HOW INTERPERSONAL TRUST CAN CHANGE: THE EFFECTS OF INTERPERSONAL EVENTS ON THE MAGNITUDE AND PERMANENCE OF CHANGES IN INTERPERSONAL TRUST

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ABSTRACT

Interpersonal trust is dynamic and can be easily changed. Understanding why and how changes in interpersonal trust occur is important because trust affects a wide range of organizational outcomes. Because employees' attitudes and behaviors in the workplace are apt to change in response to notable events, this dissertation examines what, why, and how events cause changes in trust. More specifically, I first define negative [positive] trust-related events as events that either negatively [positively] disconfirm trustors' prior expectation or events that confirm trustors' prior negative [positive] expectation towards trustees, and argue that negative [positive] trust-related events can lead to decreases [increases] in trust. Moreover, building on dual-system theory (Morgeson, Mitchell, & Liu, 2015), affect infusion theory (Forgas, 1994, 1995), and the integrative model of trust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995), I propose that trust-related events trigger changes in trust through both changes in emotional reactions and cognitive assessments of trustees' trustworthiness. Next, drawing from Monge's (1990) typology of dynamic processes and event-system theory, I focus on two specific components of changes (i.e., magnitude and permanence) and propose that the effects of events on each component are contingent on the characteristics of the events (e.g., criticality, proximity, and timing).

I examine all hypotheses using a trust game-based experimental study (Study 1) and a five-wave longitudinal field study (Study 2). The results of Study 1 suggest that positive trust-related events trigger increases in trust, while negative trust-related events trigger decreases in trust. Both effects are mediated through changes in emotions and trustworthiness evaluations. Further, event confirmation affects the magnitude of changes in trust transmitted through changes in trustworthiness evaluations. Specifically, changes in trust are larger when the events are considered as more disconfirming, unexpected, or surprising. Study 2 partially replicates the findings of Study 1 regarding the effects of positive events, such that trust increases in response to positive events through increases in trustworthiness evaluations. However, Study 2 fails to find support for the impact of negative events, nor the moderating roles of event confirmation or event criticality on the magnitude of change. Study 2 also extends to examine the permanence of changes in trust after trust-related events. The results suggest that the positive influence diminishes over the observed three weeks, and the trends are similar regardless of event criticality, proximity, or timing. This dissertation provides important implications to managers and organizations on how to prevent potential decreases in trust and how to enhance trust. Limitations and future directions are also discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Fisher and Brown (1988) described trust as "the single most important element of a good working relationship" (p. 107). As a key component of social capital (Paxton, 1999), interpersonal trust facilitates communication, cooperation, and knowledge sharing by reducing risks of being exploited or rejected (Chen, Chen, & Meindl, 1998; Creed & Miles, 1996). In the workplace, meta-analytical findings suggest that interpersonal trust is significantly associated with a wide range of employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, job performance, and citizenship behaviors (e.g., Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). However, despite this large body of research, our current knowledge of interpersonal trust is based primarily on studies viewing and examining trust from a static perspective, and our understanding of the dynamics of trust, including why and how trust decreases or increases, remains limited. For instance, De Jong, Kroon, and Schilke (2015) reviewed over 300 articles in recent trust research and concluded that *"we have seen relatively little progress in understanding trust dynamics, such as how the nature and meaning of trust may change over time"* (p. 19).

A better understanding of trust dynamics, particularly the reasons and processes of changes in trust, is imperative for several reasons. Research suggests that trust is by nature fragile and can be easily broken (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998). Studies have shown that 55% of employees reported reductions in trust due to employers' failure to meet their expectations (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Additionally, decreases in trust have a substantial influence on relationships (Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009), which can negatively affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, and citizenship behaviors. More specifically, people who are subject to decreases in trust are likely to experience emotional displeasure (Lount, Zhong, Sivanathan, & Murnighan, 2008), reduced cooperation (Schweitzer, Hershey, & Bradlow, 2006), and even have an impulse to retaliate (Bies & Tripp, 1996). Therefore, from the trustor's (i.e., the trusting party) perspective, the negative emotions and reduced cooperative behaviors associated with trust reductions will adversely impact their job attitudes and behaviors (e.g., job satisfaction, performance). The trustee's (i.e., the to-be-trusted party) work attitudes and performance can also suffer due to the trustor's reduced cooperation and possible retaliation. Similarly, it is important to understand how one can build trust; building trust is often difficult (Kramer, 1999), and increases in trust can bring positive impacts on a variety of work-related outcomes (Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer, Bobko, Davis, & Gavin, 2011; Williams, 2001).

In exploring changes in trust, most efforts have been directed toward understanding trust violations. Although research in the trust violation literature has begun to investigate the negative effects of violations of trust, as well as effective tactics to repair trust after violations, little is known about how trust is violated in the first place. In other words, the trust violation literature provides little insight into how and why decreases in trust occur. This is problematic; without knowledge about how trust violations occur, or the incidents/events that precipitate trust violations, we cannot prevent any violations of trust nor fully predict the effectiveness of trust repair tactics. Apart from the trust violation literature, very little empirical effort, unfortunately, has been made to investigate changes, especially increases in trust (see Mayer et al., 2011, for an exception).

1.2. Statement of the Problem

First, despite its dynamic nature, most studies view and investigate interpersonal trust statically, measuring trust and its antecedents or outcomes at the same point in time. This static perspective has largely limited our understanding, since trust is more like a process that can be evolved when one encounters new events or experiences than a static phenomenon. Indeed, research has suggested that there are three phases of trust that most people will experience in social relationships - trust building, trust stability, and trust dissolution (Rousseau et al., 1998), with trust increases [decreases] over time in the trust building [dissolution] phase. In addition, it is important to view trust as a dynamic process because research has shown that it is not only the current state but also the trend that determine people's attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Hausknecht, Sturman, & Roberson, 2011).

Second, even though we know that trust may change within an interpersonal relationship in the workplace, we do not know much about what causes trust to change. As argued above, in testing changes in trust, the trust violation literature is where most efforts have been focused. Although existing research suggests that trust violations are often associated with decreases in trust (e.g., Kim, Ferrin, Cooper, & Dirks, 2004; Kim, Dirks, Cooper, & Ferrin, 2006), my review of the trust violation literature has revealed that studies on trust violations focus primarily on how to effectively repair trust after violations, rather than how trust is violated in the first place. Therefore, despite prior research's propositions that a trust violation occurs when there is evidence disconfirming the positive expectation about the other party's characteristics or actions (Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2004), there are a few core questions that the literature is currently unable to answer. For example, does all disconfirming evidence decrease trust? Does evidence confirming one's negative expectation constitute a type of trust violations, and does it lead to decreases in trust? Without such knowledge, we can only prescribe actions or tactics to repair trust rather than predict or prevent possible decreases in trust. This omission closely mirrors a notable limitation of most organizational research - focusing on the final process or the end results (e.g., employee perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors) rather than what triggers the sense-making that ultimately affects the end results (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013). According to O'Neill and Cotton (2017), such focus "puts the cart before the horse."

The idea that preventing possible decreases in trust should be as important as repairing trust after violations is well-established in the crisis management literature. A trust violation/reduction can be viewed as a minor interpersonal crisis between two exchange entities (Clark, 1995). In the crisis management literature, it is acknowledged that prevention, preparation, and intervention are the steps to solve crisis situations, with prevention as the first step (Kash & Darling, 1998). Kash and Darling (1998) further argued that prevention is the least expensive, but often the most overlooked step in crisis management. Bringing this logic to the trust violation literature, exploring how trust is violated in the first place can be understood as a prevention strategy that helps avoid potential decreases in trust while investigating how violations can be repaired can be understood as an intervention tactic that helps reduce the harm associated with violations.

Thus, to better preserve high levels of trust and the positive outcomes associated with trust, it is important to examine what leads to decreases in trust.

With regards to increases in trust, as far as I know, only one article examines how interpersonal trust can be further developed (Mayer et al., 2011). Specifically, through a two-wave, five-month field study, Mayer et al. (2011) found that employees' trust in supervisors was enhanced after supervisors exhibited increased amount of referent power, expert power, and supportive behaviors. Despite these important findings, more research is needed to more comprehensively understand how interpersonal trust, including supervisor and coworker trust, can be increased.

Incorporating an event-related approach into understanding changes in trust can be helpful. Events help shape employee attitudes and behaviors in the workplace (Morgeson et al., 2015). Research has suggested that people have a fundamental need to understand and predict events that occur in their social environments, and the perceptions of events guide them to develop or adjust their attitudes and behaviors toward relevant social entities (Williams, 1997). This argument applies especially in the context of interpersonal trust, because of the risks (e.g., being exploited or rejected) associated with high levels of trust. In this dissertation, I focus on interpersonal events, which include specific episodes occurring between two parties that can give rise to a trust judgment. In the interest of space, I use the term "events" instead of "interpersonal events" throughout the rest of the dissertation. More specifically, I define event valence as whether the event is considered as positive or negative, with positive trust-related events positively *disconfirm* one's prior expectation or *confirm* one's prior positive expectations while negative trust-related events negatively *disconfirm* one's prior expectation or *confirms* one's prior negative expectation, regarding the other party's characteristics or conduct. Positive trust-related events can include, for example, adoption of transformational leadership behaviors, a promotion decision, a pay raise, a positive evaluation, or an invitation to have voice in decision-making (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). And negative trust-related events can include, for instance, a deception (Grover, Hasel, Manville, & Serrano-Archimi, 2014), a broken promise (Grover, Abid-Dupont, Manville, & Hasel, 2017), a negative evaluation, or simply a mistake (Hui, Lau, Tsang, & Pak, 2011). Indeed, in recent years, there is a growing advancement in using event-related concepts and theories to understand organizational phenomena (e.g., Methot, Lepak, Shipp, & Boswell, 2017; Morgeson et al., 2015). In line with this progress, I focus on understanding events as one of the most important antecedents that lead to changes in trust.

Third, though theory (e.g., dual-system theory; Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011) and research (e.g., Lewicki & Bunker, 1996) suggest that events may lead to changes in trust through people's affective and cognition reactions, a review of the trust literature conducted by Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) suggests that the role of emotions in the trust building and dissolution processes has been underexplored. Consistent with their findings, my review of the trust violation and trust building literature also reveals that empirical studies have focused primarily on cognitive assessments (e.g., trustworthiness evaluations) as the mediating mechanism when studying the outcomes of trust violations (see Lount et al., 2008 as an exception) or the factors leading to increases in trust. Understanding the potential mediating role of emotional reactions is important for multiple reasons. First, the affect infusion model (Forgas, 1995) suggests that emotions can affect people's trust directly without changing their cognitive evaluations, and thus investigating the effects of emotions may help better and more comprehensively capture the processes of changes in trust. Additionally, examining the effects of emotions may help repair trust, since research suggests that the effectiveness of trust repair tactics may depend on the emotions that the trustor experiences (Kim, Dirks, & Cooper, 2009).

Lastly, in examining the effects of events on changes in attitudes and behaviors, most studies focus only on whether changes occur in response to certain events, and/or the direction of change (e.g., Biafora, Vega, Warheit, & Gail, 1994; O'Neill & Cotton, 2017). There are, however, other important dimensions of change that are worth investigating. Over 25 years ago, Monge (1990) developed a typology for studying dynamic processes in organizations that suggests that scholars should explore the magnitude, lag, rate, and permanence of change when studying temporal dynamics. In other words, scholars need to understand the total amount of change (i.e., magnitude), the amount of time between an event and the onset of change (i.e., lag), the rapidity of change after the change starts (i.e., rate), and the duration of the change before it changes again (i.e., permanence). Understanding the different components of change, especially the magnitude and permanence of change, are particularly important in studying how changes in trust unfold. For instance, though studies involving change implicitly focus on the magnitude of change, they provide little theoretical rationale on the reasons underlying the magnitude of the change. It is important to understand why and when the magnitude of changes in trust is smaller or greater in response to trust-related events because a greater magnitude is associated with more severe outcomes (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). For the permanence of change, research in the resilience literature has suggested that our resilience capacity, the ability to "prepare and plan for, absorb, recover from, and more successfully adapt to adverse events" (National Research Council, 2012), allows us to recover from negative events without intervention (Francis & Bekera, 2014; Linkov, Bridges, Creutzig, Decker, Fox-Lent, Kröger,…, & Nyer, 2014). Similarly, certain negative events may lead to immediate decreases in trust, but the reductions may soon recover to its previous levels. If that is the case, people may not need to prevent or repair the short periods of trust reductions. Likewise, certain positive events may lead to increases in trust shortly before bouncing back to its original level. Of course, practitioners hope to maintain the enhanced trust and its associated positive outcomes, and therefore, it is important to understand how long increases in trust can remain, such that they can intervene to prolong the permanence.

Taken together, the goals of this dissertation are threefold. First, this dissertation investigates what types of events may lead to changes in trust. By examining triggering events that precipitate decreases in trust, I can help practitioners more proactively prevent and prepare for potential decreases in trust, rather than prescribing repair tactics for them to adopt in reaction to trust reductions that have been already happened. Similarly, by investigating events that predict increases in trust, this dissertation helps practitioners equip with strategies and tactics to promote trust at work. Second, this dissertation aims to enrich the trust literature by investigating the reasons why events may lead to changes in trust. Specifically, I focus on both cognitive and emotional reactions as the underlying mechanisms that explain the impact of events on changes in trust. Lastly, this dissertation aims to better capture the dynamics of changes in trust, by extending to examine the effects of event confirmation/disconfirmation and event characteristics (i.e., event criticality, proximity, and timing) on the magnitude and permanence of changes in trust. Figure 1 depicts the proposed research model.

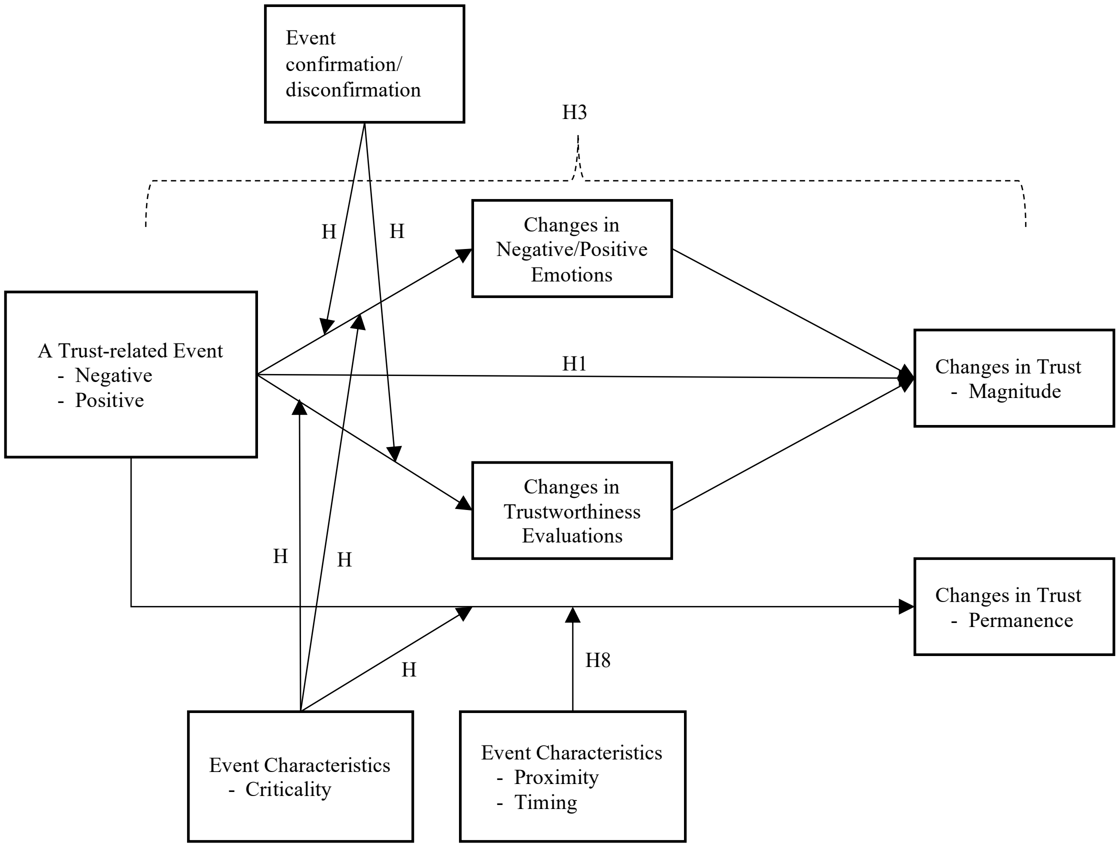

Figure 1. Research Model

1.3. Significance of the Research

Integrating and building on dual-system theory (Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011), event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015), and the typology of dynamic processes (Monge, 1990), this dissertation contributes to the existing trust literature in several ways. First, by investigating the types of events that may lead to changes in trust, the results of this dissertation will provide important insights into the dynamic nature of trust. Specifically, though changes in trust are common and expected to affect a range of outcomes in the workplace (e.g., Kim et al., 2004), scholars know little about what leads to decreases/increases in trust. Taking an event-based approach, this dissertation proposes and tests that interpersonal trust will decrease [increase] because of events that (1) either negatively [positive] disconfirm trustors' prior expectation, or (2) confirm trustors' prior negative [positive] expectation, about trustees. Understanding the types of events that may cause changes in trust also has important practical implications. For instance, managers may fail to realize that they engage in some behaviors that break the trust between them and their employees. By being aware of the types of events that may decrease trust, managers can more effectively prevent and prepare for trust reductions, which, otherwise, may result in more harmful outcomes. Also, by understanding the types of events that may enhance trust, managers can be better equipped with knowledge and skills to promote higher levels of trust at work.

Second, in addition to testing the effects of events on trust, this dissertation investigates the mechanisms underpinning the effects, which will deepen scholarly understanding of how changes in interpersonal trust unfold over time. Specifically, drawing from dual-system theory (Epstein, 1994), the affect infusion model (Forgas, 1995), and the integrative model of trust (Mayer et al., 1995), I argue that a negative [positive] trust-related event can result in decreases [increases] in trust through increases in negative [positive] emotions and decreases [increases] in cognitive trustworthiness evaluations. It is important to consider these two different mechanisms simultaneously when studying the effects of events on changes in trust because doing so enhances our understanding of both the unique and the relative influence of emotional and cognitive reactions on trust. Practically, different tactics might be required to repair reduced trust or maintain enhanced trust that caused by different mechanisms.

Third, although prior studies have investigated whether changes in attitudes will occur and/or the direction of the change in response to events (e.g., Biafora et al., 1994; O'Neill & Cotton, 2017), it is not yet known whether or how events can affect specific dimensions of change (e.g., magnitude, permanence). By adopting the typology of dynamic processes developed by Monge (1990), the third contribution of this dissertation is testing the impact of event confirmation/disconfirmation and characteristics (e.g., event criticality, proximity, and timing) on the magnitude and permanence of changes in trust. Magnitude of decreases in trust matters because greater (vs. smaller) magnitude of change tends to be associated with more severe consequences (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). Permanence of change matters because it may largely determine whether and how to intervene in the changing processes. Though it is important to understand the types of events that can have a critical impact on trust, it is equally important, if not more important, to identify the characteristics of events that can affect trust the most in terms of its magnitude and permanence. Taken together, understanding how the magnitude and permanence of changes in trust unfold due to a trust-related event will provide important theoretical and practical implications.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Current Interpersonal Trust Research

2.1.1. Definitions of Interpersonal Trust

Because of its importance across various disciplines (e.g., social psychology, sociology, and economics), trust has been defined in numerous ways. For instance, some scholars view trust as a facet of one's personality – similar to trust propensity or dispositional trust – that develops early in life and remains relatively stable (e.g., Rotter, 1967; Webb & Worchel, 1986). Some view trust as a set of beliefs and expectations about another party's characteristics, intentions, and behaviors (e.g., Cook & Wall, 1980; McAllister, 1995; Robinson, 1996). Other scholars think of trust as a psychological state, or the willingness to be vulnerable based on the beliefs and expectations about the other party (Mayer et al, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). Lastly, there is a group of scholars that consider trust synonymous with cooperative or risk-taking behaviors (e.g., Gambetta, 1998; Kee & Knox, 1970). Not surprisingly, with so many different perspectives from different disciplines, there has been a lot of confusion in the literature about how to define and conceptualize trust.

The integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer et al., 1995) has been instrumental in clarifying the confusion surrounding the many definitions. Indeed, the integrative model of trust is the first model to clearly define and distinguish between trust and its antecedents (e.g., trust propensity, trustworthiness) and outcomes (e.g., risk-taking behaviors). According to Mayer et al. (1995), trust is a psychological state, and is 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 trustee, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712). In contrast, trustworthiness is an evaluative judgment, and it represents a person's characteristics, including ability, benevolence, and integrity. Trust propensity is a trait that is developed based on one's early experiences, personality types, and cultural background: it affects one's willingness to trust or rely on others' words and promises, especially when the information of the others is not available. Both the trustworthiness of the trustee and the trust propensity of the trustor are important antecedents of trust. Notably, risk taking is considered an outcome of trust. Mayer et al. (1995) noted that what distinguishes trust from risk taking is whether one has actually taken the involved risks. That is, trust is the willingness to assume risk, while risk taking is actively assuming risks. Thus, risk taking can be viewed as a behavioral manifestation of trust.

Since the publication of Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model, there has been a growing consensus regarding the definition and conceptualization of trust. Most recent trust studies are built on the definition proposed by Mayer et al. (1995). The integrative model's definition highlights two important aspects of trust. First, it underscores that trust is driven by trustees' characteristics or previous behaviors that render trustors be confident about the future interactions between them. Second, this definition indicates that there exist risks (e.g., being exploited or rejected) in trusting others, as one is willing to accept their vulnerability.

In addition to differentiating trust from its antecedents and consequences, Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model of trust discusses the evolution of trust over time. This model involves a feedback loop from the outcomes of risk taking to the perceived trustworthiness of the trustee. The feedback loop suggests that trust can be reduced or enhanced depending on the favorability of outcomes, through the trustor's re-evaluation of the trustee's ability, benevolence, and/or integrity. For example, assume that a manager has high initial levels of trust in an employee, and thus empowers that employee a task that is important to the manager's future career. If the employee fails the task and harms the manager's reputation, the manager's perceptions of the employee's trustworthiness may decrease, leading to reductions in trust. Conversely, if the employee completes the task successfully and benefits the manager's career, the manager's perceptions of the employee's trustworthiness will increase, leading to even higher levels of trust.

Taken together, as a psychological state based on expectations of another party's characteristics, interpersonal trust is inherently a dynamic construct. However, most empirical studies view and examine trust from a static perspective, measuring trust and its antecedents or outcomes at a single point in time. Therefore, future studies should consider trust as a process rather than a stable phenomenon.

2.1.2. Trust as a Process: Building and Dissolution

In social relationships, people often experience three phases of trust – trust building, trust stability, and trust dissolution (Rousseau et al., 1998). Trust building is the phase where trust is formed (i.e., emerged in new relationships) or reformed (i.e., created or enhanced in existing relationships); trust stability is the phase where trust already exists and is relatively stable; and trust dissolution is the phase where trust declines. During the trust building and dissolution phases, trust changes over time. Because there is a lack of research on trust building, the below review on “trust as a process” focuses mostly on trust dissolution, especially on trust violations.

2.1.2.1. Trust Building

Two competing perspectives have emerged regarding the trust building processes. The first perspective, based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), is the transformational perspective of trust development. This perspective considers trust as a rational outcome that is developed slowly and gradually after repeated, positive experiences and interactions (e.g., Holmes, 1991; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). In other words, from the transformational perspective, interpersonal trust starts low and requires time and multiple interactions to grow. In contrast, from a swift trust perspective, scholars have demonstrated that high levels of trust can be formed rapidly, even before the initiation of interactions (e.g., Holtz, 2015; Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996; Robert, Denis, & Hung, 2009; Wildman, Shuffler, Lazzara, Fiore, Burke, Salas, & Garven, 2012). These high levels of initial trust result from trustors’ and trustees’ characteristics and past experiences, and/or environmental cues, such as trustors’ high faith in humanity or stereotypes, trustees’ good reputations, and/or impersonal structures within an organization that reduce the risks of trust (McKnight et al., 1998; Meyerson et al., 1996; Weber, Maihotra, & Murnighan, 2005).

Despite these efforts in understanding trust building processes, very few studies, to my knowledge, have focused on investigating how and why increases in trust occur. (The exception to this is research on trust repair after violations; I provide a comprehensive summary of this sub-type in the following section). As an exception, Mayer et al. (2011) conducted a five-month, two-wave longitudinal study and found that increases in supervisor trust occurred after increases in supervisor's use of power and influence attempts, such as referent power, expert power, and task-related supportive behaviors. Despite these important findings, a number of open questions remain. For example, using power or influence attempts to enhance trust is exclusive to supervisors, and thus can hardly be transferred to other trust referents (e.g., coworkers, subordinates). Also, other tactics or methods, such as the influence of events, that may affect trust development have not been studied. Specifically, from the transformational perspective of trust development (e.g., social exchange theory; Blau, 1964), successful interactions or fulfilling expectations can result in increases in trust, but we do not know (1) whether any event with fulfilled expectations can induce increases in trust, (2) whether increases in trust unfold similarly after different events with fulfilled expectations, or (3) whether events that disconfirms a negative expectation can also enhance trust.

2.1.2.2. Trust Dissolution

Trust dissolution, or decreases in trust, can occur at any point in a relationship. Though a large body of studies has examined the antecedents and outcomes of trust, we have relatively little knowledge about why and how trust declines (De Jong et al., 2015; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). It was not until early 2000 that researchers (e.g., Kim et al., 2004; Tomlinson et al., 2004) started to focus on how trust violations harm trust. Prior research proposes that trust is considered violated when there is evidence disconfirming positive expectation about the trustee's characteristics or actions, or when trustors perceive the behavior of the trustee does not fulfill their expectations (Elangovan, Auer-Rizzi, & Szabo, 2007; Tomlinson et al., 2004). This disconfirmation or negative perception then redefines the nature of the relationship in the mind of the trustors, leading to decreases in trust (Tomlinson et al., 2004). To better understand the trust violation literature, I conducted a comprehensive review of empirical studies on the topic of trust violations in the management literature. Specifically, I conducted a web-based search (PsycINFO) using keywords “*trust violation*”, “*trust decline*”, and “*trust erosion*” to identify published articles that empirically test trust violations. Table 1 reports the summary of the relevant articles.

How Trust Violations Occur. Of the 19 articles that have empirically examined trust violations, only one study focused on investigating how violations occur (i.e., Grover et al., 2014), though several experimental studies manipulated the incidents/events that precipitate trust violations (e.g., Kim & Harmon, 2014; Tomlinson et al., 2004). Specifically, Grover et al. (2014) interviewed 41 white collar employees who had relationships with their supervisors for at least one year and found that there were two types of trust violations – recoverable violations and irrecoverable violations. Recoverable violations were caused by supervisory incompetence (e.g., leader often makes mistakes), lack of caring (e.g., leader does not defend the follower), and/or interference (e.g., leader watches too closely). Irrecoverable violations were caused by supervisor deception (e.g., leader lies) and/or abuse of power (e.g., leader shows unfair favoritism). They further argued that the differences between recoverable and irrecoverable violations were dependent on the intentionality of the offender and the severity of the violation.

