enables the development of trust at the next level (Jones & George, 1998;

Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006; McAllister, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998).

In addition, some scholars have focused on the initial levels of trust and proposed

that the initial trust development is critical for trust building processes because

trust develops at a higher rate at the beginning of relationships (McKnight &

Chervany, 2006; Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996).

Despite the emerging models and evidence about how interpersonal trust

develops in organizations, the extant research predominantly focuses on trust

development from a cognitive perspective. Non-cognitive factors of trust such as

relational and affective factors are common, may operate in addition to

trustworthiness dimensions, and cannot be accounted for by the cognitive

approach (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Weber, Malhotra, & Murnighan, 2004).

Although it is firmly recognized that trust has a strong affective foundation (Jones

& George, 1998; McAllister, 1995; Williams, 2001, 2007), research on trust and

emotions is still in a nascent stage (Lewicki et al., 2006; Schoorman et al., 2007).

For example, Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) recognized in their comprehensive

review that the role of affect in trust development, breakdown and repair is

underexplored. At the same time, research on affect in the workplace has

developed rapidly but has been conducted mostly independent of the trust

literature (Ashkanasy, 2015; Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Ashkanasy & Humphrey,

2011). Recognizing this gap, trust scholars have been calling for comprehensive

review, coherent theory, and systematic investigation on the relationship between

trust and affect (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Lewicki et al., 2006).

With this dissertation, I aimed to answer the calls in the literature to

consider individuals' affective experience in interpersonal trust development

processes. To reach this goal, I conducted two studies: I first conducted an

integrative review of the literature on the role of affect in trust development. Based on that, I developed a phase model to describe different roles that affect can play in interpersonal trust development over time. Second, I employed an experience-sampling method to conduct an empirical investigation into the role of affect in initial trust development during newcomers' entry into organizations.

Specifically, in Chapter 2, I leveraged three scientific literatures - the organizational literatures on the processes of interpersonal trust development and the role of affect in the workplace, and the psychological literature on affect in cognition, motivation, and interpersonal relations - to build a Phase Model articulating the role of affect in interpersonal trust development. First, I conducted a systematic review of current trust development models to identify a roadmap for organizing theoretical perspectives and empirical findings on this issue. Synthesizing the research findings on affect and trust to date, I suggested there are two distinct mechanisms through which affect can influence trust, namely the intrapersonal mechanism of Affect Cognition (AC) (i.e. affect influences attention, thought, memory and judgement), and the interpersonal mechanism of Social Functionality (SF) (emotions influence interpersonal interactions and attitudes). Then, I developed a phase model that identifies five phases of trust development: *pre-encounter, impression formation, trust interaction, trust maintenance, and trust disruption/deterioration phases*. I argued that each phase encompasses a different set of the AC and SF affective mechanisms, and these affective mechanisms themselves phase in and out as trust develops. The model enables researchers to better understand the role and impact of moods and emotions on trust development, identify current strengths, weaknesses, and gaps

in existing research, and identify opportunities for future research on the role of affect in trust development.

One implication of the Phase Model developed in Chapter 2 is that scholars need to better incorporate the time issue in theorizing how trust develops, and move beyond the valence conceptualization of affect (e.g., positive and negative affect) to investigate the functions of discrete emotions in interpersonal trust development. In Chapter 3, I investigated the role of a specific emotion – supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety - in initial trust development between newcomers and their supervisors, using an experience sampling method. Specifically, I investigated how newcomer anxiety mediated the effects of supervisor interactional justice on newcomer trust in supervisor in the encounter stage of organizational socialization. To better capture the dynamics of newcomer anxiety and trust development, I examined both newcomer anxiety level and anxiety reduction in the encounter stage. Moreover, I investigated both newcomer trust improvement in the encounter stage and the ultimate newcomer trust level at the end of the encounter stage. Integrating social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) with findings from the affect literature, I argued that high supervisor interactional justice leads to trust improvement and high final levels of newcomer trust in supervisor by producing low anxiety levels and more anxiety reduction through repeated daily newcomer-supervisor interactions. I further argued that the relationships between justice and anxiety only occur for newcomers with low agreeableness who need to rely on their supervisors' behavior to initiate positive social exchange relationships.

Analyzing daily survey responses from 116 newcomers who had recently started their internships over a 2-week period, the study demonstrated the

important roles of newcomer anxiety in terms of anxiety level and anxiety reduction during the initial trust development. The results suggested that high supervisor interactional justice could lead to high levels of newcomer trust through low levels of newcomer anxiety. Newcomer anxiety reduction (i.e., negative change the encounter period of two weeks) could promote newcomer trust improvement (i.e., positive change over the encounter period), which in turn impacted the final levels of newcomer trust in supervisor at the end of encounter stage. In addition, supervisor interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness interacted to impact newcomer anxiety reduction. For low agreeable individuals, higher supervisor interactional justice led to more newcomer anxiety reduction in the encounter stage.

Supplemental analyses found that daily supervisor interactional justice led to reduced daily newcomer anxiety, which was negatively related to daily newcomer trust in supervisor. In addition, newcomer agreeableness was found to have a cross-level moderation effect on the relationship between daily supervisor interactional justice and daily newcomer anxiety. Thus, the findings in Chapter 3 support the arguments in Chapter 2 on how affect can influence trust building in the impression formation and the trust interaction phases.

In sum, recognizing that affect is likely to play an important role in trust development, and yet also recognizing that research on the role of affect in trust development is still in an early stage, I aimed to advance understanding of these phenomena by producing a conceptual framework that specifies how affect dynamics phase in and out over the course of an interpersonal relationship, and then conducting an empirical investigation to test one element of the framework. I hope that the conceptual contributions and empirical findings of my dissertation

will substantially increase scientific and practical understanding of the dynamics of interpersonal trust development.

Chapter 2 Much Affected: The Influence of Affect in the Development

Processes of Interpersonal Trust

Introduction

In the years since publication of the integrative model of organizational

trust by Mayer et al. (1995), scholars have extensively demonstrated that

organizational trust is one of most important factors impacting individual

effectiveness, attachment, and well-being within organizations (Colquitt et al.,

2007; Costa et al., 2015; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). Given

the advantages of trust-based work relationships (e.g., trust in leader, trust in

coworker) within organizations, researchers have increasingly turned their

attention to identifying the factors that cause trust to form between individuals. In

a recent extensive review of organizational trust by Fulmer and Gelfand (2012),

numerous predictors of individual trust in interpersonal referents were identified,

including characteristics of the trustor, characteristics of the trustee, shared

characteristics between the trustor and trustee, communication processes, network

and structural characteristics, and organizational and external contexts. However,

as noted by Fulmer and Gelfand (2012), the relationship between emotions and

trust has been underexplored.

How do emotion and affect influence interpersonal trust formation within

organizations? Several trust scholars have recognized that affect plays an

important role in the experience of trust. For example, using the perspective of

symbolic interactionism, Jones and George (1998) proposed that the experience of

trust is determined by the interplay of people's values, attitudes, moods and

emotions. Williams (2001) discussed the ways in which category-based affect (for

outgroup) could impact the interpersonal trust between members of dissimilar

groups. And, focusing on emotion regulation instead of emotion itself, Williams (2007) further proposed that threat regulation as a specific dimension of interpersonal emotion management fosters trust and effective cooperation. Although these conceptual papers provide valuable insights into the role of affect in the experience of trust, they also leave several important questions unanswered concerning how emotion and affect influence the dynamics of interpersonal trust development between a trustor and trustee. For instance, it remains unclear whether affect impacts trust development through an intrapersonal mechanism, an interpersonal mechanism, or both. Since a trust relationship includes two parties, trustor and trustee (Mayer et al., 1995), it is uncertain whether the role of affect is similar for the trustor vs the trustee in a relationship. Similarly, it remains uncertain as to whether the effects of affect may change over time, and if so, how the different roles of affect may play out as the relationship becomes mature.

Meanwhile, there is a substantial body of empirical research that may potentially shed light on the role of affect in interpersonal trust development within organizations (e.g., Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Forgas, Bower, & Moylan, 1990; Liu & Wang, 2010; Lount Jr, 2010; Myers & Tingley, 2016). Unfortunately, these studies are scattered across a range of literatures, and even more problematically, they identify such a large number and range of affective mechanisms in trust development that it is difficult to understand how or whether these mechanisms function together. For instance, Lount Jr (2010) investigated the effect of moods and found that a positive mood prompts people to trust based on situational cues, while Dunn and Schweitzer (2005) focused on discrete emotions and found that incidental emotions unrelated to the relationship can be misattributed and influence interpersonal trust. In work on leadership succession,

the affective reactions employees had to the departure of work group leaders were found to have impact on how they trusted a new leader (Ballinger, Schoorman, & Lehman, 2009).

In addition, a substantial body of conceptual research has now produced important advances in our understanding of the interpersonal trust development process, such as the integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer et al., 1995) which describes how people form a trusting intention based on their perceptions of the target's trustworthiness, which is updated based on trustee's behaviors and outcomes of interactions, and the transformational development model of trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996) which models how trust relationships move from calculative to knowledge-based to identification-based over time. However, one limitation of these conceptual models is that they have focused primarily on the cognitive and behavioral dynamics of trust development, and neglected the affective dynamics.

In sum, the conceptual work on affect and trust has left the core questions about the role of affect in trust development unanswered, the empirical work on affect and trust has provided a broad range of disparate findings in need of integration, and research on trust development has focused primarily on cognitive and behavioral dynamics rather than affective dynamics. Yet, I also note that research on emotion in the workplace has radically changed our understanding of people's behaviors and experience within organizations (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Ashkanasy, Humphrey, & Huy, 2017) and trust scholars have long recognized that affect plays an important role in the trust experience specifically (Jones & George, 1998; Möllering, 2006). Based on the above reasoning, I contend that research would benefit from an integrative framework of the

influences of affect in the development processes of interpersonal trust within organizations. In the present study, I integrate theoretical arguments and empirical findings from three scientific literatures to produce such a framework: the organizational literatures on (i) the role of affect in the workplace and (ii) the processes of interpersonal trust development, and (iii) the psychological literature on the role of affect in cognition, motivation, and interpersonal relations.

Based on the organizational literature on the role of affect in the workplace, I will first review major scientific perspectives regarding "affect", "emotion" and "mood." These constructs have distinctive meanings for researchers studying affect, but the constructs are interdependent and interrelated and sometimes used interchangeably. Affect theorists have also developed different theoretical models to capture the functions of affect, emotion, and mood in social interactions. Following these affect scholars, in this paper I suggest that there are two dominant theoretical perspectives on the effects of individuals' affect, i.e., the *Affect Cognition (AC)* perspective, which focuses on how at the intrapersonal level of analysis, general affect can shape attention, thought, memory, and judgement in systematic ways (Forgas, 2008; Forgas & George, 2001), and the *Social Functional (SF)* perspective, which focuses on how at the interpersonal level of analysis, specific emotions, and the functional consequences of emotions, shape interpersonal interactions and attitudes (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999). I argue that the AC perspective and the SF perspective offer complementary understandings of how individuals' affect can impact trust formation.

Thereafter, I review the well-recognized theoretical models of interpersonal trust development, including the integrative model of organizational

trust (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007), the transformational

development model of trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996), the initial trust

development model (McKnight & Chervany, 2006; McKnight, Cummings, &

Chervany, 1998), and the trustworthiness image creation model (Elsbach, 2004).

One limitation of previous theoretical studies is that they have not considered how

emotion and affect may play different functions in various stages of interpersonal

trust development over time. Based on this observation, my integrative framework

will provide a phase model of interpersonal trust development, organizing the

interpersonal trust relationship along the temporal dimension: *pre-encounter,*

impression formation, trust interaction, trust maintenance, and trust

disruption/deterioration phase (see Figure 1). Synthesizing various arguments

from different trust development models, I argue that the trustor and trustee have

different focuses and relationship questions in each phase.

Finally, based on the psychological literature on affect in cognition,

motivation, and interpersonal relations, I illustrate how affect helps solve various

relationship questions and therefore contributes to interpersonal trust

development. In addition, I will use the phase model to organize my review of the

empirical literature on the role of affect in interpersonal trust development. To

identify a parsimonious set of mechanisms, I focus only on affect within the

interpersonal relationship and accordingly do not consider affective mechanisms

within the broader context such as the emotional climate within organizations

(Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017).

Figure 1 The Phase Model
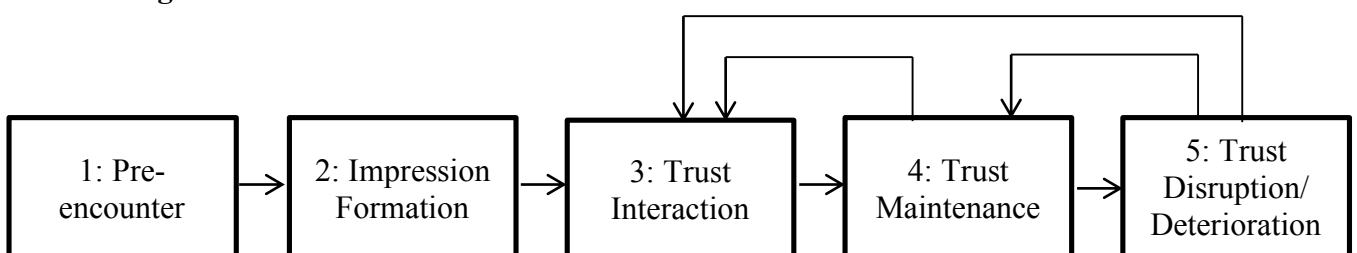
The model proceeds in five phases, however I am not suggesting the trust development is a linear process. In contrast, the model recognizes that trust development is often a non-linear process in which parties may shift from a logically later phase to logically earlier phases (e.g., from trust deterioration back to trust interaction followed by trust maintenance). This is consistent with the integrative model of interpersonal trust (Mayer et al., 1995), which suggests a feedback loop between outcomes and perceived trustee's trustworthiness, and the transformational development model of trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996), which explicitly states that trust can move between different stages via frame changes and that trust decline is part of the trust evolution cycle.

I include the trust disruption/deterioration as a phase in the model because when trust is broken, it has serious consequences for both individuals and organizations (Kim, Dirks, & Cooper, 2009; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). It is also evident that individuals encounter miscommunication, blockage of personal goals, and even transgression in their social exchanges with others within organizations (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). In fact, some research on trust violations and repair has recognized the importance of emotions in facilitating rebuilding trust (Kim et al., 2009; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). Thus, by including the trust disruption/deterioration phase, the phase model captures an important reality of interpersonal relationships, and may also help contribute to the understanding of the role of affect in trust violations and repair.

Compared to previous conceptual studies on the role of affect in the experience of trust (Jones & George, 1998; Williams, 2001, 2007), this study

serves several functions in examining the nexus of interpersonal trust and affect. First, a key contribution of the review is that the difficulty of understanding how the numerous, disparate affective mechanisms function in combination can be resolved once we recognize that each of these mechanisms is active/relevant in specific phases of interpersonal trust development. Consequently, the phase model reveals how these many affective mechanisms function in combination, *over time*, to influence interpersonal trust development in organizations.

Second, for each phase of trust development, this study considers the AC and SF perspectives and suggests how affect influences trust development via the intrapersonal route, interpersonal route, or both. Within each phase, I have also considered *whose* affect is influencing the trust development, i.e., whether it is the trustor's affect or trustee's affective expressions. As a result, the present study can connect the functions of emotions with the current major theoretical paradigms of interpersonal trust development including social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), attribution theory (Kelley, 1967) (i.e., an intrapersonal route) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) (i.e., an interpersonal route).

By integrating the relatively disconnected literatures on trust development and affect in the workplace, this model aims to contribute novel insights and a coherent understanding of the role that affect plays in the development of trust. Based on the review, I also articulate a research agenda for research on affect and trust in organizations, including the modeling of affect (e.g., level, change trajectory, variation), discrete emotions, daily affective experiences, etc. In the following pages, I elaborate on the components of the phase model. Before doing so, I offer brief reviews of literatures on affect and trust development models to provide a conceptual grounding for the proposed framework.

Emotions and Affect in the Workplace

Defining Emotions, Moods, and Affect

From the time of the affective revolution within organizational behavior research (Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003), scholars have used affect as an overarching construct that encompasses various types of affective states of positive and negative valence, including both emotions and moods. Meanwhile, an overarching view of affect also divides it into two basic categories: trait affect and state affect. One's trait affect categorizes the way affect tends to be experienced or expressed (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Trait affect does not necessarily involve a specific target but rather is a generalized tendency toward having a specific level of positivity and negativity (Lazarus, 1991b; Watson et al., 1988). There are two types of trait affect, negative affectivity and positive affectivity. Negative affectivity reflects the degree to which one feels subjective distress including irritability, anxiety, or nervousness, whereas positive affectivity reflects the degree to which one is high in enthusiasm, energy, mental alertness, and determination (Watson et al., 1988; Watson & Tellegen, 1985).

State affect can be divided into emotions and moods. Following some emotion theorists (Parrott, 2001), emotions can be differentiated from moods based on their stimulus, intensity and duration (Barsade et al., 2003). Emotions are intense affective states that interrupt ongoing cognitive processes and behaviors and are tied to certain events or circumstances, while moods are less intense, pervasive, and generalized affective states that are not explicitly linked to certain events or circumstances (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Barsade et al., 2003). Emotions are more likely to change beliefs and disrupt activity than moods (Lazarus, 1991b). In contrast, individuals may not realize that they are

experiencing moods and that moods are influencing their behaviors (Forgas,

1995a). Despite these differences, emotions and moods can be thought of as

interdependent and mutually reinforcing (Barsade et al., 2003).

The Influence of Affect in the Workplace

Affect scholars from diverse theoretical streams have offered substantially

different understandings of the roles of emotions in our social lives. Prominent

theoretical models on affect include Positive and Negative Affectivity (Watson et

al., 1988), the Mood as Information Model (Schwarz & Clore, 1983), Affective

Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), Affect Infusion Model (Forgas,

1995a), Emotional Intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001), the

Emotions as Social Information Model (Van Kleef, 2009), etc. Each stream offers

different potential insights into the roles of emotions in trust development. How

can we unify these diverse perspectives and systematically study the roles of

affect in the development processes of interpersonal trust?

To capture affect in scientific models, researchers have made simplifying

assumptions under two main camps. Those assumptions differ on three aspects.

The first distinction is between focusing on general affective states, such as

positive or negative affect versus focusing on specific emotions, such as anger or

fear. A well-accepted way of describing moods and emotions is in terms of the

extent to which they entail positive or negative valence (Watson et al., 1988). In

contrast, models of specific, discrete emotions emphasize short-term reactions to

specific stimuli in the environment and within the individual (Ekman, 1992;

Lazarus, Cohen-Charash, Payne, & Cooper, 2001). The second distinction is

between intrapersonal vs. interpersonal characteristics and consequences of affect.

The intrapersonal characteristics of affect focus on the physiology of affect,

internal affective experience, and the consequences of moods and emotions that play out within the mind of the person experiencing the affect (Forgas, 1995a; Isen, Niedenthal, & Cantor, 1992). The interpersonal characteristics of affect focus on the role of external, observable expressions of emotion in communication (Ekman, 1993; Van Kleef, 2009), emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993), and shared emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Fischer & Manstead, 2008). The third distinction is that emotion theorists diverge in their assumptions about the functions of affect. At one pole, some theorists suggest that emotions disorganize or interrupt current thought and disrupt ongoing social interactions (Barsade et al., 2003); at the other pole, other theorists suggest that emotions are reliable guides to action and organize behaviors in ways that optimize the individual's adjustment to the demands of the physical and social environment (Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2010b).

