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TRUST BUILDING AND COOPERATION IN SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE RELATIONSHIPS AND WORK UNITS

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ACADEMIC DISSERTATION

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TIIVISTELMÄ

Organisaatioiden menestys nähdään usein sankarillisten johtajien aikaansaannokseksi. Organisaatiot eivät kuitenkaan kukoista ilman työntekijöiden halua työskennellä organisaatioiden parhaaksi. Työntekijöiden mahdollisuuksiin ja halukkuuteen panostaa organisaation tavoitteiden eteen vaikuttavat mm. organisaation psykologinen merkitys työntekijälle, asema ja suhteet muihin organisaation jäseniin. Käsitys näistä rakentuu suorassa ja välittyneessä vuorovaikutuksessa organisaation muiden jäsenten kanssa. Tämä väitöskirjatutkimus tarkasteli yhteistyön, luottamuksen ja oikeudenmukaisuuden edellytyksiä esimiesten ja työntekijöiden välisissä suhteissa sekä työryhmissä. Neljän osatutkimuksen pohjalta muodostettiin teoreettinen malli, joka kuvaa luottamuksen ja yhteistyön dynamiikkaa näissä suhteissa.

Neljä osatutkimusta perustui kahdesta suomalaisesta organisaatiosta kerättyyn kyselyaineistoon. Organisaatiot edustivat ravintola- ja sosiaalialaa. Kysely lähetettiin kaikkiaan 285 työntekijälle ja 40 esimiesasemassa toimivalle henkilölle. Lopullinen aineisto koostui 188 työntekijän (66 %) ja 39 (98 %) esimiehen vastauksista. Tutkimuksessa käytettiin aiemmissa tutkimuksissa validoituja mittareita. Aineisto analysoitiin käyttäen kaksitasoista lineaarista mallinnusta sekä kaksitasoista rakenneyhtälömallinnusta.

Ensimmäinen osatutkimus tarkasteli työntekijöihin luottavien esimiesten mahdollisuuksia synnyttää työntekijöiden vastavuoroista luottamusta valtasuhteen näkökulmasta. Vastavuoroista luottamusta ei juuri ole empiirisesti tutkittu, vaikka vastavuoroisuuden oletetaan olevan keskeinen osa luottamuksen rakentumista. Tutkimuksen tulosten mukaan esimiehet osoittivat luottamustaan edistämällä työntekijöiden autonomiaa, mikä puolestaan synnytti vastavuoroista luottamusta vahvistamalla työntekijöiden uskoa vaikutusmahdollisuuksiinsa työyhteisössä.

Toisessa osatutkimuksessa tarkasteltiin, ovatko työntekijän suoriutuminen ja yhteistyö yhteydessä esimiehen toiminnan oikeudenmukaisuuteen ja jos niin miksi. Aiemmassa tutkimuksessa oikeudenmukaisuutta on tarkasteltu työntekijöiden yhteistyötä motivoivana tekijänä ja motivoivaa vaikutusta on selitetty mm. koetun oikeudenmukaisuuden synnyttämällä luottamuksella. Tässä tutkimuksessa näkökulma kohdistettiin esimiehiin, sillä empiiristä tutkimusta esimiesten oikeudenmukaisuutta motivoivista tekijöistä on tehty toistaiseksi vähän. Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittivat, että työntekijän suoriutuminen ja yhteistyö olivat yhteydessä esimiehen koettuun oikeudenmukaisuuteen ja tämä yhteys välittyi esimiehen luottamuksen kautta. Epäluottamus siis tarjosi esimiehille ikään kuin oikeutuksen kohdella työntekijöitä eriarvoisella tavalla.

Kolmas osatutkimus kohdentui esimiehen oikeudenmukaisuuden ja ryhmäidentiteetin rooliin työntekijöiden luottamuksessa työryhmään. Relationalisen näkemyksen mukaan oikeudenmukaisuus on merkityksellistä, koska se kertoo yksilön asemasta ryhmässä. Asemastaan epävarmojen tai perifeeristen jäsenten on esitetty tuntevan enemmän epäluuloa suhteessa muihin ryhmän jäseniin kuin asemastaan varmojen tai keskeisten ryhmän jäsenten. Sosiaalisen identiteetin lähestymistapaan pohjautuen oletettiin, että esimiehen kyky viestiä työntekijän asemasta ryhmässä on kuitenkin riippuvainen esimiehen prototyyppisyydestä suhteessa ryhmään. Tutkimuksessa havaittiin, että ainoastaan sisäryhmän prototyyppisten esimiesten oikeudenmukaisuus oli yhteydessä työntekijöiden ryhmään kohdistamaan luottamukseen. Tulosten mukaan prototyyppisellä esimiehellä ei näyttäisi olevan varaa toimia epäoikeudenmukaisesti ilman, että työntekijöiden luottamus ryhmään heikkenee.

Neljäs osatutkimus tarkasteli työntekijöiden motivaatiota ja mahdollisuuksia tehdä ehdotuksia työyhteisön kehittämiseksi ja kehittää omaa työtään. Lähtökohdaksi otettiin työntekijöiden henkilökohtaiset muutosvalmiusarvot, sillä arvot motivoivat juuri vapaaehtoista toimintaan. Arvoja voidaan toteuttaa monenlaisen toiminnan kautta mutta työryhmään samastumisen on havaittu suuntaavan arvojen toteuttamista työyhteisön tavoitteiden mukaisesti. Toisaalta ryhmään samastumisen on havaittu lisäävän konformisuutta sekä ryhmän arvojen ja normien mukaista toimintaa. Tällöin muutokseen tähtäävä toiminta voidaan nähdä myös uhkana positiiviselle ryhmäjäsennydelle, mikä ehkäisee henkilökohtaisten arvojen toteuttamista ryhmässä. Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittivat, että työryhmään samastuneiden työntekijöiden muutosvalmiusarvot olivat positiivisessa yhteydessä muutosorientoituneeseen toimintaa ainoastaan silloin kun työntekijä koki valtaa ryhmässään. Vallan tunteen voidaan nähdä olevan merkityksellinen tässä yhteydessä, sillä se heikentää ryhmäidentiteettiä kohdistuvien uhkien merkitystä ja lisää uskoa oman panostuksen vaikuttavuuteen.

Yhteenvedona voidaan todeta, että esimiehen luottamuksella työntekijöihin on huomattava merkitys työntekijöiden yhteistyöhalukkuuden kannalta. Alaisiinsa luottavat esimiehet toimivat oikeudenmukaisesti ja jakavat valtaa, jotka puolestaan edistävät työntekijöiden uskoa omiin vaikutusmahdollisuuksiinsa, samastumista ja luottamusta työyhteisöön. Nämä tekijät edelleen motivoivat työntekijöitä vapaaehtoisiiin ponnistuksiin työyhteisön hyväksi. Vaikka tulokset osoittivat, että työntekijät voivat omalla yhteistyöllään "ansaita" esimiehen oikeudenmukaisen kohtelun, tämä ei tarkoita sitä etteikö oikeudenmukainen kohtelu olisi jokaisen työntekijän oikeus ja esimiehen velvollisuus. Kyetäkseen luottamaan johtamansa ryhmän jäseniin ja vaikuttamaan ryhmässä, esimiehen ja ryhmäjäsenten tulisi jakaa yhteinen sisäryhmäidentiteetti.