Outcomes of Trust Violations. My review of the trust violation literature suggests that trustworthiness beliefs, trusting intentions (i.e., trust), and behavioral trust (e.g., risk-taking behaviors) are the most commonly studied outcomes after trust

Table 1. Summary of Empirical Studies on Trust Violations

Study	Violation Types	Violation Characters	Study Design	Trustor (or Victim)	Trustor (or Offender)	How Violation Occurs	Outcome of Violation	Repair Tactics
1. Kim, Ferrin, Cooper, & Dirks (2004)	Competence-based; Integrity-based		Experiment (scenario-based)	Undergraduate students	Job candidate (manipulated)		Trusting Beliefs (i.e., Perceived Competence/Integrity); Truing Intentions (i.e., Willingness to risk; Hiring; Job responsibilities)	Apology; Deny
2. Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki (2004)		Probability of future violation; high or low magnitude	Experiment (Policy-capturing)	Graduate students	Negotiation partner (manipulated)	A broken promise (manipulated)	Willingness to Reconcile	Apology (type of the apology, time of the apology, sincerity of the apology)
3. Kim, Dirks, Cooper, & Ferrin (2006)	Competence-based; integrity-based		Experiment (scenario-based)	Undergraduate students	Job candidate (manipulated)		Trusting Beliefs (i.e., Perceived Competence/Integrity); Truing Intentions (i.e., Willingness to risk; Hiring)	Apology with internal vs. external attribution
4. Schweitzer, Hershey, & Bradlow (2006)			Experiment (trust game)	Students	Computer confederate	Untrustworthy behavior; deception (manipulated)	Perceived integrity; Passing money	Apology, promise, a series of trustworthy actions
5. Elangovan, Auer-Rizzi & Szabo (2007)		Attribution of violation (i.e., didn't want to vs. couldn't); the number of prior violations	Experiment (scenario-based)	Middle-senior managers	Working partner (manipulated)	Failing to meet the expectation (manipulated)	Trust; Distrust	

6. Ferrin, Kim, Cooper, & Dirks (2007)	Competence-based; Integrity-based		Experiment (scenario-based)	Graduate students	Job candidate (manipulated)		Trusting Beliefs (i.e., Perceived Competence/Integrity); Truing Intentions (i.e., Willingness to risk; Hiring)	Apology; Denial; Reticence
7. Lount, Zhong, Sivanathan, & Murnighan (2008)		Timing of the violation	Experiment (trust game)	Undergraduate students	Computer confederate		Study 1: Trustworthiness; Passing money. Study 2: Interpersonal judgment; anger; Passing money	
8. Haselhuhn, Schweitzer, & Kray (2010)			Experiment (negotiation exercise)	MBA students	Negotiation partner (manipulated)	Deception (manipulated)	Perceived integrity	
9. Dirks, Kim, Ferrin, & Cooper (2011)	Competence-based; Integrity-based		Experiment (trust game)	Undergraduate students	Computer confederate		Trusting beliefs (e.g., Perceived integrity); Trusting behavior (i.e., passing money)	Penance; Regulation
10. Hui, Lau, Tsang, & Pak (2011)			Experiment (scenario-based)	Working adults	Coworker (manipulated)	A mistake made by the coworker (manipulated)	Trusting beliefs (e.g., perceived integrity)	Apology
11. Sorensen, Hasle, & Pejtersen (2011)			Case study	Working adults	Top management	Transformational changes	Trusting intentions	Strong management actions that symbolize integrity
12. Tomlinson (2012)		Severity of violation	Experiment (trust game)	Undergraduate students	Computer confederate		Trusting beliefs (i.e., perceived integrity); Trusting behavior (i.e., passing money)	Apology; Promise;
13. Webber, Bishop, & O'Neill (2012)	Competence-based; Integrity-based		Survey; Interviews	Managers	Top management		Trusting intentions	Perceived organizational support; issue-selling

14. Kim, Cooper, Dirks, & Ferrin (2013)	Competence-based; Integrity-based		Experiment (scenario-based)	Undergraduate students (individually and as a group)	Job candidate (manipulated)		Trusting Beliefs (i.e., Perceived Competence/Integrity); Truing Intentions (i.e., Hiring)	Apology; Deny
15. Kim & Harmon (2014)			Experiment (scenario-based)	Working adults	Coworker (manipulated)	Untrustworthy behavior (manipulated)	Trusting intentions	Apology with justification (equity-, equality-, or need-based justification)
16. Grover, Hasel, Manville, & Serrano-Archimi (2014)	Recoverable violations; Irrecoverable violations		Qualitative	Working adults	Supervisor	Supervisor incompetence; Lack of care; Interference; Deception; Abuse of power;		Self-questioning; acknowledging the wrongdoing; demonstrating support
17. Kuwabara, Vogt, Watabe, & Komiya (2014)		Timing of violation	Experiment (trust game)	Undergraduate students	Computer confederate		Trusting beliefs (e.g., perceived integrity); Relational cohesion	
18. Elangovan, Auer-Rizzi, & Szabo (2015)		Violation with and without damage	Experiment (scenario-based)	Working adults	Coworker (manipulated)	Failure to meet expectation (manipulated)	Trusting beliefs (e.g., perceived integrity)	Explanation; Apology; Remedy
19. Grover, Abid-Dupont, Manville, & Hasel (2017)		Intentionality of violation; severity of violation	Study 1: Critical incident method; Study 2: Experiment (scenario-based)	Working adults	Study 1: Actual Supervisor; Study 2: Supervisor (manipulated)	Failure to keep promise (manipulated)	Trusting intentions	Apology

violations. Trustworthiness beliefs represent trustors' perceptions about trustees' ability, benevolence, and/or integrity that may ultimately affect trustors' trusting intentions and behaviors. Trusting intentions describe the psychological state of trust, or trustors' willingness to be vulnerable in the presence of risks. Behavioral trust depicts the actual actions, such as passing money or an endowment to another party in trust games. Of the 19 articles, 12 assessed trustworthiness beliefs (with most studies focusing on perceived integrity) as the outcomes or mediating variables that led to trusting intentions or behavioral trust (e.g., Kim et al., 2004; Haselhuhn, Schweitzer, & Wood, 2010; Schweitzer et al., 2006), nine assessed trusting intentions as the outcomes (e.g., Kim & Harmon, 2014; Ferrin, Kim, Cooper, & Dirks, 2007; Sørensen, Hasle, & Pejtersen, 2011), and five assessed behavioral trust as the outcome after violations of trust (e.g., Lount et al., 2008; Tomlinson, 2012). In addition to trustworthiness beliefs, trusting intentions, and behavioral trust, one article (i.e., Lount et al., 2008; Study 2) found that violations of trust also triggered trustors' negative emotions (i.e., anger).

Types of trust violations. Though the incidents/events that precipitate trust violations have received scant research attention, several studies have explored whether and how different types of violations affect trust, or the effectiveness of repair tactics (e.g., Kim, Cooper, Dirks, & Ferrin, 2013; Kim et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2004). More specifically, of the 19 articles, six categorized trust violations into competence-based and integrity-based trust and found that different repair strategies were required depending on the type of violations. For instance, Kim et al. (2004) conducted two experimental studies and found that apologies helped with competence-based violations, whereas denial was more superior for repairing integrity-based violation.

Characteristics of trust violations. The characteristics of trust violations describe the timing, severity, intentionality, and other features of violations that may strengthen or weaken the harm caused by offenders or the effectiveness of trust repair tactics. Eight out of the 19 studies have examined the effects of violations' characteristics. For instance, through two experimental studies using a repeated prisoner's dilemma, Lount et al. (2008) found that compared to later violations of trust, early violations had stronger and longer lasting negative outcomes (i.e., reduces in trustworthiness beliefs and behavioral trust). Additionally, Tomlinson (2012) conducted a laboratory study using undergraduates as their sample and found that the severity of violations moderated the effects of the apologies and promises interaction on victims' post-violation trust.

Repair Tactics After Violations. Repair tactics have been the predominant focus of most trust violation research. Specifically, 16 out of the 19 articles investigated how to effectively repair trust after violations. Apologies (e.g., Kim et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2006; Kim & Harmon, 2014; Tomlinson et al., 2004), denials (e.g., Ferrin et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2013), explanations (e.g., Elangovan, Auer-Rizzi, & Szabo, 2015), promises (e.g., Schweitzer et al., 2006; Tomlinson, 2012), reticence (e.g., Ferrin et al., 2007), penances (e.g., Dirks, Kim, Ferrin, & Cooper, 2011), regulations (e.g., Dirks et al., 2011), and subsequent trustworthy actions (Schweitzer et al., 2006; Sørensen et al., 2011) have all been examined as potential tactics to repair trust.

Design of Trust Violation Research. In terms of the design of the 19 articles, 16 studies adopted an experimental design. Of the experimental studies, ten studies used a scenario-based experimental design, asking participants to assume the role a trustee who observed or experienced a trust violation (e.g., Kim et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2004; Hui et al., 2011). Five studies used a trust game-based experimental design, manipulating violations of trust within repeated interactions (e.g., Lount et al., 2008; Schweitzer et al., 2006). One study used a policy-capturing design, asking participants to respond to a series of questions after each designed scenario. Among the remaining three studies, Sørensen et al. (2011) used a case study method and examined the changes of trust in management after transformational changes of two manufacturing firms; Simsarian Webber, Bishop, and O'Neill (2012) conducted surveys and interviews with 32 managers who had been through trust violations to understand the efforts to repair trust; and Grover et al. (2014) conducted interviews to study the specific events that could lead to violations of supervisor trust.

Limitations of the Current Trust Violation Literature. Despite recent progress toward understanding trust violations, several important omissions require further explorations. First, almost all experimental studies ignore personal history, or the long-term relationships, between trustees and trustors in real working settings. Rather, they focus on a single manipulated event and a quick repair approach where the consequences of the violation are often short-lived (Simsarian Webber et al., 2012). Second, as most studies focusing on trust repair after violations, we have gained little knowledge about how trust violations occur or what can violate trust. Though research proposes that disconfirmation of positive expectations or failing to fulfill expectations result in violations of trust (Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998), it is not clear (1) whether any event with disconfirmation of positive expectation or unmet expectations can lead to trust violations, (2) whether trust violations unfold similarly after different events with disconfirmation of positive expectation or unmet expectations, and (3) whether events with confirmation of negative expectation can also violate trust. Taken together, though some experimental studies manipulated certain events (e.g., a broken promise, an untrustworthy behavior) that ultimately led to violations of trust, we are not certain about whether an event that can reduce trust in experimental design can have similar effects in real work settings, given the history between trustors and trustees.

Moreover, we do not have a firm understanding of the underlying characteristics that make events sufficiently impactful to result in erosions of trust. Without such knowledge, we can only examine specific events in a retrospective way, rather than predict the effects of events over time (Morgeson et al., 2015). As argued earlier, understanding the types and characteristics of events that can violate trust could help *prevent* trust violations, and thus should be as important as examining effective repair tactics after violations. In addition, although trust violations are considered to be associated with both emotional and cognitive reactions (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996), existing studies focus primarily on cognitive assessments (e.g., trusting beliefs) as the mediating mechanism when studying the outcomes of trust violations (see Lount et al., 2008 as an exception). Lastly, when examining trust violations, current research focuses mostly on whether violations occur, or whether trust declines, instead of the whole processes of the declines. More specifically, no study has examined the specific dimensions, such as the magnitude and permanence, of decreases in trust after a violation.

2.2. A Review of Events-related Concepts

2.2.1. Definition of Events

According to the World Book Dictionary, an event is "a happening, especially an important happening". In organizational studies, scholars have studied a wide range of events including affective events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), anchoring events (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010), momentous events (Pillemer, 2001), justice events (Rupp & Paddock, 2010), positive and negative events (Ilies, Keeney, & Scott, 2011; Lavallee & Campbell, 1995), and novel and disruptive events (Morgeson, 2005). Others have focused on critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954), shocks (Lee & Mitchell, 1994), milestones (Hoffman, 1999), crises (Gersick, 1991), and turning points (McAdams & Bowman, 2001). All of the above terms have been used by organizational scholars to describe events, though as noted by Morgeson et al. (2015), events are defined insufficiently in at least three ways in the existing literature. First, some definitions are too broad and inclusive. For instance, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) defined affective events as "a change in circumstances, a change in what one is currently experiencing" (p. 31). Second, some definitions are circular. As an example, positive [negative] events are defined based on their positive [negative] outcomes (Ilies et al., 2011). Lastly, some research focuses on the adjective preceding the word 'event' and ignores what distinguish impactful events from non-impactful ones (e.g., anchoring events, positive/negative events). To address these issues, Morgeson et al. (2015) introduced event-system theory to describe what events are and articulate what and when events are salient to bring changes in organizations.

Specifically, Morgeson et al. (2015) defined events as “external, bounded in time and space, and involving the intersection of different entities” (p. 520). This definition represents three important features of events. First, to separate events from psychological processes or reactions to events, Morgeson et al. (2015) view events as external to an entity. Second, bounded in time and space suggests that events should have a noticeable beginning and ending at a particular setting that shows discontinuity from the routine work. Lastly, events are between-entity rather than intra-entity, such that events can arise from interactions between two or more people, but not from the entity him- or herself. For the purpose of this paper, I draw from Morgeson et al.’s (2015) event-system theory to articulate the influences of events on interpersonal trust, as it provides a useful guideline to study why, what, how, and for how long events can lead to changes in trust.

2.2.2. Roles of Events

Theory suggests that events play a very important role in affecting attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. For instance, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) introduced affective events theory and suggested that work events can affect affective reactions, which further influence attitudes and behaviors at work, such as job satisfaction and task performance. Similarly, fairness theory suggests that justice events (i.e., events relate to organizational fairness) can affect employee attitudes and behaviors by triggering automatic emotional responses, followed by more controlled cognitive assessments (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). As another example, Lee and Mitchell (1994) propositioned that shocks, which are distinguishable events that make employees reevaluate their jobs, could affect employee turnover decisions. More relevant to changes, Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) introduced anchoring events, which occur when a focal individual (a) largely depends on another entity for some resources, (b) experiences something, either positive or negative, unexpected from that entity, and (c) attributes the unexpected outcomes to the entity, and argued that anchoring events can lead to long-lasting relationship changes.

The effects of events have been the subject of many empirical investigations. For instance, Kuba and Cheibe (2017), through an experience sampling method (ESM) with 92 employees from the healthcare industry, found that negative work events significantly increased employees' end-of-day negative emotions and fatigue, and decreased their daily work engagement. Similarly, using a diary study, Miralles, Navarro, and Unger (2015) found that daily events were significantly associated with employees' work engagement, through positive and negative affect.

Despite the potential influence of events on changes in employee attitudes and behaviors, it is important to note that not all events command attention, or are sufficiently salient to make a difference (Nigam & Ocasio, 2010). To help explain this notable question, Morgeson et al.'s (2015) event-system theory provides a comprehensive framework by discussing the characteristics of events, including event strength, space, and time, that make events impactful and meaningful.

2.2.3. Characteristics of Events

According to event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015), an event can be considered in terms of its strength, space, and time. At the individual level, the level that applies to interpersonal trust, event strength includes the novelty, disruption, and criticality of an event. Event space reflects the place, location, or hierarchical level where an event originates from, and consists of event origin and proximity. Finally, event time includes event duration and timing. In the following section, I define and discuss each of the characteristics of events.

Event novelty. Event novelty refers to the extent to which an event is unfamiliar or different from past events or experiences (Morgeson, 2005; Morgeson et al., 2015). Representatives of event novelty include “there are no clear, known ways to respond to the event”, or “there lacks an understandable sequence of steps that can be followed in responding to the event” (Morgeson, 2005). As such, examples of novel events include an introduction of a new technology or a new member joining a work group. An example of a novel event that may specifically lead to changes in supervisor trust can be a leader introducing a monitoring system. It is a novel event because it has never happened before and employees have limited knowledge about how to react to it without careful consideration. It is not disruptive or critical since the monitoring system does not necessarily disrupt employees’ ability to get their work done, or should be considered important. According to event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015), when routine or familiar events occur, people are more likely to use their intuition or established responses to interpret and react, which seldom triggers any change in attitudes or perceptions. In contrast, in facing novel events, people are likely to engage in controlled information processing to figure out “What is this?” and “How and why did this happen?” (Morgeson et al., 2015). This in-depth, deliberate thinking or analysis is more likely to result in changes (Morgeson et al., 2015).

Event disruption. Event disruption describes the extent to which an event disturbs, or brings discontinuity in the environment (Hoffman & Ocasio, 2001; Morgeson et al., 2015). Indicators of event disruption include “the event disrupts an individual’s ability to get their work done”, “the event causes an individual to stop and think about how to respond”, and “the event alters an individual’s normal way of responding” (Morgeson, 2005). Accordingly, specific disruptive events include a major conflict between two entities, or a failure in an important work procedure. With regard to changes in supervisor trust, a relevant example includes an event where a leader did not support an employee and the employee’s work despite agreeing to do so. Such an event is disruptive but not necessarily novel or critical, since employees may have witnessed similar events before, and not every employee highly value support from his/her supervisor. Disruptive events, compared to non-disruptive events, are more likely to result in changes because disruptive events interrupt ordinary or routine work procedures, which requires further information processing to understand what reactions or behaviors need to adjust (Zellmer-Bruhn, 2003; Morgeson et al., 2015).

Event criticality. Event criticality reflects the importance or priority of an event to an individual (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006; Morgeson et al., 2015). When a person perceives an event as threatening (Brown, Sklair, Harris, & Birley, 1973), or severe (Dohrenwend, Raphael, Schwartz, Stueve, & Skodol, 1993), the event is typically considered critical by the individual. The more critical an event is, the more likely it will be perceived as salient and will require further attention and information processing resources to respond to it (Morgeson et al., 2015). As illustrated earlier, changes are more likely to occur when people pay attention to an event and engage in effortful information processing (Morgeson et al., 2015). For example, if an employee puts great value on getting support from supervisor, then an incident such as “my leader did not defend me” is a critical event that may require considerable information processing and ultimately decrease their trust in the leader. In contrast, if an employee values fairness rather than support from supervisor, then an event such as “supervisor failed to pay promised bonus” will cause the employee to devote more effort to respond to it, and is thus more likely to result in changes.

Event origin. Event origin describes the source of an event. More specifically, an event can originate inside or outside an organization. Inside an organization, an event can originate at any hierarchical level, such as peer-, supervisor- or organizational level. Morgeson et al. (2015) proposed that because an event originating at higher levels (vs. lower levels) tends to have a larger scope, it can strengthen the influence of event strength (i.e., novelty, disruption, and criticality) on changes of behaviors, features, and future events.

Event proximity. The proximity of an event represents the psychological or physical distance between an individual and an event (Morgeson et al., 2015). To illustrate, the departure of a particular employee’s direct supervisor reflects closer proximity (or less spatial distance) than the departure of a CEO. Another example that shows close proximity is when an event happens to an individual themselves, rather than when the event occurs to others (i.e., farther proximity). Given that distance makes social influence less likely to occur (Rice & Aydin, 1991), it may weaken the effects of event strength on relevant outcomes (i.e., changes of behaviors, features, and future events) (Morgeson et al., 2015). In other words, when an event occurs closer to an individual, psychologically or physically, its effects on changes in subsequent attitudes and behaviors will be stronger.

Event duration. Event duration reflects how long an event lasts. Though bounded in time, events often vary in duration. Some events, such as an impulsive fight, last only a short period of time, while other events, such as a long-lasting lawsuit, may endure for much longer. Events with longer durations are expected to draw more attention and effort to react to them and are more taxing to individuals. Thus, longer events are more likely to bolster the effects of event strength on changes in attitudes and behaviors (Morgeson et al., 2015).

Event timing. Event timing represents the specific time or developmental stage in a relationship, work team, or organization when an event occurs (Morgeson et al., 2015). Research suggests that individuals experience different developmental stages (e.g., career stages, Allen & Meyer, 1993; relationship stages, Lipton & Nelson, 1980) and vary their attitudes and values across stages. Given the different values and attitudes at different stages, an individual may react to the same event differently, depending on the timing of the event. In support of this argument, Avolio and Hannah (2008) suggested that the effect of a triggering event (e.g., being provided a challenging project) on leader development differs depending on people's developmental readiness. Accordingly, Morgeson et al. (2015) suggested that events matching the needs associated with the developmental stage are more likely to lead to changes.

2.3. A Review of Dynamic Processes

Although studies have tested the effects of events on changes (e.g., Biafora, et al., 1994; O'Neill & Cotton, 2017), they focus exclusively on changes in general and ignore the nuances of the changes. This omission mirrors the observation of George and Jones (2000), who wrote "although theories in organizational behavior, more often than not, specify relationships among constructs in causal terms, the duration of effects, the time lag between causes and effects, and differences in rates of changes are often left unspecified" (p. 670). To fully capture the nuances of changes, Monge (1990) developed a typology for studying dynamic processes in organizations, which suggests that scholars should explore the history before changes, and the lag, rate, magnitude, and permanence of changes when studying temporal dynamics.

History before change. Monge (1990) argued that before examining how predictor X (e.g., an event) impacts outcome Y (e.g., interpersonal trust), it is important to understand the history of both variables. This argument is consistent with Gergen's (1973) views, which consider social psychology a historically bounded pursuit. More specifically, the history of a variable may include, but not is limited to, the trend of the variable (e.g., increase, decrease, or stable) before the occurrence of its antecedents or outcomes and the current status of the variable (e.g., high or low in magnitude). For instance, in the trust literature, research has shown that the nature of past relationship affected injured parties' willingness to reconcile after violations (Tomlinson et al., 2004). Elangovan et al. (2007) found that the number of prior violations affected the damages caused by the current violation.

Magnitude of change. Magnitude of change describes how large the change is in the dependent variable, ranging from very small to very large in amount. Magnitude of change matters because, intuitively, larger (vs. smaller) changes should be associated with greater emotional reactions as well as more cognitive assessments, which should lead to stronger and more lasting consequences (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). Though some empirical studies testing causal effects over time have the magnitude of change reported, very few of them have a priori discussion about the reasons or outcomes of the size of the change (Gabriel, Diefendorff, Bennett, & Sloan, 2017). As an exception, Call, Nyberg, Ployhart, and Weekley (2015) hypothesized and found that turnover rate change in magnitude was negatively associated with unit performance. In the trust literature, Tomlinson et al. (2004) manipulated the magnitude of a violation of trust and found that it moderated the effect of an offender's apology on victims' willingness to reconcile.

Lag of change. Lag of change represents the amount of time between when predictor X (e.g., an event) starts to occur and when outcome Y (e.g., interpersonal trust) starts to change. In other words, lag of change describes how immediate the outcome Y will change after the occurrence of the predictor X. It is important to capture lag of change because it sometimes takes time for predictors to produce outcomes or changes (Shamir, 2011). That is also one of the reasons why scholars are and should be careful in choosing time intervals when testing causal effects. For instance, Westphal (1991) found that the ties between CEOs and their boards of directors significantly affected firm performance two years later. If the authors assessed firm performance at the same time as they assessed the ties between CEOs and boards, there might not be sufficient time for the ties to produce effects, leading to insignificant conclusions. In testing the effects of trust over time, prior studies often chose a time lag between two weeks and four months (e.g., Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Schaubroeck, Peng, & Hannah, 2013).

Rate of change. Rate of change reflects the speed at which a change occurs. Kagan (1986) argued that reality is composed of events that change at dramatically different rates, regardless of its magnitude or lag. Thus, the rate at which a change can occur ranges from very slowly to very rapidly. As an important component of dynamic processes, rate of change also exerts important influences on people's attitudes and behaviors. For instance, Chang, Johnson, and Lord (2009) found that job satisfaction and goal commitment were affected not only by the discrepancies between current and desired states but also by the rates at which the discrepancies change over time. More specifically, through a field study, Chang et al. (2009) found that the rate at which the differences between an employee's current and desired amount of job characteristics (e.g., pay rate, health insurance, promotion opportunities) was reduced was positively associated with the employee's job satisfaction (e.g., satisfaction of task, interpersonal interaction, and challenge); in this case, the higher the rate was, the more satisfied one was with their job, above and beyond the current amount of the job characteristics. They also conducted an experimental study and found that one's task satisfaction and goal commitment were affected by both their performance-goal discrepancies and the rate at which these discrepancies were reduced (Chang et al., 2009). Similar findings have been observed by Hsee, Abelson, and Salovey (1991), Hsee and Abelson (1991), and Guy and Lord (1998).

Given the importance of rate of change, more and more research attention has been devoted to understanding the reasons and processes of the rate of change in recent years (e.g., Devaraj & Jiang, 2018; Edwards, Lipponen, Edwards, & Hakonen, 2017; Konradt, Garbers, Erdogan, & Bauer, 2016). For instance, Edwards et al. (2017) found that during mergers, employees' rate of change in organizational identification was influenced by the size (i.e., large vs. small) and position (i.e., acquiring vs. being acquired) of the organization. As another example, in examining the entire hiring processes, Konradt et al. (2016) found that applicants' high (vs. low) initial levels of fairness perception were associated with a lower rate of decreases in fairness over time.

Permanence of change. Permanence of change describes how long outcome Y remains at the new level after the occurrence of predictor X. Some effects may increase to a certain level and remain relatively stable, while other effects may increase initially and then subside or bounce back to their original levels. An event that may lead to permanent change might be a change in leadership style. More specifically, a follower may react more favorably when their leader starts to show individualized consideration. Then the favorable evaluation may increase to a certain level and remain stable after the follower becomes habituated to the leader's new leadership style (Shamir, 2011). However, not all events have long-lasting effects. For example, through experimental studies, Macht and Mueller (2007) found that although eating chocolate could improve one's negative emotions, its effect only lasted for three minutes.

Research from other literature provides theoretical support for the temporary effects of events. For example, in the subjective well-being literature, set-point theory (Lykken & Tellegen, 1996) suggests that people's well-being has an equilibrium level, or set point, and although events can decrease or increase one's well-being, the effect typically does not last a long time. In other words, the effects of events on most people's well-being will almost always fade away, once the psychological impact caused by the events dissipates. In the resilience literature, research suggests that systems, including human beings, have the ability to absorb, adapt to, and recover from adverse events, even without any external intervention (Francis & Bekera, 2014; Linkov et al., 2014). For instance, due to reliable past experiences, and/or ability to anticipate and recognize unexpected events, people may be more likely recover from the negative effects caused by adverse events (Linkov et al., 2014), resulting in temporary rather than permanent changes. In the workplace, some events may have strong short-term effects on an employee's attitudes and behaviors by inducing some strong emotions. However, these effects may diminish or even vanish after one calms down or controls the emotions associated with the events (Shamir, 2011). Understanding the permanence of change is important because it helps guide whether and how to better intervene in the changing processes.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Scholars have proposed that employees' attitudes and behaviors in the workplace are apt to change in response to notable events (e.g., Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Yet, in the trust literature, few studies have examined what, why, and how events may cause changes in interpersonal trust. In this dissertation, I first define negative [positive] trust-related events as events that either negatively [positively] disconfirm trustors' prior expectation or events that confirm trustors' prior negative [positive] expectation towards trustees, and argue that negative [positive] trust-related events can lead to decreases [increases] in trust. Moreover, building on dual-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015), affect infusion theory (Forgas, 1994, 1995), and the integrative model of trust (Mayer et al., 1995), I propose that negative [positive] trust-related events trigger decreases [increases] in trust through both emotional reactions and cognitive assessment of trustees' trustworthiness. Next, drawing from Monge's (1990) typology of dynamic processes and event-system theory, I focus on two specific components of changes (i.e., magnitude and permanence) and propose that the effects of events on each component are contingent on event confirmation/disconfirmation and the characteristics of the events (e.g., criticality, proximity, and timing).