Taken together, there are two major research approaches to understanding the role of affect in individuals' cognition, attitude, motivation, and behavior: The Affect Cognition (AC) perspective and the Social Functional (SF) perspective. The AC perspective, emerging within the cognitive paradigm, has focused on general affect and the intrapersonal level of analysis. Working within this tradition, researchers examine the intrapersonal consequences of affect, attempting to model how affect can shape attention, thought, memory, and judgement in systematic ways (Erez & Isen, 2002; Isen et al., 1992; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). The second approach, termed as the SF perspective, has focused on specific, acute emotions, an interpersonal analysis, and functional consequences of emotions (Clark, Pataki, & Carver, 1996; Jones &

Pittman, 1982; Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Morris & Keltner, 2000).

Regarding the roles of affect in the development processes of interpersonal trust, I will argue that the two approaches are potentially complementary rather than mutually exclusive. It is quite possible that affect plays multiple, partially overlapping roles in different stages of trust development. Furthermore, integrating the two approaches of modeling affect can help organize the functions of individuals' affect in trust development at different levels of analysis (e.g., within-person dynamics, between-person differences, and interpersonal interactions) (Ashkanasy, 2003). For example, the Affect Infusion Model (Forgas, 1995a) could help us understand the within-person dynamics through which moods influence trustworthiness judgment, while Emotional Intelligence (Mayer et al., 2001) could contribute to understanding of between-person differences. Later in this paper, I will use the two approaches to organize various emotion models and arguments to suggest how affect can impact trust development between the trustor and trustee.

Interpersonal Trust Development

In this section I first discuss the psychological approach to trust and then discuss several well established trust development models that follow this approach (Lewicki et al., 2006). I concentrate on the classic integrative model of interpersonal trust (Mayer et al., 1995), the transformational development model of trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996), the initial trust development model (McKnight et al., 1998), and the trustworthiness image creation model (Elsbach, 2004). These models address trust development via potentially different foci and provide different insights on the dynamics of trust development.

Trust Intentions and Trustworthiness Perceptions

Following the seminal works by Mayer and colleagues (1995), Rousseau and colleagues (1998), and Kramer (1999), scholars have reached considerable consensus on the conceptualizations of trust in organizational behavior research (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Lewicki et al., 2006). Following this psychological approach to trust, trust is commonly defined as an individual's willingness to accept vulnerability based on the positive perceptions, beliefs, or expectations about another's trustworthiness (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; Lewicki et al., 2006). Many empirical investigations on trust, however, tend to either focus on positive perceptions or expectations (i.e. trustee's trustworthiness) or focus on vulnerability (i.e., trustor's trust intentions) and use different measures accordingly (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). Therefore, it will be important to understand how affect impacts both trustworthiness perceptions and trust intentions.

According to Mayer et al. (1995), trustworthiness perceptions comprise three constructs: perceived ability, benevolence, and integrity. Meta-analytic evidence suggests that each component has significant, unique relationships with trust (Colquitt et al., 2007). Ability captures the "can-do" component of trustworthiness, whereas integrity and benevolence capture the "will-do" component, but integrity suggests a very rational reason to trust and benevolence suggests an emotional attachment to the trustee (Colquitt et al., 2007). A wealth of empirical work has supported the key role of trustworthiness perceptions in determining an individual's willingness to be vulnerable (Colquitt et al., 2007; Schoorman et al., 2007). The relationship between perceived trustworthiness and trust can be categorized into a relationship-based process in which the trustor

draws inferences about the basis of the relationship, versus a character-based process in which the trustor draws inferences about the character of the target (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Therefore, if individuals' affect influences the trustors' perceptions or expectations of the trustees' trustworthiness, then the affect is exerting an indirect effect on trust intentions. In this review, I will distinguish the mechanisms through which affect impacts trustworthiness perceptions from the mechanisms through which affect directly impacts trust intentions.

Interpersonal Trust Development Models

How is trust built between the trustor and trustee within organizations? In their extensive review, Lewicki et al. (2006) recognized many different models of interpersonal trust development, following the psychological approach to trust, which have investigated the whole evolution cycle of interpersonal trust development. Given the focus of the present study on trust development, I will discuss the integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer et al., 1995) and the transformational development model of trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996) because these two models provide rather distinct approaches to trust development over an extended trust relationship. Meanwhile, some trust scholars focused specifically on the trust development process at the very beginning of a relationship rather than studying the whole evolution cycle of interpersonal trust. Accordingly, I will also discuss the initial trust formation model (McKnight et al., 1998) and the trustworthiness image creation model (Elsbach, 2004). Taken together, they focus on different time frames (initial vs. ongoing), they model trust development in different ways (focus on how trust beliefs are formed and updated based on experience and other factors, vs. how trust deepens and potentially takes different forms over time). I argue that these models capture most of the diverse

views of trust development that exist in the literature while representing a sufficiently parsimonious set for analysis.

In the integrative model of organizational trust, Mayer et al. (1995) argued that trustor's trust propensity, a stable within-party factor, will influence how much trust one has for a trustee prior to data on that particular party being available. Once the trustor learns the trustee's trustworthiness, trustor's trust propensity interacts with trustworthiness perceptions to determine the trust intentions (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007). Meta-analytic findings confirmed the role of trust propensity in driving the leap of faith (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust and the perceived risk, defined as the trustor's belief about likelihoods of gains or losses outside of considerations that involve the relationship with the particular trustee, interact in determining risk-taking behaviors in a relationship (Mayer et al., 1995). The outcomes of these risk-taking behaviors lead to updating of prior perceptions of the ability, benevolence, and integrity of the trustee (Mayer et al., 1995). Mayer and colleagues (1995) argued that trust is developed through the feedback loop from the outcomes of risk taking behaviors to the perceived characteristics of the trustee. Thus, the integrative model of trust can be viewed as suggesting an ongoing interpersonal experience of trusting, i.e., the trustor infers trustee's trustworthiness from various cues based on the outcomes of their interactions.

Unlike the integrative model of trust in which trust is treated as a unidimensional construct, other trust development models consider that there may be different types or foundations of trust (Lewicki et al., 2006). The transformational development model of trust made a more nuanced distinction and suggested three types of trust: calculus-based trust, grounded not only in

vulnerability but also in the benefits of maintaining or sustaining the relationship; knowledge-based trust, grounded in the other's predictability and develops as a function of a history of interactions that allows individuals to learn each's trustworthiness; and identification-based trust, grounded in parties' effective understand of each other and appreciation of each other's goals (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996). The transformational development model further suggested a stage-wise evolution, i.e., trust evolves and develops from calculus-, to knowledge-, and then to identification-based trust, which requires a "frame change" in the relationship (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996). Using relationship length as the moderator, Levin, Whitener, and Cross (2006) found that as trustors learn about others, they do in fact base their trust on different kinds of information (demographic similarity, trustworthy behavior, and shared perspective). Perceived trustworthiness is associated with demographic similarity in newer relationships, with trustworthy behavior in relationships that are neither brand new nor old but in-between, and with shared perspective in older relationships (Levin et al., 2006). The results indirectly support the stage-wise evolution argument.

The integrative model of trust and the transformational development model of trust investigate the whole evolution cycle of interpersonal trust development. Some trust scholars took a special focus on the beginning level of trust, i.e., the initial trust development period. In the initial trust formation model (McKnight et al., 1998), trustor's disposition to trust (trusting stance and faith in humanity), institution-based trust (structural assurance belief and situational normality belief), and the cognitive processes of categorization and illusions of control are all linked together to influence the initial trusting beliefs and trusting intention (McKnight et al., 1998). This model has been applied to trust

development in organizations, e-commerce and virtual teams (McKnight &

Chervany, 2006). In a three-months longitudinal study, van der Werff and

Buckley (2017) found that coworker trust development is nonlinear, with faster

rates of growth at the beginning of a relationship when employees are just

beginning to get to know their coworkers, and that trust propensity has an effect

on the initial status of trust but not on changes in trust behaviors, confirming some

arguments of initial trust development model.

Concentrating on trustworthiness perceptions in the impression formation

stage, Elsbach (2004) suggested a compilation of tactics for enhancing

interpersonal perceptions of trustworthiness. These tactics are supported based on

the cognitive processes of social categorization and comparisons – processes that

happen instantaneously, often unconsciously - that account for initial trust

formation (Elsbach, 2004). We could conceptualize this process of trustworthiness

judgement as one of the trustee sending various cues that signal his or her

trustworthiness and the trustor noticing those cues from which the trustee's

trustworthiness is inferred (Elsbach, 2004). Specifically, to improve their image of

trustworthiness, individuals might exhibit behaviors that elicit in observers the

social categorization and comparisons highlighting their similarity to observers,

their institutional certification as competent, and their reputation for benevolence,

competence, and integrity. Based on the trustee's self-presentation behaviors,

choice of language, and physical appearance, the trustor can categorize the trustee

as an in-group member or member of a group that is considered trustworthiness,

and thus perceive the trustee with high level of trustworthiness.

Integration of Interpersonal Trust Development Models

The models of trust development reviewed above have studied interpersonal trust development from a primarily cognitive perspective; the role of affect is not systematically discussed in these models. One apparent exception is that McAllister (1995) did focus on a construct names "affect-based trust." But the definition of affect in affect-based trust is different from the conventional definition of affect summarized above. It is generally recognized that McAllister's "affect-based trust" is better viewed as relationship-based trust, more similar to identification-based trust (Lewicki et al., 2006) or perceived benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995) than it is to affective states such as emotions or moods.

Although these models did not discuss the roles that affect plays in the development processes of trust to any substantial extent, they do explicate antecedent conditions that promote the emergence of trust at different stages of relationship. One important commonality among these models, relevant for the present study, is that they all examine trust development by modeling the temporal dimension underlying relationship building (Lewicki et al., 2006). Time may reflect a developmental process in which trust follows a given growth trajectory, or time may produce nonlinear changes in trust as a function of changes in the factors contributing to trust (Mitchell & James, 2001). The conceptual models mentioned above suggest several important issues when modeling trust development over time. First, trust often begins at a medium or high level, calling into question models of gradual or incremental trust development (Costa et al., 2015; McKnight & Chervany, 2006; Meyerson et al., 1996; van der Werff & Buckley, 2017). Thus, it is important to understand how affect will impact the likelihood that the trustor will trust before the trustor meets the trustee. Second, the initial trust judgements are often different from the stable knowledge-based

beliefs (Elsbach, 2004; McKnight et al., 1998). Thus, the roles of affect at the beginning of the trust relationship may be different from the roles of affect in more mature relationships. Third, when parties come to a higher level/stage of trust, they often identify with the other's values and goals and have emotional bonds between them (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Thus, it is important to understand how affect helps build and maintain the mutual understanding and appreciation of the goals of each other. Finally, trustors' perceived risk involved in the trust situations and perceived control of the situations can greatly impact the extent to which trust is initiated and increases (Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998). So, if affect can impact perceptions of risk and control, affect is also likely to impact the trust built between the trustor and trustee.

Taken together, trust theorists agree that it is important to explicitly incorporate the time dimension when investigating trust development in the organizational context (Lewicki et al., 2006; McKnight & Chervany, 2006). I argue that a model organizing different roles that affect can play according to the development phases of interpersonal trust should contribute much to the organizational literatures on trust and affect. In next section, I explain the phase model, which aims to summarize the main phases of trust development, maintenance, and disruption/repair that are elemental to the trust development models described above.

The Phase Model and Functions of Affect in Each Phase

The framework presented in this paper categorizes interpersonal trust development as it proceeds in five phases: *pre-encounter, impression formation, trust interaction, trust maintenance, and trust disruption/deterioration*. I argue that the main trust development mechanisms and the major relationship questions

in each of the five phases are different. Based on the AC perspective, I propose that in each phase, affect will have a distinct influence on trust development by influencing the cognitive mechanisms underlying trust formation (e.g., trustworthiness perception, perceived risk). And based on the SF perspective, I propose that there are different types of relational problems in each phase that affect helps individuals to address. Affect researchers have documented how interpersonal problems induce specific emotions and how the behavioral manifestations of the emotions trigger interpersonal interactions that can solve those interpersonal problems (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Morris & Keltner, 2000; Nesse, 1990). Below I first describe each of the five phases of interpersonal trust development. Then, based on the multiple streams of research from the organizational behavioral and psychological literatures on affect, I describe the core functions that affect may play in each phase. Table 1 summarizes the arguments according to each phase and the affect perspective.

Pre-encounter Phase

The pre-encounter phase is the phase in which individuals have not yet interacted with each other. This has been discussed in Mayer et al.'s (1995) and McKnight et al.'s (1998) models. Mayer et al. (1995) emphasized the importance of trust propensity, a dispositional willingness to rely on others. McKnight et al. (1998) discussed other types of dispositional trust such as trust stance, i.e., one's belief that others are typically well-meaning and reliable, and faith in humanity, i.e., one's belief that he/she will obtain better interpersonal outcomes by dealing with people as though they are well-meaning and reliable regardless of whether people are reliable or not. Consequently, affect is likely to have an intrapersonal impact but not an interpersonal impact in this phase.

Trait affectivity and willingness to trust. The concepts of propensity to trust, trust stance and faith in humanity are the three most commonly used personal traits incorporated in theories of trust development (Brown, Poole, & Rodgers, 2004; McKnight & Chervany, 2006; Schoorman et al., 2007). Meta-analysis has found that trust propensity was related to trust and all three perceived trustworthiness facets as trusting parties perceive more good reasons to trust (Colquitt et al., 2007). Conceptually, in explaining trust, these variables are quite similar to trust in that researchers are taking the concept to be explained and posting a general tendency toward it (Brown et al., 2004). Moving back in the chain of causality to explain trust as a function of a constellation of attributes grounded in the individual's core personality, Brown et al. (2004) argued that personality traits influence individual interaction styles, which in turn shape the experiences that build or undermine trust and the expectations about trust.

Following this logic, I argue that trait affect, i.e., positive affectivity and negative affectivity, could impact trust because they can impact individuals' baseline level of willingness to trust. Individual traits arise from and are maintained by interactions that the individual engages in with key others (Brown et al., 2004). Negative affectivity manifests in unpleasable engagement and aversive mood states such as anger, contempt, distress, and fear, whereas positive affectivity manifests in pleasurable engagement (Watson et al., 1988; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Persons who possess high negative affectivity tend to accentuate the negative aspect of all situations (Watson et al., 1988; Watson & Tellegen, 1985), which make them have a difficult adjustment in social interactions. Individuals characterized with negative affectivity tend to be critical, distrustful, and self-effacing, whereas individuals characterized with positive affectivity tend

to be extroverted, friendly, and socially connected (Brown et al., 2004; Carson, 1969). As a result, individuals high in negative affectivity may respond negatively toward potential interaction partners as compared to their more positively predisposed counterparts. In other words, negative affectivity will be negatively related to trust, whereas positive affectivity will be positively related to trust prior to encounter.

State fear and perceived risk. Research has shown that trust tends to matter the most in the contexts when the uncertainty (e.g. complexity and ambiguity) of unmet expectations is high, when the vulnerability of control (e.g. failure of formal contract) is high, when the stakes (e.g. financial loss) of unmet expectation or control failure are high, and when long-term interdependence (e.g. reciprocal relationship) is high (Li, 2012; Möllering, 2006). These factors are commonly viewed as risk involved in the trust experience (Mayer et al., 1995; Möllering, 2006). To trust means individuals put faith in others' behaviors, and perceived risk is the critical factor in determining a "leap of faith", i.e. the suspension of uncertainty (Möllering, 2006). The affect literature has found that people evaluate risk cognitively but they also react to it emotionally (Loewenstein, Weber, Hsee, & Welch, 2001). Thus, affect could influence trust development by impacting an individual's assessment of the context, especially the level of risk involved in the potential interaction.

The Risk-as-Feeling hypothesis postulates that responses to risky situations result in direct emotional reactions including feelings such as worry, fear, dread, or anxiety (Loewenstein et al., 2001). Although cognitive appraisals give rise to emotions and emotions influence appraisals, the two types of reactions have different determinants (Loewenstein et al., 2001). Thus, emotional reactions

to risks can diverge from cognitive evaluations of the same risks. Moreover, emotions often produce behavioral responses that depart from what individuals perceive as the best course of action (Loewenstein et al., 2001). In terms of feelings under risk (including the perceived risk involved in trusting), the overweighting of small probabilities of negative outcomes could lead to feelings of fear (Loewenstein et al., 2001). Fear can be defined as a strong emotion caused by great worry about something dangerous, painful, or unknown that is happening or might happen (Öhman, 1993; Plutchik, 2001). Based on the appraisal approach of emotions, fear is defined by three central appraisal themes that are conceptually related to risk perception: uncertainty, unpleasantness, and situational control (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). The characteristics of situations that make trust most valuable also suggest that individuals are most likely to experience fear beforehand. Fearful people tend to perceive negatives as unpredictable and under situational control, and thus make pessimistic judgments of future events (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). In addition, people can experience fear reactions without even knowing what they are afraid of (Loewenstein et al., 2001). They may experience a discrepancy between the fear they feel about a risk and their cognitive evaluation of the threat posed by that risk. Thus, fearful individuals will perceive greater risk in new situations beyond the cognitive evaluations of the risk. Based on the above reasoning, I propose that fear prior to encounter will lead to judgment of higher levels of risk involved in trust, which may in turn lead to lower willingness to trust.

Positive affect as motivation. Trust researchers generally assume high levels of trust are desirable and individuals are motivated to build trust. Yes, some scholars have pointed out that high levels of trust may not be necessary for parties

in the interaction under certain circumstances, such as when individuals are comfortable with exchanges governed by control or monitoring other than trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). I argue that motivation to build trust prior to an interaction is an important factor in determining trust building behaviors. According to Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964), people should be motivated to put forth effort if they believe that their effort will result in good performance (expectancy); that this performance will lead to certain outcomes (instrumentality) to which they assign a high positive values (valence). I propose that positive affect before an encounter could influence an individual's motivation to build trust by impacting whether individuals believe a trusting relationship with a potential interaction partner is attracting and desirable and whether they believe their behaviors could be effective in building trust.

The extent to which the outcomes are evaluated as positive is the result of which aspects and concepts of outcomes are brought to mind by the context (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). One cue with the power to influence cognitive evaluations of stimuli is positive affect (Erez & Isen, 2002). Some scholars have even suggested that positive affect may be a major determinant of the valence of outcomes (George & Brief, 1996; Isen, Johnson, Mertz, & Robinson, 1985). At the same time, positive feelings have been shown to enable individuals to categorize items, people, and situations more flexibly and creatively (Erez & Isen, 2002; Isen et al., 1985; Isen et al., 1992). Thus, those in positive moods should see more and varied ways by which their performance could be linked to rewards (i.e., higher instrumentality perceptions) and see a link between their effort and their likely performance (i.e., higher expectancy perceptions). Empirically, Erez and Isen (2002) found that positive affect has a facilitative effect on motivation by

influencing the cognitive processes underlying expectancy motivation. Considering these findings, I propose that individuals with positive affect in the pre-encounter stage will be relatively more motivated to build trust because they are more likely to think that high levels of trust are desirable and that their effort will be effective in building trust with potential partners.

Impression Formation Phase

The impression formation phase is the phase in which the trustor first meets the trustee (Elsbach, 2004). Elsbach (2004) highlighted the importance of the encounter stage in trust formation and suggested various methods to make an impression of trustworthiness. Research has suggested that trustors do automatically make judgments of the trustees' trustworthiness at first encounter (Todorov, 2008). For example, experimental research on initial impressions suggests that, within moments of a first encounter, individuals can form impressions of trustworthiness facets on the basis of trustee facial features (Todorov, Pakrashi, & Oosterhof, 2009; Willis & Todorov, 2006). Individuals are also sufficiently confident in these trustworthiness judgments that they are willing to base their decisions about trusting behavior on them (van der Werff & Buckley, 2017). If the trustors perceive trustees as lacking trustworthiness, trust building will be suspended or hindered.