ABSTRACT

An organization's success is frequently attributed to heroic leaders. However, organizations will not thrive without employees' willingness to cooperate for the benefit of the organization. An employee's ability and willingness to contribute toward the success of the organization are determined by factors such as the psychological importance of the organization, and the employee's position and relationship with other organizational members. The impression and conception of these issues are formed through direct and mediated interactions with other organizational members. This dissertation studies the conditions for cooperation, trust and fairness in the supervisor-subordinate relationship as well as in work groups. From the results of the four sub-studies, a theoretical model was built which depicted the dynamics between these phenomena.

The four sub-studies were based on survey data, which were gathered from two Finnish organizations in 2007. One was a restaurant chain and the other a social service provider. Altogether, 285 employees and 40 supervisors were invited to participate in the survey and the final response rates were 66% and 98%, respectively. Validated measures were utilized and two-level models were used in the primary analysis due to the nested data.

The first research question asked how the supervisor's trust in a subordinate produces reciprocal trust in the supervisor by the subordinate. Empirical studies on reciprocal trust are rare, although reciprocity is theoretically proposed to be a central element of trust. The results revealed that the supervisor's trust had an influence on the subordinate's reciprocal trust partially through work-related autonomy. Based on the Approach/Inhibition theory of power, it was hypothesized that work-related autonomy facilitates reciprocal trust because it activates the employee's sense of power which, in turn, is related to cognitive and affective processes that are favorable for trust. The results were in line with this hypothesis.

The second research question asked whether employees' cooperation has an influence on the supervisor's fairness and if so, then why. Previous studies have approached fairness as a motivator of employees' cooperation, and the influence has been explained by, among other things, the subordinate's trust in the leader as well as the organization. In this study, the perspective was turned around because knowledge of leaders' points of view is still limited. It was found that the supervisor's trust in the subordinate accounted for the positive relationship between a subordinate's cooperation and a supervisor's perceived fairness. This suggests that supervisors justify subordinates' unequal treatment by appealing to their trust in their subordinates.

The third research question focused on the role of the supervisor's fairness on an employee's trust in coworkers as a collective entity. Trust in a collective entity is suggested to depend on a group member's standing in the

group, and fairness, in turn, is suggested to offer standing-related information. In line with the social identity approach, it was proposed that a supervisor's ability to offer standing-related information is dependent on the supervisor's group prototypicality. It was found that a supervisor's perceived group prototypicality moderated the relationship between the supervisor's perceived fairness and trust in coworkers, such that fairness was related to trust only when the supervisor was perceived to be group prototypical.

The fourth research question concerned employees' motivation to cooperate for the development of the work group. The employee's personal values, work group identification and a sense of power were studied as motivating factors of change-oriented behavior. Based on the social identity approach, it was proposed that on the one hand identification enhances group-directed efforts but that on the other, change-oriented behavior is risky especially for highly identified group members. The results suggested that highly identified employees pursued their personal values – (i.e., made suggestions for the development of the work unit) - only when they believed that they had some power and influence in the work unit.

These results suggest that the group leader's trust in group members has a significant influence on factors that enhance group members' willingness to cooperate for the benefit of the work group. Although results suggested that trust and consequent fairness were earned by cooperating, fair treatment should always be an employee's right and a leader's duty. Further, this study suggests that in order to be willing to trust and to be able to have an influence within the group, the group leader should share psychological membership with other group members. Taken together, this dissertation contributes to the literature by suggesting that trust and cooperation can be facilitated simply by showing trust.

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LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS

This thesis is based on the following publications:

- I Seppälä, T., Lipponen, J., Pirttilä-Backman, A.-M., & Lipsanen, J. (2011). Reciprocity of trust in the supervisor-subordinate relationship: The mediating role of autonomy and the sense of power. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 20*, 755-778. doi: 10.1080/1359432X.2010.507353
- II Seppälä, T., Lipponen, J., Pirttilä-Backman, A.-M., & Lipsanen, J. (2012). A trust-focused model of leaders' fairness enactment. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 11*, 20-30. doi: 10.1027/1866-5888/a000057
- III Seppälä, T., Lipponen, J., & Pirttilä-Backman, A.-M. (2012). Leader fairness and employees' trust in coworkers: The moderating role of leader group prototypicality. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 16*, 35-49. doi: 10.1037/a0026970
- IV Seppälä, T., Lipponen, J., Bardi, A., & Pirttilä-Backman, A.-M. (2011). Change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior: An integrative product of openness to change values, work unit identification, and sense of power. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 85*, 136-155. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.2010.02010.x

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1 INTRODUCTION

Research on organizational trust has experienced a revival among various disciplines. During the last three decades, the number of trust-focused books (e.g., Bachmann & Zaheer, 2006; 2008; Gambetta, 1988; Kramer, 2006; Kramer & Cook, 2004; Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Misztal, 1996; Nooteboom & Six, 2003; Saunders, Skinner, Gillespie, Dietz, & Lewicki, 2010), peer-reviewed articles and special issues on trust in journals (*Academy of Management Review*, 1998; *Organization Studies*, 2001; *Organization Science*, 2003) have increased substantially. Organized networks (First International Network on Trust, since 2001) have been established to support this development and the first journal dedicated to trust has just emerged (*Journal of Trust Research*, since 2011). The reasons for these efforts are multiple, but part of the motivation is a response to increased competition within and between organizations, technological development, new organizations of work (e.g., Bachmann & Zaheer, 2006; McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003) and demographical changes faced in organizations (e.g., Kramer & Cook, 2004; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Under these changing circumstances, traditional means of guaranteeing cooperation, such as control, have lost their efficiency, and trust is considered to be a better way to facilitate cooperation (e.g., Gambetta, 1988; Misztal, 1996) and to bring competitive advantage to organizations (e.g., Dyer & Chu, 2003; Sako, 1998).

In management, a long-term tendency has been to place increasing trust in employees and this in practice has meant higher levels of work-related autonomy and self-direction within units, teams, and groups (e.g., Dunbar & Statler, 2010; Seeck, 2008). However, at the same time, organizations are growing and struggling with the continuous demands of change, and in these situations the tendency has been towards greater bureaucracy and control (e.g., Alasoini, 2009; Haapakorpi, 2012; Dunbar & Statler, 2010). At least in Finland, employees have also reported reduced levels of autonomy in terms of the pace and ordering of work (e.g., Lehto & Sutela, 2008). Changing work life and changes in our understanding of human motivation have placed new demands on leadership and daily supervision. The traditional control and command style of leadership has lost its legitimacy as highly educated and accomplished employees have become experts in their work (e.g., Tyler, 2001). In this new context, the leader's role is suggested to be to enhance employees' engagement in their work and cooperation by supporting internal motivation (e.g., Gagné & Ryan, 2005), by building trust in leadership and peers (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) and by creating shared identity at work (e.g., Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2010).