3.1. Effects of Events on Changes in Trust

3.1.1. Effects of Negative Events on Decreases in Trust

Negative trust-related events are events that either negatively disconfirm trustors' expectation or confirm trustors' negative expectation towards trustees. For an event that negatively disconfirms trustors' expectations or fails to meet trustors' expectations, it will likely lead to decreases in trust because trust is based on positive expectation that trustees will not take advantage of trustors' willingness to be vulnerable (Mayer et al., 1995). For instance, assume that an employee has high levels of trust in their supervisor because the supervisor always keeps their words; then, when the supervisor breaks a made promise (i.e., an event that negatively disconfirms the employee's expectation), the employee's trust will likely decrease. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the counterfactual processing literature (Kahneman, 1995; Roese, 1997), and event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015) provide insight into why a single negative, disconfirming event may decrease one's trust.

First, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that trust develops based on successful social interactions, which require both parties to abide by certain rules or norm of reciprocity. The norm of reciprocity describes people's expectations that a positive [negative] attitude or behavior should be reciprocated with a similar level of positive [negative] attitude or action (Gouldner, 1960). For instance, when a trustor has high levels of trust in a trustee, the trustor will expect the trustee to behave favorably, or in accordance with the reciprocity norm. Even a single event that negatively disconfirms the trustor's expectation may signal to the trustor that the norm of reciprocity is broken and the costs of trust become higher, leading to decreases in trust.

Second, a single event that negatively disconfirms a trustor's expectation can also lead to decreases in trust through the trustor's counterfactual thinking processes. When an unexpected, negative event occurs, people automatically engage in upward counterfactual thinking and reflect on "what might have been" (e.g., Kahneman & Miller, 1986; Roese, 1997). If a person believes that the negative event could have been avoided or the situation could have been better had the other party behaved differently, the person's judgment and attitudes toward the other party are likely to change (Jones & Skarlicki, 2013). Through counterfactual thinking, the trustor may view the negative event as indicative of the trustee's true nature, and consider prior judgments as misguided (Jones & Skarlicki, 2013). As a result, the trustor's trust in the trustee will be decreased.

Third, an event that negatively disconfirms the trustor's expectation can be novel and disruptive. It might be novel because it is different from the trustor's past events and experiences, and it might be disruptive by disrupting the trustor's normal way of responding. According to event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015), in facing novel and/or disruptive events, people are apt to engage in controlled information processing to understand "why is this?", "How and why did this happen?", and/or "What reactions need to adjust". This deliberate thinking and analysis are likely to lead to changes in attitudes and judgments (Morgeson et al., 2015).

Though no empirical studies have tested the effects of negative events that disconfirm trustors' expectation on trustors' trust, a few experimental studies manipulated such events and found that trust was violated after these events (e.g., Elangovan et al., 2007; Elangovan et al., 2015), providing some preliminary support for my assertion. For instance, adopting a scenario-based design, Elangovan et al. (2007) first primed participants with a positive expectation towards an imagined trustee, and then asked participants to assume that the trustee violated their positive expectation by "missing a key joint meeting with an important client and failing to effectively manage the installation and training" (p. 12). The results showed that the participants displayed significant decreases in trust.

In addition, a negative event that confirms trustors' negative expectation towards trustees can also lead to decreases in trust. Unfortunately, in understanding the effects of events, existing research and theory focus primarily on unexpected events, or events that disconfirm prior expectations (e.g., Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Morgeson et al., 2015). However, we should not ignore the possibility that expected events can shift people's attitudes and judgment. For instance, an employee could have low levels of trust in their supervisor because the supervisor often makes poor decisions and fails to provide clear directions. When their team is assigned a new, important task and the supervisor again gives unclear and even wrong directions, the employee's trust might be further reduced, even though they already had negative expectations about the supervisor before the assignment of the new task. The transformational perspective of trust development and counterfactual thinking provide theoretical support for why a negative, confirming event can lead to decreases in trust.

Drawing from the transformational perspective of trust development, trust develops slowly and gradually after repeated, positive experiences and interactions (e.g., Holmes, 1991; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). In other words, events that confirm trustors' positive expectation towards trustees will lead to gradual increases in trust. Similarly, for trustors who have low trust (i.e., negative expectation) in trustees, events that confirm the trustors' negative expectation towards the trustees are expected to lead to gradual decreases in trust. More specifically, events that confirm trustors' negative expectation will provide confirmatory evidence to trustors' existing knowledge structure about trustees (Higgins & Bargh, 1987). This confirmatory evidence will make trustors' trust change toward a more extreme position (i.e., from low trust to lower than previously thought).

Counterfactual thinking can provide further support for the roles that expected events might play. Research has shown that people also automatically engage in counterfactual thinking when facing expected, negative events (Sanna & Turley, 1996). For example. Sanna and Turley (1996) conducted three laboratory studies and found that participants' counterfactual thinking occurred spontaneously when negative events were expected. More specifically, in their first study, the authors presented one of four stories about an undergraduate who had done either very well (high GPA) or very poorly (low GPA) in all courses; the undergraduate then took another exam and passed (got an A) or failed (got an F). Participants were then asked to retell the story "as if to tell a story to a friend who had yet heard the story", without mentioning anything related to counterfactual thinking. Their stories were recorded and later coded for counterfactual thinking. The results showed that participants engaged in counterfactual thinking after not only unexpected, but also expected, negative events (i.e., had low GPA and failed the exam). Their Studies 2 and 3 largely replicated the results. Following this logic, when an event that confirms trustors' negative expectation about trustees occurs, trustors will also unconsciously generate counterfactual thinking and reflect on "what trustees might have done to avoid this negative outcome". This counterfactual thinking can further lead to decreases in trustors' trust.

Taken together, though underpinned by different theories, negative trust-related events, either negatively disconfirming prior expectation or confirming prior negative expectation, can lead to decreases in trust.

Hypothesis 1: A negative trust-related event will lead to decreases in the trustor's trust.

3.1.2. Effects of Positive Events on Increases in Trust

Positive trust-related events are events that either positively disconfirm trustors' prior expectation or confirm trustors' prior positive expectation towards trustees. First, similar to negative, disconfirming events, but in the opposite direction, positive events that positively disconfirm trustors' expectations or exceed trustors' expectations will likely lead to increases in trust. As an example, assume an employee has low levels of trust in their supervisor because the supervisor always expresses little support or caring, then when the supervisor starts to defend them and their work in front of others or show concerns for their career, an event that positively disconfirms the employee's prior expectations, the employee's trust will likely increase. Again, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), counterfactual thinking (Sanna & Turley, 1996), and event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015) help explain the effect of a single positive, disconfirming event on increases in trust.

More specifically, first, as aforementioned, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that the evolution of trust is dependent on whether both parties abide by the norm of reciprocity. When a trustor has low levels of trust in a trustee, the trustor will expect the trustee to behave somewhat unfavorably, or in accordance with the reciprocity norm. Even a single positive event that disconfirms the trustor's prior negative expectation may break the original balance and stimulate them to reciprocate with more positive attitudes (e.g., higher levels of trust). Second, research shows that people also engage in counterfactual thinking when facing positive events (Gleicher, Kost, Baker, Strathman, Richman, & Sherman, 1990; Koo, Algoe, Wilson, & Gilbert, 2008; Sanna & Turley, 1996). That is, people engage in downward counterfactual thinking and reflect on how things might have been worse had the other party behaved differently. If the trustor believes that the outcome could have been worse, or the positive event could have not occurred, their trust will likely increase. Lastly, as argued above, event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015) suggests that novel and/or disruptive events, by provoking deliberate thinking and analysis, are likely to lead to changes in attitudes and judgments. A trust-related event that positively disconfirms the trustor's prior expectation can be viewed as novel or disruptive because it might be different from the trustor's past experiences or might disrupt the trustor's normal way of responding, and thus may induce the trustor to change their trust intentions.

Additionally, a positive, confirming event is likely to enhance trust. As an example, assume an employee has positive expectation, or high levels of trust in their supervisor because the supervisor is competent at solving problems and providing guidance. When the employee encounters a difficult work-related problem and the supervisor is able to offer suggestions and guidance, even though they already had positive expectations about the supervisor, their trust might be further enhanced. This prediction is consistent with the transformational perspective of trust development, which suggests that trust develops based on repeated, positive interactions (e.g., Holmes, 1991; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Counterfactual thinking helps provide further insight into the effects of positive, confirming events. As suggested by prior research (Sanna & Turley, 1996), people also engage in counterfactual thinking and think about the absence of the positive event after an occurrence of a positive, confirming event. This counterfactual thinking can further lead to increases in trustors' trust. Taken together, I propose that:

Hypothesis 2: A positive trust-related event will lead to increases in the trustor's trust.

3.2. Effects of Events on Changes in Trust Through Emotional and Cognitive Reactions

Scholars from various disciplines (e.g., philosophy, neuroscience, psychology, marketing, accounting, management) have argued for a two-system model in guiding people's information processing and decision making in facing events (Epstein, 1994; Evans, 2008). Though terminology differs across authors, there is a general consensus that one system is more automatic and requires minimal cognitive efforts, while the other system is more controlled and involves greater cognitive efforts. Consistent with Stanovich (1999) and Kahneman (2011), I adopt the terms "System 1" and "System 2" to describe the two systems, which are widely used in psychology. Specifically, System 1 operates rapidly, automatically, and intuitively, and is mostly emotional-driven, with little or no cognitive effort required (Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011). While System 2 processing relies on logic and evidence, demands central working memory resources, and is thus slow, deliberative, analytical, and effortful (Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011). For the purpose of this dissertation, a key difference between System 1 and System 2 processing is that the System 1 processing relies more on emotional reactions, while System 2 processing relies more on logic and reasons as the pathway between an event and changes in trust.

Examples of System 1 processing include detecting happy or sad emotions in a voice, developing first impressions within seconds, and using emotions evoked by events or entities for decision making (Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011). From an evolutionary perspective, System 1 processing is built upon past experiences that are emotionally significant (Epstein, 1994; Lieberman, 2007). For instance, if one had a few bad experiences with an event during his/her earlier career, he/she may form negative impressions toward similar events within seconds. In facing a negative trust-related event, such as one's supervisor failing to follow through on promises to offer a promotion, guided by System 1 processing, one's supervisor trust may decrease rapidly through negative emotions (e.g., anger, frustration, sadness).

Examples of System 2 processing include using cognitive ability to solve a difficult problem, compiling different information to reach conclusions, and considering economic factors rather than purely emotional factors in decision making (Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011). From an evolutionary perspective, System 2 processing has a very brief evolutionary history and is thus considered as slower in dealing with daily events (Epstein, 1994). In facing the same negative trust-related event, guided by System 2 processing, one is likely to re-evaluate the supervisor's ability, benevolence, and/or integrity, which may then decrease their trust in supervisor (Mayer et al., 1995).

Consistent with dual-system theory, theory and empirical evidence in the trust literature support that both emotional (i.e., more of System 1 processing) and cognitive reactions (i.e., more of System 2 processing) can explain the effects of events on changes in trust. From the cognitive lens (i.e., System 2 processing), Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model of trust proposes that trustors take risks based on the level of trust they have toward trustees, and the favorability of the outcomes of risk taking will result in trustors' re-evaluation of the trustee's trustworthiness, leading to changes in trust. In the trust violation literature, several studies have proposed and found that perceived trustworthiness (i.e., System 2 processing) served as an underlying mechanism that explained why trust decreased after violations (e.g., Dirks et al., 2011; Ferrin et al., 2007). Therefore, changes in the cognitive assessment of trustees' trustworthiness are expected to mediate the effects of events on changes in trust.

To illustrate, for an event that negatively or positively disconfirms a trustor's prior expectation towards a trustee, the inconsistent information associated with the unexpected event will lead to the trustor modifying their knowledge (e.g., trustworthiness) about the trustee. Counterfactual thinking about the event can also make the trustor skeptical about the trustee's true nature or characteristics, triggering the trustor to re-assess the trustworthiness of the trustee. In terms of an event that confirms a trustor' negative or positive expectation towards a trustee, the expectancy-consistent evidence associated with the expected event will reinforce the trustor's knowledge (e.g., trustworthiness) about the trustee and let the trustor be more negative or positive about their evaluations. In other words, the accumulation of the expectancy-consistent evidence may change the trustor's perceptions about the trustee (e.g., trustworthiness) to a more negative or positive position (Jones & Skarlicki, 2013). In addition, an expected, or confirming event can also activate the trustor's counterfactual thinking (Sanna & Turley, 1996). Counterfactual thinking may then lead the trustor to revise their negative or positive evaluations about the trustee's trustworthiness to somewhat more negative or positive. Since it is well-established that trustworthiness leads to trust (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 2011), events that change the trustor's trustworthiness evaluations toward the trustee will lead to changes in trust.

From the emotional lens (i.e., System 1 processing), multiple theories speak to the roles that emotions may play in changing trustors' trust. First, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) suggests that employees often react emotionally to events that occur in the workplace, and the emotional reactions can exert important influence on subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Similarly, according to appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1996), people will experience positive or negative emotions when events have positive or negative significance for their wellbeing. Thus, negative [positive] trust-related events, that either negatively [positively] disconfirm prior expectations or confirm prior negative [positive] expectations, can be viewed as affective events, as they can adversely [favorably] impact trustors' well-being. In support of the impact of negative [positive] events on negative [positive] emotions, Conway and Briner (2002) conducted a daily diary study and found that employees experienced greater negative emotions after broken promises (i.e., negative events), and experienced greater positive emotions to exceeded promises (i.e., positive events).

Further, the relationship between emotions and interpersonal trust has been established in the literature. In fact, both theory (the affect infusion model; Forgas, 1994) and empirical studies (e.g., Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005) suggest that people experiencing negative emotions have less trust in others, while people experiencing positive emotions have greater trust in other. For instance, the affect infusion model proposes that people in positive emotions are more likely to perceive the risk-taking outcomes as favorable, and are thus more willing to take risks. In contrast, people who experience negative emotions would perceive the outcome of risk-taking as more destructive and are thus less likely to take risks to avoid potential losses (Forgas, 1994; 1995). Since trust represents the willingness to take risks (Mayer et al., 1995), increases in negative [positive] emotions are expected to reduce [enhance] people's trust in others.

The affect infusion model has received substantial empirical support. For example, Chou, Lee, and Ho (2007) found that participants who were in a positive (vs. negative) mood showed significantly greater tendency to take risks. As another example, Yuen and Lee (2003) found that participants in an induced negative mood were more hesitant in taking risks, compared to participants in an induced neutral or positive mood. More relevant to trust, Dunn and Schweitzer (2005) conducted five experimental studies and found that incidental emotions, including happiness, sadness, anger, guilt, gratitude, and pride, could significantly affect individuals' trust intentions, such that happy employees had more trust in coworkers than sad employees, anger decreased trust, and gratitude increased trust.

Taken together, I argue that when a negative trust-related event occurs, either negatively disconfirming the trustor's prior expectation or confirming prior negative expectation, the trustor will feel angry, disappointed, and/or frustrated (i.e., increases in negative emotions, System 1 processing), and simultaneously reassess the trustworthiness of the trustee (i.e., System 2 processing). Both processes will possibly lead to decreases in trust. Similarly, when a positive trust-related event occurs, the trustor will feel happy, proud, and/or elating (i.e., increases in positive emotions, System 1 processing), and will simultaneously reevaluate the trustee's trustworthiness (i.e., System 2 processing), leading to increases in trust.

Hypothesis 3: A negative trust-related event will lead to decreases in the trustor's trust through a) increases in negative emotions, and b) decreases in trustworthiness evaluations.

Hypothesis 4: A positive trust-related will lead to increases in the trustor's trust through a) increases in positive emotions, and b) increases in trustworthiness evaluations.

3.3. Effects of Events on the Magnitude of Changes in Trust

The magnitude of changes in trust reflects the total amount of decreases or increases in interpersonal trust resulting from a negative or positive trust-related event (Monge, 1990). Lewicki and Bunker (1996) argued that sometimes a single violation is so severe that it can erode all trust, but other times the declines of trust due to a violation are very small. Similarly, some events may result in small increases in trust while others may lead to great amount of increases. It is important for researchers and practitioners to understand the magnitude of decreases [increases] in trust because greater magnitude is likely to lead to more detrimental [beneficial] outcomes, such as more decreases [increases] in job satisfaction and task performance.

Though the hypotheses proposed above (H1 – H4) implicitly focus on the magnitude of changes in trust, they did not specifically address questions regarding when and why the magnitude of change will be smaller or greater. Further, though in exploring the magnitude of changes in trust, several studies in the trust violation literature have the magnitude of decreases in trust reported (e.g., Elangovan et al., 2007, 2015; Haselhuhn et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2004; Sørensen et al., 2011), very few of them attempted to investigate the reasons underlying the magnitude of the decreases (e.g., Elangovan et al., 2007). For instance, Elangovan et al. (2007) proposed and found that when a trust violation occurred, participants' trust decreased to a greater amount if they perceived that the violation was due to the trustee's "not wanting to meet the expectation", compared to "could not meet the expectation". The authors' arguments were based on the assumption that "not wanting to meet expectation" reflects a lack of benevolence and/or integrity, and thus shows a higher degree of responsibility on the trustee's side. In contrast, "could not meet the expectation" reflects a lack of ability and thus shows a lower degree of responsibility on the trustee's side. Consistent with this assumption, prior research has suggested that violations of integrity are usually more detrimental than violations of competence (Ferrin et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2004, 2006).

Although these are meaningful findings, there are still important gaps that need to be addressed. Perhaps most importantly, violations of integrity/benevolence, compared to competence, may not always lead to greater trust reductions. Specifically, people vary in their personal value for ability, benevolence, and integrity in developing trust. When an employee places more value on their supervisor's ability than on their integrity, then compared to the event "my supervisor's inconsistency negatively affected my promotion", the event "my supervisor made a major mistake that affected my promotion" may result in greater declines in the employee's trust in his/her supervisor. Further, events within the same trustworthiness facet vary in the degree of criticality. Even for employees who value integrity more than competence, a violation of integrity with minor significance will not affect trust as much as a violation of competence with major significance. Therefore, without considering the perceived criticality of a violation, it is not safe to assume which type of violations will lead to greater decreases in trust.

Event criticality represents how important or significant an event is to an individual (Morgeson et al., 2015). The criticality of an event can range from minor significance to major significance. Event criticality may affect the magnitude of change in trust by triggering different levels of negative or positive emotions and adjustments in trustworthiness evaluations. According to the sense-making literature, cues with major significance are powerful and likely to provoke intense emotional and cognitive reactions (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). In contrast, cues with minor significance are less consequential and thus less likely to trigger strong affective and cognitive reactions. The role of criticality has been demonstrated in the motivation and job satisfaction literature. For instance, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory suggests that people's levels of motivation to engage in certain behaviors are largely determined by the importance they attach to the expected outcomes. Similarly, Locke's (1969, 1976) theory of satisfaction indicates that employees' levels of satisfaction with a facet of job characteristics (e.g., autonomy, pay, developmental opportunities) are affected by the importance they place on the particular facet in question.

Research in the trust violation literature has also tested the effects of criticality. Specifically, Tomlinson et al. (2004) manipulated the criticality of a violation and found that the more critical the violation was, the less likely one would be willing to reconcile. Research has also found that trust violation severity moderated the effectiveness of apologies and promises after a trust violation (Grover, et al., 2017; Tomlinson, 2012). Though this line of research did not explicitly elaborate on the reasoning behind violation criticality, I expect that it was caused by the strong emotional and cognitive reactions associated with the critical (vs. trivial) violation, which would then lead to greater reductions in trust and make it more difficult to repair.

Though no research has examined the magnitude of increases in trust, the same logic can be applied to the impact of criticality of positive events. That is, since critical (vs. trivial) positive events are more powerful and more likely to provoke strong emotional and cognitive reactions, they are expected to induce greater amount of increases in trust. Taken together, I expect that when facing a more (vs. less) critical event, one is likely to experience greater (vs. smaller) emotional and cognitive reactions, leading to greater (vs. smaller) changes in the magnitude of interpersonal trust.

Hypothesis 5a: Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the magnitude of decreases in trust, by affecting both changes in negative emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations. More specifically, the more (vs. less) critical an event is, the greater (vs. smaller) changes in negative emotions and trustworthiness evaluations will be, leading to greater (vs. smaller) decreases in the magnitude of interpersonal trust.

Hypothesis 5b: Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the magnitude of increases in trust, by affecting both changes in positive emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations. More specifically, the more (vs. less) critical an event is, the greater (vs. smaller) changes in positive emotions and trustworthiness evaluations will be, leading to greater (vs. smaller) increases in the magnitude of interpersonal trust.

Apart from event criticality, I argue that event confirmation/disconfirmation, or the extent to which events confirm or disconfirm trustors' prior expectation, will affect the magnitude of changes in trust. More specifically, I propose that the more disconfirming (or less confirming) an event is, the greater the magnitude of change in trust will be. Research has demonstrated that an unexpected event can often activate trustors' counterfactual thinking to a greater degree than an expected event (Sanna & Turley, 1996). This greater degree of counterfactual thinking might be caused by people's stronger need to understand why an unexpected event occurs, and how and why this unexpected event might not have occurred (e.g., Sanna & Turley, 1996; Weiner, 1985). The greater degree of counterfactual thinking represents that, in facing a more (vs. less) disconfirming negative [positive] event, trustors tend to believe that there are more alternatives that the trustee could have done to prevent the negative outcome [make the positive situation worse], or it should be relatively easier for the trustee to behave differently to reach a better [worse] consequence. As a result, trustors' prior evaluation towards the trustee's nature (e.g., trustworthiness) will be revised in a greater amount. In addition, research has shown that more negative [positive] emotions are associated with unexpected negative [positive] events, compared to expected negative [positive] events (McAuley & Duncan, 1989; Mellers, Schwartz, Ho, & Ritov, 1997; Shepperd & McNuity, 2002). For example, Mellers et al. (1997) found that participants were more disappointed after unexpected losses than expected losses. Shepperd and McNulty (2002) found that people felt worse when negative outcomes were unexpected than expected, yet people felt better when positive outcomes were unexpected than expected. This greater amount of emotional and cognitive changes followed a more (vs. less) disconfirming event is likely to lead to greater changes in trust. Taken together, I propose that:

Hypothesis 6a: The extent of event confirmation/disconfirmation will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the magnitude of decreases in trust, by affecting both changes in negative emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations. More specifically, the more disconfirming (or less confirming) the negative event is, the greater changes in negative emotions and trustworthiness evaluations will be, leading to greater decreases in the magnitude of interpersonal trust.

Hypothesis 6b: The extent of event confirmation/disconfirmation will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the magnitude of increases in trust, by affecting both changes in positive emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations. More specifically, the more disconfirming (or less confirming) the positive event is, the greater changes in positive emotions and trustworthiness evaluations will be, leading to greater increases in the magnitude of interpersonal trust.

3.4. Effects of Events on the Permanence of Changes in Trust

In studying the outcomes of trust violations, current research, by adopting experimental design or examining trust at a single point in time, focuses only on outcomes in the short term or at that moment. We thus lack knowledge about whether the short-term trust reductions will maintain in the long term or not in the workplace. Regardless of the magnitude of decreases in trust, some violations will never be recovered while others will be forgiven after a very short period of time, even without any intervention or responses by trustees (Bies & Tripp, 1996). A clearer understanding of both the short- and long-term effects of events leading to trust reductions may help to prevent trust violations and repair trust after violations. For example, the reasons that some types of trust violations (e.g., violations of integrity) are more difficult to repair might be due to its long-lasting effects. Similarly, we do not know whether short-term trust increases in responses to positive events will sustain. This investigation is imperative because ensuring the long-term effects of positive events is important for maintaining positive work-related outcomes. For the purpose of this dissertation, I view short-term effects as the outcomes right after the events and long-term effects as the outcomes that can remain at least a few weeks after the event.

The permanence of changes in trust can be viewed as an important part of long-term outcomes of events. The permanence of decreases [increases] in trust refers to how long the decreases [increases] in trust will last before another event occurs that cause trust to change again, and/or any intervention or action is taken to repair the reduced [retain the enhanced] trust. In the short term, a negative [positive] event may lead to immediate trust reductions [increases] through increases in negative [positive] emotions and decreases [increases] in trustworthiness evaluations (Hypotheses 3 and 4). However, in the long term, the effects of some events through emotional reactions may dissipate once their emotions return to their normal levels. Similarly, cognitive changes in trustworthiness evaluations may attenuate as ones' memories of the events start to fade.

In contrast, other events, dependent upon their characteristics, may have long-lasting effects on changes in trust. Spirals theories (e.g., Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Lindsley, Brass, & Thomas, 1995) and the memory literature (e.g., Conway, Singer, & Tagini, 2004; Shum, 1998) help explain why changes in trust as responses to certain events can be permanent in the long-run. First, within-person spirals theories suggest that changes or recalibration can be sustained over time (e.g., Lindsley et al., 1995), with positive changes leading people to expect more positive experiences while negative changes leading people to anticipate a more negative position in the future. As such, employees who experience decreases [increases] in trust due to a negative [positive] event may expect that there will be more negative [positive] experiences in the future, impacting their trust intentions in the long term. Second, in the memory literature, research has demonstrated that intense memories consisting of experienced events will be stored and recalled even after a very long period of time (Conway et al., 1998). These salient memories will serve as anchors for judging the focal trustee in future social exchanges (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). In addition, since events often automatically trigger affective emotions, the negative [positive] reactions associated with negative [positive] events stored in memory may also impact future trusting intentions (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). In this dissertation, I propose that event criticality, event proximity, and event timing will affect the permanence of changes in trust.

First, event criticality is expected to affect the permanence of changes in trust. As illustrated, an event can have long-lasting effects because the memories consisting of the experienced or observed event might be stored and rehearsed even after a long period of time (Conway et al., 2004; Shum, 1998). Constant rehearsal indicates that the details of the event are played repeatedly in one's mind, whenever they interact with, or decide whether to trust the target. Since critical events are assumed to be characterized by vividness and high levels of rehearsal (Conway et al., 2004), the memories associated with more (vs. less) critical events will be more enduring, easier to retrieve, and thus more likely to serve as anchors for judging the focal trustee in future social exchanges

(Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). In addition, the intense emotional reactions associated with critical events are likely to be stored in memory. When people reflect on these events, the associated emotions will be automatically recalled and affect future trusting intentions (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). Taken together, I propose:

Hypothesis 7a: Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the more critical the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.

Hypothesis 7b: Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the more critical the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.

Events that trigger changes in trust are not limited to those that are directly experienced. Employees also observe and learn through conversation about how their colleagues, subordinates, and/or customers are treated. This phenomenon represents an example of event proximity. Specifically, event proximity describes the physical or psychological distance between an individual and an event (Morgeson et al., 2015), with a third-person perspective (e.g., observed experiences) imposes more distance than a first-person perspective (e.g., personal experiences) (Trope & Liberman, 2010), as well as an acquaintance' perspective more distant than a close friend's perspective. Though existing research has mixed evidence about the effects of event proximity on the magnitude of changes (e.g., Barron & Erev, 2003; Braver & Rohrer, 1978; Lind, Kray, & Thompson, 1998), its effects on the permanence of change may occur via both spirals and memory effects.