How could affect impact trustworthiness perceptions in the impression formation phase? Focusing on interpersonal trust formation between members of dissimilar groups, Williams (2001) discussed that category-based beliefs about trustworthiness would interact with category-based affect to determine trust formation between members from dissimilar groups. In the present study, drawing on the AC perspective, I posit that positive and negative affect have an

intrapersonal effect on trust intentions by influencing initial trustworthiness judgments.

Starting from this phase, the trustor and trustee meet each other and they can build trust through social exchanges. Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) have argued that experiences in the early stages of a relationship can function as anchoring events to determine relationship rules for subsequent exchanges. Following the SF perspective, I argue that affective reactions in the impression formation phase are critical for trust development. Specifically, affective expressions by the trustee might serve as anchoring affective events influencing the trustor's emotions via emotional contagion, therefore laying the foundation for future trust development.

Positive affect and category-based processing. In the impression formation phase, the trustor can use a set of perceivable attributes available in the given situation (i.e., cues; appearance, pitch, loudness of voice) to judge the (not directly observable) traits of the trustee (i.e., trustworthiness facets) (Brunswik, 2003; Elsbach, 2004). Various factors can influence the cue sending and perceiving process (Brunswik, 2003; Elsbach, 2004; Karelaia & Hogarth, 2008). Theoretically, impression formation process is a continuum ranging from relatively category-based processes to relatively individuating processes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). The initial category-based processing occurs automatically upon the perception of a target individual, is extremely rapid, and is not influenced by a perceiver's accuracy-driven attention (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990).

Fiedler and colleagues proposed the accommodation-assimilation model and argued that positive mood promotes assimilation, i.e., a top-down processing approach in which one's internal knowledge structures are imposed onto the

external world (Fiedler, 2001; Fiedler, Nickel, Asbeck, & Pagel, 2003). Bless, Schwarz, and Wieland (1996) investigated how individuals in different moods perform in an impression formation task and found that being in a happy mood increases the likelihood that information is processed in the light of pre-existing general knowledge structures. Applying the accommodation-assimilation argument in trustworthiness judgement, Lount Jr (2010) found that positive mood promotes schema reliance: when available cues promoted trust, people in a positive mood increased their trust; when cues promoted distrust, people in a positive mood decreased their trust. As a result, I propose that positive affect promotes category-based processing mechanisms underlying trustworthiness judgments in the impression formation phase.

Negative affect and individuating processing. Using any single category is inherently likely to be less accurate than using the individual's whole range of noticeable attributes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). Sometimes when people use category-based processing, they come to negative and oversimplified outgroup categorizations, which result in unfair consequences for the targets. How can individuals undercut the category-based processing to use individuating processing? The key mechanism underlying the use of various impression-formation processes is proposed to be attention to target attributes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). To the extent that one's particular motivation increases the probability of perceiving target information as category inconsistent, it increases the probability that re-categorization processes and piecemeal integration processes will be utilized (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). Compared to positive affect, negative affect has in fact been demonstrated to increase individuals' ability to detect inconsistent cues as negative affect promotes a more accommodating,

externally focused processing style, i.e., a bottom-up processing approach in which internal knowledge structures are modified in accordance with external constraints (Fiedler, 2001; Fiedler et al., 2003). For example, Forgas and East (2008) found that negative mood increased people's skepticism and their ability to detect deception. In addition, Forgas (2011) found that impression formation judgments revealed clear mood and primacy main effects, as well as a mood by primacy interaction such that negative mood eliminated the primacy effect. Based on these findings, I propose negative affect will increase trustors' usage of individuating processing to make trustworthiness judgment.

Interplay between positive and negative affect. The affect literature has suggested that positive and negative affect can fluctuate over time and both be present within a time interval (Watson et al., 1988). Thus, it is possible that positive and negative affect interact to influence impression formation in the encounter stage. Recently scholars have been investigating the phenomenon of affective shift, the simultaneous decrease of negative affect and increase of positive affect (Bledow, Rosing, & Frese, 2013; Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, & Kühnel, 2011). Positive affect regulates whether cognition proceeds in a controlled, slow, and sequential model (low positive affect) or in an automatic, fast, and parallel model (high positive affect) (Baumann & Kuhl, 2005; Bledow et al., 2013). If positive affect is low, people can objectively analyze a situation and deliberate on potential courses of action; an increase in positive affect leads to behavioral activation so that previously developed intentions can be implemented (Bledow et al., 2013; Bledow et al., 2011). Negative affect regulates whether attention is narrow and focused on isolated elements (high negative affect) or is broad and inclusive of the context (low negative affect) (Baumann & Kuhl, 2002;

Bledow et al., 2013). If negative affect is high, situations or events that threaten a person's goals are examined in detail and incongruent information is processed in a sequential-analytical manner; if negative affect decreases, information processing moves away from isolated elements and becomes more inclusive of the larger context (Bledow et al., 2013; Bledow et al., 2011). The higher the level of negative affect that is first experienced and the higher the level of positive affect that is subsequently experienced, the more pronounced is the affective shift.

According to this model, an episode of negative affect is associated with a bottom-up model of cognitive processing that focuses on incongruent and unexpected information, therefore, a detailed and objective understanding of a situation can be developed (Baumann & DeSteno, 2010; Bless, Clore, et al., 1996; Spering, Wagener, & Funke, 2005). Negative affect draws attention to problems and signals that effort needs to be invested to solve the problem (Foo, Uy, & Baron, 2009). The detection of problems during the phase of negative affect can elicit incubation processes that result in deeper understanding and ideas at a later point in time (Sio & Ormerod, 2009). During a subsequent episode of positive affect, cognitive flexibility and activation increase and knowledge is processed in a top-down manner (Baumann & Kuhl, 2005). Thus, negative affect contributes to information processing and problem solving through a lagged process that depends on the subsequent presence of positive affect.

During the impression formation phase, negative affect at the beginning may help divert the attention to problems and therefore result in better understanding of the situation. Down-regulation of negative affect is associated with a change from a narrow and discrepancy-sensitive mode of information processing to a global mode of information processing in which a person can

access extensive networks of self- and environment-related information (Bledow et al., 2013; Bledow et al., 2011). Thus, better understanding of the trustee should be more pronounced in a situation that follows up-regulations of positive affect and down-regulation of negative affect. The idea is worth future investigation.

Mood as information. In addition to influencing the impression formation mechanisms, affect could also be used as information to be directly incorporated into the trustworthiness judgment. The literature on mood as information suggests that heuristic processing occurs when individuals are not very familiar with others and lack adequate information for systematic processing (Clore, Gasper, & Garvin, 2001; Schwarz, 1990). Positive affective states signal to individuals that the environment is lenient and potential rewards are present and thus motivate individuals to maintain such positive feelings, whereas negative affective states signal to individuals that the environment is threatening and thus compel the individuals to enact appropriate action and repair their negative feelings (Baumann & DeSteno, 2010; Frijda, 1987; Schwarz, 1990). How can feelings affect judgment directly when experienced as reactions to objects of judgment? It can be summarized in the affective judgment principle: when one is object focused, affective reactions may be experienced as liking or disliking, leading to higher or lower evaluation of that object of judgment (Clore et al., 2001). Abele and Petzold (1994) demonstrated that mood serves as a direct source of information to be incorporated into the judgment, and the final judgment is an averaging process of a mood-dependent global impression and of mood-independent stimulus information. Based on the theoretical findings mentioned above, I propose that, while interacting with partners, positive affect such as

happiness could directly increase judgment of trustworthiness whereas negative affect such as disliking could directly decrease judgment of trustworthiness.

Affective expressions as anchoring events. In the initial trust development stage, affect not only impacts trust development via an intrapersonal route, but it could also influence trust building through an interpersonal route. The importance of the Social Functional roles of emotions in trust development have been recognized in Williams' (2007) discussion of threat regulation as a specific dimension of interpersonal emotion management that fosters trust and effective cooperation.

The SF perspective, such as the Emotion as Social Information model (EASI) (Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef et al., 2010b), suggests that emotional expressions play an important role in resolutions of social problems in relationships because they are other-directed, intentional (although not always consciously controlled), communicative acts that organize social interactions (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Morris & Keltner, 2000). The two major routes through which emotional expressions affect observers' behavior are by triggering observers' inferential processes and/or their affective reactions (Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef et al., 2010b). First, the SF accounts of emotion suggests that senders' public displays of emotion communicate rich and important information to receivers including their orientations towards the relationship (Coté, 2005; Ekman & Friesen, 2003; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Knutson, 1996; Plutchik, 1980). Individuals are hardwired to pick up emotional signals from others and they rely on those signals to guide their own behavior (Elfenbein, Marsh, & Ambady, 2002; Keltner & Gross, 1999; Morris & Keltner, 2000). In other words, within social interactions, emotions communicate social intentions,

desired courses of action, and role-related expectations and behaviors (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Morris & Keltner, 2000). Moreover, a trustee's emotion displays could influence a trustor's feelings of various emotions via emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002; Barsade et al., 2003; Hatfield et al., 1993). Individuals have the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions of another person and consequently tend to experience converged emotions with others (Hatfield et al., 1993; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Emotional expressions can also evoke complementary and reciprocal emotions in others that help individuals respond to significant social events (Lelieveld, Van Dijk, Van Beest, & Van Kleef, 2012).

Based on affective events theory (Weiss & Beal, 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), affective expressions by the trustee can be viewed as a type of affective event that provides information to an observer (trustor) about the individual. Moreover, these affective events in the impression formation phase could function as anchoring events to set the affective tone for what may follow as the relationship progresses (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). In general, I argue that positive emotional expressions of the trustee tend to improve the trustor's moods and increase the trustor's opinion of him/her, whereas negative emotional expressions of the trustee would lead the trustor to experience unpleasant emotions and the trustor may then rate the trustee less favorably.

Trust Interaction Phase

The trust interaction phase has received considerable research attention in the trust literature. During this phase, trust is built through a process of reciprocal exchange comprising the iterative influence of one party's trust and trusting behavior on the other party's trust and trusting behavior (Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles,

2008; Korsgaard, Brower, & Lester, 2015). Reciprocal trust is based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which suggests that trust evolves over time as a function of interactions between exchange partners. The trust interactions are self-reinforcing in that a party will reciprocate the cooperative behaviors from the other party, leading to mutual resource investment and trust increase in the relationship (Searle, Weibel, & Den Hartog, 2011; Serva, Fuller, & Mayer, 2005). Through repeated interactions individuals can acquire personal information of others' needs, motives, and values and develop mutual understandings (Ferrin et al., 2008; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015; Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttila-Backman, & Lipsanen, 2011). The early experience in the interactions can lead to trust attitudes that are resilient to experiences that run counter to expectations later (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Korsgaard et al., 2015). Based on the SF perspective, I propose that affect, especially various emotions, determines trust development through impacting the resource exchange behaviors in this stage.

Mayer and colleagues (1995) argued that trust is developed through the feedback loop from the outcomes of risk taking behaviors to the perceived characteristics of the trustee. The reciprocal process of trust development implies that each party comes to some judgment about the ability, integrity, and benevolence of the other party (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Mayer et al., 1995). Based on the AC perspective, I propose that moods, which can reflect the affective tone of daily interactions, will influence cognitive attribution of trustworthiness to impact trust development.

In developing interpersonal trust between members from different organizations, the risks of opportunism, neglect of one's interests, and identity damage pose significant obstacles to developing trust and cooperation (Williams,

2007). Thus, trustors' perception of the level of risk involved in the trust situation, and their perceived control of the situation, could greatly impact the extent to which trust increases (Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998). According to emotional appraisals theory, perceptions of risk and control are closely related to many emotions such as anger and anxiety. Based on the AC perspective, I argue that because of various emotional appraisals, emotions could play an important role in impacting trust development.

In the trust interaction phase, cooperative behaviors and trustworthiness judgments are mutually reinforcing in that higher trustworthiness judgments lead to more trusting behaviors, which in turn lead to higher trustworthiness perceptions and trust intentions. As a result, based on the AC and SF perspectives, the influences of emotions and moods on trust development are intertwined.

Affect and trusting behaviors. Individuals in a dyad may not initially have the same trust levels, but they can achieve equilibrium in their resource choices after repeated interactions (Korsgaard et al., 2015). Research has documented that emotions involve several kinds of behaviors such as action tendencies (Frijda, 1987) and communicative behavior (Keltner & Ekman, 2000). Reciprocal trust development suggests a mutual influence process whereby the trust one party has in the other, through its effects on trusting or cooperative behaviors, influences the other party's trust (Ferrin et al., 2008; Korsgaard et al., 2015; Serva et al., 2005). The self-reinforcement nature of reciprocal trust implies an amplification effect resulting in an upward or downward spiral (Searle et al., 2011). I argue that affect could impact trust development through influencing trusting behaviors since a primary function of affective processing is to trigger approach or avoidance responses (Frijda, 1987).

Research on emotion as feedback system theory (Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall, & Zhang, 2007) suggests that prior emotional experience is likely to change future behavior toward its elicitor, that is, individuals start selecting actions based on anticipated emotional outcomes. Put more simply, previous affective experiences with an emotion elicitor teach people how to deal with the elicitor in the future. Evolutionary psychologists suggest that emotions promote adaptation by initiating approach and avoidance behaviors (Tooby & Cosmides, 2008). Positive emotions activate approach behaviors by validating prior actions and motivating pursuit of the same behaviors (Baumeister et al., 2007). Positive emotions while interacting with trustee and pleasant affective memories about past interactions with the trustee affirm the desirability, safeness, and utility of such interactions; in contrast, negative emotions makes avoidance behaviors more likely because people tend to avoid the target that triggered negative emotions previously (Baumeister et al., 2007). Based on this reasoning, I propose that positive affect triggers approach behaviors and negative affect triggers avoidance behaviors towards the trustee, which in turn impact interpersonal trust between them.

Moods and trustworthiness judgment. Based on the outcomes of their risk-taking behaviors, the trustor will update his/her perception of the trustee's trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995). Both social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and attribution theory (Kelley, 1967) illustrate this cognitive mechanism underlying trustworthiness perception and attribution. Several trust scholars have observed that affect could impact the processes of social information processing and attribution. For example, Jones and George (1998) discussed how affect could influence the way a person makes judgments

about the trustworthiness of others. Williams (2001) suggested that in intergroup interactions, category-based affect for the outgroup works together with attribution based on the results of cooperation to impact individuals' affective responses associated with the specific outgroup member, which in turn could impact the individual's trustworthiness perceptions of that outgroup member.

The affect infusion model (Forgas, 1995a, 2008; Forgas & George, 2001) suggests that mild, nonspecific moods often have a subtle and insidious influence on individuals' thought processes and behaviors in organizations. Affect infusion is likely to influence even basic behavior interpretation to the extent that making sense of observed behaviors requires some degree of inferential, substantive thinking (Forgas & George, 2001). The meaning of social acts is often ambiguous and subject to alternative interpretations; thus, the effects of moods on judgments are greater when the information is complex, unusual, or ambiguous and thus requires more extensive, substantive processing (Forgas, 1995a, 2008; Forgas & George, 2001). Substantive processing requires people to select, learn, and interpret novel information about a target and relate this information to pre-existing knowledge structures; moods can play a major role in substantive processing through its selective influence on the kind of information used in computing a judgment (Forgas, 1995a; Forgas & George, 2001).

In one experiment, authors asked happy or sad participants to view and judge videotaped interactions they themselves had participated in on an earlier occasion. A significant mood congruent bias was found (Forgas, Bower, & Krantz, 1984). For example, the same smile that may be interpreted as friendly and cooperative by a person in a good mood could be seen as superior and condescending by another individual experiencing a bad mood (Forgas et al.,

1984). In subsequent experiments, Forgas and colleagues further confirmed that happy people tend to make more positive judgments and sad people tend to be more critical based on the same information (Forgas, 1992, 1995b; Forgas & Bower, 1987). In the trust development context, based on the affect infusion model, I would propose that mood will moderate attributions of trustworthiness based on the outcomes of trustee's behaviors. Specifically, individuals with negative moods will make more critical attributions of trustworthiness based on the outcomes, whereas individuals with positive moods will make more optimistic attributions.

Appraisals of emotions, trustworthiness judgment and trust intention.
A growing body of research suggests that incidental emotions (i.e., emotions stemming from a prior, unrelated event) produce judgments that are congruent with their cognitive appraisals (Keltner, Ellsworth, & Edwards, 1993; Lerner & Keltner, 2000). Research has also demonstrated that discrete integral emotions (i.e., event-specific emotions) have a significant impact on judgment that is even stronger than incidental emotional states (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997). According to emotional appraisal theory, emotions are elicited and differentiated based on a person's subjective evaluation or appraisal of the personal significance of a situation, object, or event on several dimensions or criteria (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Scherer, 1999). Novelty, intrinsic pleasantness, certainty or predictability, goal significance, agency, coping potential, and compatibility with social or personal standards are all commonly suggested dimensions (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Scherer, 1999).

Focusing on coping ability or controllability, researchers have investigated how emotions with different appraisals of controllability influence trust. Control

as an aspect of coping ability relates to the assessment of how well an event or its outcomes can by influenced or controlled by people (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Scherer, 1999). Dunn and Schweitzer (2005) investigated that happiness and gratitude - emotions with positive valence - increase trust, whereas anger - an emotion with negative valence - decreases trust. More specifically, they found that emotions characterized by other-person control (anger and gratitude) and weak control appraisals (happiness) influence trust significantly more than emotions characterized by personal control (pride and guilt) or situational control (sadness) (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005). Liu and Wang (2010) found that the influence of anger (a negative emotion with appraisal of other-person control) on perceived importance of competitively oriented goals was mediated by distrust, but not trust, whereas the influence of compassion (a positive emotion with appraisal of situational control) on perceived importance of cooperatively oriented goals was mediated by trust, but not distrust.

Certainty is another important dimension of emotional appraisals as it is related with information processing. For example, according to attribution theory (Heider, 1958), careful determination of the causal structure of event is the result of uncertainty. Research on mood as input also suggests that positive mood leads to heuristic rather than systematic processing because it provides a sense of subjective certainty (Martin, Ward, Achee, & Wyer, 1993). Appraisal theory has shown that the experience of some emotions is accompanied by feeling certain, understanding what is happening in the current situation, and feeling able to predict what will happen next (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988a, 1988b; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Emotions such as anger, disgust, happiness, and contentment occur with the sense of certainty; the emotions of hope, surprise, fear, worry, and,

to some extent, sadness, are associated with the sense of uncertainty (Smith &

Ellsworth, 1985).

The literature on appraisal congruency effects (Keltner et al., 1993; Lerner

& Keltner, 2000) suggests that the certainty associated with emotions should

affect people's certainty in subsequent situations. Specifically, the experience of

certainty-associated emotions should lead to more certainty in subsequent

judgments than should the experience of uncertainty-associated emotions. Tiedens

and Linton (2001) demonstrated that emotions characterized by certainty

appraisals promote heuristic processing, whereas emotions characterized by

uncertainty appraisals result in systematic processing. Recently some researchers

have linked the certainty appraisal of emotions with trust. For example, Myers and

Tingley (2016) found that anxiety, a low certainty emotion, has a negative impact

on trust; anger and guilt, two emotions that differ in their control-appraisals but

induce the same high level of certainty, appear to have no clear effect on trusting

behavior.

Taken together, emotional appraisal dimensions (e.g., controllability and

certainty) seem likely to impact trustworthiness judgments and trust intentions. It

will be important to further investigate the relationships between various

emotional appraisals and interpersonal trust development.