Expectations concerning employees have also changed. Employees are supposed to constantly develop their know-how and abilities and to be motivated to use their knowledge and skills for the development and

regeneration of organizations (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2006). In line with this, Finnish employees seem to value self-development, and longitudinal records show that employees' abilities for self-development in work have steadily improved (e.g., Lehto & Sutela, 2008). However, this does not guarantee employee engagement and willingness to work for the benefit of organizations. Although the number of terminable contracts has diminished after the serious depression of the 1990s (e.g., Lehto & Sutela, 2008), the threat of lay-offs and outsourcing are constantly present under the hegemony of intensification. Thus, it seems that employees sense that organizations are not as committed to their employees as they were earlier and consequently employees' reciprocal commitment to organizations and their goals have become more doubtful (e.g., Rasmussen & Håpnes, 2012).

Hence, work-life needs to know more about employees' cooperation motivation in organizations. This dissertation focuses on conditions that encourage cooperation and trust-building in the contexts of the supervisor-subordinate relationship and in small work units. Trust between organizational members is recognized to be a vital factor in cooperation (e.g., Cambetta, 1988; Tyler, 2001). Although, our understanding of trust has increased substantially within the past few decades, knowledge on some essential topics is still surprisingly limited. For example, reciprocity is theoretically suggested to relate fundamentally to trust development (e.g., Lindsfold, 1978), but empirical studies on reciprocal trust between parties – beyond the game theoretical paradigm – are rare. Thus, the first research question of this dissertation asks how a supervisor's trust in a subordinate produces the subordinate's reciprocal trust in the supervisor. In the literature, trust and cooperation are also closely related to fairness experiences. According to the predominant approach, employees' trust accounts for the positive relationship between perceived fairness and employees' cooperation (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Although the positive consequences of leaders' fairness are well-known (e.g., Cohen-Charash, & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001), researchers have only recently started to pay attention to the motivation of leaders' fairness (e.g., Scott, Colquitt, & Paddock, 2009). In this dissertation, it is asked why employees' cooperation matters in terms of supervisor's fairness engagement.

Leaders' fairness is suggested to be important because it conveys information about group-members' standing within groups (e.g., Tyler & Blader, 2000). Thus, fairness might also be an important factor in group members' trust in other group members. Trust in other group members, in turn, facilitates cooperation among group members. Thus, the third research question focuses on the role of group leader's fairness on employee's trust in coworkers as a collective entity. The last research question is about employees' motivation for voluntary involvement in development of the work unit. The study focuses on the interactions of value-based motivation and social context and suggests that the personal importance of the work unit and

the employees' position within the unit significantly restrict the employees' ability and willingness to use their value-based motivation for the development of the group.

I will first briefly present the concept of cooperation because it is explicitly and implicitly present in all the research questions of this dissertation. Then I define the concept of trust and present central models on trust and trust development. After that, come four chapters which present theoretical approaches and set up my research questions and specific hypotheses. Then, the aims of this dissertation are summarised and the methods used and main results are presented. This summary ends with a discussion of findings, implications and limitations, and with suggestions for future directions. This summary is based on the four original research articles, which are attached at the end of this summary. Some subjects are presented in more detail in those original articles, whereas some issues are further developed in this summary by integrating my findings to the most recent literature in this field.

1.1 EMPLOYEES' COOPERATION IN ORGANIZATIONS

At the individual level, cooperation can be broadly defined as the efforts that a member of an organization exerts on its behalf (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Cooperation is essential for the efficient functioning and viability of organizations (e.g., Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Leadership actions and the work environment are found to be important in employees' motivation to cooperate, while dispositional characteristics and attitudes have more minor roles (e.g., Organ, Podsakoff, & McKenzie, 2006). Although cooperation in general is found to be beneficial both for organizations and for employees who engage in cooperative actions, in some situations, these actions can also lead to negative outcomes. For example, when cooperative efforts are attributed to impression management (e.g., Bolino, 1999) or efforts are perceived as inefficient by other organizational members, the consequences can be undesirable (Burriss, Detert, & Romney, 2012). In general, however, cooperation is perceived as leading to positive outcomes, for example, by enhancing coworker or managerial productivity, freeing up resources, enhancing organizational adaptability to changing environments and influencing positively on employees' performance evaluations (e.g., Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff, et al., 2009).

Tyler and Blader (2000) have differentiated between mandatory and discretionary behaviors in cooperation. In other words, employees cooperate because they have to or because they want to cooperate. Mandatory cooperation comprises in-role performance and compliance with organizational rules and regulations, whereas discretionary cooperation refers more broadly to voluntary behaviors which go beyond formal work descriptions. In-role behavior is the behavior that an employee is proposed to perform based on formal work descriptions (e.g., Katz & Kahn, 1966).

Although employees' in-role performance is restricted by their abilities, skills, knowledge and situational constraints, in-role performance is considered to be cooperative behavior because employees have great latitude to decide how much effort they put into their performance (Tyler & Blader, 2000). In-role performance is frequently assessed by evaluating how well an employee meets the qualitative and quantitative requirements of his or her work and how much effort the employee puts into his or her duties (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991). On the other hand, compliance with organizational rules and regulations even if no one observes or monitors the behavior is also something that is expected from employees, but many employees still do not follow the rules (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Compliant employees, for instance, respect rules and instructions, and are punctual in attendance and task completion (e.g., Graham, 1991). However, compliance does not mean rigid "working to rule" which "may be as effective as going on strike" as Miller (2004, 100) has put it. Rather, compliance as cooperative behavior is suggested to imply loyalty to explicit or implicit norms of the organization (Organ, 1988). Thus, compliant employees are likely to contribute to organizational performance by not causing unnecessary harm and by enhancing predictability.

Discretionary cooperation is frequently defined as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB refers to "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ et al., 2006, 8). OCB is found to include various kinds of behaviors, such as helping, sportsmanship, loyalty, initiative, civic virtue and self-development. Some of these behaviors are directed toward specific individuals within organizations or work units, while other forms focus on the whole organization (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991). Moreover, some behaviors support the status quo, while other forms aim at constructive change (Moon, Van Dyne, & Wrobel, 2005). In aggregate, these cooperative actions are found to enhance organizational performance (e.g., Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

In this dissertation, cooperation is more or less explicitly present in all my research questions. In the first study, employees are supposed to show trust instead of distrust in order to act cooperatively with the supervisor. Moreover, cooperation is supposed to be beneficial for the attainment of personally important goals in work. In the second study, employees' voluntary and discretionary cooperation are suggested to be related to the leader's trust and fairness. Cooperation is not explicitly present in the third study, but trust in coworkers is considered to be important because it facilitates cooperation. The last study searches for factors that explain promotive types of voluntary cooperation in work units.

1.2 TRUST IN ORGANIZATIONS

In early research on trust, trust and cooperation were often treated as synonymous (e.g., Axelrod, 1984; Deutsch, 1962). However, cooperation may result from a variety of other reasons unrelated to trust, and trust may not always result in cooperation. Thus, trust and cooperation are considered to be distinct but intertwined phenomena (e.g., Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2007; 2008; Gambetta, 1988). In addition to cooperation, trust is found to predict other attitudinal and behavioural factors, such as commitment and risk taking, which facilitate individual and group functioning and performance (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Moreover, trust is found to enhance organizational functioning more indirectly by facilitating the influence of other motivational factors (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

Trust is a basic and ubiquitous concept, and various definitions can be found in multidisciplinary literature (e.g., Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). Trust has been defined as a belief (e.g., Cook & Wall, 1980), some consider it to be a psychological condition (e.g., Rousseau et al., 1998), and others see it as an action (e.g., Zand, 1972) (see also Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006 for a review). In their classic article, Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) clarified the definition of interpersonal trust in their integrative model on trust by making a distinction between trustworthiness (a belief), trust (an intention) and risk-taking action (the behavioral consequence of trust).