First, spirals theories suggest that when trustors attribute the causes of an event to something internal, stable, and/or uncontrollable, they are more likely to believe that similar events will occur in the future (e.g., Lindsley et al., 1995). When facing negative events, due to self-serving bias (Heider, 1958), people who are victims tend to blame others (e.g., perpetrators) rather than themselves to protect their self-esteem or self-identity. They are thus less likely to believe that they can control or stop the spiral. In contrast, people who are observers are less likely to be subject to self-serving bias (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999) and more likely to spend time and effort seeking for more information before attributing faults to any party (Halamish & Liberman, 2017). Thus, observers are more likely to perceive that they can avoid similar events in the future. When facing positive events, self-serving bias induces individuals who experience the events to take credit for the positive outcomes (Heider, 1958). For instance, they may attribute a positive event (e.g., a display of increasing support from leaders) to their personality or high performance. This internal attribution is likely associated with the continuation of upward spirals. Taken together, I expect that trustors will perceive events with closer proximity (e.g., experienced events, compared to observed events) as more likely to occur in the future, and changes in trust caused by events with closer proximity will last longer.

Second, research in the decision-making literature suggests that individuals tend to overweigh information that is most easily recalled (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974), and events with closer proximity (e.g., experienced events, compared to observed events) are more accessible and much easier for one to remember (Schwarz, Bless, Strack, Klumpp, Rittenauer-Schatka, & Simons, 1991). Not surprisingly, when employees can easily recall and ruminate on an event, the changes that result from the event will last longer. Further, personal experiences, with their personal nature, are assumed to be associated with more and stronger emotional responses compared to observed experiences (Nisbett & Ross, 1980). For instance, Nishina and Juvonen (2005), by adopting an experienced sampling method (ESM), found that witnessing harassments was associated with less negative emotions than experiencing harassments personally. Thus, when one recalls a trust-related event with closer proximity, they are more likely to experience the negative or positive emotions associated with the event, leading to a longer lasting effect. Taken together, I propose that:

Hypothesis 8a: Event proximity will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the closer in proximity the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.

Hypothesis 8b: Event proximity will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the closer in proximity the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.

Event timing describes the specific time or developmental stage in a relationship at when an event occurs (Morgeson et al., 2015). An event can occur early (e.g., within the first few weeks/months) or later (e.g., after a few years) in a relationship. The timing of a trust-related event is expected to impact the permanence of change in trust. First, primacy effect suggests that events occurred early (vs. later) in relationships tend to be weighted more strongly by individuals, and tend to have greater and longer influences on how people perceive subsequent information or experiences (Anderson & Barrios, 1961; Jones, Goethal, Kennington, & Severance, 1972). From this view, early trust-related events should cast a longer and darker shadow on subsequent interactions compared to later trust-related events. In support of primacy effect, Lount et al. (2008), through a series of trust games, found that early trust breaches harmed cooperative behaviors a lot more and a lot longer than later breaches. However, the magnitude of change after a trust-related event may also depend on people's generalized trust (Kuwabara, Vogt, Watabe, & Komiya, 2014), which is defined as people's propensity to trust others in general (McKnight et al., 1998). For instance, for people with low generalized trust, they tend to develop interpersonal trust gradually, starting with low levels of initial trust. For them, negative events that occur early in a relationship may not harm trust as much as if they occur later in the relationship. Similarly, for people with high generalized trust, positive events that occur early in a relationship may not increase trust as much as if they occur later in the relationship. An experimental study conducted by Kuwabara et al. (2014) found support for this argument by showing that early trust violations were more detrimental for cooperative behaviors and solidarity for American participants who had high generalized trust, but later trust violations created more harmful outcomes for Japanese participants who tended to have low generalized trust. As a result, in this dissertation, I argue that trust-related events happened early (vs. later) in a relationship will exert longer effects on changes in trust.

Events that occur early (vs. late) in a relationship are more likely to have a long-lasting impact because of the stronger and deeper memory and emotions associated with these events. Research on employee socialization suggests that newcomers are vulnerable to new environment (Saks & Ashforth, 1997), and any surprising or important event is likely to arouse strong emotions and stay in newcomers' memory that will be rehearsed repeatedly. In contrast, the memory and emotions associated with events that occur after numerous interactions might fade over and be overwhelmed by previous contrary memory in the long term. Consistent with these arguments, Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) asserted that anchoring events, events that can result in permanent relationship changes, are more likely to occur early in a reciprocal relationship. Moreover, confirmation bias (Snyder & Swann, 1978a, 1978b) suggests that people have the tendency to seek out and remember information that is congruent with their prior beliefs to further support their preconceptions, and overlook information that is incongruent. Building on Snyder & Swann's (1978a, 1978b) work, other scholars (e.g., Lingle & Ostrom, 1981; Nickerson, 1998) suggested that evidence or events encountered early in relationships typically carry more weight than those encountered later, making people more likely to evaluate subsequent acquired evidence in a way that confirms the evidence obtained early (vs. later) in relationships. Therefore, for events that occur early in a relationship, people are more likely to expect similar events to happen in the future, leading to more permanent consequences with regard to trust. Taken together, I propose that:

Hypothesis 9a: Event timing will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the earlier the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.

Hypothesis 9b: Event timing will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the earlier the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.

Table 2 summarizes the proposed hypotheses.

Table 2. Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Influence on Changes in Trust
H1	A negative trust-related event will lead to decreases in the trustor's trust.
H2	A positive trust-related event will lead to increases in the trustor's trust.
H3	A negative trust-related event will lead to decreases in the trustor's trust through a) increases in negative emotions, and b) decreases in trustworthiness evaluations.
H4	A positive trust-related event will lead to increases in the trustor's trust through a) increases in positive emotions, and b) increases in trustworthiness evaluations.
H5a	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the magnitude of decreases in trust, by affecting both changes in negative emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.
H5b	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the magnitude of increases in trust, by affecting both changes in positive emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.
H6a	The extent of event confirmation/disconfirmation will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the magnitude of decreases in trust, by affecting both changes in negative emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.
H6b	The extent of event confirmation/disconfirmation will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the magnitude of increases in trust, by affecting both changes in positive emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.
H7a	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the more critical the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.

H7b	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the more critical the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.
H8a	Event proximity will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the closer in proximity the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.
H8b	Event proximity will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the closer in proximity the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.
H9a	Event timing will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the earlier the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.
H9b	Event timing will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the earlier the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 1 METHODS

4.1. Overview of Studies

I conducted two studies – one trust game-based experimental study (Study 1) and one field study using a longitudinal survey methodology (Study 2) – to test the proposed hypotheses. First, the trust game is an appropriate method to manipulate event valence and event confirmation/disconfirmation, and has been widely used in trust-related studies, particularly in trust violation studies (e.g., Dirks et al., 2011; Tomlinson, 2011; Schweitzer et al., 2012). The aims of Study 1 are to (1) draw causal inferences regarding the effects of events that either confirm or disconfirm a trustor's expectation towards the trustor's trust through both emotional and cognitive reactions (Hypotheses 1 to 4; Scandura & Williams, 2000); and (2) to compare the impact of confirming and disconfirming events on the magnitude of changes in trust in a controlled context (Hypotheses 6a and 6b). Second, the goals of Study 2 are to complement Study 1 by (1) enhancing the external validity of the Study 1 findings (Scandura & Williams, 2000), and (2) examining the rest of the hypotheses regarding the effects of event characteristics on the magnitude and permanence of changes in trust (Hypotheses 5, 7, 8, and 9).

4.2. Study 1 Participants

I used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to recruit working adults to participate in Study 1. Mturk is particularly suited for this study for several reasons. First, to help maximize the generalizability of the experimental findings, I planned to recruit participants who were working in various industries. Not only does MTurk allow researchers to set restrictions to recruit only working adults, but samples from MTurk have been shown to be at least as diverse as samples from other traditional sources, such as MBA samples or employees at specific companies (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013; Walter, Seibert, Goering, & O'Boyle, 2018). In addition, researchers have repeatedly shown that MTurk is an effective platform for recruiting participants and obtaining high-quality data (e.g., Buhrmester, et al., 2011; Lin, Ma, & Johnson, 2016). Indeed, several researchers have conducted trust game-based experiments using MTurk workers and demonstrated MTurk to be a proper platform for data collection (e.g., Evans & Krueger, 2014; Haselhuhn, Kennedy, Kray, Zant, & Schweitzer, 2015; Manapat, Nowak, & Rand, 2012). To ensure the quality of data, I restricted participation to working adults in either the United States or Canada with an approval rate higher than 90% across previous MTurk tasks (Porter, Outlaw, Gale, & Cho, 2019). Following prior studies employing game-based experiments via MTurk (e.g., Amir & Rand, 2012; Dreber, Ellingsen, Johannesson & Rand, 2013), participants who completed the experiment were compensated $1. Given the design of the experiment, another $4.5 was provided to each participant as bonus a week after their completion of the experiment.

A total of 282 participants completed the experiment. Toward the end of the experiment, I included an open-ended question asking participants to guess the aim of the study, express their attitudes toward their partner (i.e., Player 2), and leave any comments they might have. Based on their answers, five participants who correctly guessed the aim of the experiment or suspected that their partner was not a real person were excluded. At the end of the survey, I included a question asking participants whether I should use their data, and I excluded five participants who indicated that I should not use their data.

Lastly, I embedded an attention check item in the middle of the experiment asking participants to select a specific option on a seven-point scale. Two participants who incorrectly responded to the attention check item were excluded (Meade & Craig, 2012), resulting in a final sample of 270 working adults. The majority of the sample was male (60.8%). On average, respondents had 12.58 (*SD* = 8.65) years of work experience. The participants identified themselves as White (74.4%, *n* = 201), Black (5.9%, *n* = 16), Asian (10%, *n* = 27), or other (9.8%, *n* = 26).

4.3. Study 1 Procedures

In order to manipulate the extent of event confirmation/disconfirmation, a prior positive or negative expectation was primed, followed by a negative or positive event. Further, to test the effect of a negative [positive] event on decreases [increases] in trust through changes in negative [positive] emotions and trustworthiness evaluations, a neutral event (i.e., control event) was included. A neutral event is necessary to ensure it is the valence of the event (i.e., positive, negative), rather than the event itself (i.e., trust game), that triggers participants' emotional and cognitive reactions, and changes in trust in turn. Therefore, I conducted a 2 (Trustworthy vs. Untrustworthy partner) X 5 (High Negative Event, Low Negative Event, High Positive Event, Low Positive Event, Neutral Event) between-subject game-based experiment. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the above ten conditions.

First, adopted from other trust game experiments (e.g., Berg, Dickhaut, & McCabe, 1995; Schweitzer et al., 2006), instructions stated that this task would involve making several decisions in an interactive scenario, which involves two individuals, Player 1 and Player 2, and each participant would be assigned to the role of either Player 1 or Player 2. Participants then read additional instructions with the following wordings:

> *The game consists of 6 rounds in total. In each round, Player 1 will receive $3, which Player 1 can choose to pass all $3, pass $1.5/keep $1.5, or pass $0/keep $3, to Player 2. If Player 1 chooses to pass $0/keep $3, that round ends, with Player 1 gets $3 and Player 2 gets 0. If Player 1 chooses to pass $1.5/keep $1.5, that rounds ends, with Player 1 gets $1.5 and Player 2 gets $1.5. However, if Player 1 chooses to pass all $3, the money will be tripled to $9. At the same time, before learning about the decision of Player 1, Player 2 needs to decide to how much to pass back to Player 1, assuming Player 1 decides to pass all $3 to Player 2. Player 2 can choose to 1) pass $9/keep $0, 2) pass $6/keep $3, 3) pass $4.5/keep $4.5, 4) pass $3/keep $6, and 5) pass $0/keep $9.*

I then informed participants that they would play all six rounds with the same partner. They were told that the first two rounds would be pre-trials for them to get familiar with the game and their partner. Then, the last four rounds would be the real game, and one of the four rounds would be randomly selected and they would be paid based on the amount of money they earned for that selected round in addition to the participation compensation.

Next, all participants were told that they were assigned to the role of Player 1. In the *trustworthy* partner condition, in the first two rounds, Player 1 (i.e., the participant) was informed that, if they choose to pass $3 to Player 2, Player 2 would keep $4.5/pass $4.5 to Player 1. In contrast, in the *untrustworthy* partner condition, in the first two rounds, participants were informed that, if they choose to pass $3 to Player 2, Player 2 would keep $6/pass $3 to Player 1. On the next few pages, participants were asked to rate their trust in and trustworthiness evaluations toward Player 2, as well as their negative and positive emotions at that moment. Then, I reminded participants that the actual game would start from the next round and their decisions might affect how much they would earn. I also asked them to report how much money they expect Player 2 would pass to them, if they decide to pass all $3 to Player 2.

Subsequently, participants were randomly assigned to an event in round 4 or 5. If participants were assigned to an event in round 4, the decision of Player 2 in the third round was kept the same as the first two rounds. Then in round 4, in the *high [low] negative* event condition, participants were informed that Player 2 decided to keep $9 [$6] for him/herself and pass $0 [$3] to them. In contrast, in the *high [low]* positive event condition, in round 4, participants were informed that Player 2 decided to keep $3 [$4.5] for him/herself and pass $6 [$4.5] to them. In rounds 5 and 6, the decision of Player 2 was the same as round 4. That is, if a participant was assigned to the high negative event condition in round 4, they were also assigned to the high negative event condition in rounds 5 and 6. If participants were assigned to an event in round 5, the decisions of Player 2 in the third and fourth rounds were the same as the first two rounds. Then in round 5, in the *high [low] negative* event condition, participants were informed that Player 2 decided to keep $9 [$6] for him/herself and pass $0 [$3] to them. In contrast, in the *high [low]* positive event condition, in round 5, participants were informed that Player 2 decided to keep $3 [$4.5] for him/herself and pass $6 [$4.5] to them. In round 6, the decision of Player 2 was kept the same as round 5. That is, if a participant was assigned to the low negative event condition in round 5, they were also assigned to the low negative event condition in round 6. In the neutral event condition, participants were told that the decision of Player 2 will be announced at the end of the game, after all rounds.

Right after the event, participants again were asked to report their trust in and trustworthiness evaluations toward Player 2, as well as their emotions at that moment. The same set of questions was asked one more time after the final round. Lastly, participants were asked to answer some basic demographic information, such as gender, ethnicity, and work experiences. A question asking participants whether I should use their data and an open-ended question asking for the aim of the study and additional comments were included after the demographic information. Instruction materials are reported in Appendix A.

4.4. Study 1 Manipulations and Measures

Event valence. Event valence describes whether the event is positive or negative. A positive event was framed as either Player 2 decided to keep \$3/pass \$6 (i.e., high positive event) or Player 2 decided to keep \$4.5/pass \$4.5 (i.e., low positive event). In contrast, a negative event was framed as either Player 2 decided to keep \$9/pass \$0 (i.e., high negative event) or Player 2 decided to keep \$6/pass \$3 (i.e., low negative event). A neutral event was framed as the decision of Player 2 would be announced at the end of the game. The neutral event was structured in this manner to avoid any potential changes in emotional or cognitive evaluations toward Player 2.

Event confirmation/disconfirmation. Three items were created for this study to assess the extent of the event confirmation. The questions were, “Did the event in this round confirm or disconfirm your prior expectations about Player 2”, “Was the event in this round expected or unexpected, based on your prior expectations about Player 2?", and "Was event in this round surprising or not surprising, based on your prior expectations about Player 2?" Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Extremely disconfirm/unexpected/not surprising to* 7 = *Extremely confirm/expected/surprising.*

Trust in the partner. Trust was measured at three separate times (i.e., after the second round, right after the event, and after the last round) using five items developed by Mayer and Gavin (2005). Trust measured after the second round was considered as before event trust (henceforth referred to Time 1 trust to avoid confusion), whereas trust measured right after the event was considered as after event trust (henceforth referred to Time 2 trust to avoid confusion). A sample question was, "If I had my way, I wouldn't let this person (i.e., Player 2) have any influence over issues that are important to me." Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree to* 7 = *Strongly agree.*

Trustworthiness evaluations. Trustworthiness evaluations were assessed at three separate times (i.e., after the second round, after the event, and after the last round) using four items developed by Huang and Murnighan (2010). Trustworthiness evaluations measured after the second round was considered as before event trustworthiness evaluations (henceforth referred to Time 1 trustworthiness) while trustworthiness evaluations measured right after the event was considered as after event trustworthiness evaluations (henceforth referred to Time 2 trustworthiness). Sample questions included "Does this person (i.e., Player 2) seem competent/kind/honest/trustworthy?" Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Not at all competent/kind/honest/trustworthy to* 7 = *Extremely competent/kind/honest/trustworthy.*

Negative/Positive emotions. Negative emotions were assessed at three separate times (i.e., after the second round, after the event, and after the last round) using items from Kuppens, Realo, and Diener (2008). Specifically, participants were asked to report their negative emotions using the following wordings: “Please tell us to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment.” Eight adjectives, including sad, angry, unpleasant, guilty, ashamed, worried, stressful, and jealous, were used to measure their negative emotions. Similarly, positive emotions were assessed at three separate times (i.e., after the second round, after the event, and after the last round) using items from Kuppen et al. (2008). Specifically, six emotion terms, including pleasant, happy, cheerful, pride, gratitude, and love, were used to assess their positive emotions. The respond scale was ranged from 1 = *Not at all* to 7 = *Extremely*. Again, emotions measured after the second round were considered as before event emotions (henceforth referred to Time 1 emotions) while emotions measured right after the event were considered as after event emotions (henceforth referred to Time 2 emotions).

Manipulation check question. There was a manipulation check question asking participants to estimate the valence of the event (i.e., negative, neutral, positive), and it was measured right after the occurrence of the event. The question read as, “Did the decision that Player 2 make positive or negative?”. Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Extremely negative to* 7 = *Extremely positive*.

Appendix B shows all of the Study 1 items.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 1 RESULTS

5.1. Measurement Model Results

I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to test the discriminant validity of the measured constructs in the proposed model (e.g., negative emotions, positive emotions, trustworthiness evaluations, and trust). I followed prior research (Millsap, 2002) and created parcels for each construct by averaging items with the highest and lowest loadings, next highest and lowest loadings, and so forth. Results suggested that the hypothesized measurement model was a good fit to the data at both Time 1 (i.e., before the event; $\chi^2(38) = 137.569$, $p < .001$; CFI = .97; SRMR = .04) and Time 2 (i.e., right after the event; $\chi^2(38) = 200.515$, $p < .001$; CFI = .95; SRMR = .05).

5.2. Manipulation Check

I checked the means of the manipulation check question and conducted one-way ANOVA to compare the means between the positive and negative event conditions. The mean of the manipulation check question in the positive event condition ($M = 5.79$) was significantly higher than the mean of negative event condition ($M = 2.87$, $F(1, 199) = 266$, $p < .001$). Thus, the manipulation was effective.

5.3. Hypotheses Testing

Before testing any hypothesis, I categorically coded event valence (i.e., negative, neutral, positive). Specifically, I coded the negative event as -1, the neutral event as 0, and the positive event as 1. Table 3 reports the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliabilities of the study variables. First, I used regression in

SPSS to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, which predicted that a negative trust-related event would lead to decreases in the trustor's trust, and a positive trust-related event would lead to increases in trust, respectively. Specifically, to test Hypothesis 1, I included Time 1 trust (i.e., before event trust) as the control variable, the negative event (as compared to the neutral event) as the independent variable, and Time 2 trust (i.e., after event trust) as the dependent variable. The results showed a significant negative effect of the negative event on trust ($b = -.63$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. Similarly, to test Hypothesis 2, I included Time 1 trust as the control variable, the positive event (as compared to the neutral event) as the independent variable, and Time 2 trust as the dependent variable. The results showed a significant positive effect of the positive event on trust ($b = .51$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 2 was also supported.

Then I used PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) to test Hypotheses 3, 4, and 6. The results are summarized in Table 4. Specifically, Hypothesis 3 suggested that a negative event would lead to decreases in trust through both increases in negative emotions and decreases in trustworthiness evaluations. To test this hypothesis, I used Model 4 of PROCESS, entering Time 2 trust as the dependent variable, negative event as the independent variable, and Time 2 negative emotions and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations as mediators. Time 1 trust, Time 1 negative emotions, and Time 1 trustworthiness evaluations were entered as control variables. Bootstrapping procedures using 5,000 resamples were conducted to evaluate the indirect effect. The results showed that negative event was significantly related to both Time 2 negative emotions ($b = -.31$, $p < .05$) and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations ($b = .65$, $p < .01$). Both Time 2 negative emotions ($b = -.21$, $p < .01$) and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations ($b = .46$, $p < .01$)

were significantly related to Time 2 trust. The bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effects through both negative emotions (b = .06, 95% CI = .01, .14)[1] and trustworthiness evaluations (b = .30, 95% CI = .14, .49) excluded zero. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 received support.

Hypotheses 4a and 4b suggested that a positive event would lead to increases in trust through both increases in positive emotions and increases in trustworthiness evaluations. To test this hypothesis, I used Model 4 of PROCESS, entering Time 2 trust as the dependent variable, positive event as the independent variable, and Time 2 positive emotions and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations as mediators. I also entered Time 1 trust, Time 1 positive emotions, and Time 1 trustworthiness evaluations as control variables. Bootstrapping procedures using 5,000 resamples were used to evaluate the indirect effect. The results showed that positive event was significantly related to both Time 2 positive emotions (b = .57, $p < .01$) and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = .67, $p < .01$). Both Time 2 positive emotions (b = .28, $p < .01$) and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = .27, $p < .01$) were significantly related to Time 2 trust. The bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effect through both positive emotions (b = .16, 95% CI = .07, .26) and trustworthiness evaluations (b = .18, 95% CI = .07, .32) excluded zero. Therefore, Hypotheses 4a and 4b received support.

Lastly, Hypothesis 6a [b] suggested that the more disconfirming (or less confirming) the negative [positive] event was, the greater changes in negative [positive]

[1] The coefficients and 95% CI related to negative event were positive, since negative event was coded as -1 and neutral event was coded as 0.

emotions and trustworthiness evaluations would be, leading to greater decreases [increases] in the magnitude of interpersonal trust. To test Hypothesis 6a [b], I focused on participants who were in the negative [positive] event condition. I used Model 4 of PROCESS, entering Time 2 trust as the dependent variable, event confirmation as the independent variable, and Time 2 negative [positive] emotions and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations as mediators. Time 1 trust, Time 1 negative [positive] emotions, and Time 1 trustworthiness evaluations were entered as control variables. Bootstrapping procedures using 5,000 iterations were conducted to estimate the indirect effects. Results (see Table 5) revealed that, for negative event, the effect of event confirmation on both Time 2 negative emotions (b = -.18, $p < .05$) and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = .40, $p < .01$) were significant. However, only the effect of Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = .60, $p < .01$), but not Time 2 negative emotions (b = -.10, *n.s.*), on Time 2 trust was significant. The bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effect through trustworthiness evaluations (b = .24, 95% CI = .11, .38) excluded zero, but the indirect effect through negative emotions included zero (b = .02, 95% CI = -.03, .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 6a received partial support.

For the positive event, results showed that the effect of event confirmation on Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = -.13, $p < .05$) was significant, but not on Time 2 positive emotions (b = -.09, *n.s.*). Further, both the effect of Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = .39, $p < .01$) and Time 2 positive emotions (b = .21, $p < .05$) on Time 2 trust were significant. The bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effect through trustworthiness evaluations (b = -.05, 90% CI = -.13, .00) and positive emotions (*b* = -.02, 95% CI = -.06, .02) included zero. Since the indirect effect through trustworthiness evaluations was approaching significance, I followed previous research and calculated the bias-corrected 90% confidence intervals (e.g., Deery, Iverson, & Walsh, 2006; Stewart, Fulmer, & Barrick, 2005; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016). Results showed that the 90% confidence interval of the indirect effect through trustworthiness evaluations excluded zero (90% CI = -.11, -.00). Therefore, Hypothesis 6b was partially, marginally supported.

Table 3. Study 1 Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Event valence[a]	-.03	.86	-									
2. Event confirmation	3.56	1.41	-.06	.73								
3. Trust (T1)	3.84	1.37	-.07	-.15*	.81							
4. Trustworthiness (T1)	4.92	1.51	-.03	-.16*	.76**	.93						
5. Positive emotions (T1)	3.92	1.80	-.12*	-.05	.41**	.37**	.96					
6. Negative emotions (T1)	1.84	1.27	.01	.11	-.01	-.07	.16**	.95				
7. Trust (T2)	3.58	1.37	.32**	.08	.67**	.55**	.26**	.08	.82			
8. Trustworthiness (T2)	4.50	1.54	.37**	.13	.47**	.62**	.21**	.09	.78**	.93		
9. Positive emotions (T2)	3.66	1.88	.14*	.17*	.25**	.21**	.80**	.26**	.42**	.40**	.97	
10. Negative emotions (T2)	1.98	1.37	-.16*	-.05	.10	.05	.25**	.85**	-.05	-.06	.14*	.95

Note. $N = 270$. Values on the diagonal represent internal consistency reliability estimates.
[a] Event Valence 1= positive event, 0 = neutral event, -1 = negative event.
T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; (two-tailed).

Table 4. The Indirect Effects of Negative and Positive Events on Changes in Trust (Study 1)

Variable	Negative Event[a]						Positive Event[b]					
	TW (T2)		Negative emotions (T2)		Trust (T2)		TW (T2)		Positive emotions (T2)		Trust (T2)	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Trust (T1)	-.00	.10	.06	.07	.50**	.05	.10	.07	.11	.08	.72**	.05
Trustworthiness (T1)	.52**	.09	.11	.06	-.17**	.06	.71**	.06	-.06	.07	-.07	.07
Negative emotions (T1)	.25**	.07	.89**	.05	.24**	.08						
Positive emotions (T1)							.07	.04	.91**	.04	.28**	.06
Negative event	.65**	.18	-.31*	.13	.19	.10						
Positive event							.67**	.12	.57**	.13	.19	.10
Trustworthiness (T2)					.46**	.05					.27**	.06
Negative emotions (T2)					-.21**	.07						
Positive emotions (T2)											.28**	.06
R^2	.63**		.83**		.85**		.85**		.89**		.91**	

Indirect path	Direct effect		Indirect effect	
	b	95% CI	b	95% CI
Effect of negative event				
Negative event → Negative emotions (T2) → Trust (T2)			.06	[.01, .14]
Negative event → Trustworthiness (T2) → Trust (T2)			.30	[.14, .49]
Total effect	.19	[-.02, .39]	.37	[.20, .56]
Effect of positive event				
Positive event → Positive emotions (T2) → Trust (T2)			.16	[.07, .26]
Positive event → Trustworthiness (T2) → Trust (T2)			.18	[.07, .32]
Total effect	.19	[-.01, .40]	.34	[.18, .51]

Note. [a]Negative event $N = 104$ for negative event, $N = 69$ for neutral event, 0 = neutral event, -1 = negative event. [b]Positive event $N = 97$ for positive event, $N = 69$ for neutral event, 0 = neutral event, 1 = positive event.
T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. TW = Trustworthiness evaluations. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; (two-tailed).