Trust Maintenance Phase

After a period of trust building, a phase of stability in trust levels is likely

(Rousseau et al., 1998). Empirically, scholars have found that the trajectory of

change in newcomer trust intentions is at its most stable after a rapid development

period following the first encounter (van der Werff & Buckley, 2017). The self-

regulation of willingness to be vulnerable in workplace relationships involves

vigilant monitoring of others and the environment over time, which may

undermine and distract from steady changes in trust intentions (Kanfer &

Ackerman, 1989). As suggested above, once trust development is set in motion,

individuals are likely to eventually reach a balance in resource exchange in the

relationship (Ferrin et al., 2008; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015; Korsgaard et al.,

2015) and early experience can lead to trust attitudes that are resilient to

experiences that run counter to expectations later (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010;

Korsgaard et al., 2015). Whether, and to what extent, the trust levels are resilient

to changes, i.e., stabilized, as a function of critical events is likely to

systematically differ over time and events. Given that most social exchanges are

voluntary, if the outcomes are not beneficial, individuals are likely to seek to exit

the relationship (Blau, 1964; Korsgaard et al., 2015; Vanneste, Puranam, &

Kretschmer, 2014). Maintaining trust is likely to involve individuals continuing to

communicate their interests, values and needs.

In the trust maintenance phase, the problem of maintaining reciprocal

cooperation is critical (Lewicki et al., 2006; Segal & Sobel, 2007). Emotions

related to rewarding others for cooperation and promoting cooperative behaviors

are gratitude, sympathy, and empathy. I propose that these emotions could play

important roles in determining whether trust is maintained or not. In addition to

the emotions mentioned above, I also posit that emotional intelligence (Mayer,

Salovey, & Caruso, 2004; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) is important because

individuals with high emotional intelligence will be more likely to reciprocate and

maintain trust because they are able to use emotional information to guide their

thinking and behaviors in this phase. Finally, liking, defined as the global

affective attachment that one individual has for his or her interaction partner, has

been shown to play essential roles in cooperative relations (Nicholson, Compeau, & Sethi, 2001). McAllister (1995) discussed the role of emotional bonds and argued that mutual emotional investment in a relationship provides the basis of affect-based trust. Thus, I suggest liking as an emotional bond that may induce strong trust maintenance.

Gratitude, sympathy, and empathy. Trust and related risk-taking behaviors in a relationship are obviously vulnerable to competition, greed, and defection. Yet some emotions are effective in initiating and maintaining cooperative behaviors. When receiving help from other people, people are likely to experience and express gratitude as an affective reaction (McCullough, Kilpatrick, Emmons, & Larson, 2001; Shell & Eisenberg, 1992). According to the moral affect theory of gratitude (McCullough et al., 2001), individuals experience gratitude most typically when they perceive that a benefactor has acted to promote their well-being. In this way gratitude can be viewed as a response to other people's generosity. Thus, gratitude motivates beneficiaries to engage in prosocial behavior (functioning as a moral motive). When expressed to one's benefactors, gratitude motivates benefactors to behave more prosocially in the future. Based on this reasoning, gratitude can be viewed as rewarding others for cooperation.

Empathy has been defined as one's vicarious experience of another person's emotional state (Eisenberg et al., 1994) and as an emotional reaction characterized by feelings of compassion, tenderness, and sympathy (Batson & Oleson, 1991). Eisenberg and colleagues (1994) distinguished empathy from sympathy, which is defined as an emotional reaction that is based on apprehending another person's emotional state or condition and that involves feelings of concern and sorrow for the other person. Among the many roles that

empathy and sympathy appear to play in the moral domain, the most prominent is to promote prosocial behavior (McCullough et al., 2001). People who come to experience empathy and sympathy about an interaction partner in distress are more likely to attempt to render aid to the person (Batson et al., 1991), more likely to be lower in aggressive and antisocial behavior (Miller & Eisenberg, 1988), and more willing to forgive individuals who have committed transgressions against them (McCullough et al., 1998; McCullough, Worthington Jr, & Rachal, 1997). As a result, empathy and sympathy can be treated as emotions promoting cooperation and smoothing interaction after even transgressions.

Emotional intelligence. As suggested above (in the discussion of affective expressions as anchoring events), based on the EASI model (Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef et al., 2010b), it is possible that the trustee's emotional expressions affect the trustor's behavior by triggering inferential processes and/or affective reactions in the trustor. The predictive strength of these two processes, which may inspire different behaviors, depend on the observer's information processing and on social-relational factors (Van Kleef, 2009). Two of the central skills in the four-branch ability model of emotional intelligence relate to the accurate recognition and adequate regulation of one's own and others' emotions (Mayer et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 2001). Clearly, many of the interpersonal effects mentioned above have assumed that individuals perceive and react to their partner's emotional state. However, people vary in their ability to accurately recognize emotions in others (Mayer et al., 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). There is some evidence that successful decoding of emotion is an important factor in negotiating interpersonal relationships (Elfenbein, 2007; Elfenbein, Curhan, Eisenkraft, Shirako, & Brown, 2009; Elfenbein, Der Foo, White, Tan, & Aik,

2007). Meanwhile, individuals who successfully navigate social decision making situations are likely to be those who know when and how to show particular emotions (Mayer et al., 2001) . Importantly, successful emotion regulation requires not just showing the right emotion at the right time, but also showing the right emotion in the right way (Van Kleef et al., 2010b). Research has shown that emotional expressivity, which could enhance the recognizability of one's emotions by others, facilitates trust and cooperation (Boone & Buck, 2003). Thus, individuals with high emotional intelligence will be more likely to reciprocate and maintain trust because they are able to use emotional information to guide thinking and behaviors in this phase.

Liking. Liking is an emotional connection that one feels for another that goes beyond the mere acceptance of a competent interaction partner (Nicholson et al., 2001). Interpersonal trust is enhanced by liking because individuals attribute more favorable motives to the liked people, and also to the actions that builds trust (McAllister, 1995). Essentially, liking acts as an emotional bond that nurtures trust (McAllister, 1995; Nicholson et al., 2001). McAllister (1995) emphasized the importance of affective attachment and emotional investment in developing affect-based trust in the long-term relationship. To study trust building in long-term channel relationships, Nicholson, et al. (2001) found that liking's role is richer and qualitatively different from that of the more cognitive antecedents of trust, and moreover, as the relationship ages, liking takes the foreground in trust development, while more cognitive antecedents recede into background. Thus, the extent to which the trustor and trustee in a relationship have liking towards each other is likely to be critical in maintaining interpersonal trust.

Trust Disruption/Deterioration Phase

In some relationships, trust decline or deterioration may occur naturally as an interpersonal relationship evolves, whereas in other relationships trust may be disrupted abruptly, e.g., by a transgression or a violation (Jones & George, 1998; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). With respect to the latter, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) suggested that in the aftermath of a violation, a trustor will pursue one of three outcomes: to terminate the relationship, renegotiate the relationship and encourage it to develop on a different basis, or restore the relationship to its former state. In other words, when a transgression occurs, there may be a change in the relationship rules and the trust levels. In this process, a trustor whose trust has been violated may feel anger and the trustee who has violated trust may feel guilt (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). Building on the SF perspective of emotions, I propose that anger and guilt could facilitate individuals to revise and adjust relationship norms.

Anger and guilt in trust disruption. Trust violation as a critical event shapes subsequent interaction rules via changing the affective reactions and memory towards the partner (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). The trustor often feels and displays anger in response to others' actions that undermine cooperation (Morris & Keltner, 2000; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). The innate action tendency of anger is to attack the agent held to be blameworthy for the offense (Lazarus, 1991a). When individuals feel anger after a transgression, anger may then provoke an intention to decrease an unwanted response from wrongdoer through punishment and retaliation behaviors (Liu & Wang, 2010). In analyzing the role of anger along with the role of causal attribution in trust repair, Tomlinson and Mayer (2009) noted that anger incites the injured person to undertake self-protective actions with respect to the

trustee. Individuals not only feel but also display anger to the wrongdoers.

Displaying anger in a relationship can help demonstrate that the individual's

welfare and interests have been undermined by the other party's behaviors.

Studies of people's espoused reasons for displaying anger have found that people

express anger to change others' behavior or extract a favor (Averill, 1983). Taken

together, anger is a natural emotional reaction to having one's trust violated.

When the trustor feels anger, his/her behaviors are changed to prevent future

violations and protect self. Meanwhile, the display of anger could signal to the

trustee that he/she needs to change the behaviors. In other words, anger (felt and

displayed) can have a function role after trust violation in that it may help adjust

future exchange behaviors.

At the same time, the trustee may feel guilty about his or her wrongdoings.

Guilt is an unpleasant emotional state associated with possible objections to one's

own actions, inactions, or intentions (Baumeister, Stillwell, & Heatherton, 1994).

According to Baumeister et al. (1994) interpersonal approach to guilt, guilt arises

from transgressions and positive inequities. In particular, guilt patterns appear to

be strongest, most common, and most consistent in the context of communal

relationships, which are characterized by expectations of mutual concern

(Baumeister et al., 1994; Clark & Mils, 1993). After transgressions, guilt could

motivate the wrongdoers to treat partners well and avoid future transgressions,

minimize inequities, enable less powerful partners to get their way, and

redistribute emotional distress (Baumeister et al., 1994). Thus, guilt can be viewed

as preventing future defection and therefore encouraging trust and cooperation.

Frustration in trust deterioration. In addition to the radical change

process following a trust violation discussed above, there is also a deterioration

process of trust without transgression in a relationship. For example, Butler (1983) found that when one party signals positive expectations or favorable attitudes to another, but expectations are not reciprocated, trust spirals downwards. During the trust deterioration process, individuals are engaging in a downward spiral of resource exchange. I propose that frustration is the key emotional mechanism underlying the downward spirals of trust.

The trust deterioration route suggests that individuals reduce or even cease risk-taking behaviors within relationship. A reason for this decline, I argue, is that individuals are not able to fulfill their personal goals in the current relationship (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). The term "goal" does not necessarily suggest purposeful intent of the trustor. Personal goals are the standard against which a trustor evaluates whether the environmental changes and trust events facilitate personal well-being (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Trustors may have multiple goals for their subjective well-being, and when goal-related expectations are confirmed, the trustee is likely to experience a sense of fulfillment in a relationship. In the organizational context, individuals have many different personal goals, most of which are related to their developmental demands such as growth, autonomy, achievement, and intimacy (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). Individuals may rely on their emotional states to inform them of whether their goals are achieved, blocked, or in conflict with another central goal (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Lazarus, 1991b). Specifically, people may interpret their positive affect as a sign that they have attained or made progress toward their goals and may interpret their negative affect as a sign that they have not attained or made progress toward their goals (Frijda, 1988; Martin et al., 1993).

When their goal-related expectations are not confirmed, individuals will typically experience emotion frustration. Frustration is an emotional response to opposition. Related to anger and disappointment, it arises from the perceived resistance to the fulfillment of an individual goal (Dollard, Miller, Doob, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939; Fox & Spector, 1999). Once individuals experience frustration in the relationship, they might interpret it as suggesting that their resource investment in the relationship does not facilitate their personal goals and in turn they may begin to withhold or withdraw their positive behaviors within the relationship. Then, the reciprocal trust approach suggests that when there is an imbalance in exchanges, individuals will adjust their own behaviors and attitudes to conform to those of the other party, leading to a downward spiral of trust, i.e., trust deterioration (Butler, 1983; Korsgaard et al., 2015). Based on this reasoning, I propose that frustration could help individuals consider whether they need to adjust during the incremental trust deterioration process.

Table 1 The Roles of Affect Based on the Phase Model of Trust Development

The Phase Model	Trustor's Effect	Trustee's Effect
Pre-encounter *Affect is likely to have an intrapersonal impact but not an interpersonal impact in this phase.*	The AC perspective a. Trait affectivity can impact trust toward potential interaction partners (Brown et al., 2004). b. The feeling of fear bias the assessment of risk of trust toward potential interaction partners (Loewenstein et al., 2001). c. Positive affect could motivate individuals to build trust (Erez & Isen, 2002).	
Impression formation *Affect is likely to have an intrapersonal impact on trustworthiness perceptions and an interpersonal impact on exchange rules governing future interactions.*	The AC perspective a. Positive affect promotes category-based trustworthiness judgement (Fiedler, 2001). b. Negative affect promotes trustors' usage of individuating processing to make trustworthiness judgment (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). c. Positive and negative affect may work together to impact judgment of trustee's trustworthiness (Bledow et al., 2011). d. Moods work as direct information of trustworthiness judgment (Clore et al., 2001).	The SF perspective a. Affective expressions of trustee could work as the anchoring affective events (Lelieveld et al., 2012)
Trust interaction *Affect is likely to impact the reciprocal exchange process of trust development in which affect can influence cooperative and risk-taking behaviors and*	The SF perspective a. Affect influences the resources individuals choose to exchange, i.e., cooperative and risk-taking behaviors in the relationship (Baumeister	The SF perspective a. Affect influences the resources individuals choose to exchange, i.e., cooperative and risk-taking behaviors in the relationship (Baumeister

The Phase Model	Trustor's Effect	Trustee's Effect
trustworthiness judgments based on the outcomes of exchanges.	et al., 2007; Frijda, 1988). The AC perspective a. Moods impact cognitive attributions underlying trustworthiness judgments through substantial processing (Forgas, 1995a). b. Emotions impact cognitive attributions underlying trustworthiness judgments based on different emotional appraisals (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003).	et al., 2007; Frijda, 1988).
Trust maintenance *Affect is likely to impact the extent to which the trustor and trustee continue sharing their interests, values and needs to maintain their trust relationship.*	The SF perspective a. The display of emotions of gratitude, sympathy, and empathy rewards cooperation (McCullough et al., 2001). b. High emotional intelligence facilitates trust maintenance (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). c. Liking as a global attachment acts as an emotional bond that nurtures trust (Nicholson et al., 2001).	The SF perspective a. The display of emotions of gratitude, sympathy, and empathy rewards cooperation (McCullough et al., 2001). b. High emotional intelligence facilitates trust maintenance (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). c. Liking as a global attachment acts as an emotional bond that nurtures trust (Nicholson et al., 2001).
Trust disruption or Deterioration *Affect is likely to impact how the trustor and trustee re-negotiate the norms and rules of exchanges.*	The SF perspective a. Anger promotes the creation and enforcement of new exchange rules (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). b. Feelings of frustration lead to a downward spiral of trust (Fox & Spector, 1999)	The SF perspective a. Guilt promotes the creation and enforcement of new exchange rules (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009).

Discussion

From the time of the affective revolution in organizational behavior research, we have seen expanding research attention to the psychology of emotion in many domains. The field of trust development provides a rich context for the study of affect. Although there are some conceptual studies of the role of affect in the experience of trust (Jones & George, 1998; Williams, 2001, 2007), they have not focused specifically or extensively on the question of how interpersonal trust is developed, maintained, and lost or restored within organizations.

Based on prominent models of trust development, this study first presented a phase model to describe the development processes of interpersonal trust. With this phase model, this study suggested that it is important to recognize different roles that affect can play according to the temporal stage of interpersonal trust relationships. Drawing on the organizational literature on affect in the workplace and the psychological literature on affect in cognition, motivation, and interpersonal relations, I articulated how various affective mechanisms phase in, out, and back in again as relationships are initiated, develop, and perhaps are even disrupted and restored.

This study also recognized and integrated theories and findings from both the AC perspective and the SF perspective. Thus, it may help provide insight into how affect impacts trust development via the intrapersonal route, the interpersonal route, and both. The study also recognizes that a trust relationship includes both the trustor and trustee, which permits a consideration of whose emotions are influencing trust formation, and during what phase. Thus, this framework may provide valuable insight into how affect can be integrated into existing

understanding of trust formation via attribution theory and the social exchange theory.

When reviewing the plausible affective mechanisms, I used my judgment in attempting to identify a relatively parsimonious set of mechanisms through which affect can influence trust. I have attempted to position a relatively large number of lines of research on affect and trust into a framework comprising five phases of trust development. The large number of mechanisms included in the model reflects the large number and diversity of affective mechanisms identified in the literatures which may explain the development of trust within organizations. I hope that by integrating the relatively disconnected literatures on trust development and affect in the workplace, this model contributes novel insights and a coherent understanding of the important, multi-faceted, dynamic, and yet under-recognized, role that affect plays in the development of trust. Accordingly, I conclude this paper with a few thoughts on potential novel insights for trust scholars studying moods/emotions and on methodology that suits the research question.

Implications for Future Research

In reviewing the research on affect and trust development, developing the integrative framework, and considering the implications of the framework, I also identified several important and promising directions for future research. First, in much of the research reviewed here, I found that moods and emotions were aggregated into broad categories of positive and negative affect, focusing primarily on valence. Future research on emotion and affect should complement or transcend the basic model of positive and negative affect. In this paper, moving from the valance dimension of affect, I have acknowledged that other dimensions

of emotions including certainty and controllability appraisals could also impact trust development (e.g., Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Myers & Tingley, 2016). As a result, I encourage future research on emotions and trust to develop a more nuanced, finer-grained conceptualization of emotions by considering different emotional appraisals.

Second, in addition to considering different emotional appraisals, I also suggest that trust researchers can look to the work of emotion scholars who go beyond global dimensions to differentiate effects of discrete emotions. For example, Lazarus et al. (2001) discussed the roles of emotions (e.g., envy, compassion, pride, relief, etc.) in organizational life and argued that each emotion entails different core-relational themes. Recent research on envy in organizations has identified ways through which envy can result in different interpersonal behavior including prosocial behavior and social undermining (Duffy, Scott, Shaw, Tepper, & Aquino, 2012; Tai, Narayanan, & McAllister, 2012). In discussing workplace relationships, Methot, Melwani, and Rothman (2017) posited that envy can impact the formation of ambivalent and negative relationships in the workplace. Since trust is built through trusting and cooperative behaviors in exchange, it is worth investigation of whether envy can impact interpersonal trust. Based on the phase model, future research can investigate whether and in which phase each discrete emotion can impact trust development.

Third, following the AC perspective in this paper, I have mainly focused on the magnitude or degree of affect, and its influence on trust. However, variability and systematic change in emotional states also provide unique meanings (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective events theory (Weiss & Beal, 2005; Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996) suggests that individuals' perceptions and behaviors are determined by moment-by moment variations in the way they feel at work. In addition, these variations in emotions and moods can lead to the formation of more long-term attitudes (Ashkanasy, 2003; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Moreover, scholars have suggested that systematic changes in attitudes are likely to trigger and contribute to employees' sense-making process, which, in turn, uniquely shape important outcomes for employees (Chen et al., 2011). It is possible that variation and systematic change in the affective states could exert unique impact on trust development beyond the mere levels of affect. For example, variability in the affective states can inform individuals that the environment is unpredictable, which can hinder approach-based behaviors. Systematic increase in positive affective states could inform individuals that the environment is nice and friendly, which can promote approach-based behaviors. Taken together, I suggest that trust researchers look beyond the simple conceptualization of levels of emotions when following the AC perspective in interpersonal trust development.

Fourth, as noted in this review, previous conceptual work and empirical investigations on affect and trust tend to utilize the AC perspective (e.g., Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Jones & George, 1998; Lount Jr, 2010; Williams, 2001). I suggest that trust scholars should pay greater attention to the SF perspective of affect. The SF perspective is rooted in the observation that people live in dynamic social environments and that this can cause certain patterns of emotions (Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Van Kleef et al., 2010b). Based on the SF perspective, emotion-driven behaviors can help solve relational problems embedded in various social contexts (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Researchers in the

organizational behavior area have been recognizing the importance and values of the Social Functions of emotions. For example, Morris and Keltner (2000) integrated the SF perspective of emotions in negotiation research, and Methot et al. (2017) examined different types of work relationships based on the SF perspective of emotions. I suggest that the SF approach can be used to provide numerous valuable new insights regarding emotion-behavior patterns in interpersonal relations. Thus, it will be useful to test more specific, descriptive models concerning benefits of certain forms of emotional expressions in trust development.