In their article, Mayer et al. (1995) presented a widely-cited definition of trust as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (p. 712). Like several other definitions (e.g., Rousseau et al., 1998), this definition presumes two conditions that must exist when trust is at stake: risk and interdependence. Sheppard and Sherman (1998) have argued that the need for trust is established by the risks faced in a specific relationship, and these risks, in turn, are determined by the nature and depth of interdependence in a particular relationship (see also Kollock, 1994). In hierarchical relationships, authorities who have control over resources and decision making power are suggested to be primarily dependent on subordinates’ competence, and the risks they face are consequently related to subordinates’ performance or cooperation (Das & Teng, 2004; Kramer, 1996; Werbel & Henriques, 2009). Subordinates, on the other hand, are suggested to be dependent on the decision-making power of formal authorities and they face the risks of abuse, neglect and the loss of self-esteem (Das & Teng, 2004; Kramer, 1996; Lapidot, Kark, & Shamir, 2007; Sheppard & Sherman, 1998; Werbel & Henriques, 2009).

Mayer et al.’s (1995) integrative model on trust has had a tremendous influence, and it is suggested to be one of the major foundations of organizational trust research (e.g., Kramer, 2006). Thus the model is next presented in more detail and it is depicted in Figure 1.

1.2.1 AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

According to the integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer et al., 1995), trust as an intention to accept vulnerability in a certain relationship is based, on the one hand, on the perceived trustworthiness of the other party and, on the other hand, the trustor's propensity to trust other people in general. Trustworthiness refers to the perceived characteristics of the other party. Researchers have identified various trust enhancing characteristics (e.g., Butler, 1991), and Mayer et al. (1995) have reduced these to three, which are suggested to subsume the characteristics presented in the previous literature. These three are ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability refers to "skills, competences, and characteristics that enable an employee to have influence within some specific domain", benevolence is the employee's "desire to do good to the trustor," and integrity captures "the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 717-719). Several studies have shown that these trustworthiness components explain the significant amount of variance, for instance, in leaders directed trust (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007; Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000; Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Serva, Fuller, & Mayer, 2005; Tan & Tan, 2000). These particular trustworthiness components are suggested to be essential because they indicate the other party's utility in goal attainment. Integrity shows that the parties share an understanding on valuable goals, ability indicates that the trustee might be helpful in goal attainment, and benevolence suggests that the trustee is willing to use his or her abilities to attain shared goals (Mayer et al., 1995). Then, defined like this, trust is not a general belief towards the other party but is instead always formed in the context of a specific goal.

In addition to perceived trustworthiness, trust is suggested to be determined by a person's propensity to trust other people in general (e.g., Hardin, 1992; Mayer et al., 1995). Trust propensity refers to a general tendency to trust others from one situation to another (e.g., Rotter, 1967), and this tendency develops in the course of personal history within a certain culture (e.g., Hardin, 1992). The early studies on trust operationalized trust as a permanent personality characteristic, and for example, Rotter (1980) made some interesting findings suggesting that those who had a high propensity to trust others were also trustworthy themselves. Studies have shown that a propensity to trust has a significant influence both in trustworthiness perceptions and in trust (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007). On the other hand, the meaning of trust propensity is found to be highest at the beginning of the relationship when the knowledge of the other party's trustworthiness is limited and its influence diminishes as the knowledge increases (e.g., Rotter, 1980). In general, humans are suggested to be predisposed to trust because trust has been beneficial in the course of evolution (e.g., Kramer, 2009). Jones and George (1998) have suggested that individuals start relationships with unknown parties with trust rather than

with distrust because it is easier to trust than to find out how trustworthy or untrustworthy the other party actually is. This initial trust is proposed to be conditional and fragile, and might then evolve into unconditional trust through interaction-based evidence. Nevertheless, cross-cultural studies have shown that there is a great variation between cultures in individuals' willingness to trust other people in general (e.g., Delhey & Newton, 2005).

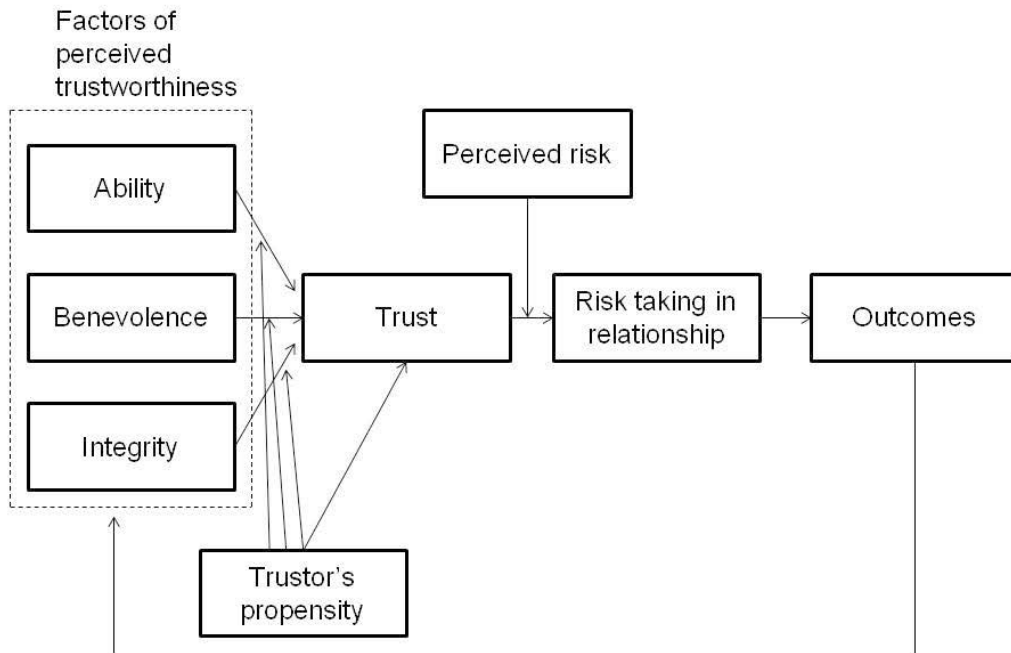


Figure 1 An integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995)

According to the integrative model, the behavioral outcome of intentional trust is risk-taking in a relationship (Mayer et al., 1995). This means that the trustor actually makes him- or herself vulnerable to the actions of the trustee. The form of risk-taking behavior is dependent on the goals in the situation and parties involved. Even though the level of trust might be high, it does not necessarily lead to risk-taking action if the risks are perceived to be too high in a specific context. Das and Teng (1998; 2004) have argued that subjective trust and perceived risk are the mirror images of each other; perception of low risks implies perceptions of high trust and vice versa. However, according to Mayer et al.'s model, perceived risks are contextual factors which moderate the relationship between intentional and behavioral trust. These situational risks are factors outside the particular relationship, such as

organizational control systems and norms, which are perceived to have an influence on the likelihood of gains and losses (e.g., Kramer, 1999).