Table 5. The Indirect Effects of Event Confirmation on Changes in Trust (Study 1)

Variable	Negative Event[a]						Positive Event[b]					
	TW (T2)		Negative emotions (T2)		Trust (T2)		TW (T2)		Positive emotions (T2)		Trust (T2)	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Trust (T1)	.05	.13	.01	.11	.41**	.07	.11	.08	.22	.09	.76**	.08
Trustworthiness (T1)	.64**	.12	.06	.10	-.23**	.08	.78**	.07	-.05	.08	-.13	.11
Negative emotions (T1)	.25*	.11	.92**	.08	.10	.10						
Positive emotions (T1)							.05	.04	.89**	.05	-.22**	.09
Negative event	.40**	.10	-.18*	.08	-.06	.06	-.13*	.07	-.09	.08	-.05	.07
Trustworthiness (T2)					.60**	.06					.39**	.11
Negative emotions (T2)					-.10	.08						
Positive emotions (T2)											.21*	.09
R^2	.61**		.75**		.85**		.90**		.91**		.91**	

Indirect path	Direct effect		Indirect effect	
	b	95% CI	b	95% CI
Effect of negative event				
Event confirmation → Negative emotions (T2) → Trust (T2)			.02	[-.03, .05]
Event confirmation → Trustworthiness (T2) → Trust (T2)			.24	[.11, .38]
Total effect	-.06	[-.18, .06]	.25	[.12, .40]
Effect of positive event				
Event confirmation → Positive emotions (T2) → Trust (T2)			-.02	[-.06, .02]
Event confirmation → Trustworthiness (T2) → Trust (T2)			-.05	[-.13, .00]
Total effect	-.05	[-.18, .09]	-.07	[-.16, .01]

Note. [a]Negative event $N = 104$. [b]Positive event $N = 97$.
T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. TW = Trustworthiness evaluations. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; (two-tailed).

5.4. Study 1 Discussion

Study 1 indicated that a negative trust-related event led to decreases in interpersonal trust while a positive trust-related event led to increases in interpersonal trust, and the effects of negative and positive events on changes in trust were mediated by both emotional (i.e., negative or positive emotions) and cognitive (i.e., trustworthiness evaluations) reactions. Study 1 also confirmed the role of event confirmation in affecting the effects of event in changes in trust, such that the more disconfirming the event was, the stronger the effect of event was on changes in trust, through greater changes in trustworthiness evaluations.

Study 1 has a few limitations that should be further addressed. First, Study 1 used an experimental method. Rather than testing the influence of actual events occurred in the workplace, participants were put into a trust-game scenario, which might suffer from low generalizability to work settings. Relatedly, the positive or negative event was manipulated to affect trust between two individuals who had no prior contact. In organization settings, however, trustors (e.g., employees) are likely to have frequent interactions with trustees (e.g., coworkers and supervisors). Moreover, with this experimental design, I could not examine how changes in trust, in response to positive or negative events, unfold over time. To address these limitations, in Study 2, I used a longitudinal survey method to replicate the findings of Study 1 and to investigate the effects of event characteristics on the permanence of changes in trust.

CHAPTER 6

STUDY 2 METHODS

6.1. Study 2 Participants

I recruited full-time employees who encountered an important work event in June or July of 2019 from two companies in China. For the purpose of this study, examples of qualified events include a semi-annual performance evaluation, semi-annual bonuses allocation, and semi-annual rewards allocation. These events are qualified because a large number of employees would experience these events at a similar point in time so that I could study the effects of these events more systematically. Further, these events are communicated between supervisors and employees, and the results or processes of the events can be favorable to some employees and unfavorable to others and can thus potentially lead to increases or decreases in supervisor trust. In addition, Mayer and Davis (1999) found that implementation of a more acceptable performance appraisal system can affect employees' trust in top management, suggesting that events such as performance evaluation or related to performance evaluation (e.g., bonuses allocation, rewards allocation) can be sufficiently notable to alter employee perceptions.

Before recruiting qualified participants, I calculated the desired sample size that would be sufficient to test the proposed model. Specifically, to capture the long-term effects of events, a growth model is required. Following Múthen and Múthen's (2002) suggestions, at least 150 participants are required for a power of .81 and an effect size of .20. Effect size of .2 is a reasonable estimate since it is considered as a relatively small effect (Cohen, 1988). Given that only negative and positive events (compared to a neutral event) are qualified for this study, assuming one-third of the participants would experience or observe a negative event and another one-third of the participants would experience or observe a positive event, then at least 225 participants are needed for Study 2[2]. Since Study 2 adopts a five-wave longitudinal design, I aimed to collect responses from around 500 participants at the first time point.

From May of 2019, I started to contact potential employers located in China with the help of my friends and relatives. The recruitment email is shown in Appendix C. Employers from two qualified companies agreed to participate. These two companies were qualified because there was a semi-annual rewards or bonuses allocation event occurring around July of 2019. In June of 2019, I started to discuss with these two companies' representatives about the best way to collect data, including whether to use paper or electronic surveys, and how and to whom to distribute surveys. The first company (Company A) is one of the major dairy enterprises in China. Employees there encountered a semi-annual bonuses allocation event in early July. The second company is a manufacturing company (Company B) and a semi-annual rewards allocation event occurred in early July.

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[2] This assumes that one-third of employees would receive/observe positive evaluations/bonuses/rewards, one-third of employees would receive/observe neutral evaluations/bonuses/rewards, and one-third employees of would receive/observe negative evaluations/bonuses/rewards. Thus, to reach the desired sample size (i.e., 150) to conduct longitudinal analyses, at least 75 employees should encounter a positive/neutral/negative event, resulting in a final sample sizes of 225 employees.

6.2. Study 2 Procedures

In order to capture the magnitude and permanence of changes in trust in response to an event (i.e., semi-annual bonuses allocation, rewards allocation), I collected data at five different times - one week before the event, right after the event (i.e., the same day, or the day after), one week after the event, two weeks after the event, and three weeks after the event. The one-week interval was chosen based on two reasons. First, most prior research on post-event processing considered one week as the optimal time interval in understanding the effects of events (Dannahy & Stopa, 2007; Edwards, Rapee, & Franklin, 2013). Second, I conducted phone interviews with four working adults in China who had experienced or observed positive or negative events related to performance evaluation, bonuses allocation, and/or rewards allocation. Their responses suggested that the effects of such events on employee attitudes could last from a few days to a few months until the next performance evaluation, bonuses allocation, or rewards allocation. For instance, their responses indicated that sometimes or for some employees, changes in attitudes after poor performance evaluation, bonuses allocation, or rewards allocation would recover or rebound after a few days. In contrast, at other times or for other employees, changes in attitude, if not recovered after a few weeks, would probably remain until the next performance evaluation, bonuses allocation, or rewards allocation. Consistent with the interview findings and for the purpose of this dissertation, if changes in trust remain after three weeks, I consider the event effects as long-term effects (i.e., higher in permanence).

After extensive discussion with both companies' representatives, the employees from the Company A preferred electronic surveys. Thus, I received contact information (i.e., email address) of employees who agreed to participate in this study and sent them emails with the instruction and links to all five surveys. In total, 182 employees from the first company agreed to participate in the study. There were 401 employees from the Company B who agreed to participate in this study, and they chose to participate in paper-pencil surveys. I visited their company during the scheduled hours on the scheduled days, distributed the surveys to employees who agreed to participate in person, and picked up the surveys on the same day after they completed the survey. The distribution and collection of surveys were completed with the help of HR personnel. Participants were given one hour to fill out each survey. Each time, I provided snacks and fruits in exchange for their efforts[3].

In order to test the moderating effect of event proximity, at Time 1, half the participants were asked to report their trust in and their trustworthiness evaluations toward their own supervisors. Another half participants were asked to think of a coworker (1) who works in another department and reports to different supervisors than the participants themselves, and (2) who participants believe they (i.e., participants) would be aware of their (i.e., the coworker's) semi-annual bonuses/rewards results by discussing with them (i.e., the coworker) in an active and timely manner. These participants were then asked to report their trust in and trustworthiness evaluations toward the coworker's supervisor. To ensure participants would be aware of their coworker's results, at the end

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[3] I planned to pay each participant ¥500 in exchange for their participation. However, both organizations advised that there was no need to pay participants. Company B further suggested that providing snacks and fruits could be better than giving money.

of the Time 1 survey and the day before the Time 2 survey, participants were reminded to discuss with the coworker about the coworker's semi-annual bonuses/rewards right after the event occurs. Negative/positive emotions, characteristics of the event (i.e., event criticality, proximity, timing), demographic information, and control variables were also assessed in the Time 1 survey. In addition, participants' expectations about the event (i.e., the expected bonuses and rewards) regarding themselves or their coworkers were measured in the Time 1 survey. That is, participants were asked to describe in detail about what and how many rewards or bonuses they expect to get. For participants from Company A (i.e., participants who chose to take online surveys), I sent two reminder emails to the ones who failed to respond in a timely manner (i.e., one day and two days after the initial email). Among the 182 employees from the first company who received Time 1 survey, 139 completed the survey (76.4% response rate). For Company B, 393 out of the 401 employees who received Time 1 survey completed the survey (98% response rate). In total, 532 employees completed Time 1 survey.

At Time 2, participants' trust in and trustworthiness evaluations toward their own [or their coworker's] supervisors and their emotions right after the event were measured. I also asked each participant to recall and describe the actual results of the event in detail. Valence of the event and event confirmation/disconfirmation were also measured at Time 2 survey. Valence of the event means whether participants consider the event as negative (i.e., coded as -1), neutral (i.e., coded as 0), or positive (i.e., coded as 1) regarding their own event or their coworker's event. For participants who were asked to report their attitudes towards coworker's supervisors, at the beginning of the Time 2 survey, instructions stated that if they were not aware of their coworker's results, they should communicate with the coworker before taking part in the survey. A question asking the name of the coworker and a question asking whether participants had learned about their coworker's results were also included at the Time 2 survey, to exclude unqualified participants. Among the 139 employees from Company A who received Time 2 survey, 110 employees completed the survey (79.1% response rate). As for the employees from Company B, since I was not aware of who had participated in the Time 1 survey, I distributed Time 2 survey and the rest of the surveys to all 401 employees who agreed to participate. 375 out of 401 employees completed the Time 2 survey (93.5% response rate). In total, 485 employees completed Time 2 survey.

At Time 3, Time 4, and Time 5, participants' trust in and trustworthiness evaluations toward their own [or their coworker's] supervisors, and their negative/positive emotions for the past week were measured. For participants who were asked to report their attitudes towards coworker's supervisor, a question asking the name of the coworker was included at the beginning of the Time 3, Time 4, and Time 5 surveys. Figure 2 shows the details and timing of the data collection. 463 participants completed Time 3 survey, 455 participants completed Time 4 survey, and 447 participants completed Time 5 survey. Figure 3 shows the number of participants who completed survey at each time from each company.

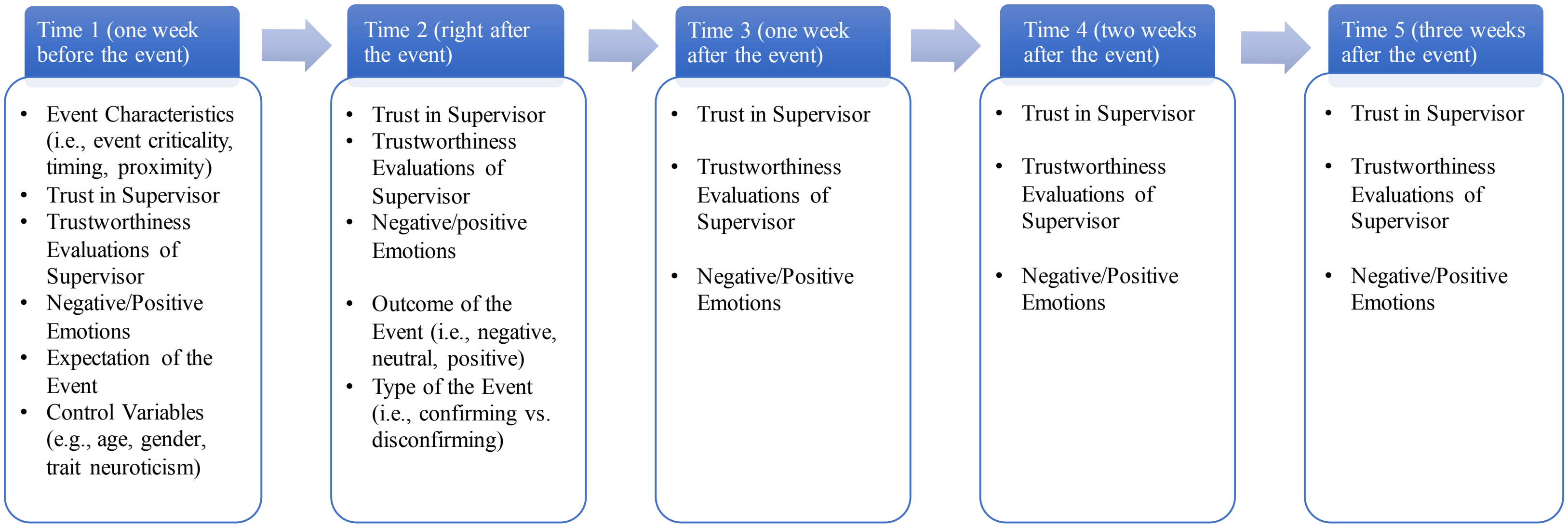
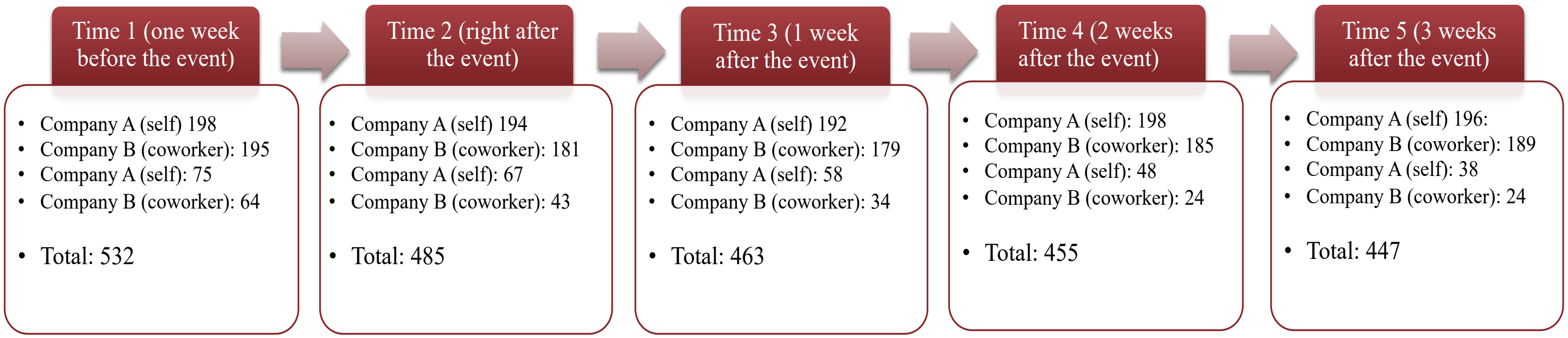


Figure 2. Details and Timing of the Data Collection (Study 2)



Note. self = Event occurred to self, coworker = Event occurred to coworker

Figure 3. Number of Participants (Study 2)

In each survey, I included an attention check question asking participants to select a specific option on a seven-point scale and a question asking whether I should use their data in the analyses. Participants who missed the attention check item and who suggested not using their data were excluded. I further excluded participants who reported different coworker names, if they were asked to report their attitudes towards coworker's supervisor, across five surveys. A total of 282 employees provided completed responses for all five times. The majority of the participants were female (60.7%). On average, participants were 36.04 (*SD* = 8.02) years of age and had 9.29 (*SD* = 6.26) years of work experience. Since it is not uncommon for participants to miss one or more surveys in longitudinal data collection (Hong & Ho, 2005) and since missing values can be estimated in latent growth modeling (Little & Rubin, 1987, 1989; Muthén & Muthén, 2012), to make the best use of available data, participants who provided complete responses for Time 1, Time 2, and at least two of the last three surveys were included. To handle missing data, I followed previous research and estimated all models using the full information maximum likelihood approach (Little & Rubin, 2002; Ployhart & Ward, 2011). In total, 346 participants completed surveys at no less than four separate times, including Time 1, Time 2, and at least two of the rest three times. The average age of the 346 employees was 35.52 (*SD* = 7.83) years, and 61.1% of them were female. Their average work experience was 9.28 (*SD* = 6.12) years.

6.3. Study 2 Measures

I followed the back-translation procedure recommended by Brislin (1970) to translate survey items from English into Chinese. Specifically, I first translated original items from English to Chinese, and then an individual with bilingual proficiency in both

Chinese and English translated the items written in Chinese back into English to ensure that the meanings of original items remain consistent.

Trust in supervisor was measured at five separate times using the same items reported in Study 1. The trust referent was changed from Player 2 to participants' supervisor or the supervisor of the participants' coworker. Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree to* 7 = *Strongly agree.*

Trustworthiness evaluations. Trustworthiness evaluations were measured at five separate times using 17 items developed by Mayer and Davis (1999). Sample questions included "My [coworker's] supervisor seems to be qualified." (i.e., perceived ability), "My [coworker's] supervisor seems to be very concerned about my welfare." (i.e., perceived benevolence), and "My [coworker's] supervisor seems to have a strong sense of justice." (i.e., perceived integrity). Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree to* 7 = *Strongly agree.*

Negative/positive emotions were measured at five separate times using the same adjectives as Study 1, but with slightly different wordings. Specifically, at Time 1, 3, 4, and 5, I asked participants to report their negative and positive emotions for the past week. At Time 2, I asked participants to report their negative and positive emotions right after the event. Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Not at all to* 7 = *Extremely.*

Event confirmation/disconfirmation. The same three items reported in Study 1 were used to assess event confirmation/disconfirmation at Time 2. The questions were "Did the event confirm or disconfirm your prior expectations about your (or your coworker's) supervisor?", "Was the event expected or unexpected, based on your prior expectations about your (or your coworker's) supervisor?", and "Was the event surprising or not surprising, based on your prior expectations about your (or your coworker's) supervisor?" Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Extremely disconfirm/unexpected/not surprising to* 7 = *Extremely confirm/expected/surprising.*

Criticality of the event. Criticality of the event was assessed at Time 1 by three items adapted from Morgeson & DeRue (2006). The items were, "To what extent was this event critical for your long-term success?", "to what extent was this an important event for you?", and "to what extent was this event essential to you?". Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Extremely not critical/important/essential to* 7 = *Extremely critical/important/essential.*

Proximity of the event. Proximity of the event was assessed at Time 1 by whether the event was occurred to the participants themselves or the coworker of the participants, as well as the psychological closeness between participants and the reported coworkers. More specifically, I measured and tested event proximity in two ways. First, I treated event proximity as a binary variable - close proximity means when the event occurred to the participants themselves, and was coded as 1. In contrast, far proximity represents the event that occurred to the participants' coworker, and was coded as 2. Second, for participants who reported their trust in their coworker's supervisors, I assessed their psychological closeness with their coworkers, using seven items developed by Vangelisti and Caughlin (1997). Sample questions included "How close are you to your coworker?" and "How much do you like your coworker?" Responses were collected using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = *Not at all to* 7 = *To a very great extent*.

Timing of the event. Timing of the event was measured by the length of time participants have known their [their coworkers'] supervisors. Specifically, at Time 1, participants were asked to report how long they have known their current supervisors/their coworkers' supervisors.

Control variables. Participants' gender and age were included as control variables, as research has shown that middle-aged adults and females tend to be more forgiving than their counterparts after negative events (e.g., Ghaemmaghami, Allemand, & Martin, 2011; Miller, Worthington, & McDaniel, 2008). In addition, participants' trait neuroticism was included as a control variable, since it may affect participants' perceptions of trust and negative events (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Evans & Revelle, 2008). I also controlled for the company that each participant belongs to, to prevent any company-level effects.

Appendix D presents all of the Study 2 items.

6.4. Study 2 Analytical Strategy

To test the hypotheses regarding the magnitude of changes in trust (Hypotheses 1 to 6), I focused on Time 1 and Time 2 data and conducted a series of path analyses using Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). I first examined the direct effect of negative [positive] events on decreases [increases] in trust (i.e., Hypothesis 1 [2]). I treated Time 2 trust as the dependent variable, the event variable as the independent variable, and Time 1 trust, participants' age, gender, neuroticism, and the company they belonged to as control variables. If the results show a significant effect of the negative [positive] event, then Hypothesis 1 [2] is supported.

I then tested the mediating effects of changes in negative [positive] emotions and trustworthiness evaluations (i.e., Hypothesis 3 [4]), treating Time 2 trust as the dependent variable, the negative [positive] event (as compared to the neutral event) as the independent variable, and Time 2 negative [positive] emotions and trustworthiness evaluations as mediators. I also controlled for Time 1 trust, Time 1 negative [positive] emotions, Time 1 trustworthiness evaluations, participants' age, gender, neuroticism, and the company to which they belonged. Following Preacher and Hayes (2008) and consistent with other studies using Mplus to test indirect effects (e.g., Welsh, Ordóñez, Snyder, & Christian, 2014), bootstrapping with 1000 iterations was conducted to test the indirect effects of negative [positive] events on decreases [increases] in trust through changes in negative [positive] emotions and trustworthiness evaluations. If the bias corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effects exclude zero, the indirect effects are significant.

Next, to test the moderating effect of event characteristics (event criticality, event confirmation/disconfirmation), I created two interaction terms (i.e., event criticality x event valence, event confirmation/disconfirmation x event valence) by multiplying the mean centered variables of event valence and each of the event characteristics (Aiken & West, 1991; Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992). I included the moderator and the interaction term in the previous path analysis model. Bootstrapping with 1000 iterations was also conducted to test the moderated mediation effect.

Lastly, to test the hypotheses regarding the permanence of changes in trust, I focused on Time 2 to Time 5 data and used random coefficient growth models (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). Specifically, I followed two-level random coefficient growth model to estimate the change of trust (cf. Bliese & Ployhart, 2002):

Level 1: $\text{Trust}_{ti} = \pi_{0i} + \pi_{1i}(time) + \pi_{2i}(time^2) + e_{ij}$.

Level 2: $\pi_{0i} = \beta_{00} + \beta_{01}(Event\ Valence) + \beta_{02}(Event\ Characteristics_i) + r_{0j}$.

$\pi_{1i} = \beta_{10} + \beta_{11}(Event\ Valence) + \beta_{12}(Event\ Characteristics_i) +$

$\beta_{13}(Event\ Valence\ X\ Event\ Characteristics_i) + r_{1j}$.

$\pi_{2i} = \beta_{20} + \beta_{21}(Event\ Valence) + \beta_{22}(Event\ Characteristics_i) +$

$\beta_{23}(Event\ Valence\ X\ Event\ Characteristics_i) + r_{2j}$.

In the above equations, time = 0, 1, 2, or 3; i = the number of participants in the sample; t means the dependent variable (i.e., trust) was measured repeatedly t times (in this case, 4). The squared term of time allowed for possible nonlinearities in the relationship between time and trust. For the effects of negative events, I focused on comparing the negative events with neutral events. That is, event valence is either -1 or 0. For the effects of positive events, I focused on comparing the positive events with neutral events. That is, event valence is either 1 or 0. For the effects of either negative or positive event, if event valence is significantly related to the squared term of time, then the final model would include the squared term of time. In that case, when π_{1i} and π_{2i} together show an upward [downward] trend and β_{21} is significantly different than 0, decreases [increases] in trust in response to the negative [positive] event (compared to neutral event) would recover or rebound gradually and in a curvilinear manner. Otherwise, decreases [increases] in trust in response to the negative event is more permanent. In contrast, if event valence is not significantly related to the squared term of time, then the final model would not include the squared term of time. In that case, when β_{11} is significantly larger [smaller] than 0, decreases [increases] in trust in response to the negative [positive] event would recover or rebound gradually and in a linear manner. Otherwise, decreases [increases] in trust in response to the negative [positive] event is more permanent.

Next, π_{1i} and π_{2i} can vary across individuals based on how an individual views the event or perceives the characteristics of the event, including event criticality, proximity, and timing. If the final model includes the squared term of time, then when β_{23} is significantly different from 0, that characteristic of the event significantly moderates the effect of the negative [positive] event on the permanence of decreases [increases] in trust. If the final model does not include the squared term of time, then when β_{13} is significantly different from 0, the corresponding characteristic of the event significantly moderates the effect of the negative [positive] event on the permanence of decreases [increases] in trust. Figure 4 shows the representation of the latent growth model.

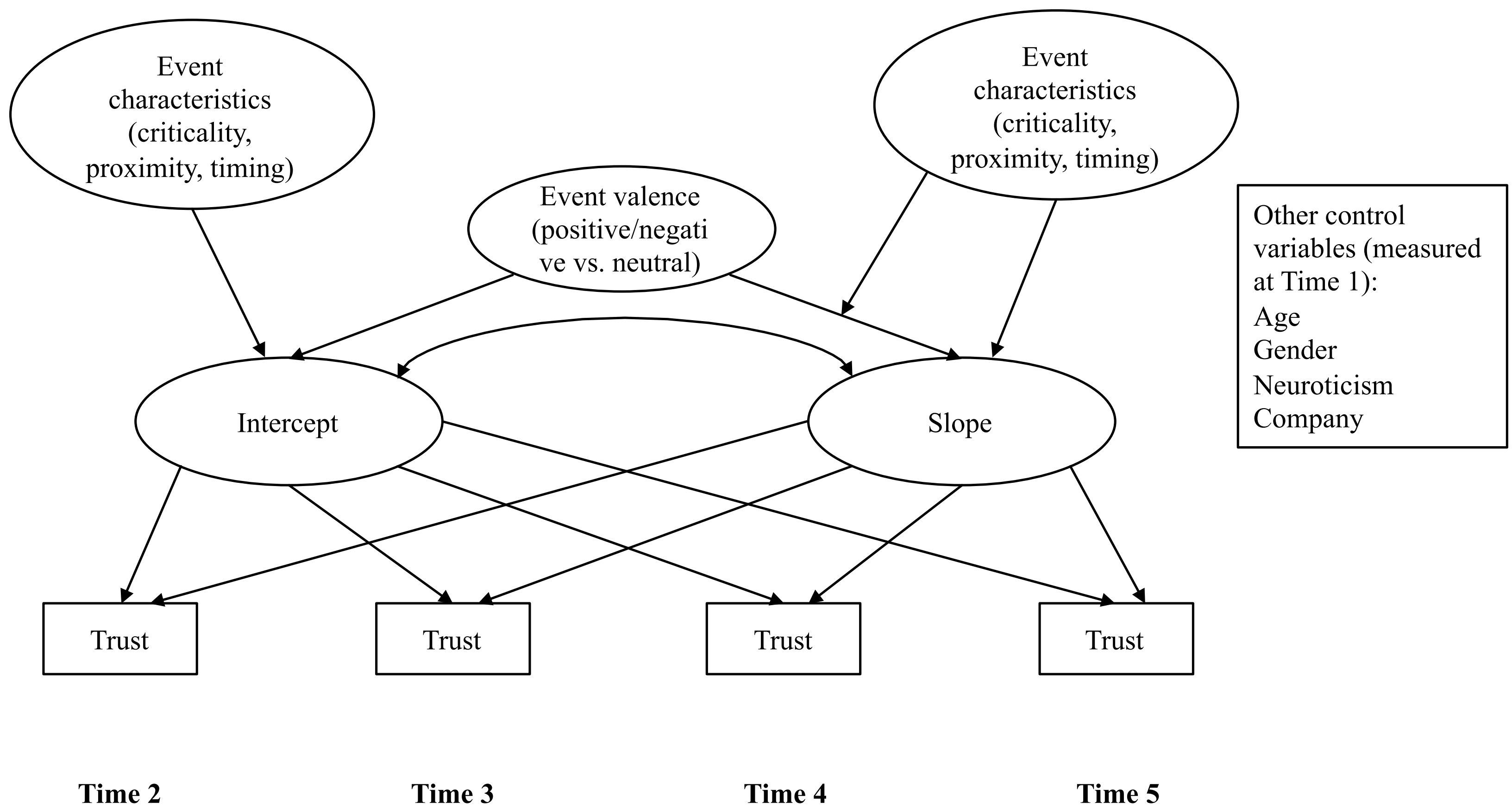


Figure 4. Representation of the Latent Growth Model

CHAPTER 7

STUDY 2 RESULTS

7.1. Measurement Model

A series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) was conducted using MPlus (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to ensure the discriminant validity of constructs at each time point. To help increase the stability and accuracy of the parameter estimates, I created parcels for variables including trustworthiness evaluations, negative emotions, positive emotions and event closeness (Little et al., 2002; Millsap, 2002). I followed the domain-representative approach to parcel multidimensional variables (i.e., trustworthiness evaluations). The results showed that, at Time 1 the hypothesized six-factor model (i.e., event criticality, event proximity, negative emotions, positive emotions, trustworthiness evaluations, and trust) was a good fit to the data ($\chi^2(137) = 252.825$, CFI = .967; TLI = .959; RMSEA = .049). At Time 2, the hypothesized five-factor model (i.e., event confirmation, negative emotions, positive emotions, trustworthiness evaluations, and trust) showed a good fit the data ($\chi^2(94) = 181.358$, CFI = .966; TLI = .957; RMSEA = .052). Similarly, the proposed four-factor model (i.e., negative emotions, positive emotions, trustworthiness evaluations, and trust) provided a good fit to the data at Time 3 ($\chi^2(71) = 208.112$, CFI = .961; TLI = .950; RMSEA = .078), Time 4 ($\chi^2(71) = 182.166$, CFI = .967; TLI = .958; RMSEA = .069), and Time 5 ($\chi^2(71) = 178.458$, CFI = .969; TLI = .960, RMSEA = .068).