Fifth, while reviewing the literature on affect and trust, it became evident to me that both trustor's affect and trustee's affect are important. Previous studies on reciprocal trust have provided important insights into the "bottom-up" processes whereby the characteristics, behavior, and perceptions of individuals interacting with each other over time lead to an emergent state of mutual trust at the dyadic level (though they have tended not to incorporate affect dynamics) (Korsgaard et al., 2015). In this paper, I discussed the emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1993, 1994) in the impression formation phase, yet it is also worthwhile to note that this contagion should also occur in subsequent phases. It is also possible that emotional contagion could impact the extent to which interpersonal trust becomes mutual trust at the dyadic level. Thus, the phase model could provide guidance into how and when, in the relationship development process, affective experiences and exchanges could shift the analysis from the individual and interpersonal level to the dyadic level of interpersonal trust. Thus, based on the phase model, future research can investigate how emotional dynamics influence the emergence (or not) of mutual trust.

Finally, the interpersonal analysis of affect does not assume a tight chain of necessity or sufficiency. In other words, there is no claim that emotional expressions solve problems always or even most of the time. I suggest that future research could investigate factors moderating the interpersonal functions of emotions on trust development. For instance, Van Kleef (2009) provided a model of emotion as social information and posited that an observer's information processing and social-relational factors could moderate the strength of emotional expression on the observer's behavior. In the present paper, I discussed the role of emotional intelligence. However, other moderators and contingencies need research attention.

Methodological Recommendations

Trust scholars have been relatively successful in using simulations and manipulations to study the role of affect in laboratory settings (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Forgas & East, 2008; Lount Jr, 2010). This work should continue as this is a superior design for assessing causality and testing mediation. Yet, the ecological and external validity of laboratory designs can also be limited. The discussion below offers some suggestions on research methods to study the role of affect in trust development.

One tool that has been employed to capture social life 'as it is lived' is the experience sampling methodology (ESM) (also referred to as ecological momentary assessment or diary method). Participants are asked to report on their current cognitive and emotional states at frequent intervals (randomly, episodically, or at time intervals signaled from the researcher) over some period (Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010; Weiss & Beal, 2005). The ESM gives trust researchers opportunities to collect detailed,

accurate and multi-faceted insights into an array of social behaviors, and cognitive and affective states, as they occur within their natural settings (Searle, 2012). Thus, the ESM would assist in the systematic examination of the immediate and longer-term effects of affect, which would give us unique insights to fundamental questions such as the interplay of affect and cognition underlying trust development and repair (Searle, 2012).

Another relatively new tool is the continuous rating assessment method (Gabriel & Diefendorff, 2015). This method enables scholars to capture phenomena at the within-person level of analysis, tracking how constructs such as emotions, motivation, and performance vary across measurement occasions (Gabriel & Diefendorff, 2015). Gabriel and Diefendorff (2015) designed a continuous rating study that manipulated customer behavior to determine how momentary shifts in the social context altered participants' felt emotions and their use of surface acting and deep acting. They were able to depict for the first time how customer behavior causally altered the trajectories of these emotion processes within a single performance episode (Gabriel & Diefendorff, 2015).

Moving from the quantitative end of research methods to the qualitative end, I suggest more tools to explore the role of affect in trust development. An advantage of qualitative research is the ability to collect data unconstrained by prior expectations about the variables that can be examined (Becker, 1996; Locke, 2001). Emotion is socially and culturally embedded, thus it is important to obtain rich description about how emotion manifests itself in different cultures (Mesquita & Leu, 2007; Morris & Keltner, 2000). Qualitative methods such as interviews and participant observations would be particularly suitable for this task. For example, open-ended interview methods could be used to investigate the affective

components of a trust building activity that participants experienced moments previously.

Overall, given the strengths and limitations inherent in each of these research approaches, it makes sense to consider the application of several methods in the same study. This can be accomplished by combining both quantitative methods and qualitative methods.

Practical Implications

The affective mechanisms mentioned in the conceptual framework are also likely to provide valuable practical implications. The core assumption of the Phase Model is that individuals' affective experiences (e.g., emotions, moods, trait affect, emotional intelligence) are important for trust development. The overall implication for managers who want to build trust-based work relationships and/or work environments is that trust building should also involve close attention to employees' affective experiences. Since the Phase Model delineates different affective mechanisms according to different stages of a relationship, it can inform managers how to direct their attention and effort to the most relevant affective mechanisms to promote trust in the different phases of trust development. For example, the Phase Model suggests that we can promote a trustworthiness image and elicit positive emotions (which promote category-based processing of impression formation) at the same time to better develop trust at the impression formation phase.

Conclusion

Research on emotion in the workplace has radically changed our understanding of people's behaviors and experience within organizations. To understand how individuals' emotion influences trust development within

organizations, this paper organizes the roles of affect, according to either the AC

perspective or the SF perspective, into a framework comprising five phases of

trust development. This model aims to synthesize the current best theory and

evidence to articulate how affect dynamically influences interpersonal trust

development, both intrapersonally and interpersonally, from before a relationship

begins, through trust development, maturation, and deterioration.

Chapter 3 An Experience Sampling Study of How Supervisor-triggered

Newcomer Anxiety Mediates the Relationship between Supervisor

Interactional Justice and Newcomer Trust in Supervisor

Introduction

A study by networking site LinkedIn (2016) found that, on average, young people jump jobs four times in their first decade out of college. And other studies have found that professionals tend to have an average of 11.7 different jobs over their careers (The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). Given the frequency with which people are joining and rejoining organizations, it is important for both organizations and employees to understand factors that help newcomers adjust to their work surroundings and acquire knowledge, attitudes and behaviors to perform effectively (i.e., organizational socialization, see Wanberg, 2012).

The research on organizational socialization has argued that the context of people relations and interactions is crucial for newcomers' adjustment (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). Newcomers are expected to establish successful and satisfying work relationships with leaders, co-workers, and other organization members in the encounter stage of organizational socialization in which newcomers enter the new organizations for the first time (Chao et al., 1994; Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987). In the encounter stage, given supervisors' role in managing employees' daily work, newcomers are likely to be motivated to develop a satisfying relationship with their supervisors. It is evident that newcomer trust in supervisor has a profound impact on various aspects of newcomer adjustment such as job performance, organizational commitment, and even newcomer creativity (Harris, Li, Boswell, Zhang, & Xie, 2014; Lapointe, Vandenberghe, & Boudrias, 2014; Saks & Gruman, 2012; Schaubroeck, Peng, &

Hannah, 2013). Thus, in their daily interactions with their supervisors, newcomers may seek to answer a vital question: how much should I trust my supervisor?

What factors can impact the development of newcomer trust in supervisor? Based on Social Exchange Theory (SET, Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and the relationship-based perspective of trust development (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), scholars have found that trust is an outcome of favorable social exchanges between employees and their supervisors, and that supervisors' organizational justice behaviors strongly impact employees' trust in them (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Frazier, Johnson, Gavin, Gooty, & Snow, 2009). Justice fosters a sense of trust on the part of employees because it leads employees to see the relationship with their leaders as beyond the standard economic contract such that two parties operate based on care and consideration in the relationships (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Colquitt et al., 2013; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Moreover, interactional justice tends to have a larger impact on trust as compared to distributive and procedural justice (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Colquitt et al., 2013; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Although previous studies have provided valuable insights into the positive effects of supervisors' interactional justice on employees' trust, including research using the experimental and longitudinal research designs, they have often neglected the dynamics of trust development, ignored the role of emotions in the social exchange processes that result in trust, and paid little attention to factors that might moderate the impact of justice effects. Specifically, some trust scholars have argued that we should pay more attention to the time dimension underlying trust development, i.e., how trust develops from a lower level/stage to a higher

level/stage (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Lewicki et al., 2006; McKnight & Chervany, 2006). Unfortunately, previous research on trust development tends to focus on the ultimate level of employee trust in supervisor that was formed without investigating how trust evolved from the initial state. Since trust development is at its essence a process, scientific understanding of trust development is likely to benefit from inquiries that consider how supervisors' interactional justice impacts the extent to which newcomers' trust intentions change day-by-day (e.g., improve or decline) through daily newcomer-supervisor interactions, in addition to the ultimate trust level that newcomers form towards their supervisors.

Second, SET offers a compelling explanation for the justice-trust relationship, however it is largely cognitive, revolving around the rational assessments of exchange quality (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and tending to ignore the fact that social exchanges and trust development are also, in essence, affective experiences (Jones & George, 1998; Lawler & Thye, 1999). As noted by Lawler and Thye (1999, p. 219), "emotions are part of and can alter the context of exchange as well as be caused and produced by the exchange process and/or the results of negotiated exchanges." Thus, it will be valuable to consider the role of newcomer emotions in the development of newcomer trust in supervisor.

Finally, a recent meta-analysis by Colquitt et al. (2013) found that justice effects differ from study to study and artifacts such as unreliability and sampling error are unable to explain most of the effect size variation. Scholars have encouraged justice researchers to investigate more closely the potential environmental and individual moderators of justice effects (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006; Colquitt et al., 2013; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Newcomer

interactions reflect a context in which supervisors' justice behaviors are likely to have a very important impact (since there is typically no prior relationship and therefore trust is being created from scratch), and therefore it will be particularly valuable to explore factors that may strengthen or suppress the impact of justice on trust in that context.

To address these limitations in existing research, I intend to investigate how supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety mediates the relationship between supervisor interactional justice and newcomer trust in supervisor, using an experience sampling method. In addition, I investigate whether newcomer agreeableness, a personality trait closely linked to social exchanges and relationship development, can moderate the above relationships. In this study, I focus on two aspects of newcomer trust in supervisor: trust improvement (i.e., the extent to which a newcomer's trust in his/her supervisor increases/decreases in the encounter stage) and the ultimate trust level (i.e., how much the newcomer trusts his/her supervisor at the end of the encounter stage). I also investigate two aspects of supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety, i.e., anxiety level (i.e., the average degree of anxiety felt by the newcomer while interacting with the supervisor in the encounter stage) and anxiety reduction (i.e., how much the newcomer's anxiety in interacting with his/her supervisor decreases in the encounter stage). Integrating arguments from SET and findings from the literature on emotions, I argue that anxiety level and anxiety reduction can mediate the effects of supervisor interactional justice on newcomer trust in supervisor in terms of trust improvement and ultimate trust level. In other words, supervisor interactional justice is expected to lead to newcomer trust improvement and a higher ultimate level of newcomer trust by triggering lower levels of newcomer anxiety and more

anxiety reduction through repeated daily newcomer-supervisor interactions in the encounter stage. I further argue that the relationships between justice and anxiety only occur for newcomers with low agreeableness who need to rely on their supervisors' behaviors to initiate positive social exchange relationships.

I aim to make several contributions to the organizational trust and justice literatures. First, both literatures have called for more investigation of the influences of individuals' emotions (Colquitt et al., 2013; Jones & George, 1998). By analyzing the roles of supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety in the process of newcomer trust development and explaining the effects of supervisor interactional justice, this study may provide insights into the affective mechanisms underlying leader-member relationship building.

Second, the role of time in organizational research requires an explicit modeling of various temporal dimensions. I suggest and test how supervisor interactional justice, supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety (the average level and the reduction trajectory), and newcomer trust in supervisor (the improvement trajectory and the ultimate level) play out over the encounter stage of organizational socialization. As a result, the study is likely to contribute to our understanding of dynamic trust building processes.

Finally, not all individuals will develop similar levels of trust towards their supervisors, even if they are treated equally by their supervisors. By testing the moderating role of newcomer agreeableness, this study contributes to our understanding of the moderating effect of individual differences on justice effects.

Overall, I provide a model that delineates how supervisor interactional justice behaviors promote newcomer trust via their influence on newcomer anxiety feelings toward the supervisor, and identifies the newcomers who are

most prone to these influences. It is expected that these findings contribute not only to scientific knowledge, but also provide valuable practical implications for managers who want to cultivate a high trust working environment.

Theoretical Background

Trust can be defined as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712)." Trust development by nature is not a static phenomenon; instead, it requires a focus on temporal transformation, i.e., how trust may change over time (Lewicki et al., 2006). Put differently, interpersonal trust development suggests *within-individual changes* in the trustor's trust intentions (i.e., trust improvement trajectory). Additionally, such changes over time should not be assumed to be linear over the long term. The initial trust development period is critical for work relationships (McKnight & Chervany, 2006; McKnight et al., 1998) as exchanges over time will not carry the same weight as early ones in shaping interpersonal trust (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Korsgaard et al., 2015; Meyerson et al., 1996). Empirical results have indeed confirmed that interpersonal trust builds at a faster growth rate at the beginning of a relationship (van der Werff & Buckley, 2017). Therefore, to capture the dynamics of trust development between newcomers and their supervisors, it is important to model the trust improvement trajectory in a newcomer's trust intentions towards the supervisor starting from the first day when they join the new organizations.

SET and Relationship-based Perspective of Trust Development

To study the dynamics of interpersonal trust development, the present study adopts a relationship-based perspective (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) that is based on SET (Blau, 1964). In the newcomer-supervisor relationships, the newcomer is dependent on, and vulnerable to, the actions of his/her supervisor, and thus trust becomes relevant (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Li, 2012). According to SET (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), trust is built through a mutual influence process or a reciprocal process whereby the trust one party has in the other, through its effects on trusting or cooperative behaviors, influences the other party's trust (Ferrin et al., 2008; Korsgaard et al., 2015). Once a positive exchange process is in motion, outcomes of each exchange can create a self-reinforcing cycle, leading to an upward improvement trajectory of trust, whereas if a negative exchange process is in motion, there will be a downward development trajectory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Ferrin et al., 2008; Korsgaard et al., 2015). In the former situation, two parties develop a positive reciprocity norm in which they exchange cooperative behaviors and invest resources in the relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When individuals perceive that a positive reciprocity norm has been governing their exchanges and experience a history of positive social exchanges, they eventually develop high levels of trust (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Korsgaard et al., 2015). Therefore, in the encounter stage, newcomers who have more positive exchanges in various daily interactions with their supervisor will more likely experience trust improvement, which should lead to higher levels of trust at the end of the encounter stage.

As suggested above, the classic SET is largely cognitive and suggests that parties engage in rational assessment of exchange rules or principles (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However, social exchange theorists have realized

that research on emotion and emotional phenomena can elaborate and improve

contemporary SET (Lawler, 2001; Lawler & Thye, 1999, 2006). For example,

Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) integrated concepts from research on emotion

and memory to show the mechanisms through which critical exchanges can

suddenly and durably change the rules for organizational relationships. Integrating

SET and affective events theory (AET) to analyze leader member exchange,

Cropanzano, Dasborough, and Weiss (2017) proposed that employees and

managers build their relationships through three stages – role taking, role making,

and role routinization – and that emotions are relevant at each of these three

stages. In the present study, analyzing the roles of newcomer emotions in the

social exchange processes between newcomers and their supervisors could

provide insights into the development dynamics of newcomer trust in supervisor.

Supervisor-triggered Newcomer Anxiety in Newcomer-Supervisor Exchanges

Given that supervisors play an important role in newcomer development,

along with their ongoing responsibility for allocating tasks, providing resources,

information, and feedback, and evaluating performance, supervisors are likely to

elicit a variety of emotions in newcomers (Nifadkar, Tsui, & Ashforth, 2012;

Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Thus, studying newcomer emotions in the context of

SET implies that we should be interested in supervisor-triggered emotions. In the

present study, I argue that supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety is likely to play

an important role in the social exchange processes between newcomers and their

supervisors. Regarding newcomers' emotions towards their supervisors, Nifadkar

et al. (2012) showed that supervisor-triggered newcomer affect (i.e., positive and

negative affect) played an important role in the process of newcomer adjustment

in a 3-month longitudinal study. Following Nifadkar et al. (2012), I define

supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety (henceforth, "newcomer anxiety") as a newcomer's conscious, remembered, and accumulated experience of anxiety in relation to his or her supervisor. Thus, newcomer anxiety is targeted specifically toward the supervisor of the newcomer experiencing the affect, develops through encounters with the supervisor, and is retained in memory.

Why is newcomer anxiety relevant in newcomer-supervisor exchanges? Scientifically, anxiety is defined as a state of distress coupled with physiological arousal in reaction to stimuli including the potential for undesirable outcomes (Marteau & Bekker, 1992; Spielberger, 2010). Contrasted to emotions such as anger or happiness, which involve a high certainty appraisal (Tiedens & Linton, 2001), newcomers commonly experience high levels of anxiety due to the relatively high uncertainty experienced in the encounter stage (Lester, 1987; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). The emotional appraisal of anxiety is closely linked with the sense of vulnerability and uncertainty of individual roles (Lazarus et al., 2001). In the encounter stage, newcomers are not only uncertain about their roles in the new work environments (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997) but also uncertain about their roles within the relationships with their supervisors (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Cropanzano et al. (2017) emphasized that leaders' behaviors can act as affective events that elicit emotions inside employees and provide information to the employees about the leader that can inform future relationship development. Considering the fact that leaders are in a position to reduce (or increase) newcomers' uncertainty about potential negative outcomes, which represents the essence of anxiety, it seems that we would expect that supervisors' behaviors such as interactional justice behaviors could have profound impact on newcomer anxiety in the encounter stage.

Whether newcomers feel anxious when interacting with their supervisor is important for trust development, because emotion theorists have argued that individuals' emotions can play a functional role in guiding individuals' social perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors in exchanges (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2010a). In the next section, I will develop hypotheses that describe how newcomer-triggered anxiety mediates the influence of supervisor interactional justice behaviors on the development of newcomer trust. I will also discuss how newcomer agreeableness may moderate the relationships between supervisor interactional justice and newcomer anxiety.

Hypotheses Development

Interactional Justice and Trust Development

Bies and Moag (1986) introduced the concept of interactional justice as an addition to the traditional two-factor model of organizational justice (i.e., distributive justice and procedural justice). *Interactional justice* refers to the fairness of interpersonal treatment during decision-making procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1987). It consists of *interpersonal justice*, reflecting the degree of respect and propriety authority figures use when implementing procedures, and *informational justice*, reflecting the degree of justification and truthfulness offered during procedures (Colquitt, 2001). Interactional justice has been shown to exhibit meaningful daily variations, compared to distributive and procedural justice, which tend to vary over longer time periods (Loi, Yang, & Diefendorff, 2009). Scott, Colquitt, and Paddock (2009) proposed that managers have (on average) more discretion over interactional rules, moderate discretion over procedural rules, and less discretion over distributive rules. Because

supervisors have more control over their interactional justice behaviors, when newcomers perceive that their supervisors treat them with interactional justice in daily encounters, they are likely to perceive that their supervisors have good personal intentions (Loi et al., 2009).

According to the SET, the positive reciprocal exchange processes between managers and employees begin when at least one participant makes a "move" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Whitener et al. (1998) identified five categories of managerial behavior that affect employees' trust in their managers: behavioral consistency, acting with integrity, sharing and delegation of control, openness of communication, and demonstration of concerns. Interactional justice, by definition, reflects open communication and demonstration of concern. Through daily encounters during the encounter stage, a supervisor's performance of interactional justice toward a newcomer on a given day is likely to be perceived by the newcomer as reflecting the supervisor's concern about the newcomer's needs and interests. According to the reciprocity norm of social exchange, the newcomer is likely to show concern towards the supervisor in response (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Thus, in this situation, supervisors' interactional justice can be argued to initiate norms of positive reciprocity in the newcomer-supervisor relationships.