Trust is suggested to be a unidimensional construct so that trust may vary from high trust to high distrust (Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007) (see Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998 for an alternative view of dimensionality). According to the integrative model (Mayer et al., 1995) trust in another party develops through interaction; after the trustor has taken a risk in the relationship, the trustee either proves to be worthy of trust or fails to fulfill expectations of positive outcomes. Evaluation of these outcomes will lead to updating prior perceptions of the trustee's ability, benevolence and integrity depending on the trustor's attributions. For example, if the trustee is perceived to cooperate, but she or he fails to perform the task because of inability, the trustee might be perceived as less able than was assumed but still as benevolent. On the other hand, if the trustee is perceived to be intentionally uncooperative, she or he might be perceived as less benevolent than was assumed but intentional lack of cooperation has no influence on perceived competence. After all, change in any dimension of trustworthiness is supposed to have an influence on trust because trust is dependent on the combination of components.

Even though this model clarifies distinctions between the trustee- and trustor-related constructs, differentiates the intentional and behavioral elements of trust and is still parsimonious, it is nevertheless limited. Trust is found to have a cognitive and an affective component (e.g., McAllister, 1995). These two forms of trust are found to have different outcomes (e.g., Ng & Chua, 2006; Webber, 2008) but these forms are also related such that some amount of cognitive-based trust is necessary for affective-based trust to evolve (McAllister, 1995). In Mayer et al.'s (1995) model, trust is treated as unidimensional, even though the components of trustworthiness include both cognitive and affective elements (e.g., Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012). Moreover, the model assumes that trust is based on perceived characteristics of the trustee but trust can also be based on other factors, such as relationships and structures (Bachmann, 2001; Dirks, 2006; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Thus the model covers only one, even though an important one, perspective on trust development. Moreover, the model covers only one person's perspective on trust. Although it recognizes characteristics of the trustee and the trustee's reactions to risk-taking behaviors, as such it is unable to explain the development of trust between parties (see also Wekselberg, 1996). However, Mayer et al.'s (1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999) definition of trust-related constructs are consistent with the operationalization of these constructs. Thus, it avoids the general problem of inconsistency in trust research (e.g., Lewicki et al., 2006). Hence, this study utilizes Mayer et al.'s (1995) definition of trust.

More generally, theories and studies on trust have not paid enough attention to the development of trust between parties. Trust is a relational construct, and in the long run, there needs to be some degree of reciprocity in

trust between parties otherwise trust and trust-related benefits are lost. If a party trusts another party and is willing to cooperate, this trust does not lead to cooperation if the trustee is unwilling to cooperate and does not trust the first party. Empirical studies on reciprocal trust are rare but those studies that have been carried out suggest that mutuality of trust has positive influences beyond individual trust in the relationship (Brower, Lester, Korsgaard, & Dineen, 2009). Although trust is generally considered a positive issue, trust-related problems frequently arise when trust is one-sided (e.g., Gargiulo & Ertug, 2006). Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) have suggested that this does not mean that the level of trust should be equivalent or that the trust relationship could be established outside an individual as a reality in and of itself. Trust varies within a person and in a relationship parties might have a different degree of trust in each other, even though a person's trust might influence the other party's trust in return (Schoorman, et al., 2007). People form conceptions of other parties' trust in them, and these perceptions have an influence on their ability to trust other parties (e.g., Cambetta, 1988). Brower, Schoorman, and Tan (2000) have integrated the trustee's perceptions of the trustor's trust in the trustee into Mayer et al.'s (1995) initial model and so developed it further. This model is briefly presented in the following as it is a step closer to the model of reciprocal trust development.

1.2.2 A MODEL OF RELATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In their model of relational leadership, Brower et al. (2000) focus on leaders' trust in subordinates because the previous research has focused primarily on subordinates' trust in leaders (see e.g., Burge, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007 for a recent model on trust in leadership). In comparison with the initial model of Mayer et al. (1995), this developed model gives a more active role to the trust receiver. The model is presented in Figure 2. The model suggests that subordinates perceive the leader's risk-taking actions as illustrating the level of the leader's trust in them. High perceived trust is suggested to motivate cooperative actions and attitudes, such as satisfaction, commitment and OCBs among subordinates. Empirical studies have shown that feelings of being trusted are indeed positively related to employees' performance, OCB and satisfaction (e.g., Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009; Lester & Brower, 2003; Salamon & Robinson, 2008). The influence of the leader's trust on these outcomes is found to be even stronger than the influence of trust in a leader (Brower et al., 2009; Lester & Brower, 2003). Reasons for these findings are suggested to be multifold. For example, leaders' trust might be a self-fulfilling prophecy: trusted subordinates are expected to be high performing and they are offered support and encouragement, which indeed produce higher performance (Kierein & Gold, 2000). On the other hand, leaders' trust can also have an effect through motivation: trusted subordinates are, for example, empowered which, in turn, enhances internal motivation and

engagement in organizational goals (e.g., Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). Moreover, Dirks and Skarlicki (2009) found recently that trusted employees received more resources from their peers, which in turn helped them to perform.

Recognition of these different perspectives is essential for an ability to understand the development of trust between parties. Studies have shown that the trustor and the trustee have quite different perspectives on trust building (e.g., Malhotra, 2004; Murnighan, Malhotra, & Weber, 2004; Pillutla, Malhotra, & Murnighan, 2003), and trust is seldom congruent or at the same level between parties (Brower et al., 2009). Tomlinson, Dineen, and Lewicki (2009) have recently proposed that trust congruence is beneficial, for example, for joint outcomes in negotiations. They suggest that high trust congruence at a low level of bilateral trust is more beneficial than a trust relationship in which one party is less trusting than the other party. They suggest that congruence is beneficial because it creates a shared understanding of how negotiating parties should proceed in their relationship. It raises the question should they first try to build trust or are they already able to cooperate? However, to my knowledge, these ideas have not yet been empirically tested.

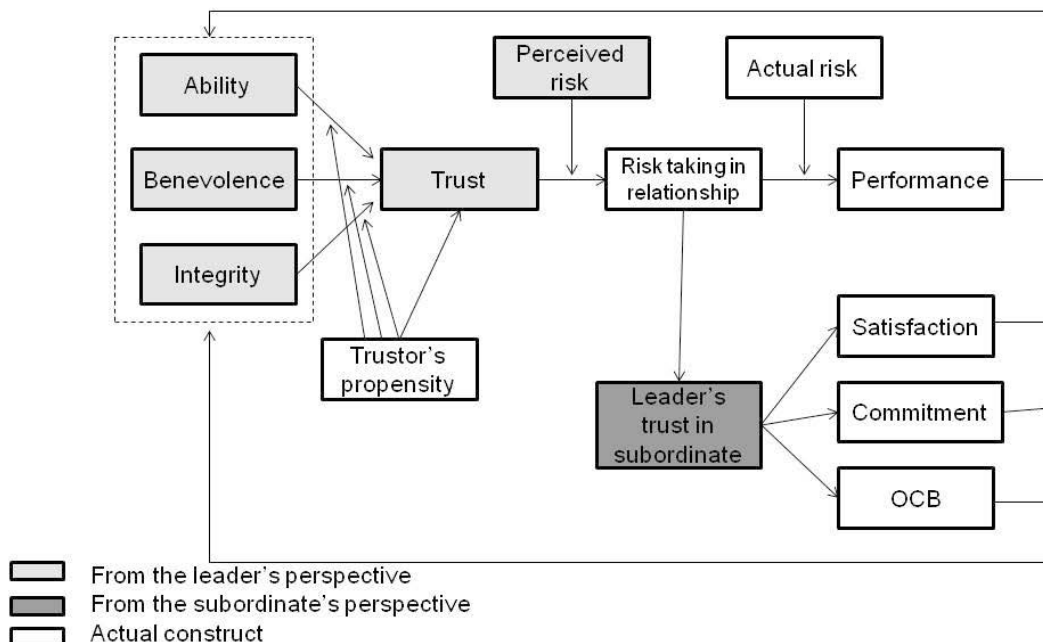


Figure 2 Model of relational leadership (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000)