7.2. Hypotheses Testing

Test of Hypotheses 1 – 6. Table 6 reports the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliabilities of the study variables. As mentioned earlier, I used Time 1 and Time 2 data to test Hypotheses 1 to 6. First, Hypothesis 1 proposed that a negative trust-related event would lead to decreases in the trustor's trust. The results showed that negative events (as compared to neutral events) were not significantly related to Time 2 trust (b = .06, *n.s.*). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Hypothesis 2 proposed that a positive trust-related event would lead to increases in the trustor's trust. The results showed that positive events (compared to the neutral events) were significantly related to Time 2 trust (b = .37, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 proposed that changes in negative [positive] emotions and trustworthiness evaluations would mediate the effects of a negative [positive] event on decreases [increases] in trust. The results shown in Table 7 suggested that negative events were not significantly related to Time 2 negative emotions (Model 4: b = -.22, *n.s.*) or Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (Model 1: b = -.24, *n.s.*). Only Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (Model 7: b = .42, $p < .001$) but not Time 2 negative emotions (Model 7: b = .10, *n.s.*) was related to Time 2 trust. Further, the bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effects through both negative emotions (b = .02, 95% CI = -.04, .20) and trustworthiness evaluations (b = -.10, 95% CI = -.36, .05) included zero. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. As for Hypothesis 4, as shown in Table 7 (Models 10, 13, and 16), positive events were significantly related to Time 2 positive emotions (b = .55, $p < .001$) and Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = .24, $p < .05$), but only Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (b = .42, $p < .001$), not Time 2 positive emotions (b = .03, *n.s.*), was related to Time 2 trust. Also, the bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effect through trustworthiness evaluations (b = .10,

Table 6. Study 2 Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Trust (T1)	4.64	1.14	.56									
2. Trustworthiness (T1)	5.40	.88	.58**	.94								
3. Positive emotions (T1)	4.75	1.20	.20**	.44**	.91							
4. Negative emotions (T1)	2.57	1.04	-.16**	-.29**	-.26**	.87						
5. Trust (T2)	4.55	1.05	.44**	.47**	.24**	-.09	.59					
6. Trustworthiness (T2)	5.24	.94	.41**	.65**	.33**	-.26**	.57**	.88				
7. Positive emotions (T2)	4.81	1.27	.27**	.36**	.39**	-.11*	.27**	.43**	.92			
8. Negative emotions (T2)	2.41	1.12	-.09	-.16**	-.24**	.38**	-.05	-.25**	-.34**	.91		
9. Trust (T3)	4.56	1.02	.48**	.49**	.17**	-.16**	.57**	.54**	.27**	-.07	.59	
10. Trustworthiness (T3)	5.18	.89	.38**	.62**	.33**	-.26**	.45**	.66**	.28**	-.14*	.65**	.96
11. Positive emotions (T3)	4.76	1.22	.31**	.40**	.50**	-.24**	.26**	.40**	.46**	-.26**	.32**	.46**
12. Negative emotions (T3)	2.62	1.03	.00	-.18**	-.24**	.61**	-.05	-.26**	-.17**	.50**	-.17**	-.33**
13. Trust (T4)	4.53	1.03	.39**	.47**	.20**	-.05	.47**	.42**	.24**	-.08	.56**	.45**
14. Trustworthiness (T4)	5.16	.85	.39**	.64**	.35**	-.19**	.40**	.65**	.35**	-.21**	.51**	.72**
15. Positive emotions (T4)	4.80	1.14	.12*	.29**	.40**	-.25**	.18**	.33**	.42**	-.26**	.13*	.30**
16. Negative emotions (T4)	2.61	1.06	.09	-.26**	-.23**	.49**	-.11*	-.28**	-.12*	.43**	-.17**	-.26**
17. Trust (T5)	4.54	.96	.42**	.45**	.15**	-.08	.47**	.48**	.24**	-.05	.54**	.47**
18. Trustworthiness (T5)	5.17	.82	.37**	.59**	.28**	-.19**	.47**	.62**	.31**	-.17**	.53**	.70**
19. Positive emotions (T5)	4.80	1.13	.27**	.36**	.48**	-.23**	.25**	.34**	.45**	-.25**	.23**	.34**
20. Negative emotions (T5)	2.57	1.04	.08	-.20**	-.18**	.49**	-.12*	-.24**	-.12*	.49**	-.14*	-.22**
21. Event valence[a]	.64	0.54	.14*	.23**	.18**	-.10	.23**	.23**	.24**	-.25**	.16**	.19**
22. Event confirmation	3.06	1.14	.03	-.03	-.04	.06	.07	-.01	.01	.10	.09	-.00
23. Event criticality	5.65	1.21	.19**	.32**	.29**	-.12*	.07	.22**	.21**	-.17**	.13*	.21**
24. Event proximity[b]	1.42	.49	-.25**	-.30**	-.11*	.06	-.18**	-.19**	-.07	.02	-.16**	-.23**
25. Event closeness	4.30	1.15	.39**	.49**	.18*	.06	.26**	.39**	.29**	-.06	.37**	.39**
26. Event timing	5.25	4.86	.10	.11	-.03	-.01	.02	.17**	.05	.07	.10	.08
27. Age	35.52	7.83	.12*	.04	.05	-.19**	.05	.07	.11*	.00	.06	.07
28. Gender	1.61	.49	-.01	.08	.17**	-.01	.14*	-.05	-.03	.06	-.03	.06
29. Neuroticism	3.27	.91	-.22**	-.31**	-.37**	.42**	-.14**	-.30**	-.30**	.28**	-.10	-.22**
30. Company	1.82	.39	.14**	.17**	.01	-.33**	.02	.12*	.14*	-.14**	.10	.05

Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
11. Positive emotions (T3)	.94											
12. Negative emotions (T3)	-.25*	.91										
13. Trust (T4)	.28**	-.03	.67									
14. Trustworthiness (T4)	.33**	-.21**	.57**	.95								
15. Positive emotions (T4)	.50**	-.30**	.27**	.43**	.94							
16. Negative emotions (T4)	-.32**	.58**	-.17**	-.37**	-.33**	.92						
17. Trust (T5)	.22**	-.04	.52**	.49**	.25**	-.13*	.61					
18. Trustworthiness (T5)	.28**	-.19**	.45**	.73**	.29**	-.25**	.62**	.95				
19. Positive emotions (T5)	.55**	-.19**	.24**	.35**	.52**	-.25**	.30**	.48**	.94			
20. Negative emotions (T5)	-.23**	.57**	-.08	-.17**	-.22**	.56**	-.13*	-.28**	-.32**	.93		
21. Event valence[a]	.08	-.11	.11*	.20**	.04	-.12*	.19**	.26**	.18**	-.14*	-	
22. Event confirmation	-.04	.08	.02	-.00	-.05	.05	.03	-.05	-.12*	.12	-.15**	.63
23. Event criticality	.30**	-.15**	.14*	.25**	.23**	-.06	.14*	.20**	.18**	-.11*	.06	.10
24. Event proximity[b]	-.08	.05	-.21**	-.29**	-.12*	.11*	-.26**	-.31**	-.14*	.13*	-.05	-.12*
25. Event closeness	.20*	-.09	.21*	.38**	.18*	.06	.11	.31**	.29**	-.03	-.07	-.02
26. Event timing	-.02	.11	.12*	.18**	.07	-.04	.10	.14*	.05	.03	.03	-.20
27. Age	.10	-.06	.06	.12*	.16**	-.12*	.05	.04	.13*	-.05	.00	-.14*
28. Gender	.02	-.12*	-.02	.01	.06	.03	-.09	.03	.02	-.03	.00	.09
29. Neuroticism	-.43**	.32**	-.16**	-.28**	-.34**	.32**	-.13*	-.18**	-.38**	.30**	-.14**	.13*
30. Company	.09	-.12*	.06	.12*	.11	-.17**	.09	.07	.15**	-.15**	.15**	-.14**

Variable	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
23. Event criticality	.91							
24. Event proximity[b]	-.10	-						
25. Event closeness	.22**	-.03	.84					
26. Event timing	-.11*	-.23**	-.06	-				
27. Age	-.16**	.02	-.10	.25**	-			
28. Gender	.02	-.13*	.10	-.23**	.01	-		
29. Neuroticism	-.29**	.02	.05	.01	-.18**	.01	.77	
30. Company	-.07	.09	.06	.18**	.40**	-.27**	-.14*	-

Note. N = 144 for event closeness, N = 313-346 for other variables (due to missing responses). Values on the diagonal represent internal consistency reliability estimates. [a] Event Valence 1= positive event, 0 = neutral event, -1 = negative event. [b]Event proximity 1 = event occurred to self, 2 = event occurred to coworker. Gender 1 = male, 2 = female.
T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2, T3 = Time 3, T4 = Time 4, T5 = Time 5. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; (two-tailed).

Table 7. The Moderating Effects of Event Criticality and Confirmation on the Magnitude of Changes in Trust (Study 2)

Variable	TW (T2)			Negative Event Negative emotions (T2)			Trust (T2)			TW (T2)			Positive Event Positive emotions (T2)			Trust (T2)		
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14	M15	M16	M17	M18
Age	.00	.00	.00	.03*	.02	.03*	-.00	-.01	-.00	.01	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	-.00	.00
	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.10)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)
Gender	-.20	-.21	-.21	-.02	-.07	-.04	.24	.16	.26	-.22	-.22	-.23	-.19	-.18	-.21	.32*	.30	.31
	(.16)	(.17)	(.16)	(.20)	(.22)	(.20)	(.17)	(.16)	(.18)	(.09)	(.10)	(.09)	(.13)	(.13)	(.13)	(.10)	(.10)	(.10)
Neuroticism	.00	-.02	-.01	.32*	.33*	.33	.05	-.02	.07	-.07	-.06	-.07	-.11	-.08	-.12	.06	.05	.06
	(.11)	(.12)	(.12)	(.14)	(.15)	(.14)	(.11)	(.11)	(.12)	(.05)	(.05)	(.05)	(.08)	(.08)	(.08)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)
Company	-.00	-.01	-.03	-.34	-.41	-.27	-.05	-.16	.00	-.09	-.09	-.09	.15	.15	.16	-.13	-.16	-.11
	(.22)	(.23)	(.23)	(.31)	(.33)	(.31)	(.22)	(.23)	(.24)	(.10)	(.10)	(.10)	(.17)	(.18)	(.17)	(.13)	(.14)	(.13)
Trust (T1)	-.05	-.05	-.04	.03	.05	.00	.04	.04	.02	.04	.04	.04	.10	.10	.08	.28**	.28**	.27**
	(.08)	(.08)	(.08)	(.12)	(.12)	(.12)	(.08)	(.09)	(.09)	(.04)	(.04)	(.04)	(.08)	(.08)	(.08)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)
Trustworthiness (T1)	.63**	.63**	.63**	.23	.27	.25	.30*	.32*	.33*	.61**	.61**	.61**	.14	.13	.14	.04	.05	.03
	(.09)	(.10)	(.10)	(.16)	(.16)	(.15)	(.13)	(.13)	(.14)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)	(.10)	(.11)	(.10)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)
Negative emotions (T1)	-.01	-.01	-.02	.33**	.34**	.35**	.08	.10	.11									
	(.10)	(.10)	(.10)	(.11)	(.11)	(.12)	(.08)	(.08)	(.08)									
Positive emotions (T1)										.04	.04	.04	.34**	.32**	.33**	.01	.02	.02
										(.04)	(.05)	(.04)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.05)	(.05)	(.05)
Negative event	-.24	-.19	-.19	-.22	-.28	.28	.20	.23	.17									
	(.22)	(.31)	(.27)	(.41)	(1.29)	(.46)	(.25)	(.31)	(.29)									
Positive event										.24*	.24*	.23*	.55**	.55**	.56**	.18	.19	.21*
										(.09)	(.10)	(.10)	(.14)	(.15)	(.14)	(.10)	(.10)	(.10)
Event criticality		-.02			-.14			-.14			.01			.05			-.06	
		(.08)			(.28)			(.08)			(.03)			(.06)			(.04)	
Event criticality x Event valence[a]		-.06			.98			.12			.07			.10			.08	
		(.50)			(2.65)			(.53)			(.07)			(.11)			(.08)	
Event confirmation			-.02			.22			.13			.01			.11			.05
			(.09)			(.10)			(.08)			(.04)			(.06)			(.04)
Event confirmation x Event valence			-.22			-.12			.22			.08			.10			-.11
			(.34)			(.54)			(.45)			(.10)			(.12)			(.09)
Trustworthiness (T2)							.42**	.41**	.42**							.42**	.42**	.43**
							(.13)	(.13)	(.09)							(.10)	(.10)	(.10)
Negative emotions (T2)							.10	.10	.10									
							(.08)	(.08)	(.10)									
Positive emotions (T2)																.03	.04	.03
																(.05)	(.05)	(.05)

R^2	.34**	.34**	.35**	.21**	.26*	.26**	.45**	.49**	.47**	.46**	.46**	.46**	.28**	.27**	.29**	.43**	.44**	.43**
ΔR^2		.00	.01		.05	.05		.04	.02		.00	.00		.00	.01		.01	.00

Note. Negative event $N = 11$, Neutral event $N = 106$, 0 = neutral event, -1 = negative event. Positive event $N = 229$, 0 = neutral event, 1 = positive event. M = Model. T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. TW = Trustworthiness evaluations. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; (two-tailed).

95% CI = .02, .23) excluded zero, but not through positive emotions (*b* = .02, 95% CI = -.03, .08). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 received partial support, such that positive events led to increases in trust through increases in trustworthiness evaluations.

Hypotheses 5a [b] and 6a [b] propose that event criticality and event confirmation/disconfirmation would moderate the effects of an event on the magnitude of decreases [increases] in trust, through changes in negative [positive] emotions and trustworthiness evaluations. For the effects of negative events, as shown in Table 7, the results (shown in Models 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, and 9) revealed that the event criticality and event valence interaction term was not significantly related to Time 2 negative emotions (*b* = .98, *n.s.*) or Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (*b* = -.06, *n.s.*). Also, the event confirmation and event valence interaction term was not significantly related to Time 2 negative emotions (*b* = -.12, *n.s.*) or Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (*b* = -.22, *n.s.*). Thus, neither Hypothesis 5a nor 6a was supported. For the effects of positive events, similarly, the results (shown in Models 11, 12, 14, 15, 17, and 18) revealed that the event criticality and event valence interaction term was not significantly related to Time 2 positive emotions (*b* = .10, *n.s.*) or Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (*b* = .07, *n.s.*), and the event confirmation and event valence interaction term was not significantly related to Time 2 positive emotions (*b* = .10, *n.s.*) or Time 2 trustworthiness evaluations (*b* = .10, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypotheses 5b and 6b were not supported.

Test of Hypotheses 7 – 9. Hypotheses 7 – 9 predict that event criticality (H7), event proximity (H8), and event timing (H9) would moderate the effects of a negative [positive] event on the permanence of decreases [increases] in trust. For negative events, results showed that when including the squared term of time, event valance was not significantly related to the squared term of time (*b* = .19, *p* = .08). When excluding the squared term of time, event valence was not significantly related to the linear term of time (*b* = .15, *p* = .10), suggesting that compared to neutral event, trust did not change over time in response to negative event. Given that trust did not change significantly right after the occurrence of negative events, this finding is not surprising. Because trust did not decrease after negative events, I did not test Hypotheses 7a to 9a with regards to the effects of negative events over time.

For positive events, results showed that when including the squared term of time, event valance was not significantly related to the squared term of time (*b* = -.17, *n.s.*). When excluding the squared term of time, event valence was significantly related to the linear term of time (*b* = -.09, $p < .05$), suggesting that compared to neutral event, trust decreases over time in response to positive event. Such finding indicated that the positive impact of positive events diminished over time in a linear fashion. Figure 5 summarizes the mean values of trust over time, depending on the valence of the event. Event valence was also significantly related to the intercept term of time (*b* = .51, $p < .01$), indicating that Time 2 trust was significantly higher after positive event than neutral event, which was consistent with the finding that trust increased in response to positive events (Hypothesis 2). Taken together, the results suggested that in responses to positive events (compared to neutral events), trust increased immediately, followed by a linear decrease over the next three weeks.

To test Hypothesis 7b, event criticality and the event criticality and event valence interaction term were included in the previous model. Results (Model 1 in Table 8) showed that the interaction term was not significantly related to the slope of change (*b* =

-.001, *n.s.*). To test Hypothesis 8b, event proximity (i.e., categorically coded proximity and psychological closeness, separately) and the interaction between event proximity and event valence were included. Results (Models 2 and 3 in Table 8) demonstrated that the interaction term was not significantly related to the slope of change (b = .002, *n.s.* for categorically coded proximity; b = -.003, *n.s.* for psychological closeness). Lastly, to test Hypothesis 9b, event timing and the interaction term of event timing and event valence were included. Results (Model 4 in Table 8) showed that the interaction term was not significantly related to the slope of change (b = .002, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypotheses 7b, 8b, and 9b were all not supported.

Table 8. Unstandardized Coefficients in the Latent Growth Model (Study 2)

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
Predictor	Intercept	Slope	Intercept	Slope	Intercept	Slope	Intercept	Slope
Control variables								
Age	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	-.00	-.00
Gender	.22*	-.14**	.20**	-.15**	.18	-.12*	.27*	-.15**
Neuroticism	-.08	.02	-.11*	.02	-.04	-.03	-.12*	.02
Company	.06	-.02	.12	-.02	-.04	-.10	.07	-.03
Predictor								
Event valence[a]	.49**	-.09*	.49**	-.09**	.31	-.07	.49**	-.09*
Event criticality	.07	.02						
Event criticality x Valence		-.00						
Event proximity[b]			-.40**	-.03				
Event proximity x Event valence				.00				
Event closeness					.30**	-.04		
Event closeness x Event valence						-.00		
Event timing							.02	.00
Event timing x Event valence								.00

Note. [a]Event Valence 0 = neutral event, 1 = positive event. [b]Event proximity 1 = event occurred to self, 2 = event occurred to coworker.
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; (two-tailed).

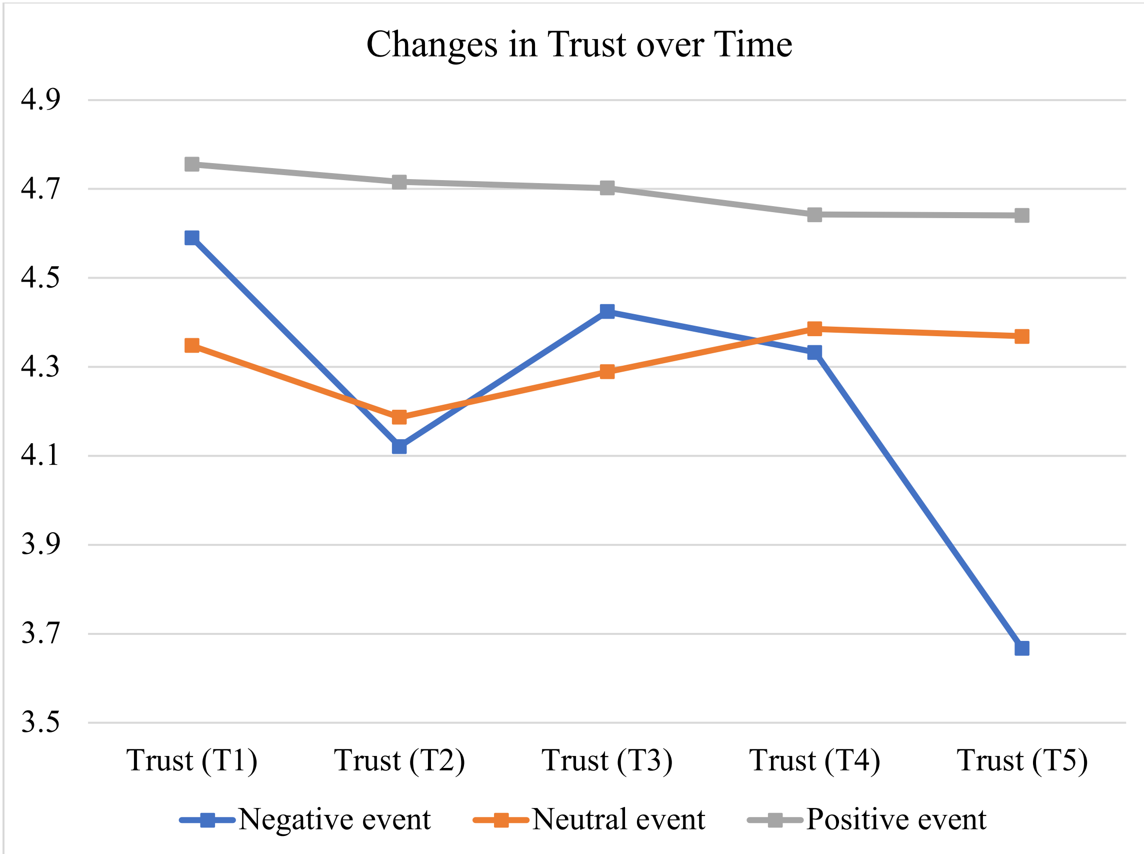


Figure 5. Changes in Trust over Time (Based on Reported Valence)

7.3. Post Hoc Analysis

To examine the effect of events on trust, I relied on participants' reported event valence (i.e., positive, neutral, and negative). However, very few participants (n = 11) reported the event they experienced as negative, even though it was obviously harmful or unfavorable to them. I speculate that it was caused by the design of the data collection (i.e., the reminders from HR personnel before and after each survey for Company A, the presence of me and HR personnel who assisted with survey distribution and collection for Company B). With the help of HR personnel, most employees might have felt pressured to avoid bad-mouthing their supervisors and organizations, and thus reported the event more favorable than the outcomes actually were. For instance, one employee reported, before the occurrence of the bonus allocation event (i.e., Time 1), that given their efforts and performance they expected to receive 5000 Renminbi (RMB) as bonuses. Right after the occurrence of the event (i.e., Time 2), the same employee reported that they got no bonus and did not receive an explanation for their lack of bonus, but still described the event as positive. Given that employees seem to avoid rating events as negative, I coded the valence of event each participant experienced by comparing their expectation of the event and the actual outcomes of the event and conducted post-hoc analyses based on the coded event valence. For instance, referring back to the respondent in the above example, I coded the event as "negative" rather than "positive". To ensure the accuracy of the coding, another rater fluent in Chinese also coded valence for each event independently. The interrater agreement on all decisions was above 90% (90.5%). All discrepancies were thoroughly discussed and resolved.