The perception that the supervisor is demonstrating concern about the newcomer's needs and interests on a given day is likely to impact the newcomer's willingness to trust that supervisor because the newcomer is more likely to rely on his/her supervisor when believing the supervisor will take his/her welfare into consideration (Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). In addition, trust scholars have argued that positive outcomes of trusting will lead to an increase in

trust intentions (Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). If the supervisor treats the newcomer with interactional justice day after day, the newcomer is likely to think that his/her trust on one day is followed by a positive interaction on the next day. The newcomer is likely to perceive his/her trust is warranted and justified by the supervisor's interactional justice behaviors day after day. As a result, the positive exchange every day is likely to create a self-reinforcing cycle which then leads to an upward development trajectory of trust. Thus, I argue that high levels of perceived supervisor interactional justice across multiple days of the encounter stage will lead to newcomer trust improvement (represented by a positively sloping trust line). Assuming that individuals start with a similar level of initial trust, newcomers who experience high trust improvement would develop high levels of trust at the end of the encounter stage. Based on the above reasoning, I argue that perceived supervisor's interactional justice in the encounter stage will be positively related to newcomer trust improvement in the encounter stage and the ultimate level of newcomer trust in supervisor at the end of encounter stage.

Hypothesis 1a: Perceived supervisor interactional justice is positively related to newcomer trust improvement in the encounter stage.

Hypothesis 1b: Perceived supervisor interactional justice is positively related to newcomer trust in supervisor at the end of the encounter stage.

Interactional Justice and Supervisor-triggered Newcomer Anxiety

When newcomers first enter a new organization, they typically would not have much background information or personal knowledge about their supervisors, which is likely to induce anxiety feelings when interacting with their supervisors. Furthermore, newcomers are motivated to reduce the uncertainty and anxiety associated with their supervisors (Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995; Saks

& Ashforth, 1997). Because a newcomer can learn about the supervisor's values, preferences, and trustworthiness through repeated interactions (Lewicki et al., 2006), the newcomer's anxiety level may decrease over time when he/she becomes familiar with the supervisor's management. For both individuals and organizations, a quick reduction of the uncertainty and anxiety is desirable as newcomers are expected to perform as quickly as possible (Reichers, 1987). I argue that the extent to which newcomers perceive interactional justice from their supervisors will impact their anxiety feelings in relation to the supervisors. Specifically, I argue that perceived supervisor interactional justice may impact both the average anxiety level and anxiety reduction of newcomers.

According to research on daily emotions at work, newcomers will constantly appraise their supervisors' behavior and form emotional reactions towards their supervisors in their daily communications (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The feeling of anxiety is related to worry about undesirable things that are happening or might happen in the future (Marteau & Bekker, 1992; Spielberger, 2010). In the encounter stage, newcomers feel anxious because they are not sure about their identities and roles in the new environment. Interactional justice suggests that supervisors treat newcomers with respect and give timely information in daily interpersonal interactions with them. Since supervisors performing interactional justice, by definition, refrain from improper remarks or comments and treat newcomers with courtesy and civility, newcomers are likely to perceive that their identities are valued by the supervisors. Moreover, by receiving timely and truthful explanations from supervisors about how they make decisions, newcomers are better able to predict their roles in work relationships and in the organizations.

Based on the above reasoning, newcomers whose supervisors perform high daily levels of interactional justice are likely to perceive that they are valued by their supervisors, and they are likely to have less uncertainty about their work and organizational roles. Consequently, newcomers who receive high levels of supervisor interactional justice in the encounter stage are likely to experience relatively lower levels of anxiety. In addition, newcomers' anxiety feelings are likely to be influenced not only by current interactions but also based on previous interactions. This is because followers' perceptions that they are valued, and their understanding of their work and organizational roles, are unlikely to be formed and confirmed in a single day, but instead will take longer to form and solidify. Put differently, the positive effects of daily interactional justice are likely to be accumulated in a way that newcomer anxiety is gradually reduced (represented by a negatively sloping anxiety line). High perceived interactional justice should therefore be coupled with newcomer anxiety reduction over time.

Hypothesis 2a: Perceived supervisor interactional justice is negatively related to average newcomer anxiety level in the encounter stage.

Hypothesis 2b: Perceived supervisor interactional justice is positively related to newcomer anxiety reduction in the encounter stage.

Supervisor-triggered Newcomer Anxiety and Trust Development

How might newcomer anxiety in relations with the supervisor impact the development of newcomer trust in supervisor? As suggested above, trust is built through a reciprocal process whereby the trust one party has in other, through its effects on trusting or cooperative behaviors, influences the other party's trust (Ferrin et al., 2008; Korsgaard et al., 2015). Research has shown that emotions can play an important role in influencing an individual's perceptions, attitudes and

behaviors toward another in exchanges (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef et al., 2010a).

Newcomer anxiety level and trust level. How does average newcomer anxiety level impact newcomer trust level? Since trust is built through mutual influence, a cooperative exchange is critical for trust development (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Lewicki et al., 2006). Research on work behaviors has clearly demonstrated that daily affect (caused by daily events) has a strong impact on daily work behaviors (Weiss & Beal, 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Even more importantly, previous affective experiences with an emotion elicitor influences how people deal with the elicitor in the future (Baumeister et al., 2007; Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Nifadkar et al., 2012). Therefore, if on one day the interaction with the supervisor caused a high level of anxiety, the newcomer would anticipate experiencing similar anxiety in a similar interaction in the future and may be inclined to avoid interacting with the supervisor. Furthermore, anxiety is related to feelings of vulnerability and uncertainty (Lazarus et al., 2001). If an individual was uncertain about whether their resource investment in a relationship would be reciprocated, they might be less inclined to behave cooperatively with the supervisor at work (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015; Hobfoll, 1989). Taken together, high levels of newcomer anxiety through a period of interactions would make a newcomer reluctant to build relationships with his/her supervisor, resulting in relatively lower trust at the end of the socialization period.

Newcomers may also rely on their anxiety feelings to judge their supervisor's trustworthiness, particularly given that they do not have much personal knowledge about the supervisors in early stages of their relationships (Clore et al., 2001; Forgas & George, 2001). When interacting with supervisors,

newcomers' judgments are also likely to be continuously colored by the anxiety they are experiencing (Jones & George, 1998). Experiencing negative affect may add a negative emotional tone to interactions, which results in an individual perceiving others as less trustworthy (Jones & George, 1998). Experimental results have confirmed that people in a negative affective state tend to make more critical interpretations of and attributions for the behaviors of another (Forgas, 1994; Forgas et al., 1990), which leads to lower trustworthiness perceptions. For example, by asking participants to recall a situation making them anxious, Myers and Tingley (2016) have found that emotion anxiety negatively impacts the willingness of individuals to trust each other in the trust game.

In summary, compared to newcomers who experience low levels of anxiety, newcomers who have high levels of anxiety will be less likely to conduct trusting or cooperative behaviors and more likely to view their supervisor as low in trustworthiness, and thus develop relatively lower trust in their supervisor.

Hypothesis 3: Newcomer anxiety level in the encounter stage is negatively related to newcomer trust in supervisor at the end of the encounter stage.

Newcomer anxiety reduction and trust improvement. A systematic anxiety decrease over time represents a downward trajectory, whereas a systematic anxiety increase over time represents an upward trajectory. Newcomers are likely to exhibit downward or upward anxiety trajectories depending on changes in important outcomes or experiences while interacting with their supervisor (i.e., worsening or improved communications with their boss). An (upward or downward) trend likely shapes expectations and labels pertaining to experience (e.g., people may expect their experience to become increasingly "good/pleasant" or "bad/unpleasant") (Chen et al., 2011; Lindsley,

Brass, & Thomas, 1995). In the present study, I suggest that, relative to the anxiety level, systematic anxiety change captures unique and salient meaning and impacts trust improvement.

Anxiety change could induce sense-making processes in which newcomers may interpret and impute meanings to their interactions with the supervisor (Chen et al., 2011; Lindsley et al., 1995; Louis, 1980) which, in turn, shape relationships between newcomers and supervisors. Employees experiencing a systematic decline in anxiety may come to expect such a trend to continue and, further, expect that their experience at work will inevitably continue to improve and become less stressful in the future. In contrast, those experiencing a systematic increase in anxiety may expect that their experience at work will inevitably continue to worsen and believe there is little they can do to control their increasingly unpleasant experience at work. A newcomer experiencing anxiety reduction would be more likely to expect his/her condition at work (i.e., relationship with supervisor) to continue improving as compared to a newcomer who has experienced anxiety in the form of a flat or positively sloped line. Further, the experience of anxiety reduction is likely to result in pleasant affective memories about interactions with the supervisor, building and solidifying day by day, which could affirm the desirability, safeness, and utility of such interactions. Thus, when newcomers experience anxiety reduction, they are likely to invest resources (e.g., helping behavior, see Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015) in their relationships as approaching supervisors becomes less stressful. Since trust increases through positive exchanges, in this circumstance, newcomers and supervisors are more likely experience trust improvement.

In summary, experiencing anxiety reduction during the encounter stage is expected to be positively related to trust improvement because anxiety reduction is likely to lead newcomers to believe their relationships with supervisors are improving, which should lead them to invest resources in the relationships and in turn enhance positive social exchanges to accelerate trust development. As a result, I provide following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 4: Newcomer anxiety reduction in the encounter stage is positively related to newcomer trust improvement in the encounter stage.

Newcomer Agreeableness as the Moderator

Thus far, I have argued that perceived supervisor interactional justice will influence newcomer trust improvement and final trust level through impacting newcomer anxiety reduction and average anxiety level. Are these effects likely to be similar across all types of newcomers? Probably not. I suggest that newcomer agreeableness could moderate the above effects of interactional justice. Compared to other personality traits (e.g., extraversion), agreeableness describes individual differences in being likeable, pleasant, and harmonious in relations with others (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991). In the NEO framework, "the agreeable person is fundamentally altruistic . . . sympathetic to others and eager to help them and believes that others will be equally helpful in return (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 16)." Therefore, agreeableness is related to differences in motivation for building and maintaining positive relationships with others (Graziano & Tobin, 2009). Agreeableness impacts individuals' trust in that individuals high in agreeableness tend to see human nature as benevolent (Costa et al., 1991; Mooradian, Renzl, & Matzler, 2006).

I argue that perceived supervisor interactional justice will impact newcomer anxiety level and reduction for less agreeable newcomers instead of high agreeable newcomers. The moderating role of agreeableness is rooted in how agreeable individuals behave in interpersonal situations. In daily communications with others, people are likely to encounter situations characterized with misunderstanding, frustrations, and conflicts, which are sources of high levels of anxiety at work. Research has found that individuals high in agreeableness tend to perceive less conflict in their social interactions, report more liking of interaction partners, elicit less conflict from their partners, and seem to transform competitive situations into cooperative ones (Graziano & Tobin, 2009). In addition, agreeableness is highly related to individuals' ability to regulate negative affect resulting from negative interpersonal interactions (Graziano & Tobin, 2009; Haas, Omura, Constable, & Canli, 2007; Tobin, Graziano, Vanman, & Tassinary, 2000). Individuals high in agreeableness automatically engage in emotion regulation processes when exposed to negative stimuli (Graziano & Tobin, 2009; Haas et al., 2007). They are more willing or better able to regulate the inevitable frustrations that come from interaction with others (Graziano & Tobin, 2009).

The trust development between managers and employees is a positive reciprocal exchange process or a mutual influence process (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Whitener et al., 1998). Because less agreeable newcomers do not naturally endorse a strong relationship orientation, external cues may be necessary to motive them to build trust. By lowering daily anxiety and reducing anxiety over time, supervisor interactional justice enables less agreeable newcomers to realize that a positive reciprocity norm is valuable in guiding their exchanges. In other words, low agreeable newcomers rely on their supervisors to initiate a positive

social exchange and develop a trusting relationship. In contrast, supervisor interactional justice may exert less influence on the anxiety level and reduction of more agreeable newcomers, who have a strong relationship orientation and tend to regulate negative emotions of undesirable interactions to maintain relationships. Thus, it is hypothesized that perceived interactional justice is more likely to result in lower levels of anxiety and more anxiety reduction for newcomers low in agreeableness as compared to newcomers high in agreeableness.

Hypothesis 5a: Newcomer agreeableness and perceived supervisor interactional justice interact to impact newcomer anxiety level. The effect of perceived supervisor interactional justice on newcomer anxiety level is stronger for newcomers whose agreeableness levels are low rather than high.

Hypothesis 5b: Newcomer agreeableness and perceived supervisor interactional justice interact to impact newcomer anxiety reduction. The effect of perceived supervisor interactional justice on newcomer anxiety reduction is stronger for newcomers whose agreeableness levels are low rather than high.

Please refer to Figure 1 on the hypothesized model. In the model, the solid lines represent hypothesized relationships. The dashed lines represent relationships not hypothesized but tested in the data analyses. Level 1 and Level 2 indicate whether the variables capture within-individual changes or between-individual differences.

Figure 1: The Hypothesized Model
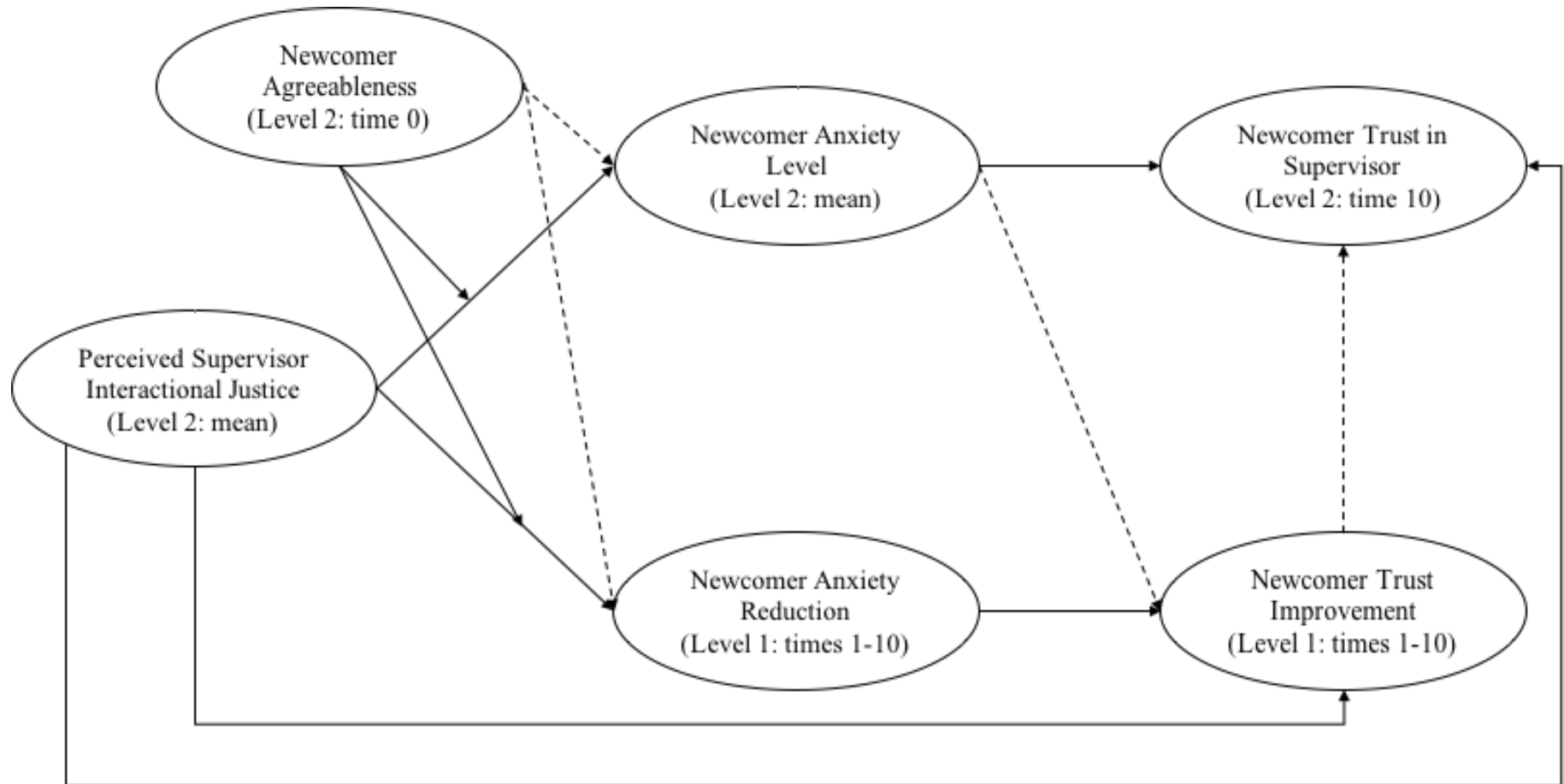
Note: The solid lines represent hypothesized relationships. The dashed lines represent relationships not hypothesized but tested in the data analyses. Level 1 and Level 2 indicate whether the variables capture within-individual changes over time or between-individual differences, respectively. Times indicate the time points when participants provided response.

Method

To test these hypotheses, I sought a setting in which participants would be able to provide responses on their feelings and perceptions about their supervisors starting from the first day of work. Internship is a valuable context as participants are working in real organizations, and in fact many employers use internship programs to recruit potential full-time employees. Thus, response patterns of internship students should resemble the response patterns of working adults.

Participants and Study Design

Undergraduate students from a Singapore University who were about to start their summer internship signed up for this research study. They were informed that this study was about their work experience in the first two weeks (10 consecutive workdays) at work. They were also informed that this study looked for participants whose jobs involve a certain amount of daily communications with their direct supervisor. Newcomers first answered an individual difference survey at least two days before the start of their internship. Over the first 10 consecutive workdays, participants received notifications at 6pm and they were asked to complete the daily questionnaire before they went to bed. If they missed the daily survey, they were asked to simply proceed to complete the next daily survey and not complete multiple daily surveys on one day. In each daily questionnaire, participants recalled their interactions with their direct supervisor on that day and responded to questions related to the interactions. Students were given monetary incentives to participate. For each daily questionnaire completed, students received SG$2. If they completed all 10 daily surveys in time, they received SG$5 as the completion bonus. The payment was considered reasonable based on the local pay rate for undergraduates.

A total of 151 students signed up for this research project, however 26 participants did not provide valid information on the date when they started their job. Thus, only 125 participants received the daily survey notifications over the first 10 consecutive workdays. After checking the time stamp of each daily survey, I only included the valid daily responses for the data analysis. Among a potential 1250 daily survey responses, the response rate was 79.68%. In total, 116 participants provided 996 valid daily survey responses. Because not all newcomers communicated with their supervisors on every workday, 114 participants provided 850 daily survey responses in which they indicated that they had daily communication with their supervisors. There were 41 male participants and 75 female participants. Their average age was 22 years. On average, they had 3.77 months of full-time and 6.01 months of part-time work experience prior to the internship. Supplemental analyses (not shown) indicated that the demographic information does not influence the hypothesized relationships.

Measures

In the individual differences survey, newcomers first reported their personality with the Big Five Personality Mini-markers (Saucier, 1994). Sample items of agreeableness (α = .83) include "Warm," "Kind," and "Cooperative." They also reported their demographic information in the survey.

In the newcomer daily questionnaire, newcomers were first asked to recall their interactions with their supervisor on that day. Frequency of daily communication was measured with one item from Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2009): "How much time did you spend today on business and informal contacts (phone, email, face-to-face) with your supervisor?" Participants could choose one of six response categories: 1 = 1 – 15 min., 2 = 15 – 30 min., 3 = 30 – 60 min., 4 =

1 – 2 hr, 5 = more than 2 hr, and 6 = I did not interact with my supervisor today. Quality of daily communication was measured with the two items from Emmers-Sommer (2004): "The communication between you and your supervisor today was: 1 = in-depth, to 9 = superficial; 1 = relaxed, to 9 = strained." If newcomers indicated that they did not interact with their supervisors on that day, they would proceed to answer questions on trust without answering questions pertaining to their perceptions of supervisor interactional justice and their anxiety feelings.

Perceived supervisor's interactional justice was measured with two items for interpersonal justice and two items for informational justice adapted from Colquitt (2001) (1 = to a very small extent, 5 = to a very large extent) (α = .83). This approach is consistent with previous daily interactional justice research (Loi et al., 2009). The two items for interpersonal justice were "To what extent did your supervisor treat you in a polite manner" and "To what extent did your supervisor treat you with respect?" the two items for informational justice were "To what extent did your supervisor explain the work procedures thoroughly" and "To what extent did your supervisor communicate details in a timely manner?"