Although Brower et al.'s (2000) model develops Mayer et al.'s (1995) model further by recognizing the reactions of trust receivers, it still focuses

on trust from one person's perspective. The model is based on the ideas of social exchange theory (e.g., Blau, 1964), and it proposes that the high level of perceived supervisor trust will lead to subordinates' cooperation because of an increased sense of obligation to reciprocate for received benefits offered by the leader's trusting actions. Thus, the model does not actually focus on the development of trust between parties. In the literature, reciprocity of trust is often defined as a cooperative reaction (i.e., reciprocation) to another's risk-taking behavior (i.e., trust) (e.g., Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006). However, this is not actually reciprocity of trust because the trusted might cooperate for reasons unrelated to trust, such as a felt obligation or the norm of reciprocity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960; Greenberg, 1980). Moreover, the reasons for another party's cooperation can be attributed to situational factors rather than to trust (e.g., Malhotra & Murnighan, 2002). What the expectations behind the trustworthy behavior are supposed to be is clearly relevant. For example, Eilam and Suleiman (2004) in an experimental study found that if the reason for trusting behavior was expected to be selfish, the trusted person's reactions were less cooperative than if the trusting behavior was expected to be caused by pure trust or cooperative intentions. In terms of cooperation, the notion of reciprocity of trust or mutuality is, however, eminent. Even though a person would trust another party to cooperate, the person might not be able to cooperate if the other party does not trust that person (Gambetta, 1988). Thus, the literature on trust still seems to be underdeveloped with respect to actual reciprocity of trust, namely how one party's trust enhances another party's trust in return. Cooperative actions or behavioural trust is essential in trust development but because cooperation or behavioural trust (e.g., Lewicki et al., 2006) is caused also by other factors than trust, an approach is needed which combines behavioural and psychological trust.

One aim of this doctoral dissertation is to highlight leaders' perspective on trust alongside the subordinates' perspectives. It seems that leaders' trust in their subordinates is perhaps more critical and acute than researchers have recognized, as most of the conducted studies have focused on the subordinate's trust in the leader. However, as Brower et al. (2009) recognized, the positive effects of a subordinate's trust in a leader are lost if the leader does not trust the subordinate. Those in positions of power are frequently suggested to face a lower need for trust because they are more independent in comparison with those who are powerless (e.g., Sheppard & Sherman, 1998). On the other hand, highly powerful individuals are suggested to live in the shadow of doubt because the results of their misplaced trust are more devastating than those of the less powerful, and consequently it is hard for power holders to trust the loyalty and sincerity of their followers and peers (Kramer & Gavrieli, 2004). At the same time, it is hard for leaders to earn full trust from their subordinates because leaders are presupposed to serve several parties (Dirks, 2006). In other words, leaders

need to serve the goals of the organization and at the same time their task is to take care of their subordinates' well-being, and these two tasks might be contradictory. Hence, there is a need for knowledge about the development of reciprocal or stronger mutuality of trust in the leader-subordinate relationship.

1.3 DEVELOPMENT OF RECIPROCAL TRUST IN THE SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE RELATIONSHIP

The first study of this dissertation explores reciprocal trust between a supervisor and a subordinate by asking how the supervisor's trust in a subordinate promotes the subordinate's reciprocal trust in the supervisor. Integrative (Mayer et al., 1995) and relational models (Brower et al., 2000) of trust suggest that trust in another party is based on experiences of the other party's trustworthiness. In addition to relationship specific evidence, conceptions of the other party's trustworthiness are shaped by social categories (e.g., Brewer, 1981; Orbell, Dawes, & Schwartz-Shea, 1994), third-parties and social networks (e.g., Burt, & Knez, 1995; Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2006). Moreover, trust is not simply a result of rational decision-making processes. Trust is also found to be influenced by emotions (e.g., Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Jones & George, 1998), affects (e.g., McAllister, 1995), perceived similarity (Van de Bunt, Wittek, & De Klepper, 2005) and attributions (e.g., Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002; Kramer, 1994; 2009; Weber, Malhotra, & Murnighan, 2005). In the course of interaction, relationship-specific experiences are, however, prone to override influences of other trust bases (Mayer et al., 1995).

Furthermore, development of trust is not the same in all situations. Initial trust formation in new relationships (e.g., Jones & George, 1998; McKnight, & Chervany, 2006; McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998) is suggested to be an easier and qualitatively different process than trust building after a breach of trust (see e.g., Kim, Dirks, Cooper, & Ferrin, 2006; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009). Different bases of trust are also suggested to be related to qualitatively different forms of trust. Macro-level evidence or factors outside the relationship (e.g., organizational control systems) produce deterrence- and calculus-based trust, but the degrees of real trust in another party remain low because trust is actually based on the system (e.g., Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). When there is relationship-specific evidence of the other party's trustworthiness, trust might develop from knowledge-based trust to relational-based and finally to identification-based trust (e.g., Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). Qualitatively this development means enhanced confidence in the relationship, and moreover leeway increases such that trust becomes less fragile (e.g., Jones & George, 1998).

Researchers have suggested that in the leader-subordinate relationship, leaders should take the initiative in the trust-building process (e.g.,

Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Trust building actions frequently involve vulnerabilities, and thus it might be hard for leaders to build trust when there is no trust in subordinates. In order to build their own trust in subordinates, leaders are prone to turn to macro-level factors, such as monitoring and other control systems (e.g., Kirsch & Choudhury, 2010; Wells & Kipnis, 2001). However, resort to control prevents leaders' real trust from developing (Ferrin et al., 2007) and it negatively influences subordinates' trust in the leader (e.g., Bijlsma-Frankema & Costa, 2010; Labidot et al., 2007). The leader's power as such is not necessarily unfavorable; indeed it can even be beneficial for trust. For example, in a recent longitudinal study Mayer, Bobko, Davis and Gavin (2011) found that a leader's use of referent- and expert-power enhanced subordinates' trust in the leader. This suggests that personal power can be used constructively for a common goals, though power might also be used destructively over others for reasons of personal interest (e.g., van Dijke & Poppe, 2006; Wisse & Rus, 2012). Use of power and control over others undermines subordinates' trust because it implicitly implies that subordinates are not trusted. On the other hand, power sharing might offer benefits in trust building because it shows trust and the intention not to abuse power.