The results using coded valence suggested that, in support of Hypotheses 1 and 2, negative events led to decreases in trust ($b = .33$, $p < .001$) while positive event led to increases in trust ($b = .52$, $p < .001$). However, the effect of negative events on trust was not transmitted through negative emotions (*indirect effect* = .00, 95% CI = -.01, .04) or trustworthiness evaluations (*indirect effect* = .04, 95% CI = -.04, .15). Similarly, the effect of positive events on trust was not transmitted via either positive emotions (*indirect effect* = .02, 95% CI = -.03, .09) or trustworthiness evaluations (*indirect effect* = -.01, 95% CI = -.11, .08). The results are summarized in Table 9. Next, in partial support of Hypothesis 5b, the conditional indirect effect of positive events on increases in trust via increases in trustworthiness evaluations was more positive when the positive event was considered as more important (*indirect effect* = .10, 95% CI = -.02, .28) than when the event was considered as less important (*indirect effect* = -.11, 95% CI = -.29, .02; *diff* = .21, 95% CI = .03, .52). Similarly, in partial support of Hypothesis 6b, the conditional indirect effect of positive events on increases in trust via increases in trustworthiness evaluations was significant and positive when the positive event was considered more unexpected (*indirect effect* = .12, 95% CI = .01, .30), but significant and negative when the event was more expected (*indirect effect* = -.14, 95% CI = -.34, -.02; *diff* = .26, 95% CI = .08, .55). Neither the moderating role of event criticality nor event confirmation was supported for the effects of negative events on decreases in trust. Indeed, contrary to what I expected, the conditional indirect effect of negative events on decreases in trust via decreases in trustworthiness evaluations was stronger when the negative events were considered less important (*indirect effect* = .12, 95% CI = .02, .29) than when the events were considered more important (*indirect effect* = -.05, 95% CI = -.17, .06; *diff* = .17,

Table 9. The Moderating Effects of Event Criticality and Confirmation on the Magnitude of Changes in Trust Based on Coded Valence (Study 2)

Variable	Negative Event[a]									Positive Event[b]								
	TW (T2)			Negative emotions (T2)			Trust (T2)			TW (T2)			Positive emotions (T2)			Trust (T2)		
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14	M15	M16	M17	M18
Age	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	.01	.00	.01	-.00	-.00	-.00	.01	.01	.01
	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)
Gender	-.24	-.21	-.22	.09	.06	.09	.46**	.43**	.45**	-.20*	-.19*	-.20*	-.16	-.16	-.20	.14	.14	.12
	(.14)	(.14)	(.14)	(.16)	(.17)	(.15)	(.11)	(.12)	(.12)	(.08)	(.08)	(.08)	(.16)	(.16)	(.16)	(.12)	(.12)	(.12)
Neuroticism	-.07	-.10	-.07	.17	.15	.16	.07	.05	.07	-.08	-.10	-.11*	-.06	-.06	-.09	.04	.04	.04
	(.08)	(.08)	(.08)	(.10)	(.11)	(.10)	(.09)	(.09)	(.08)	(.05)	(.05)	(.05)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.07)	(.08)	(.07)
Company	-.13	-.09	-.13	-.21	-.25	-.19	.27	.25	.27	-.06	-.06	-.04	.10	.10	.11	-.23	-.23	-.22
	(.17)	(.17)	(.17)	(.27)	(.26)	(.26)	(.18)	(.19)	(.19)	(.11)	(.11)	(.11)	(.20)	(.20)	(.20)	(.14)	(.14)	(.15)
Trust (T1)	-.00	-.01	.01	.03	.03	.02	.11	.19**	.20**	.08	.08	.08	.18	.18	.19*	.33**	.33**	.33**
	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.10)	(.07)	(.07)	(.05)	(.05)	(.05)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)
Trustworthiness	.63**	.63**	.63**	.02	.04	.04	.35**	.35**	.10	.60**	.61**	.61**	.14	.14	.09	.04	.04	.03
(T1)	(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.12)	(.12)	(.11)	(.09)	(.09)	(.10)	(.07)	(.07)	(.07)	(.12)	(.13)	(.12)	(.10)	(.11)	(.10)
Negative emotions	-.07	-.06	-.06	.37**	.37**	.37**	.07	.03	.08									
(T1)	(.07)	(.07)	(.08)	(.09)	(.08)	(.09)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)									
Positive emotions										.03	.02	.00	.41**	.41**	.41**	-.00	.00	.01
(T1)										(.04)	(.04)	(.04)	(.08)	(.08)	(.08)	(.06)	(.06)	(.06)
Negative event	.12	.10	.11	.07	.06	.09	.44**	.44**	.44**									
	(.12)	(.12)	(.12)	(.16)	(.16)	(.16)	(.13)	(.12)	(.12)									
Positive event										-.02	-.01	-.03	.43*	.43*	.46*	.06	.06	.07
										(.09)	(.09)	(.09)	(.18)	(.18)	(.18)	(.11)	(.11)	(.12)
Event criticality		.00			-.06			-.05			-.02			.00			-.03	
		(.05)			(.08)			(.06)			(.04)			(.07)			(.05)	
Event criticality x		-.21*			.07			.06			.16*			.02			-.02	
Event valence		(.10)			(.14)			(.12)			(.08)			(.13)			(.10)	
Event confirmation[c]			-.07			.06			.05			.04			.09			.03
			(.06)			(.07)			(.05)			(.04)			(.07)			(.05)
Event confirmation			-.05			-.10			-.11			.22**			.20			.02
x Event valence			(.11)			(.14)			(.11)			(.07)			(.15)			(.12)
Trustworthiness							.35**	.35**	.35**							.33**	.51**	.50**
(T2)							(.09)	(.09)	(.08)							(.07)	(.13)	(.13)
Negative emotions							.03	.03	.03									
(T2)							(.06)	(.06)	(.06)									
Positive emotions																.04	.04	.03
(T2)																(.06)	(.06)	(.06)
R^2	.40**	.41**	.40**	.17**	.17*	.18**	.42**	.42**	.42**	.53**	.55**	.55**	.29**	.29**	.32**	.47**	.48**	.47**
ΔR^2		.01	.00		.00	.00		.01	.00		.02	.02		.00	.03		.01	.00

Independent Variable	Moderator	Event Valence → TW (T2)		TW (T2) → Trust (T2)		Indirect Effects	
		b	90% CI	b	90% CI	b	90% CI
Negative events (as compared to neutral events)	Event criticality (High)	-.14	[-.43, .12]	.35	[.23, .51]	-.05	[-.15, .04]
	Event criticality (Low)	.34	[.08, .58]	.35	[.23, .51]	.12	[.04, .26]
	Difference	-.48	[-.83, -.13]			-.17	[-.32, -.05]
Negative events (as compared to neutral events)	Event confirmation (High)	.05	[-.22, .28]	.35	[.25, .52]	.02	[-.08, .10]
	Event confirmation (Low)	.17	[-.18, .46]	.35	[.25, .52]	.06	[-.05, .21]
	Difference	-.12	[-.51, .31]			-.04	[-.22, .09]
Positive events (as compared to neutral events)	Event criticality (High)	.20	[-.02, .42]	.51	[.28, .70]	.10	[.00, .25]
	Event criticality (Low)	-.22	[-.45, .02]	.51	[.28, .70]	-.11	[-.26, .00]
	Difference	.41	[.10, .75]			.21	[.06, .52]
Positive events (as compared to neutral events)	Event confirmation (High)	.23	[.04, .45]	.50	[.27, .69]	.12	[.02, .25]
	Event confirmation (Low)	-.28	[-.48, -.07]	.50	[.27, .69]	-.14	[-.30, -.04]
	Difference	.51	[.24, .80]			.26	[.10, .49]

Note. [a]Negative event $N = 119$, Neutral event $N = 74$, 0 = neutral event, -1 = negative event. [b]Positive event $N = 153$, 0 = neutral event, 1 = positive event. T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. TW = Trustworthiness evaluations. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; (two-tailed).
[c]Event confirmation High = more disconfirming/surprising/unexpected, Low = less disconfirming/surprising/unexpected.

Table 10. Summary of the Results of the Hypotheses.

Hypothesis	**Influence on Changes in Trust**	Study 1	Study 2 (Reported Valence)	Study 2 (Coded Valence)
H1	A negative trust-related event will lead to decreases in the trustor's trust.	Supported	Not supported	Supported
H2	A positive trust-related event will lead to increases in the trustor's trust.	Supported	Supported	Supported
H3	A negative trust-related event will lead to decreases in the trustor's trust through a) increases in negative emotions, and b) decreases in trustworthiness evaluations.	Supported	Not supported	Not supported
H4	A positive trust-related event will lead to increases in the trustor's trust through a) increases in positive emotions, and b) increases in trustworthiness evaluations.	Supported	Partially supported	Not supported
H5a	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the magnitude of decreases in trust, by affecting both changes in negative emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.	-	Not supported	Not supported
H5b	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the magnitude of increases in trust, by affecting both changes in positive emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.	-	Not supported	Partially supported
H6a	The extent of event confirmation/disconfirmation will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the magnitude of decreases in trust, by affecting both changes in negative emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.	Partially Supported	Not supported	Not supported
H6b	The extent of event confirmation/disconfirmation will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the magnitude of increases in trust, by affecting both changes in positive emotions and changes in trustworthiness evaluations.	Partially, marginally supported	Not supported	Partially supported
H7a	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the more critical the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.	-	Not supported	Not supported

H7b	Event criticality will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the more critical the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.	-	Not supported	Not supported
H8a	Event proximity will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the closer in proximity the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.	-	Not supported	Not supported
H8b	Event proximity will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the closer in proximity the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.	-	Not supported	Not supported
H9a	Event timing will moderate the relationship between a negative trust-related event and the permanence of decreases in trust, such that the earlier the event is, the more permanent the decreases in trust will be.	-	Not supported	Not supported
H9b	Event timing will moderate the relationship between a positive trust-related event and the permanence of increases in trust, such that the earlier the event is, the more permanent the increases in trust will be.	-	Not supported	Not supported

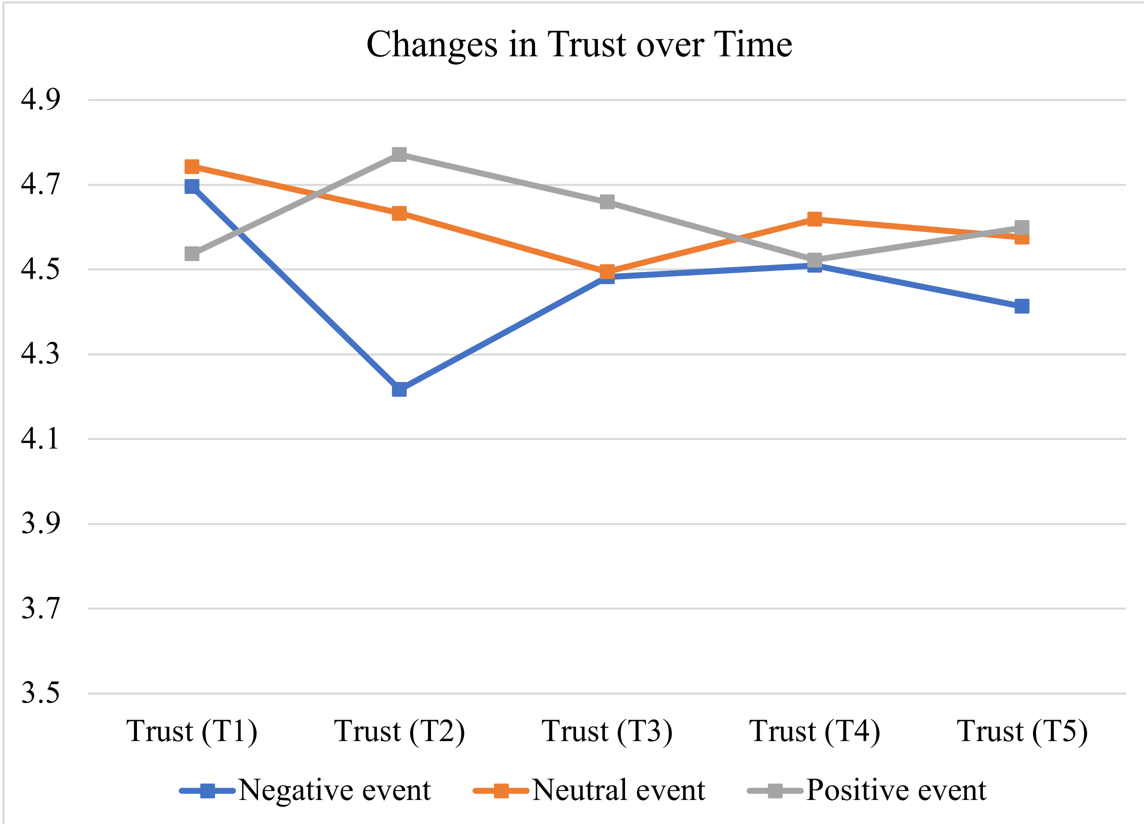


Figure 6. Changes in Trust over Time (Based on Coded Valence)

95% CI = .03, .35). Given that event valence was coded relying only on the respondents' short description, and there might be other unknown factors affecting respondents' perceptions of valence (e.g., comparison with other colleagues), the results should be interpreted with due caution.

In terms of the impact of events over time, the results demonstrated that the effects of both negative events (*mean estimate* = -.08, $p < .05$) and positive events (*mean estimate* = .05, $p < .05$) diminished in a curvilinear fashion. However, none of the event characteristics affected the slope of the diminished effects. Figure 6 summarizes the mean values of trust over time, depending on the coded valence of the event. Table 10 summarizes the results of all hypotheses.

7.4. Study 2 Discussion

Results of Study 2 indicated that, based on participants' reported event valence, positive events (as compared to neutral events) resulted in the trustor's increases in supervisor trust through increases in trustworthiness evaluations. However, this positive influence diminished over time in a linear fashion. That is, the increased trust in response to positive events fell within the following three weeks. The results also suggested that the magnitude and permanence of increases in trust did not vary depending on event confirmation or any event characteristics, including event criticality, proximity, and timing. Moreover, Study 2 failed to find support for the effect of negative events (as compared to neutral events) on decreases in trust. Event confirmation and event characteristics did not moderate the effects of negative events on either the magnitude or the permanence of decreases in trust.

Given the fact that very few participants reported event valence as negative, I further examined all hypotheses using valence coded by two independent coders. The results suggested that positive events led to increases in trust, while negative events led to decreases in trust. Both the positive and negative impacts diminished in a curvilinear manner. That is, the increased trust in response to positive events fell, and the decreased trust in response to negative events recovered within the following three weeks. The results also suggested that event confirmation and event criticality moderated the effect of positive events on the magnitude of increases in trust via increases in trustworthiness evaluations. Specifically, positive events exerted a stronger impact on increases in trustworthiness evaluations and, in turn, increases in trust when the events were considered as more important and more unexpected. However, the results showed that event confirmation did not moderate the effect of negative events. And contrary to what I expected, event criticality negatively moderated the influence of negative events on decreases in trust via trustworthiness evaluations, such that the magnitude of decreases in trustworthiness and trust were greater when the events were considered as less important. Lastly, none of the examined event characteristics (i.e., event criticality, proximity, timing) exerted significant influence on the permanence of changes in trust in response to positive or negative events.

CHAPTER 8

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Interpersonal trust, a key element in affecting a variety of work outcomes, is inherently dynamic (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Mcknight et al., 1998). Yet, prior research has predominantly taken a static perspective when investigating trust, and therefore, there are still important missing pieces in our understanding of why, how, and when changes in trust could occur in the workplace (Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006; De Jong et al., 2015). This oversight is unfortunate as it limits our understanding of trust phenomena. Drawing upon event-system theory (Morgeson et al., 2015), this dissertation first examines events as predictors of changes in trust in the workplace. Further, this dissertation builds on dual-system theory (Kahneman, 2011) and investigates whether events trigger changes in trust through both emotional (i.e., positive and negative emotions) and cognitive (i.e., trustworthiness evaluations) reactions. This dissertation also explores how long the changes in trust may last without further intervention, as well as the extent to which the magnitude and permanence of changes are contingent upon event characteristics.

Through a trust game-based experiment (Study 1) and a longitudinal field study (Study 2), this dissertation advances our knowledge of the dynamic nature of trust by highlighting the importance of events in the workplace. First, the results of the two studies consistently suggested that trust-related events triggered changes in interpersonal trust. Specifically, the results of Study 1 suggested that positive trust-related events led to increases in trust, while negative trust-related events led to decreases in trust. The results of Study 2, based on participants' reported event valence, indicated that only positive but not negative events (as compared to neutral events) triggered changes in trust. These seemingly different results might be caused by the different research contexts and/or how the event valence was measured.

To illustrate, interpersonal trust in Study 1 involved a trustor (i.e., a participant) and a trustee (a manipulated "false" person) who had minimal prior interactions. That is, like prior experimental studies, the design of Study 1 ignored the fact that in real work settings, trustees and trustors usually have a much longer personal history. Given the relatively longer-term relationship between trustors and trustees in Study 2 ($M = 5.25$), a single negative event might not be salient enough to produce change. The different findings may also be due to cultural differences across the two studies. Study 1 was conducted with participants from North America while Study 2 was conducted with participants from China. With high levels of collectivism and power distance (Hofstede, 1980), employees from China (vs. North America) tend to be less self-interest oriented, more tolerant, and more likely to view negative events, especially caused by an authority figure, as acceptable (Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, & Jones, 2013; Zagenczyk, Cruz, Cheung, Scott, Kiewitz, & Galloway, 2015). Therefore, employees' decreases in trust in response to negative events in China may not be as great as the decreases in North America. It will be an interesting avenue for future research to investigate the roles of national culture in event-trust phenomena. Apart from the above speculations, I suspect the most likely reason for the insignificant effect of negative events in Study 2 is caused by the insufficient statistical power to capture the effect, given that very few participants ($n = 11$) reported the event as negative. Therefore, I conducted post-hoc analyses using coded event valence. The results of post-hoc analyses were consistent with Study 1, such that positive events triggered increases in trust while negative events triggered decreases in trust.

Moreover, the results were inconsistent between Study 1 and Study 2 with regards to the mediating mechanisms through which events affected interpersonal trust. The results of Study 1 confirmed the hypotheses that events led to changes in trust through both changes in emotional reactions and cognitive assessments of the trustee's trustworthiness. The results of Study 2, however, largely failed to find support for the mediating roles of either emotional or cognitive reactions, except for the effect of positive events on increases in trust through trustworthiness evaluations. Again, these inconsistent findings might be explained by different research contexts and different operationalizations of emotions. In terms of research contexts, in work settings, with several years of personal history, how the attributions that trustors make for events may exert an important influence on the effects of events on changes in cognitive evaluations of trustworthiness towards the trustee (attribution theory; Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973; Weiner, 1985). If the trustor attributes the cause of a negative event to the trustee, the trustor is prone to alter their trustworthiness evaluations, leading to subsequent changes in trust. However, if the attribution is made to factors outside of the trustee's control or power, cognitive assessments of trustworthiness evaluations might not be affected. As an example, an employee expressed to me that they could not trust their supervisor to the same extent as before, as the promised promotion failed to materialize. However, the employee understood that the final decision was made by the company and was beyond the supervisor's control, and thus did not change their opinions on the supervisor's ability, benevolence, or integrity. On the contrary, with limited information and background, attribution to external factors in a trust game-based experiment (Study 1) is less likely to occur. That is, trustors should be more likely to attribute the cause of positive or negative events (i.e., how much money trustees decided to share) purely to the trustee themselves, leading to changes in trustworthiness evaluations and trust in turn.

In terms of the operationalizations of emotions, in the experimental setting, changes in emotions were captured by asking participants to report their emotions right before and after the event. The short period of time left very little room for different factors (apart from the event) to affect emotions at these two different times. However, in the field study, before event emotions were measured by asking participants to report their emotions for the previous week, whereas after event emotions were assessed by participants' emotions right after the event. Uncaptured factors, such as a fight at home or a mad consumer, might have significantly affected trustors' emotions at either time point. As such, the changes in emotions captured in Study 2 might be affected not only by the bonuses or rewards allocation event, but other unmeasured factors, making it very difficult to transmit the effects of events on changes in trust.

Further, Study 1 found that event confirmation played an important role in affecting the magnitude of changes in trust, such that the magnitude of changes was greater when the event was considered as more disconfirming, surprising, or unexpected. Unfortunately, this finding was not replicated in Study 2 when analyses were conducted using participants' reported event valence. A potential reason might be that the event valence was manipulated in Study 1, and thus was not affected by the confirmation of the event. In Study 2, however, event confirmation can be biased by the reported valence, such that respondents were likely to report event as more disconfirming when the event was negative (vs. positive). If this is the case, it might also help to explain that, in the post-hoc analyses when coded valence was used, event confirmation moderated the impact of positive events on increases in trust transmitted through increases in trustworthiness evaluations. Using coded valence, Study 2 also supported the role of event criticality in affecting the magnitude of increases in trust in response to positive events. More specifically, supervisor trust increased to a greater amount when the event was considered as more important to the trustor.

Lastly, based on analyses using reported valence, the results of Study 2 suggested that the effects of positive events did not last long. Indeed, increases in trust in response to positive events fell within the next three weeks. The results using coded valence similarly suggested that the impact of both positive and negative events decreased with time. However, Study 2 failed to find support for the moderating roles of event characteristics on the permanence of changes in trust. In other words, both the positive and negative effects diminished similarly regardless of the criticality, proximity, or timing of the event. Taken together, although many of the proposed hypotheses were not supported in Study 2, the findings of this dissertation still have several important implications for research and practice.

8.1. Theoretical Implications

This dissertation makes several important contributions for theory in the trust literature. First, despite the abundance of theory and emerging evidence suggesting that interpersonal trust may change in the workplace, we still know little about why and how the change occurs (De Jong et al., 2015). For instance, my review of the trust literature revealed that only one study investigated how trust violations occurred (i.e., Grover et al., 2014), and only one study examined how and why increases in trust occurred (i.e., Mayer et al., 2011). Not surprisingly, a number of questions related to trust building and dissolution remain open and require exploration. By providing empirical evidence that events are sufficient to influence interpersonal trust, the findings of this dissertation add to both the trust literature and the emerging literature on events-related theories. More specifically, whereas the impact of events has been increasingly recognized in theory (e.g., event-system theory) and research (Kuba & Cheibe, 2017), we still need a better and more thorough understanding of the roles of events in the trust literature. The findings across two studies shed lights on some previously unresolved questions, including (1) whether events disconfirming prior positive [negative] expectation can lead to decreases [increases] in trust, (2) whether events confirming prior positive [negative] can trigger increases [decreases] in trust, and (3) whether an event that can change trust in experimental design can have similar effects in real work settings. Though both studies provided support for the impact of positive events (i.e., events that either confirming prior positive expectation or disconfirming prior negative expectation) on increases in trust, the results of the field study relying on participants' reported valence failed to replicate the findings of the experimental study regarding the role of negative events. While I suspect that the insignificant results of the field study are largely due to small sample sizes, it remains possible that a single negative event (e.g., poor rewards or bonuses allocation) might not be salient enough to produce changes in real work settings where employees have established relationships. Of course, the nature of a single negative event should matter. Experiencing or observing a lack of semi-annual rewards or bonuses may not be as severe as experiencing or observing a physical abuse, an unjust termination, or an illegal act to "unfreeze" employees' previous views toward their supervisors (Lind, 2001). Nevertheless, the results suggest that research on trust violation, which is based primarily on experimental design, should replicate their findings in organizational settings using real employees.

In addition to investigating the effects of events on changes in trust, I examined the underlying mechanisms through which events affect trust. Though theory (e.g., dual-system theory, Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011) suggests that emotional and cognitive reactions may simultaneously transmit the impact of events on changes in trust, Fulmer and Gelfand's (2012) review of the trust literature and my review of the trust violation literature jointly revealed that the roles of emotions have been overlooked when studying changes of trust. Study 1 found support for both emotional and cognitive reactions as important mediators of changes in trust due to positive and negative events, which is consistent with prior trust violation research relying on experimental designs (e.g., Kim et al., 2004; Lount et al., 2008). The same results, however, were not observed in Study 2, suggesting some potential differences between lab settings and work settings. More specifically, Study 2 only found support for the mediating role of cognitive assessments of trustworthiness in the relationship between positive events and increases in trust. Though the finding that changes in emotions were not related to changes in trust is likely due to the operationalization of emotions, it also points to the possibility that emotions are less likely to alter trust when the trustee is highly familiar (Forgas, 1995). Nevertheless, though there exist differences between Study 1 and Study 2 results, I believe that the findings contribute to the trust literature by providing some insights into the different mediators associated with different study contexts.

Moreover, this dissertation answers calls from trust scholars (e.g., De Jong et al., 2015) to clarify how changes in trust unfold over time. Though most theories in the organizational sciences are longitudinal in nature (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010), most studies, especially in the trust literature, still rely on cross-sectional designs to test those theories. The five-wave data collection allowed me to examine whether the effects of events on trust would change over time and, if so, the process of the changes. The findings of Study 2 suggest that though events (e.g., rewards/bonuses allocation) in the workplace can trigger changes in trust, the strength of the effects diminishes over time. Such findings provide important insights into the dynamic nature of trust on the one hand, and on the other hand remind trust violation scholars to explore whether and what types of violations of trust may lead to long-lasting effects in the workplace.

Fourth, the findings of this dissertation provide some empirical support for event-system theory (Morgesen et al., 2015). Specifically, the results of Study 1 indicated that event confirmation affected the magnitude of changes in trust due to negative events, while the results of Study 2, based on coded valence, showed that event confirmation and criticality affected the magnitude of increases in trust in response to positive events. Though Study 2 failed to find support for the roles of event characteristics (i.e., event criticality, proximity, timing) on the permanence of changes in trust due to rewards/bonuses allocation events, it provides a starting point for examining whether other event characteristics (e.g., event novelty, event disruption) can affect the magnitude or permanence of change, or whether the same event characteristics can play important roles in response to other types of events (e.g., changes in leadership style).

8.2. Practical Implications

This dissertation also has several practical implications. First, the findings of Study 1 and the results from post-hoc tests of Study 2 suggest that some common events in the workplace, including negative rewards or bonuses allocation, might be sufficiently salient to reduce employees' trust in their supervisor. Though the negative impact may not last long, it can still affect employees' satisfaction and performance during a short time period or even result in immediate employee turnover. The negative event may also make employees more susceptible to reduce their levels of trust in response to subsequent negative events. Managers can often fail to realize that they engage in behaviors that break the trust between them and their employees. By being aware of events that may decrease trust, managers can more effectively prevent trust reductions and mitigate more harmful outcomes. Of course, it is not always realistic for managers to avoid negative events that may decrease employees' trust (e.g., delivering a poor performance evaluation, providing less than expected bonuses or rewards). However, by acknowledging the possible negative effects of such events beforehand, managers can better prepare themselves during the events, and can more proactively and timely repair trust after decreases in trust occur, such as by providing clear explanations or approaching to employees to offer help.

In addition, the findings suggest that enhancing supervisor trust in the workplace may not be as difficult as is often thought – positive rewards or bonuses allocation can trigger increases in employees' trust. However, managers should be aware that these positive impacts may not be permanent without further intervention or actions. Small gestures, such as continuous encouragement and support after positive events, may help prolong the positive influence (Gostick & Elton, 2007).

Lastly, the findings (i.e., from Study 1 and post-hoc tests of Study 2) that event confirmation and criticality may moderate the impact of events on the magnitude of changes in trust provide further implications for managers and organizations. Specifically, before relatively large events, managers should familiarize themselves with what their employees expect to receive and what their employees value. Special attention should be paid to employees who expect to receive good results while in reality getting unfavorable outcomes, as well as employees who place great value on such events. For instance, if employee A expects to get an "Employee of the Year" award and employee B places great emphasis on getting the award, when the award is eventually given to a third employee, managers should provide more thorough, considerate, and timely explanation to employees A and B, since that their supervisor trust is likely to reduce to a greater extent compared to other employees. It is fortunate that gaining such understanding can be relatively easy to achieve through small conversations or short surveys.

8.3. Limitations and Future Directions

The findings of this dissertation are not without limitations, which opens up opportunities for future research. First, Study 1 utilized an experimental design to test the effects of events on changes in trust. However, effects sizes in a controlled environment tended to be higher and may not be generalizable to organizational settings, especially to employees with high job tenure. Further, the trustee (i.e., Player 2) in Study 1 was not a real person. To help with this limitation, I only included participants who were not aware that Player 2 was not an actual player.

Second, Study 2 data were collected with the assistance of HR personnel of the two companies studied. For Company A, though survey links and reminders were sent by me, HR personnel also helped with adverting the study and actively reminding participants to complete each survey. For Company B, survey at each time was distributed and collected with the presence of their HR personnel. Participants in both companies were guaranteed that no information would be released to anyone in their companies. Nevertheless, such data collection method might still make participants be less willing to provide negative ratings about workplace events to avoid any potential negative consequences. Future research utilizing other methods of data collection may help make respondents be more comfortable sharing their honest opinions.

Relatedly, since very few participants reported event valence as negative, I further tested the hypotheses using rater-coded valence. Interestingly, but not surprisingly, many of the results were different when coded valence was used instead of participants' reported valence. Though both methods have been utilized by prior studies (e.g., Choi & Markman, 2019; Lomranz & Benyamini, 2015), it is not clear which method is better and in what respect. Of course, there are potential advantages of each method. For instance, because employees tend to feel and act based on their perceptions rather than the accuracy of the perceptions (Zalesny & Ford, 1990), reported valence, which captures an employee's perceptions of the event, is considered as a more fruitful approach for predicting work attitudes and behavior (Kristof, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Rater-coded valence, on the contrary, is more objective and avoids problems of demand characteristics, and may thus provide more accurate conclusions (Becker & Marique, 2014). A more objective way to assess event valence includes using company's archival data to evaluate event valence for each employee. Given the context and design of this dissertation, I speculate that the results based on more objective methods (e.g., rater-coded valence, archival data) might be more meaningful. However, it would be valuable for future research to investigate the most appropriate way to operationalize event valence in different contexts.

Third, the trust measure in Study 2 has a low alpha reliability coefficient (i.e., lower than .7) at all time points. The low observed reliability is not unusual as prior studies have also suffered from low reliability with this scale (e.g., Tan & Lim, 2009). Nevertheless, it might be worthwhile for future studies to examine this research question using different trust measures.

Moreover, Study 2 comprised five waves of data collection that occurred at one-week time intervals. Though the one-week interval was chosen based on conversations with employees who had experienced similar situations, more nuances in change might be detected if shorter intervals had been employed. More specifically, the semi-annual rewards or bonuses allocation event might not be novel or critical enough to trigger long-lasting effects for all employees, so the moderating impact of event characteristics may occur during the first few days after the event. In support of this speculation, Baer, Matta, Kim, Welsh, and Garud (2018) found that trustworthiness evaluations could fluctuate on a daily basis. As such, I recommend future research to explore the effects of events and event characteristics with time intervals shorter than a week or using experience sampling method (ESM).