Then, newcomers reported their supervisor-triggered anxiety with three items adapted from Marteau and Bekker (1992) and Nifadkar et al. (2012) (1 = not at all, 5 = a great deal) (α = .78). Items included "I felt tense when I was around my supervisor," "Whenever I met my supervisor, I felt upset," and "My supervisor made me anxious."

Newcomers reported their trust in supervisor with three items adapted from Mayer and Gavin (2005) (α = .89). The items were "I would tell my supervisor about mistakes I've made on the job, even if they could damage my reputation," "If my supervisor asked why a problem happened, I would speak

freely even if I were partly to blame," and "If my supervisor asked me for something, I would respond without thinking about whether it might be held against me."

Given that participants complete the daily survey each day, it was important to keep the survey brief. Thus, I used items that were likely to capture daily perceptions and behaviors during a short time period. This method is consistent with that of previous diary studies (Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006).

Control Variables

In this study, I also measured newcomer trust propensity, negative affectivity, and neuroticism as previous research has suggested that they can influence trust and anxiety. Trust propensity was measured with the Frazier, Johnson, and Fainshmidt (2013) scale ($\alpha = .93$). Negative affectivity was measured with the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson et al., 1988) ($\alpha = .88$). Neuroticism was measured with the Big Five Personality Mini-markers (Saucier, 1994) ($\alpha = .79$). Supplemental analyses (not shown) indicated that the control variables do not influence the hypothesized relationships.

Analyses

Data in this study are conceptually at two levels of analysis. At level 1 are the repeated, daily observations of the newcomer's perceptions of the supervisor's behaviors and their anxiety and trust in supervisor. At level 2 are the single assessments of the supervisor's interactional justice (represented by the average individual mean), the newcomer's agreeableness, newcomer anxiety level (represented by the average individual mean), and newcomer anxiety reduction

(represented by the time-anxiety slope). The outcomes are newcomer trust in supervisor (i.e., trust level on the 10th day) and newcomer trust improvement (represented by the time-trust slope), both of which are also at level 2. The hypothesized model is analyzed at the level 2 with MPLUS (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015) because MPLUS can test direct effects and indirect effects simultaneously with a structural equation model analysis and provide 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals of the hypothesized relationships.

The hypotheses focus on temporal changes in newcomer anxiety and trust in supervisor. Analytically, temporal change could be quantified in a variety of ways. For instance, subtracting the time 1 score from the time 10 score would provide a simple change score. However, the use of change scores for operationalizing change has been widely criticized (Rogosa, Brandt, & Zimowski, 1982; Rogosa & Willett, 1985). Thus, the approach used in this research was to describe temporal change as a slope (flat, increasing, or decreasing) calculated across the multiple measurement times. Specifically, each individual's slope value was generated from the empirical Bayes slope estimate drawn from mixed-effects growth models or random coefficient models (RCM; Bliese & Ployhart, 2002; Chen et al., 2011). With this approach, more positive values indicate greater increase and more negative values indicate greater decrease in the focal variable over time. Empirical Bayes estimates have been used in organizational settings to describe change in newcomer performance (Chen, 2005) and change in employee job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Chen et al., 2011). The advantage of using empirical Bayes estimates over ordinary least squares (OLS) estimates is that values generated for a specific entity (e.g., an individual) are weighted by overall sample information in addition to individual information and are therefore

more precise than values estimated from running separate OLS regression

equations for each individual (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). To obtain empirical

Bayes estimates for individuals in the samples, I estimated separate mixed effects

growth models for anxiety and trust, regressing the respective scores on time (a

linear time trend is coded as 0, 1, …, and 9 for times 1, 2, …, and 10). To estimate

anxiety change, I used the following two-level mixed-effects growth model

(Bliese & Ployhart, 2002):

Level 1: $Anxiety_{ij} = \pi_{0j} + \pi_{1j}(time) + r_{ij}$

Level 2: $\pi_{0j} = \beta_{00} + u_{0j};$

$\pi_{1j} = \beta_{10} + u_{1j}.$

In these equations, anxiety scores vary across i individuals (i = the number

of individuals in the sample) and j times (j = 10); r_{ij} is the level 1 residual, and u_{0j}

and u_{1j} are the level 2 residuals. Importantly, in this model, the empirical Bayes

estimated time-anxiety slope (π_{1j}) reflects anxiety change, which is allowed to

vary across individuals (as noted by the last row in the model above). Across

individuals in each sample, more positive π_{1j} estimates reflect a more positive

change in anxiety, whereas more negative π_{1j} estimates reflect a more negative

change in anxiety, and when no change in anxiety occurs over time, the π_{1j}

estimate would be equal to 0. Since the π_{1j} estimates can vary across individuals,

they can be used to index individual differences in anxiety change in correlation

or OLS regression analyses conducted purely at the between-individual level of

analysis (Chen et al., 2011). I also used the above model to obtain π_{1j} estimates

separately for trust in supervisor (repeated trust scores are used as the dependent

variable, instead of repeated anxiety scores). The anxiety change and trust change

models were estimated separately in the nonlinear and linear mixed effects

(NLME) program for SPLUS and R (Pinheiro & Bates, 2006). Then I exported the anxiety change estimates and trust change estimates into a between-person SPSS file. Since more positive values indicate greater increase and more negative values indicate greater decrease in the focal variable over time, I transformed anxiety change into anxiety reduction by multiplying -1 with the time-anxiety slope estimate.

Additional Analyses

I conducted additional analyses on how *daily* supervisor's interactional justice influence *daily* newcomer anxiety and trust. Furthermore, I investigated whether agreeableness moderates the daily-level relationships. I tested these using multilevel modelling (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) as it can partition the variance of individual-level outcomes into level 1 (i.e., day-level) and level 2 (i.e., individual-level) components and then regress the level 1 variance component on day-level predictors and the level 2 variance component on individual-level predictors. I then tested cross-level interactions by regressing level 1 slopes (i.e., relationships between level 1 predictors and outcomes) onto level 2 predictors. While testing the cross-level interactions, I grand-mean-centered the level 2 predictors and group-mean-centered the level 1 predictors (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). This method provides more precise estimates of cross-level interactions and interpretation of these estimates.

Results

Temporal Changes in Newcomer Anxiety and Trust in Supervisor

Newcomer trust improvement. Following Bliese and Ployhart (2002) procedures on growth modelling with random coefficient models, I first tested an intercept-only model using RCM to assess the amount of variance in newcomer

trust residing between and within newcomers. The intraclass correlation (ICC[1])

obtained from this model suggested that 73 percent of the total newcomer trust

variance resided between newcomers and 27 percent of the total newcomer trust

variance resided within newcomers.

A second model was examined using RCM where, for each newcomer, a

time factor (designated as 0 through 9 for days 1 through 10) was set to predict the

trust scores on 10 days. Basically, this model involved regressing newcomer trust

on time, and thus the intercept indicated initial newcomer trust (i.e., trust level on

the first day), and the parameter estimate for the time factor reflected the extent to

which, on average, newcomer trust changed at each consecutive data collection

time. Results suggested that the average trust intercept was 3.53 and the rate of

trust change was positive and marginally significant (.01, $p = .063$), suggesting

that, on average, the initial newcomer trust level was 3.53 and newcomer trust

improved by .01 points at each consecutive data collection time. In other words,

on average, newcomer trust improved by .1 points through 10 consecutive days.

I assessed a third model using RCM, in which newcomer trust intercepts

and slopes were allowed to vary across newcomers. A comparison of the fit of the

second model with the third model yielded a log-likelihood ratio of 129.57 (p

$< .001$), indicating a significant level of individual differences in trust slopes (that

is, the extent of newcomer trust change differed across newcomers). The

descriptive statistics suggested that 39 participants experienced a trust decrease,

i.e., they had a negative time-trust slope, and that 77 participants experienced a

trust increase, i.e., they had a positive time-trust slope. Since there were

significant individual differences in trust slopes, it is important to understand what

factors can predict the differences in trust changes. Based on their time-trust

slopes, I categorized newcomers into six subgroups and Table 1 provides the descriptions and estimated final newcomer trust in supervisor based on the group mean of time-trust slope estimates.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics of Newcomer Trust Change

Group	Number of newcomers	Range of time-trust slopes	Initial trust level	Estimated final trust level based on the group mean
1	6	.107; .139	3.53	4.73
2	11	.051; .099	3.53	4.28
3	60	.000; .049	3.53	3.74
4	24	-.044; -.000	3.53	3.30
5	11	-.099; -.056	3.53	2.80
6	4	-.166; -.105	3.53	2.19

Newcomer anxiety reduction. Following the same procedure above, I first tested an intercept-only model using RCM to assess the amount of variance in newcomer anxiety residing between and within newcomers. The intraclass correlation (ICC[1]) obtained from this model suggested that 51 percent of the total newcomer anxiety variance resided between newcomers and 49 percent of the total newcomer anxiety variance resided within newcomers. A second model was examined using RCM, regressing newcomer anxiety on time. Results suggested that the average anxiety intercept was 1.56 and the rate of anxiety change was negative (-.02, $p < .01$), suggesting that, on average, newcomer anxiety reduced by .02 points at each consecutive data collection time. The time factor accounts for 1.1 percent of the within-newcomer anxiety variance. I assessed a third model using RCM, in which newcomer anxiety intercepts and slopes were allowed to vary across newcomers. A comparison of the fit of the second model with the third model yielded a log-likelihood ratio of 13.56 ($p < .01$), indicating a significant level of individual differences in anxiety slopes (that is, the extent of newcomer anxiety change differed across newcomers).

Table 2 provides descriptive statistics and correlational results. In the table, newcomer anxiety reduction is the transformed time-anxiety slope scores and newcomer trust improvement is the time-trust slope scores. For the two variables, higher estimates indicate more anxiety reduction and more trust improvement. Newcomer anxiety reduction was unrelated to newcomer anxiety level ($r = -.10$, *ns*), suggesting the construct of anxiety change can be distinguished from level. Final newcomer trust in supervisor was positively related to newcomer trust improvement ($r = .70$, $p < .01$), suggesting newcomers who had higher trust increases had higher final trust in supervisor.

Regarding the hypotheses, newcomer trust improvement was positively correlated with perceived supervisor interactional justice ($r = .28$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1a. Final newcomer trust in supervisor was positively correlated with perceived supervisor interactional justice ($r = .41$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1b. Newcomer anxiety level was negatively correlated with perceived supervisor interactional justice ($r = -.43$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 2a. Newcomer anxiety reduction was not significantly correlated with perceived supervisor interactional justice, not supporting Hypothesis 2b. Newcomer anxiety level was negatively correlated with newcomer trust in supervisor ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 3. Newcomer anxiety reduction was positively related to newcomer trust improvement ($r = .28$, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 4.

Although not hypothesized, final newcomer trust in supervisor was positively correlated with agreeableness ($r = .19$, $p < .05$), newcomer anxiety level was negatively correlated with agreeableness ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$), newcomer anxiety reduction was positively correlated with agreeableness ($r = .22$, $p < .05$),

but newcomer trust improvement was not significantly correlated with

agreeableness.

2 Descriptive and Correlational Statistics at the Between-individual Level

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
ust Propensity	3.67	.88	(.93)							
egative Affectivity	2.17	.70	-.20*	(.88)						
euroticism	4.56	1.16	-.17	.40**	(.79)					
greeableness	6.34	1.11	.46*	-.35**	-.30**	(.83)				
erceived Supervisor Interactional Justice	3.75	.57	.11	-.19*	-.10	.32**	(.83)			
wcomer Anxiety Reduction	.02	.03	.23*	.10	.00	.22*	.12	-		
wcomer Anxiety Level	1.49	.81	-.06	.30**	.22*	-.32**	-.43**	-.10	(.78)	
wcomer Trust Improvement	.01	.05	.11	-.02	-.06	.11	.28**	.28**	-.07	-
nal Newcomer Trust	3.61	.82	.14	-.13	-.04	.19*	.41**	.18	-.29**	.70

$* p < .05$; $** p < .01$. N = 114 newcomers. Cronbach's alphas (reliability) appear in parentheses on the diagonal for m
neasures.

Path Analyses of the Hypothesized Model

Hypotheses 1a and 1b suggest that perceived supervisor interactional justice is positively linked with newcomer trust improvement and final newcomer trust in supervisor. The results of path analyses suggested that perceived supervisor interactional justice was positively related to final trust in supervisor, B = .20, 95%CI [.03, .36], and positively related to trust improvement over time, B = .03, 95%CI [.01, .05]. Thus, both Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b suggest that perceived supervisor interactional justice is negatively linked with newcomer anxiety level and positively linked with newcomer anxiety reduction. The results of path analyses suggested that perceived supervisor interactional justice was negatively related to newcomer anxiety level, B = -.31, 95%CI[-.43, -.18], but was not significantly related to anxiety reduction. Thus, Hypothesis 2a was supported but Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 suggests that newcomer anxiety level is negatively linked with newcomer trust level. The results of path analyses suggested that newcomer anxiety level was negatively related to final newcomer trust in supervisor, B = -.30, 95%CI [-.59, -.06]. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Hypothesis 4 suggests that newcomer anxiety reduction is positively linked with newcomer trust improvement. The results of path analyses suggested that newcomer anxiety reduction was positively related to newcomer trust improvement, B = .55, 95%CI [.09, 1.00]. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b suggest that perceived supervisor interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness interact to impact newcomer anxiety level and reduction. The results of path analyses suggested that perceived supervisor

interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness interacted to impact newcomer anxiety reduction, B = -.01, 95%CI[-.02, -.00], but not newcomer anxiety level. The results also suggest that when perceived supervisor interactional justice was high, low agreeable and high agreeable newcomers did not differ on their anxiety reduction rate. However, when perceived supervisor interactional justice was low, more agreeable newcomers experienced more anxiety reduction than less agreeable newcomers. Thus, Hypothesis 5a was not supported but Hypothesis 5b was supported.

Results suggested that the indirect effect of supervisor interpersonal justice on final newcomer trust through newcomer trust improvement was significant and positive (.24, 95%CI [.06, .44]). The indirect effect of supervisor interpersonal justice on final newcomer trust in supervisor through newcomer anxiety level was significant and positive (.09, 95%CI [.02, .21]). The indirect effect of newcomer anxiety reduction on final newcomer trust through newcomer trust improvement was significant and positive (5.32, 95%CI [.93, 9.96]).

Although not hypothesized, the results suggest that newcomer agreeableness was negatively related to newcomer anxiety level, B = -.09, 95%CI[-.16, -.02]. The indirect effect of newcomer agreeableness on final newcomer trust in supervisor through newcomer anxiety level was significant and positive (.03, 95%CI [.00, .06]).

Figure 2 demonstrates the findings of path analyses. Figure 3 demonstrates the interaction effects of perceived supervisor interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness on newcomer anxiety reduction. Following suggestions by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2013), I plotted this interaction at conditional values of interactional justice and agreeableness (1 SD above and below the mean).

Figure 2 Results of Path Analyses on the Predictors and Outcomes of Newcomer Anxiety
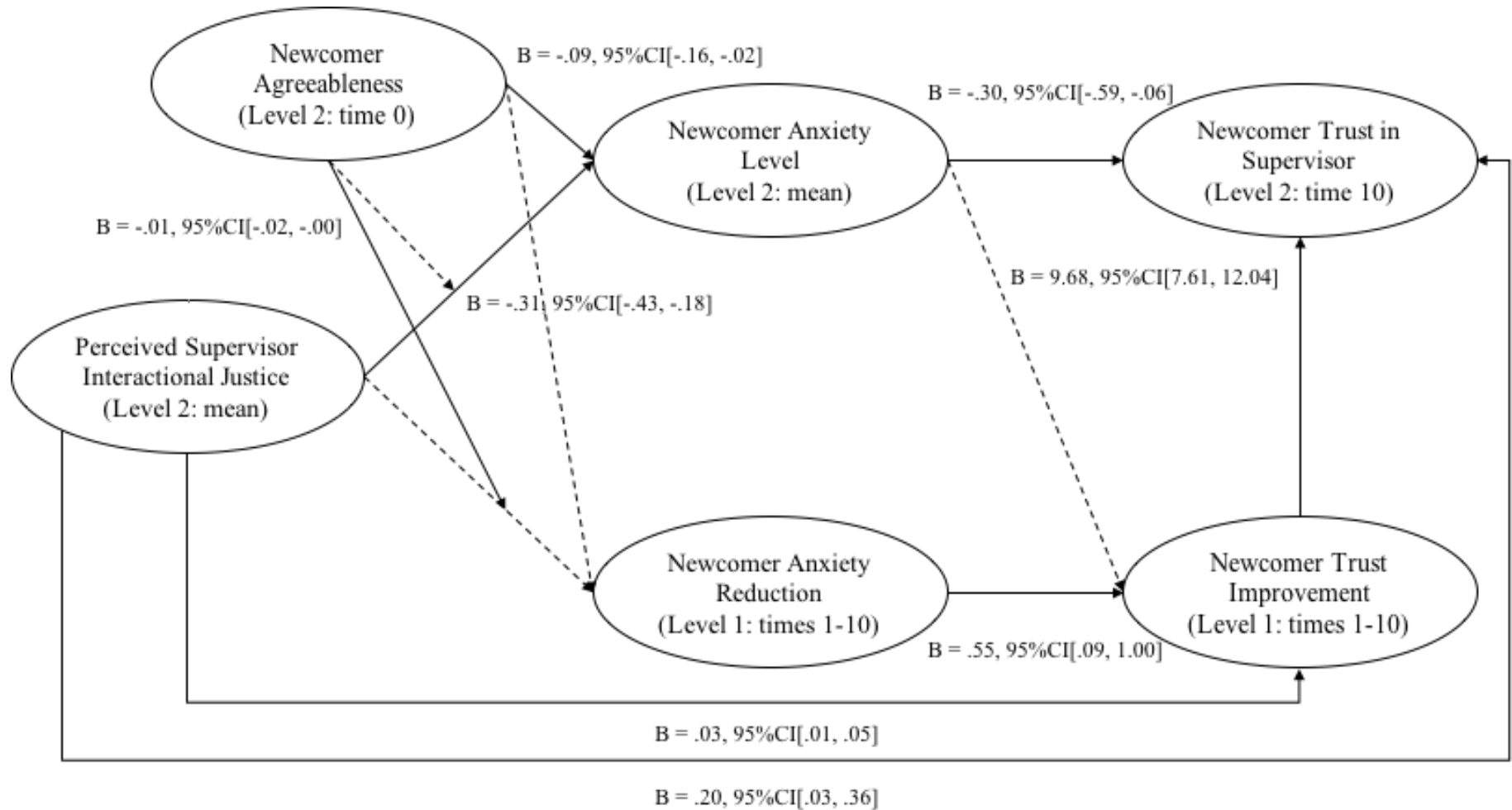
Note: More positive estimates reflect more anxiety reduction and trust improvement. The solid lines represent significant relationships. The dashed lines represent non-significant relationships.