1.3.1 RECIPROCAL TRUST AND POWER

The integrative model of organizational trust (Mayer et al., 1995) predicts that trust will lead to risk-taking in the relationship. In the supervisor-subordinate relationship risk-taking behaviors are found to include delegation, empowerment, increased autonomy and giving up control (see e.g., Serva et al., 2005; Spreitzer & Mishra, 1999 for empirical evidence). In other words, trustful leaders are willing to share power with their subordinates. Power has been defined in various ways in the literature (see Overbeck, 2010 for a recent review) but most frequently social psychologists have associated power with resources, dependence and influence (Fiske & Dépret, 1993; French & Raven, 1959). At the interpersonal- and intergroup-level, power is suggested to be an ability to have an influence in a certain context or relationship arising from the fact that a person or group has more resources on which the others are dependent (e.g., Fiske & Dépret, 1993; French & Raven, 1959) (see Turner, 2005 for a converse approach).

Although trust is found to facilitate power sharing, it is unclear why leaders' trust in subordinates leads to power sharing as a form of risk-taking behavior. Various theories on power suggest that those in positions of power are willing to maintain their position (e.g., Fiske & Dépret, 1996; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) and to increase the power difference in relation to the less powerful (e.g., Mulder, 1977). Leaders are found to value their power, and unwillingness to empower subordinates and resistance to power sharing are found to be common among powerful (e.g., Fiske & Dépret, 1996; Hogg & Reid, 2001). Coleman's (2009) approach to leader's implicit power theories

might offer a possible explanation for heightened willingness to share power in trust situations. He has pointed out that when the cooperative conception of power is salient the leader perceives that the goals can be achieved more efficiently by sharing power. This proposition is supported by studies which have shown that in groups, power is afforded to members who are perceived to cooperate to advance the group's goals (Keltner, Gruenfeld, Galinsky, & Kraus, 2010). Conversely, when the competitive conception of power is accessible, leaders perceive that power sharing means losing power to subordinates (Coleman, 2009). Empirical studies suggest that when leaders are insecure of their position or feel powerless, they are prone to tighten up control and use their power to protect their standing (e.g., Bugental, 2010; Georgesen & Harris, 2006). On the other hand, the leader who is able to trust in his or her subordinates perceives his or her power position to be more legitimate than a distrustful leader and is consequently more cooperatively oriented (Lammers & Galinsky, 2009). Moreover, studies on individual differences suggest that the competitively oriented people, in comparison with cooperatively oriented, are prone to perceive others as untrustworthy and they behave accordingly (Kelley & Stahelski, 1970). Although competitiveness is partially related to personality, previous studies have shown that organizational context has an important role in triggering leaders' implicit power theories (e.g., Coleman, 2004; Tjosvold, Coleman, & Sun, 2003). Thus, a leader's trust in a subordinate might prime the leader's implicit power theory so that the cooperative conception of power is more accessible than the competitive conception.

Thus, in line with the integrative model of trust and previous findings on leader's behavioral trust, the first sub-study of this dissertation suggests that the leader's psychological trust in a subordinate is positively related to the leader's power-sharing actions. As mentioned, power-sharing refers to various actions and in this study it is operationalized as a subordinate's work-related autonomy. Work-related autonomy refers to the employees' perceptions of their discretion with respect to work-related decision making (e.g., Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

Should risk-taking behavior be the consequence of trust, development of reciprocal trust between parties should be actualized by these risk-taking behaviors (e.g., Serva et al., 2005). Although the integrative model on trust (Mayer et al., 1995) does not focus on the development of trust between parties, it can be suggested, based on both Mayer et al.'s and Brower et al.'s (2000) models, that risk-taking behaviors, such as power sharing, inform the trusted party about the trustor's character and builds reciprocal trust through these perceptions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). In other words, the power-sharing leader is trusted because he or she is perceived to be trustworthy: power sharing shows that the leader is not going to abuse his or her power (e.g., De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009). In addition to this character-based approach, there might be other mechanisms which account for the trust-building influence of power sharing. Experimental studies have shown that

the amount of risk taken as such is irrelevant in terms of trust development (Malhotra, 2004). Instead, trusted parties are found to appreciate the amount of received benefits associated with risk-taking actions (Malhotra, 2004). What constitutes a benefit is a matter of the context and parties involved, but in a broad sense, these can be associated with goals attainment and need fulfillment. Power sharing is likely to fulfill basic human needs for autonomy and control over self-relevant issues (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and consequently, power sharing builds trust.

In addition to these “reactive” approaches to the power-trust relationship, trust might also be used more actively to fulfill one’s own needs and goals, as some recent theories on power indirectly suggest. Both the situated focus theory on power (Guinote, 2007; 2010) and the approach inhibition theory of power (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003) suggest that an activated sense of power – a belief in one’s ability to have an influence in social relations – is associated with the attainment of personal goals and the fulfillment of personal needs. Power activates the pursuance of personal goals and need fulfillment because power goes hand in hand with resources, which make goal attainment and need fulfillment easier (Guinote, 2010; Keltner et al., 2003). A sense of power is also suggested to influence cognitive and affective processes in that they support goal attainment and need fulfillment. For example, goal relevant stimuli receive more attention, whereas goal irrelevant stimuli in the environment are ignored (Guinote, 2010). The approach/inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003) suggests that this is because a high sense of power is associated with the behavioral approach system, whereas a low sense of power activates behavioral inhibition systems.

Based on the conducted studies, it seems that when the behavioral approach system is activated, the orientation toward social relations and situations is trusting, whereas activation of behavioral inhibition systems makes a person suspicious and distrustful. Studies have shown that a high sense of power is associated with a perception of rewards and positive outcomes instead of threats and disasters (e.g., Keltner et al., 2003). Further, people with a high sense of power are found to be more prone to take risks and to share information than people with a low sense of power (e.g., Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Lapidot et al., 2006). A high sense of power is also suggested to enhance positive affective states (e.g., Keltner et al., 2003), which in turn, are suggested to be favorable for trust development (e.g., Jones & George, 1998) (However, see e.g., Lount, 2010 for an alternative approach on the relationship between positive emotions and trust).

Thus, recent theories and studies on power suggest that a high sense of power increases the pursuance of personal goals, the fulfillment of personal needs, and trust. Trust might be related to power because trust, rather than distrust, helps a person to approach those who have valuable resources for goal attainment and need fulfillment. In line with this, studies on trust have

shown that trust is valuable in the pursuance of goals, and it is found to enhance performance and cooperation by increasing one's ability to focus on performance-relevant issues (Colquitt et al., 2012; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Hence, based on these recent theories on power and empirical findings, it is suggested that a sense of power mediates the positive relationship between power sharing (i.e., work-related autonomy) and a subordinate's trust in the supervisor. Moreover, the supervisor's trust in a subordinate is suggested to produce the subordinate's reciprocal trust in the supervisor through the chain of power sharing and a sense of power.