Fifth, the generalizability of Study 2 findings might be restricted due to the events that I studied. My decision to focus on semi-annual rewards or bonuses allocation events was based on several factors. For instance, these events are considered as relatively important events that are common and predictable in organizations for me to study. Also, a large number of employees would experience these events at a similar point in time, so that I can examine their impact more systematically. Further, theory and research suggest that these events can potentially lead to increases or decreases in supervisor trust (Mayer and Davis, 1999). However, I recognize that these events might not be serious enough to precipitate lasting changes in trust (e.g., nobody was terminated). Therefore, I recommend that future research extends this line of research by examining the influence of other schedule events with greater implication (e.g., mergers, layoffs, introduction of lean management practices, etc.).

Lastly, I focused on event confirmation, criticality, proximity, and timing in this dissertation. These characteristics of events were chosen because there exist strong theoretical reasons to expect their impact on either the magnitude or permanence of changes in trust. Other event characteristics, such as event novelty and disruption, however, might worth further exploring (Morgeson et al., 2015) to extend this line of research. Another avenue for future studies is to examine the effects of events on changes in distrust. Though no consensus has been reached, distrust is mostly considered as conceptually different from the opposite of trust (e.g., Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998; Saunders, Dietz, & Thornhill, 2014). Since distrust (compared to trust) may change to a greater extent in response to negative events, it can be fruitful for future research to explore how changes in distrust unfold after negative or even positive events.

8.4. Conclusion

Though interpersonal trust is dynamic and changes in trust are common in the workplace (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; McKnight et al., 1998), little empirical research has been devoted to understanding what triggers increases or decreases in trust, or how changes in trust evolve over time. Through a trust-based experimental study and a five-wave field study, this dissertation suggests that trust-related events in the workplace, such as rewards or bonuses allocation, are sufficiently salient to alter interpersonal trust. Event characteristics, including event confirmation and criticality, may exert significant influence on the magnitude of changes in trust. The findings also indicate that the impact of such events, though noticeable right after the events, may not last long as time passes, even without any further intervention. By empirically examining why, how, and for how long trust may change in response to events, this dissertation not only extends the trust literature but also offers insights to managers and organizations on how to prevent potential decreases in trust and how to enhance trust. I hope that this dissertation will inspire future research towards a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamic nature of trust.

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Appendix A. STUDY 1 TRUST GAME MATERIALS

Page 1: For this task, you will make several decisions in an interactive game. This game involves two individuals, Player 1 and Player 2. First, you will learn the rules of the game, and then you will learn if you were assigned to the role of Player 1 or Player 2. Pay close attention. You will receive a **bonus payment** based on your decisions.

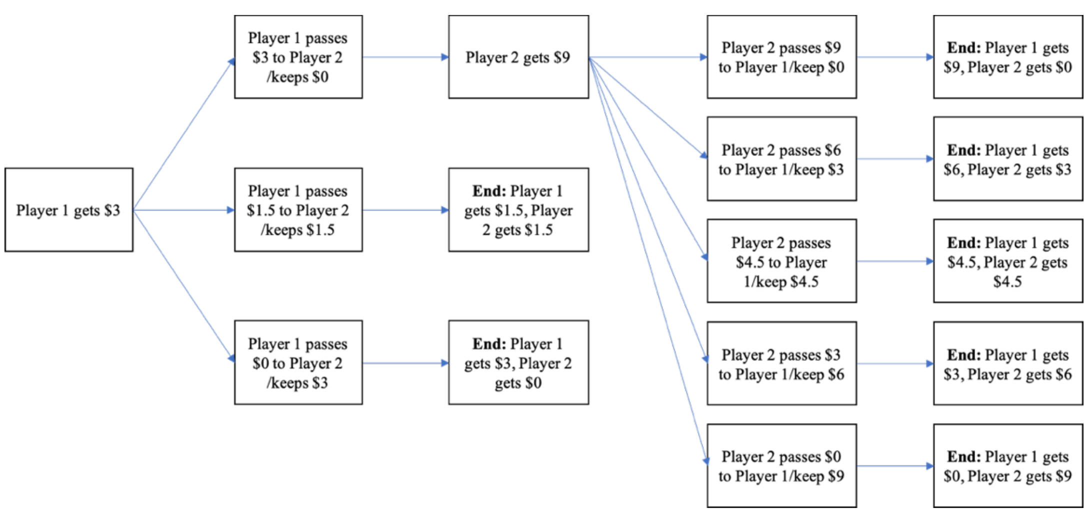
Page 2: The game consists of 6 rounds in total. In each round, Player 1 will receive $3, which Player 1 can choose to pass all $3, pass $1.5/keep $1.5, or pass $0/keep $3, to Player 2. If Player 1 chooses to pass $0/keep $3, that round ends, with Player 1 gets $3 and Player 2 gets $0. If Player 1 chooses to pass $1.5/keep $1.5, that round ends, with player 1 gets $1.5 and Player 2 gets $1.5. However, if Player 1 chooses to pass all $3, the money will be tripled to $9.

At the same time, before learning about the decision of Player 1, Player 2 needs to decide how much to pass back to Player 1, assuming Player 1 decides to pass all $3 to Player 2. Player 2 can choose to (1) pass $9/keep $0, (2) pass $6/keep $3, (3) pass $4.5/keep $4.5, (4) pass $3/keep $6, and (5) pass $0/keep $9, to Player 1.

As an example, if Player 1 decides to pass all $3 to Player 2, and Player 2 decides to pass $4.5 to Player 1 and keep $4.5 to him/herself, the final amount of money Player 1 can receive is $4.5, and Player 2 can receive $4.5 as well.

Please note that you will play all 6 rounds with the **same** partner. The first two rounds will be pre-trails for you to get familiar with the game and your partner. The last four rounds will be the real game that one of the four rounds will be randomly selected and you will be paid based on the amount of money you earned for that selected round, in addition to the participation fee.

Page 3: The following graph shows the rule of one round of the game.



Page 4: Before connecting you with another participant, we are going to ask a few questions designed to assess whether you have fully understood the rule of this game.

Pages 5 - 6: If Player 1 decides to pass $1.5 to Player 2, and at the same time, Player 2 decides to pass $6 to Player 1. How much money can Player 1 receive from this round?

- ○ $0
- ○ $1.5
- ○ $3
- ○ $4.5
- ○ $6
- ○ $9

If Player 1 decides to pass $3 to Player 2, and at the same time, Player 2 decides to pass $4.5 to Player 1. How much money Player 1 can receive from this round?

- ○ $0
- ○ $1.5
- ○ $3
- ○ $4.5
- ○ $6
- ○ $9

Page 7: Now, please click “>>” to establish a connection with the other respondent who is currently ready to play the task as well. This may happen quickly or it might take a while, so please be patient.

Page 8:

Page 9:

Page 10: You are now connected with the other participant.
Please click on ">>" to proceed to the next page.

Page 11: You have randomly been assigned to the role of **Player 1**. From the next page, you will start Round 1 with your partner who was just assigned to the role of Player 2.

Page 12: Now, let's start with Round 1. Again, you will make decisions as Player 1. Remember, the first two rounds are pre-trail for you to get familiar with the game and your partner. The last four rounds will be real games that you will receive bonus payment based on your decisions, in addition to your payment for completing the HIT.

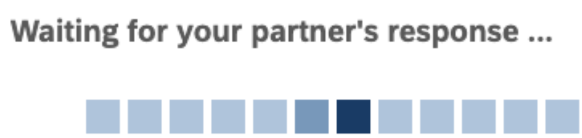
Page 13: Round 1: As Player 1, you just received \$3, and you need to decide whether and how much to pass to Player 2. You can choose to pass \$3/keep \$0, pass \$1.5/keep \$1.5, and pass \$0/keep \$3. Now, please select the amount of money you will pass to Player 2.

- o \$3
- o \$1.5
- o \$0

How much would you expect Player 2 to pass to you, assuming you decided to pass all \$3 to him/her.

- o Pass all \$9 / Keep \$0
- o Pass \$6 / Keep \$3
- o Pass \$4.5 / Keep \$4.5
- o Pass \$3 / Keep \$6
- o Pass \$0 / Keep \$9

Page 14:



Page 15a (Trustworthy Partner Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass \$4.5 / keep \$4.5.

Page 15b (Untrustworthy Partner Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass \$3 / keep \$6.

Page 16: In the first round, you receive \$X (*Note.* X was dependent on the participant's response on page 13 and the condition that participant was assigned to on page 15).

Page 17: Now, let's move on to Round 2. Again, you will make decisions as Player 1. Remember, the first two rounds are pre-trail for you to get familiar with the game and your partner. The last four rounds will be real games that you will receive bonus payment based on your decisions, in addition to your payment for completing the HIT.

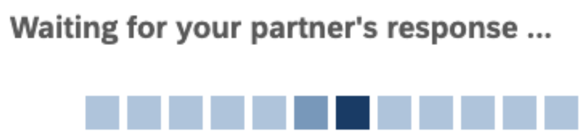
Page 18: Round 2: As Player 1, you just received $3, and you need to decide whether and how much to pass to Player 2. You can choose to pass $3/keep $0, pass $1.5/keep $1.5, and pass $0/keep $3. Now, please select the amount of money you will pass to Player 2.

- o $3
- o $1.5
- o $0

How much would you expect Player 2 to pass to you, assuming you decided to pass all $3 to him/her.

- o Pass all $9 / Keep $0
- o Pass $6 / Keep $3
- o Pass $4.5 / Keep $4.5
- o Pass $3 / Keep $6
- o Pass $0 / Keep $9

Page 19:



Page 20a (Trustworthy Partner Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $4.5 / keep $4.5.

Page 20b (Untrustworthy Partner Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $3 / keep $6.

Page 21: In the second round, you receive $X (*Note.* X was dependent on the participant's response on page 18 and the condition that participant was assigned to on page 15/20).

Page 22: Before moving on to third round, please indicate your current impressions of Player 2.

- How trustworthy or untrustworthy does that person seem?

  ▼ Very untrustworthy ... Very trustworthy

- How competent or incompetent does that person seem?

  ▼ Very incompetent ... Very competent

- How honest or dishonest does that person seem? ▼ Very dishonest ... Very Honest

- How kind or unkind does that person seem? ▼ Very unkind ... Very kind

Page 23: Following questions ask about your willingness to be vulnerable to the decisions and actions of Player 2.

• If I had my way, I wouldn't let this person have any influence over issues that are important to me.	▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
• I would be willing to let this person have complete control over my future in this task.	▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
• I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on this person.	▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
• I would be comfortable giving this person a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.	▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
• If someone questioned the person's motives, I would give the benefit of the doubt.	▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree

Page 24: Please tell us to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment:

Sad	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Angry	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Unpleasant	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Guilty	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Ashamed	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Worried	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Stressful	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Jealous	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Pleasant	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Happy	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Cheerful	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Pride	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Gratitude	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
love	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent

Page 25: Now, let's move on to Round 3. Again, you will make decisions as Player 1.

Please note that the real game starts from this round. One of the last four rounds will be randomly selected, and you will be paid based on the amount of money you earned for the selected round, in addition to your payment for completing the HIT.

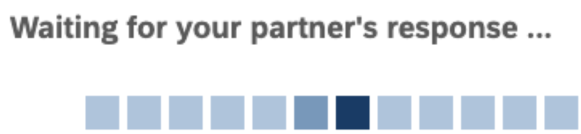
Page 26: Round 3: As Player 1, you just received $3, and you need to decide whether and how much to pass to Player 2. You can choose to pass $3/keep $0, pass $1.5/keep $1.5, and pass $0/keep $3. Now, please select the amount of money you will pass to Player 2.

- o $3
- o $1.5
- o $0

How much would you expect Player 2 to pass to you, assuming you decided to pass all $3 to him/her.

- o Pass all $9 / Keep $0
- o Pass $6 / Keep $3
- o Pass $4.5 / Keep $4.5
- o Pass $3 / Keep $6
- o Pass $0 / Keep $9

Page 27:



Page 28a (Trustworthy Partner Condition for both positive/negative event): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $4.5 / keep $4.5.

Page 28b (Untrustworthy Partner Condition for both positive/negative event): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $3 / keep $6.

Page 28c (Neutral event condition): We will not inform you the decisions of Player 2 until the end, after all six rounds. (Player 2 will not know that you won't learn his/her decisions until the end of all rounds.)

Page 29: In the third round, you receive $X (*Note.* X was dependent on the participant's response on page 26 and the condition that participant was assigned to on page 28. If the participant was assigned to the neutral event condition, then page 29 did not show up).

Page 30: Now, let's move on to Round 4. Again, you will make decisions as Player 1. Again, one of the last four rounds will be randomly selected, and you will be paid based on the amount of money you earned for the selected round, in addition to your payment for completing the HIT.

Page 31: Round 4: As Player 1, you just received $3, and you need to decide whether and how much to pass to Player 2. You can choose to pass $3/keep $0, pass $1.5/keep $1.5, and pass $0/keep $3. Now, please select the amount of money you will pass to Player 2.

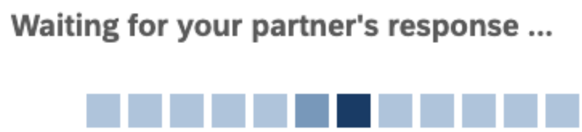
- o $3

- o $1.5
- o $0

How much would you expect Player 2 to pass to you, assuming you decided to pass all $3 to him/her.

- o Pass all $9 / Keep $0
- o Pass $6 / Keep $3
- o Pass $4.5 / Keep $4.5
- o Pass $3 / Keep $6
- o Pass $0 / Keep $9

Page 32:



Page 33a (High Negative Event Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $0/ keep $9.

Page 33b (Low Negative Event Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $3 / keep $6.

Page 33c (High Positive Event Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $6 / keep $3.

Page 33d (Low Positive Event Condition): Before knowing your decision, Player 2 decided to pass $4.5 / keep $4.5.

Page 33e (Neutral Event Condition): We will not inform you the decisions of Player 2 until the end, after all six rounds. (Player 2 will not know that you won't learn his/her decisions until the end of all rounds.)

Page 34: In the fourth round, you receive $X (*Note.* X was dependent on the participant's response on page 31 and the condition that participant was assigned to on page 28/33. If the participant was assigned to the neutral event condition, then page 34 did not show up).

Page 35: In this round, Player 2 decided to pass $XX (depending on the condition that the participant was assigned to on page 33) to you. Did the decision that Player 2 made positive or negative?

- o Extremely negative
- o Negative
- o Slightly negative
- o Neutral
- o Slightly positive

- o Positive
- o Extremely positive

Was the event in this round confirm or disconfirm your prior expectation about Player 2?

- o Extremely disconfirm
- o Disconfirm
- o Slightly disconfirm
- o Neutral
- o Slightly confirm
- o Confirm
- o Extremely confirm

Did the event in this round expected or expected, based on your prior expectations about Player 2?

- o Extremely unexpected
- o Unexpected
- o Slightly unexpected
- o Neutral
- o Slightly expected
- o Expected
- o Extremely Expected

Was the event in this round surprising or not surprising, based on your prior expectation about Player 2?

- o Extremely not surprising
- o Not surprising
- o Slightly not surprising
- o Neutral
- o Slightly surprising
- o Surprising
- o Extremely surprising

Page 36: Before moving on to next round, please indicate your current impressions of Player 2.

- How trustworthy or untrustworthy does that person seem?

  ▼ Very untrustworthy ... Very trustworthy

- How competent or incompetent does that person seem?

  ▼ Very incompetent ... Very competent

- How honest or dishonest does that person seem? ▼ Very dishonest ... Very Honest

- How kind or unkind does that person seem? ▼ Very unkind ... Very kind

Page 37: Following questions ask about your willingness to be vulnerable to the decisions and actions of Player 2.

- If I had my way, I wouldn't let this person have any influence over issues that are important to me. ▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
- I would be willing to let this person have complete control over my future in this task. ▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
- I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on this person. ▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
- I would be comfortable giving this person a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions. ▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree
- If someone questioned the person's motives, I would give the benefit of the doubt. ▼ Strongly disagree ... Strongly agree

Page 38: Please tell us to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment:

Sad	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Angry	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Unpleasant	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Guilty	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Ashamed	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Worried	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Stressful	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Jealous	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Pleasant	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Happy	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Cheerful	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Pride	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
Gratitude	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent
love	▼ Not at all ... To a very great extent

Page 39: Now, let's move on to Round 5. Again, you will make decisions as Player 1.

Again, one of the last four rounds will be randomly selected, and you will be paid based on the amount of money you earned for the selected round, in addition to your payment for completing the HIT.

Page 40 - Page 44: Repeat Page 30 - Page 34 (change Round 4 to Round 5).

Page 45: Now, let's move on to Round 6. Again, you will make decisions as Player 1. Again, one of the last four rounds will be randomly selected, and you will be paid based on the amount of money you earned for the selected round, in addition to your payment for completing the HIT.

Page 46 - Page 50: Repeat Page 40 - Page 44 (change Round 5 to Round 6).

Page 51 (only for the neutral event condition): Now you have completed all six rounds. The next page will tell you how much money Player 2 decided to pass to you for each round.

Page 52 (only for the Neutral Event Condition):

In the third round, Player decided to pass $4.5 (Trustworthy Partner Condition) / $3 (Untrustworthiness Partner Condition) to you, assuming you decided to pass all $3 to him/her. Since you decided the pass $X (depending on the participant's decision), you receive $X (depending on the participant's decision and the condition that the participant was assigned to) for the third round.

In the fourth round, Player decided to pass $4.5 (Trustworthy Partner Condition) / $3 (Untrustworthiness Partner Condition) to you, assuming you decided to pass all $3 to him/her. Since you decided the pass $X (depending on the participant's decision), you receive $X (depending on the participant's decision and the condition that the participant was assigned to) for the third round.

In the fifth round, Player decided to pass $4.5 (Trustworthy Partner Condition) / $3 (Untrustworthiness Partner Condition) to you, assuming you decided to pass all $3 to him/her. Since you decided the pass $X (depending on the participant's decision), you receive $X (depending on the participant's decision and the condition that the participant was assigned to) for the third round.

In the sixth round, Player decided to pass $4.5 (Trustworthy Partner Condition) / $3 (Untrustworthiness Partner Condition) to you, assuming you decided to pass all $3 to him/her. Since you decided the pass $X (depending on the participant's decision), you receive $X (depending on the participant's decision and the condition that the participant was assigned to) for the third round.

Page 53 - Page 55: Repeat Page 36 - Page 38, with the instruction changed to "You just finished all six rounds. Now please indicate your current impressions of Player 2."

Page 56: You have now completed the main portion of the study. Please provide your general information below.

- What is your gender?
  - Male

- Female
- Non-binary
- Do not want to disclose

- What is your native language?

____

- Which of the following best describes your race or ethnic identity?
  - White/Caucasian
  - Black/African/African-American
  - Hispanic/Latino/Latina
  - Asian
  - Middle Eastern
  - Native American
  - Pacific-islander
  - Multi-racial
  - Prefer not to respond
  - Other ____

- Approximately how many years of work experience do you have?

Page 57: In the following box, please (1) guess the aim of study and describe it briefly, (2) describe your opinion of Player 2, and (3) leave any comments regarding this study.

Page 58: We know that some people rush through surveys quickly and may not pay close attention to the questions. We also know that some people may not have the experiences required to answer the kinds of work-related questions in this survey. In your honest opinion, should we use your data in our analyses in this study? (You will receive payment regardless of your answer to this question).

- Yes
- No

Appendix B. STUDY 1 MEASURES

Trust in the Supervisor (Mayer & Gavin, 2005)

1. If I had If I had my way, I wouldn't let this person have any influence over issues that are important to me.
2. I would be willing to let this person have complete control over my future in this task.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on this person.
4. I would be comfortable giving this person a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.
5. If someone questioned this person motives, I would give the benefit of the doubt.

Trustworthiness Evaluations (Huang & Murnighan, 2010)

1. How trustworthy or untrustworthy does that person seem?
2. How competent or incompetent does that person seem?
3. How honest or dishonest does that person seem?
4. How kind or unkind does that person seem?

Negative/Positive Emotions (Kuppens, Realo, & Diener, 2008)

Please tell us to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment:

1. Sad
2. Angry
3. Unpleasant
4. Guilty
5. Ashamed
6. Worried
7. Stressful
8. Jealous
9. Pleasant
10. Happy
11. Cheerful
12. Pride
13. Gratitude
14. Love

Event Confirmation/Disconfirmation

1. Did the event confirm or disconfirm your prior expectation about Player 2?
2. Was the event expected or unexpected, based on your prior expectation about Player 2?
3. Was the event surprising or not surprising, based on your prior expectation about Player 2?

Manipulation check

In this round, Player 2 decided to pass $XX (depending on the condition) to you. Did the decision that Player 2 made positive or negative?

- o Extremely negative
- o Negative
- o Slightly negative
- o Neutral
- o Slightly positive
- o Positive
- o Extremely positive

Demographic information

1. What is your gender?
2. What is your native language?
3. Which of the following best describes your race or ethnic identity?
   - o White/Caucasian
   - o Black/African/African-American
   - o Hispanic/Latino/Latina
   - o Asian
   - o Middle Eastern
   - o Native American
   - o Pacific-islander
   - o Multi-racial
   - o Prefer not to respond
   - o Other ____
4. Approximately how many years of work experience do you have?

Careless response check questions

(In the middle of the survey) This is an attention check. Please select "Agree".

(At the end of the survey) We know that some people rush through surveys quickly and may not pay close attention to the questions. In your honest opinion, should we use your data in our analyses in this study? (You will receive payment regardless of your answer to this question).

- o Yes
- o No

Appendix C. STUDY 3 RECRUITMENT EMAIL

Dear [NAME],

My name is Biyun Hu, and I am a PhD student in the Fox School of Business at Temple University. I am currently studying the role of events in organizations as part of my dissertation. I would like to request your help with this endeavor.

I am conducting a five-wave survey that examines employee perceptions of their supervisors before and after an important event (e.g., semi-annual performance evaluation, semi-annual rewards allocation, semi-annual bonuses allocation). Time 1 survey will be distributed approximately one week before the event. Time 2 survey will be distributed right after the event. Time 3, 4, and 5 surveys will be distributed one week after the previous survey. Each survey asks some general questions about employees' immediate supervisors and their workplace. All information will be kept completely confidential, employees' responses will never be shared with anyone outside of the research team, and employees' name will be removed from their responses once data collection is complete. Only aggregated survey data will be reported in any resulting publications.

I realize your time and each of your employees' time is very valuable and I greatly appreciate your help. If you agree to participate, we will discuss the best way to distribute each of the five surveys. Each employee's participation is totally voluntary. Also, they will be paid ¥100 in exchange for their participation.

Please direct any questions to Biyun Hu at biyun.hu@temple.edu

Again, your insights are very valuable! Thank you in advance for your time and efforts!

Sincerely,
Biyun Hu

Appendix D. STUDY 2 MEASURES

Trust in the Supervisor (Mayer & Gavin, 2005) (Measure at Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, Time 4, and Time 5)

1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my supervisor have any influence over issues that are important to me.
2. I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this company.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor.
4. I would be comfortable giving my supervisor a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.
5. If someone questioned my supervisor's motives, I would give the benefit of the doubt.

Trustworthiness Evaluations (Mayer & Davis, 1999) (Measure at Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, Time 4, and Time 5)

Perceived Ability:

1. My supervisor seems to be very capable of performing his/her job.
2. It seems that my supervisor is known to be successful at the things he/she tries to do.
3. My supervisor seems to have much knowledge about the work that needs done.
4. I feel very confident about my supervisor's skills.
5. My supervisor seems to have specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.
6. My supervisor seems to be qualified.

Perceived Benevolence:

1. My supervisor seems to be very concerned about my welfare.
2. It seems that my needs and desires are very important to my supervisor.
3. It seems that my supervisor would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
4. It seems that my supervisor looks out for what is important to me.
5. It seems that my supervisor would go out of his/her way to help me.

Perceived Integrity:

1. My supervisor seems to have a strong sense of justice.
2. It seems that I never have to wonder whether my supervisor would stick to his/her words.
3. It seems that my supervisor tries hard to be fair in dealing with others.
4. My supervisor's actions and behaviors seem to be not very consistent. (reverse-scored item)
5. I like my supervisor's values.
6. Sound principles seem to guide my supervisor's behavior

Negative Emotions (Kuppens, Realo, & Diener, 2008)

Please tell us to what extent you feel this way for the past week **(Measure at Time 1, Time 3, Time 4, and Time 5)**:

Please tell us to what extent you feel this way right after the performance evaluation **(Measured at Time 2):**

1. Sad
2. Angry
3. Unpleasant
4. Guilty
5. Ashamed
6. Worried
7. Stressful
8. Jealous
9. Pleasant
10. Happy
11. Cheerful
12. Pride
13. Gratitude
14. Love

Expectation of the Event (Measure at Time 1; Created for this dissertation; Use to assess the objective type/valence of event)

1. Please briefly describe your expected results of the event that is going to occur to you (i.e., expected bonuses, expected rewards, etc.)?
Or please briefly describe your expected results of the event that is going to occur to your coworker (i.e., expected bonuses, expected rewards, etc.)?

Outcome of the Event (Measure at Time 2; Created for this dissertation; Use to assess the objective type/valence of event)

1. Please briefly describe the actual results of the event that just occurred to you (i.e., bonuses, rewards)?
Or Please briefly describe the actual results of the event that just occurred to your coworker (i.e., bonuses, rewards)?

Type of the event (Measure at Time 2; Created for this dissertation)

1. Did the event confirm or disconfirm your prior expectation about your [your coworker's] supervisor?
2. Was the event expected or unexpected, based on your prior expectation about your [your coworker's] supervisor?
3. Was the event surprising or not surprising, based on your prior expectation about your [your coworker's supervisor?]

Valence of the event (Measured at Time 2)

1. Do you consider the event that just occurred to you (i.e.., bonuses allocation, rewards allocation) positive, negative, or neutral?
Or Do you consider the event that just occurred to your coworker (i.e., bonuses allocation, rewards allocation) positive, negative, or neutral?

Event Characteristics (Measured at Time 1)

Criticality of the Event (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006)

1. To what extent was this event critical for your long-term success?

2. To what extent was this an important event for you?
3. To what extent was this event essential to you?

Proximity of the Event: (Vangelisti & Caughlin, 1997)

1. How close are you to your coworker?
2. How much do you like your coworker?
3. How often do you talk about personal things with your coworker?
4. How important is your coworker's opinion to you?
5. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your coworker?
6. How much do you enjoy spending time with your coworker?
7. How important is your relationship with you coworker?

Timing of the Event:

1. How long have you known your current supervisors?

Or How long have you known your coworker's supervisors?

Control Variables (Measured at Time 1)

Trait Neuroticism (John & Srivastava, 1999)

I see myself as someone who…

1. Is depressed, blue.
2. Is relaxed, handles stress well. (R)
3. Can be tense.
4. Worries a lot.
5. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset. (R)
6. Can be moody.
7. Remains calm in tense situations. (R)
8. Gets nervous easily.

age
gender
organization

Careless response check questions

(In the middle of the survey) 1. This is an attention check. Please select "Agree".
2. I work for XX company (will revise based on the employee's current organization). Please select "Agree".

(At the end of the survey) We know that some people rush through surveys quickly and may not pay close attention to the questions. We also know that some people may not have the experiences required to answer the kinds of work-related questions in this survey. In your honest opinion, should we use your data in our analyses in this study?

- Yes
- No