Figure 3 Interaction Effect of Perceived Supervisor Interactional Justice and

Newcomer Agreeableness
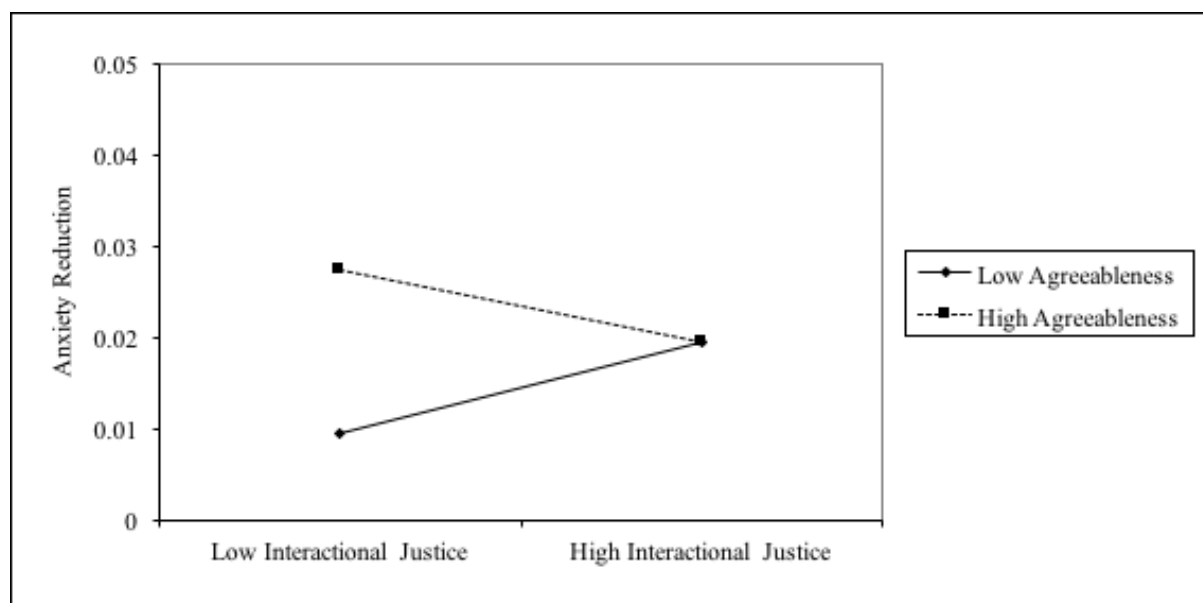
Note: Low = mean – 1SD; High = mean + 1SD

Additional Analyses of the Daily-level Relationship

Based on the person-level findings, I used multilevel modelling to

investigate how daily supervisor interpersonal justice influences daily newcomer

anxiety and trust. Furthermore, I investigated whether newcomer agreeableness

was a cross-level moderator. When testing the cross-level interactions, I grand-

mean-centered the newcomer agreeableness and group-mean-centered the daily

supervisor interactional justice measures (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998).

The results suggested that daily supervisor interactional justice positively

impacted daily newcomer trust in supervisor (γ = .12, 95%CI [.05, .22]). Daily

supervisor interactional justice negatively impacted daily newcomer anxiety (γ = -

.17, 95%CI [-.27, -.08]) and daily newcomer anxiety negatively impacted daily

newcomer trust (γ = -.10, 95%CI [-.19, -.01]). To estimate the indirect

relationship, I used a parametric bootstrap procedure (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang,

2010). With 20,000 Monte Carlo replications, results showed that there was a

positive indirect relationship between daily interpersonal justice and daily newcomer trust via daily newcomer anxiety (indirect effect = .02, 95%CI [.00, .03]). The findings are provided in Figure 4. The multilevel modelling results also demonstrated a moderation effect of newcomer agreeableness on the random slope between daily supervisor interactional justice on daily newcomer anxiety (γ = .15, 95%CI [.04, .25]). I plotted this interaction in Figure 5. When agreeableness was high, there was no relationship between daily supervisor interpersonal justice and daily newcomer anxiety, whereas when agreeableness was low, higher daily supervisor justice led to lower daily newcomer anxiety. I estimated the indirect relationships of daily supervisor interpersonal justice on newcomer trust via newcomer agreeableness at higher (+1 SD) and lower levels (-1 SD) of newcomer agreeableness. The indirect effect was higher when newcomer agreeableness was lower (Estimate = .03, SE = .02, $p < .05$) than when agreeableness was higher (Estimate = .00, SE = .01, $p = .98$).

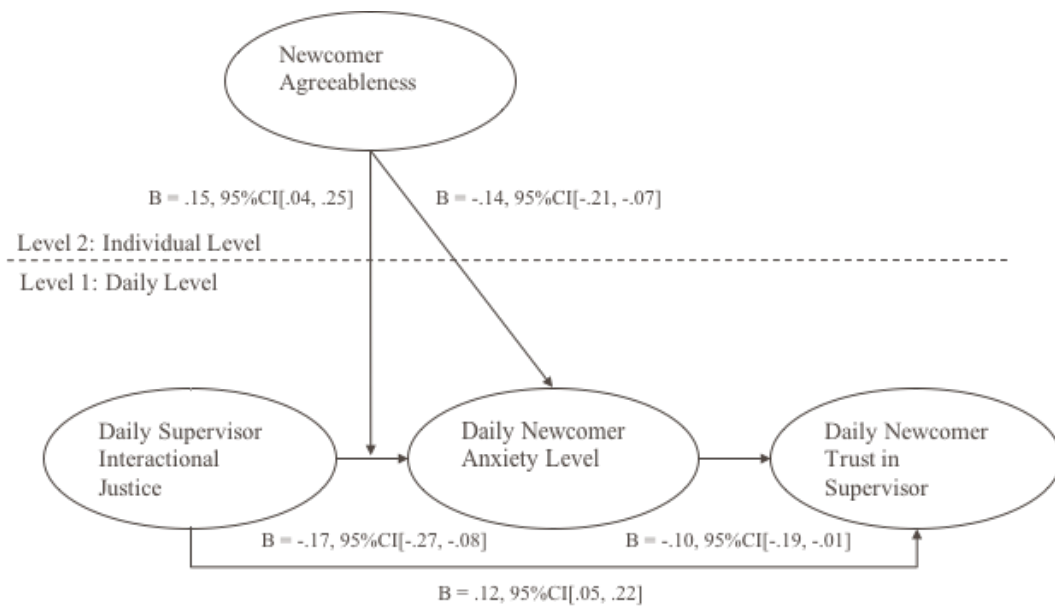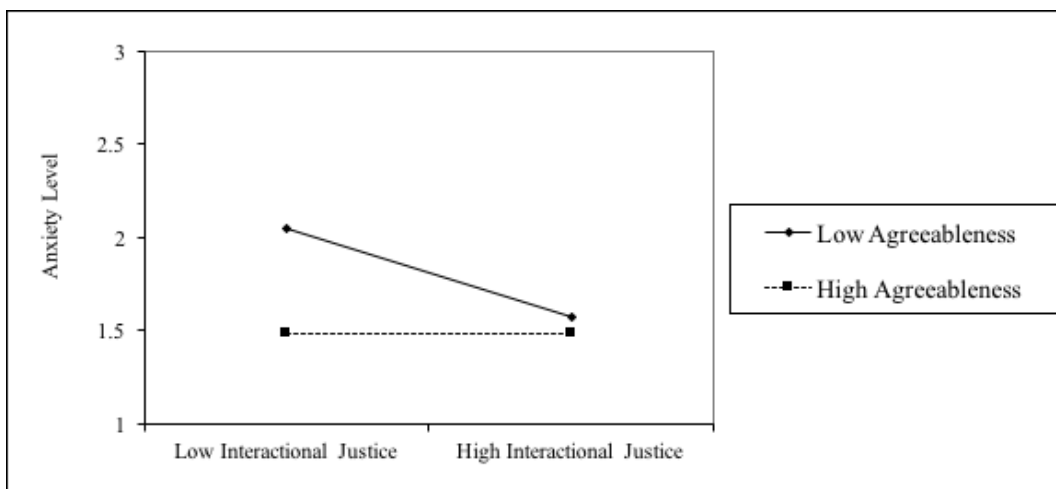Figure 4 Results of Multilevel Modelling

Figure 5 The Cross-level Moderation Effect

Note: Low = mean – 1SD; High = mean + 1SD

Discussion

Socialization represents a period of an employee's working life that entails high uncertainty and vulnerability, a period in which a level of interdependence is expected and unmet expectations involve a significant risk (Li, 2012; van der Werff & Buckley, 2017). Whether newcomers build high-quality relationships with their supervisors has a significant impact on both organizational outcomes and employee well-being. Thus, understanding the process of interpersonal trust development during the socialization process is an important research pursuit. This study investigated the role of newcomer anxiety in the development process of newcomer trust in supervisor. Specifically, it investigated how newcomer anxiety in terms of level and reduction can explain the effects of supervisor interactional justice on newcomer trust in supervisor in terms of trust improvement and ultimate trust level. Moreover, it investigated the moderating effect of newcomer agreeableness.

With daily responses from the first 10 consecutive working days after newcomers joined the organizations, the study demonstrated the important roles of newcomer anxiety in terms of anxiety level and anxiety change during the period of initial trust development. The results suggested that supervisor interactional justice led to higher newcomer trust in supervisor through low levels of newcomer anxiety. Furthermore, supervisor interactional justice interacted with newcomer agreeableness to impact the extent to which anxiety level was reduced during the first 10 days at the new jobs. Newcomer anxiety reduction promoted newcomer trust improvement, which in turn led to higher newcomer trust in supervisor.

Although not hypothesized, daily supervisor interpersonal justice was found to be negatively related to daily newcomer anxiety, which was negatively

related to daily newcomer trust in supervisor. In addition, newcomer agreeableness was found to moderate the relationship between daily supervisor interactional justice and daily newcomer anxiety.

To my knowledge, this study is the first to model newcomer anxiety reduction and newcomer trust improvement trajectories with an experience sampling research design and to examine relationships among perceived supervisor interactional justice, newcomer agreeableness, anxiety and trust at both the individual level and the daily level. By doing so, this study provides several theoretical contributions and practical implications, and the results suggest several interesting and important avenues for future research.

Theoretical Contributions

First, this research demonstrates the development pattern of trust defined as willingness to be vulnerable in the encounter stage of organizational socialization. The development of trust in a relationship is often proposed to be dependent on trustor experiences during a history of interactions with the trustee built up over a period of time (Schoorman et al., 2007; Serva et al., 2005). The temporal issues underlying trust development demand specific modellings of both trust level and trust change trajectory. Meanwhile, trust development is nonlinear because initial trust judgements, as individuals first begin to gather information about their new colleagues and supervisors, are formed more quickly than stable knowledge-based beliefs (McKnight et al., 1998; Meyerson et al., 1996). To understand the initial trust development trajectory, the present study used the experience sampling design and examined the development processes of newcomer trust in supervisors in the first two weeks after joining the organization. The results suggested that, on average, newcomer trust in supervisor increased

over the ten consecutive workdays but that there were significant individual differences in the growth trajectories. Thus, this study contributes to our understanding of the development patterns of employee trust in supervisor.

Second, utilizing arguments from SET, previous studies have demonstrated that supervisor interactional justice can increase employees' trust, but they have tended to overlook the role of affective experiences underlying trust development. Trust scholars have argued that affective experience is an essential component of trust development in that fluctuation in affect within the relationship is likely to impact trust beliefs, motivate trusting behaviors, and signal the quality of trust relationships (Jones & George, 1998; Williams, 2001). Recently, social exchange theorists have utilized findings from the emotion literature to understand how individual affective experiences impact the processes of social exchange (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Cropanzano et al., 2017; Lawler & Thye, 2006). In addition, justice theorists have called for integration of exchange-based and affect-based justice research (Colquitt et al., 2013). To answer these research calls, the present study investigated the role of supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety in impacting newcomer trust in supervisor. The organizational socialization literature suggests that when newcomers join an organization, they experience high levels uncertainty and anxiety (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). The results suggest that during organizational socialization, anxiety level and anxiety reduction are the affective mechanisms through which perceived supervisor interactional justice could impact the growth of trust and the ultimate trust level that newcomers have towards their supervisors.

Third, this research contributes to our knowledge of individual moderators of justice effects. The positive effects of interactional justice may not be applied to all types of newcomers. This study investigated newcomer agreeableness, a personality trait associated with individual differences in building and maintaining interpersonal relationships. Previous research has found that newcomer agreeableness moderates the effects of justice on counterproductive work behaviors and retaliation (Scott & Colquitt, 2007; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). This study found that newcomer agreeableness moderated the effects of interactional justice on newcomer anxiety. Less agreeable more so than more agreeable newcomers are prone to the influences of supervisors' justice behaviors. For individuals with low agreeableness, higher interactional justice led to more anxiety reduction. Thus, the results demonstrate that newcomer agreeableness plays an important role in initial trust development by moderating the effects of supervisors' justice behaviors on newcomers' anxiety and trust.

Fourth, although not hypothesized, the relationships between supervisor interactional justice, newcomer agreeableness, anxiety and trust exist not only at the individual-level but also at the daily-level. Daily interactional justice led to low levels of newcomer anxiety, which in turn impacted newcomer trust towards the supervisor. Newcomer agreeableness exerted a cross-level moderation effect moderating the effects of daily supervisor interactional justice on daily newcomer anxiety. For individuals low in agreeableness, higher daily interpersonal justice was found to lead to lower daily anxiety. The effects of interactional justice and agreeableness on trust through impacting anxiety occur at both the between-individual level and within-individual level, which lends stronger support to the arguments in this study.

Limitations and Future Research

Even though data were collected at different times (i.e., individual difference variables were measured at least two days before the daily surveys), it is not possible to completely eliminate common method bias as all the responses were provided by the newcomers. Future research should replicate the results using multiple sources such that supervisor behaviors are reported by supervisors or objective observers. The longitudinal nature of this study helped increase its internal validity. However, future research could separate the data collection points of supervisors' behaviors, newcomers' feelings and trust. Additionally, the observational nature of this study precludes strong inferences about causality. Experimental research (particularly field experimentation) is needed to strengthen the causal links tested here. Finally, the anxiety and trust trajectories detected in this study were likely affected by the time spans and time intervals chosen. It is possible that different anxiety and trust trajectories, as well as different predictors and outcomes of these trajectories, would have been detected if different time spans and time intervals had been chosen. I used the time span of 10 consecutive working days, and the time interval of 1 day, because participants were students who participated in summer internships that lasted for a maximum of two months, so this span and interval seemed appropriate for assessing the development of trust in supervisors in what would be considered the encounter phase of such an assignment.

Future research should also examine the generalizability of the present findings beyond the present context. Internship workers are members of the temporary workforce, and they are also being employed with increasingly frequency because students can also use an internship to determine if they have an

interest in a particular career and to create a network of contacts, and experienced interns often need little or no training when they begin regular employment (Hergert, 2011). Research should examine whether results obtained in this study can be generalized to socialization experiences in different types of newcomers. Meanwhile, due to the nature of internship, most of the participants in this study experienced individual socialization rather than collective socialization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Future research should examine whether results obtained can be generalized to other types of organizational socialization practices.

Studies should also examine whether different factors influence and are influenced by newcomer trust in supervisor. Additionally, it would be valuable to examine change in newcomer trust using different measures. The present study used Mayer and Davis's (1999) measure, which best fits with the definition of trust as willingness to accept vulnerability. Gillespie (2003) defined trust as an intention to engage in reliance and disclosure behavior that increases vulnerability and van der Werff and Buckley (2017) found trust improvement using this measure. Scholarship would also benefit from studies focusing on not only trust but also trustworthiness development as perceived trustworthiness is the precursor to willingness to be vulnerable. For instance, it is possible that supervisor interactional justice impacts newcomer anxiety, which in turn impacts newcomer's perception and judgment of supervisor's trustworthiness, which then influences trust. Finally, some trust scholars have proposed different types of trust, i.e., cognition-based trust and affect-based trust (McAllister, 1995). Whether newcomers develop cognition-based trust and affect-based trust towards their coworkers and supervisors has been found to impact organizational identification

and performance the organizational socialization processes (Schaubroeck et al., 2013). Studies could examine the development trajectories of different types of trust and predictors of the development trajectories.

Practical Implications

Despite these limitations, this experience sampling study offers potentially important practical implications revolving around the affective experience involved in newcomer-supervisor interactions. The organizational socialization literature has demonstrated the importance of good newcomer-supervisor relationships for both individual and organizational outcomes. The findings of the present study clearly demonstrate that it is important to have low levels of, and gradually reduce, newcomer anxiety feelings in the encounter stage. For this purpose, organizations may want to select highly agreeable individuals as they are more likely to regulate their anxiety and develop high levels of trust in the encounter stage. However, more importantly, to help reduce newcomer anxiety and foster trust, supervisors should pay attention to their daily leadership behaviors by displaying interactional justice towards newcomers. Their justice behaviors are especially important in earning the trust of newcomers who are low in agreeableness.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study offers insight into the process of interpersonal trust development using an experience sampling research, and by doing so uncovers the role of affective mechanisms underlying initial trust development. This study provides insight into the dynamics of trust development by providing and testing a model of how different characteristics of newcomer anxiety (level and reduction) can mediate the effects of supervisor interactional justice behaviors

on newcomer trust in supervisors (level and improvement). Finally, by finding

that supervisor interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness interact to

impact anxiety reduction, which in turn determines the trust improvement within

the leader-follower relationship, this study also reveals that not all people

experience trust development in the same way.

Chapter 4 General Conclusion

Practitioners and researchers alike have recognized the importance of interpersonal trust in promoting desirable work behaviors and outcomes for both employees and organizations. The question of what factors can foster a trusting work relationship has received extensive research attention. However, among the numerous predictors of trust that have been studied, the roles of individuals' emotion and affect have received relatively little research attention, even though trust scholars have long recognized that the experience of trust essentially has an affective component (Jones & George, 1998; Williams, 2001, 2007). Compared to other organizational behavior areas, which have incorporated the scientific findings on affect to a substantial degree (e.g., decision making, leadership, negotiation, organizational performance and emotional labor), the organizational trust area presents numerous unanswered questions and rich research opportunities regarding the question of how affect influences interpersonal trust development within organizations.

This dissertation seeks to advance our understanding of the roles that individuals' emotion and affect can play in the development processes of interpersonal trust by providing a conceptual framework and conducting an empirical investigation. In proposing the conceptual framework, I noted that previous conceptual works on affect and trust (Jones & George, 1998; Williams, 2001, 2007) have provided valuable insights on why affect is important for trust experience, however, many important research questions remain unanswered. Based on a review of core existing models of interpersonal trust development (Elsbach, 2004; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998), the conceptual framework of my dissertation describes a Phase Model

describing five distinct phases of trust development in which people's affect can have different functions at different temporal phases within the relationship. Therefore, the Model organizes diverse research streams and perspectives from literatures on affect including motivation, decision making, and leadership, etc., according to the different stages of a trust relationship that they are relevant to. At its core, the Model describes how both the AC and the SF approaches to affect function in combination to influence interpersonal trust development in different relationship phases. The model enables researchers to better understand the role and impact of moods and emotions on trust development, identify current strengths, weaknesses, and gaps in existing research, and identify opportunities for future research on the role of affect in trust development.

In conducting the empirical investigation, I concentrated on the initial trust development period between a newcomer and his/her supervisor. Integrating social exchange theory and findings from the affect literature, I investigated how supervisor-triggered newcomer anxiety mediated the effects of supervisor interactional justice on newcomer trust in supervisor and whether newcomer agreeableness moderated the above relationship. The findings suggested a nuanced model in which high supervisor interactional justice could lead to high levels of newcomer trust through low levels of newcomer anxiety. Supervisor interactional justice and newcomer agreeableness interacted to impact newcomer anxiety reduction, which could promote newcomer trust improvement and in turn impact the final levels of newcomer trust in supervisor at the end of encounter stage. In addition, daily supervisor interactional justice led to reduced daily newcomer anxiety, which was negatively related to daily newcomer trust in supervisor. Newcomer agreeableness had a cross-level moderation effect on the

relationship between daily supervisor interactional justice and daily newcomer anxiety.

Taken together, through the conceptual framework and empirical investigations, in my dissertation I hope to have contributed valuable scientific understanding to the dynamics of interpersonal trust development with a lens on affect and emotions, and that these scientific understandings can also have valuable practical implications for people within organizations.

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