1.3.2 RECIPROCAL TRUST AND FAIRNESS

Fairness is another strategy for leaders to enhance perceived legitimacy and a way to convince subordinates about their goodwill with respect to power use (e.g., De Cremer & Van Dijke, 2009; Long, 2010; Tyler & Lind, 1992; Whitener et al., 1998). For example, Van Dijke, De Cremer and Mayer (2010) found recently that leader's procedural unfairness decreased trust in the leader especially when the authority had high power over the followers. This suggests that fairness reduces power-related threats. Tyler (2001), among others, has suggested that when the authority is perceived as legitimate, the need for control and command are diminished because employees internalize social control and feel that the leader ought to be followed. Numerous studies have proved the beneficial influences of fairness on cooperative actions in organizations (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Fairness-related concerns are frequently differentiated as distributive, procedural and interactional fairness (e.g., Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Distribution-related fairness refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes, such as rewards and work duties, in proportion to performance inputs (Adams, 1965; Greenberg, 1996; Leventhal, 1976). Procedural fairness focuses on the perceived fairness of the procedures followed (e.g., consistency, voice) in the decision-making process regarding the outcomes (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Interaction-related fairness captures the dignity and respect with which a person is treated in the decision-making process (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Although leaders' discretion to be fair is dependent on various contextual factors (e.g., Scott et al., 2009), and perceived fairness is influenced by subordinates' perceptual and interpretational processes (e.g., Adams, 1965; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Lind, 2001), the current conception suggests that leaders' and supervisors' fairness is assessed in terms of all justice components (e.g., Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Van Knippenberg, 2007). Although the evidence is strong that leaders do not treat all of their subordinates in a similar manner (e.g., Colquitt, 2004), researchers have only recently started to pay attention to the factors that motivate leaders' fairness enactment (e.g., Patient & Skarlicki, 2010; Scott, Colquitt, & Zapata-

Phelan, 2007), and ethical leadership in general has risen to a more central position in leadership studies (see e.g., De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Stouten, van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2012). Thus, the second research question of this dissertation focused on the leaders' fairness motivation.

The number of studies on fairness-trust associations is vast and these two phenomena are found to be closely intertwined (see e.g., Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Lewicki, Wiethoff, & Tomlinson, 2005). Some researchers have approached trust as an antecedent of justice perceptions, while the majority has considered trust as an outcome of perceived fairness (for a review, see Lewicki et al., 2005). Trust is also found to moderate the relationship between fairness and emotional and behavioral outcomes (e.g., Stouten, De Cremer, & Van Dijk, 2006; 2009). The most frequently utilized theory in studies on trust-fairness associations is the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). The theory suggests that fairness causally precedes subordinates' trust in the leader. Fairness is considered to be a sort of social rewarding action in social exchange relationship between the leader and the subordinate (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Based on fairness, subordinates make inferences about future interaction with the leader; fair leaders are trusted to act beneficially both now and in the future and subordinates feel obligated to reciprocate for received rewards by cooperating (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Several studies have utilized the social exchange approach (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Yang, Mossholder, & Peng, 2009) but the underlying mechanisms have not been actually measured in these studies. Colquitt et al.'s (2012) study is a recent exception. They found that fairness predicted affect- and cognition-based trust in the leader and affect-based trust was positively related to performance through normative commitment (i.e., social exchange) and cognitive-based trust through reduced uncertainty.

Moreover, it is doubtful to consider fairness as a sort of rewarding action because fair treatment is a value in itself (e.g., Folger, 1998; Stouten, De Cremer, & Van Dijk, 2005), and employees should be able to assume that all are treated fairly despite their different contributions. Leaders are posited to be fair and studies have shown that unequal treatment of in-group members is experienced unfair (Cheng, Fielding, & Terry, 2011; Van den Bos, & Lind, 2001). In other words, fairness should be the right of an employee and a duty of the authority. However, the social exchange theory approaches fairness as a reciprocal reaction to employees' contributions. The theory assumes that leaders form qualitatively different relationships with their subordinates and differentiate subordinates into in-groupers and out-groupers based on their performance and contributions (e.g., Blau, 1964; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Scandura (1999) has suggested that as long as the leader is perceived to be procedurally and interactionally fair, the differentiation of subordinates into in-groups and out-groups should not pose problems in terms of perceived fairness. However, studies have shown that less beneficial group members (i.e., more poorly performing and less cooperative members) are perceived to

be less deserving of fairness and consequently they are treated less fairly (Olson, Cheung, Conway, & Hafer, 2010) than better performing group members (e.g., Gilliland & Shepers, 2003). This suggests that leaders are unwilling to invest to the equal treatment of the employees who are not a part of the leader's personal in-group. Although findings seem to support the idea from social exchange theory that leaders form qualitatively different relationships with employees, but at the same time it fits poorly with justice; justice should not be treated as a benefit to be exchanged by following the principle of tit for tat.

The other theoretical approach on fairness-trust relationships is offered by the relational model of authority (Tyler, 1994; Tyler & Lind, 1992; see also Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 1989 for earlier stages of this theory). According to that theory, fairness perceptions are affected by trustworthiness beliefs; benevolent leaders are perceived as trustworthy and they are trusted to follow procedural fairness. The relational model is aimed at explaining why fairness is important for people. People are suggested to value fairness because it enhances their feelings of self-worth and acceptance by others (e.g., Tyler & Lind, 1992). Leaders, who communicate that the group member is valued by the group, are considered legitimate and legitimate leaders enhance voluntary compliance among employees (e.g., Tyler & Blader, 2000). Empirical studies have shown that trustworthiness and other relational judgements (neutrality and status recognition) are related to fairness perceptions (e.g., Lind, Tyler, & Huo, 1997; Tyler, 1989) and group-oriented behaviors (e.g., Smith, Tyler, Huo, Ortiz, & Lind, 1998; Tyler, Degoe, & Smith, 1996). Tyler and Blader have enhanced the relational model further in their group engagement model which is focused on explaining why fairness is related to cooperation (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000; 2003), but trust is no longer explicitly present in this newer model.

Fairness heuristics theory (Lind, 2001) also links fairness judgements, trust and cooperation. According to this theory, employees are motivated to cooperate in order to attain organizational goals when they are able to trust that their efforts are not exploited and when engaged and identified employees do not face a threat of social rejection or loss of identity. Because direct trust-related information is rarely available, employees are suggested to use fairness judgements as heuristic information about the trustworthiness of the authorities and coworkers. Empirical findings have been controversial. Van den Bos, Wilke, & Lind (1998) found that fairness information mattered more when trustworthiness information was missing than when it was available. In a more recent study, De Cremer and Tyler (2007) found that trust in authority might also moderate the relationship between fairness and cooperation. They reported that the fairness of the trusted authority was more strongly related to cooperation than the fairness of the less trusted authority.

Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model has also been used to explain positive relationships between fairness, trust and cooperation (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). According to that character-based explanation, the leader's fairness enhances the subordinate's confidence in the leader's character, and reduced uncertainty makes trust more likely. Studies that have utilized this perspective have shown that trust in a fair leader is positively related to cooperative behaviors because employees are able to focus on job-related activities when they do not need to protect themselves from leaders (Colquitt, et al., 2012; Frazier, Jonson, Gavin, Gooty, & Snow, 2010; Mayer & Gavin, 2005).

All the studies conducted within these theoretical approaches tend to ask how the subordinates trust in the leader and the leader's fairness are related but the leaders' perspective on these phenomena seems to be missing. Previous studies on leaders' fairness enactment have focused primarily on interactional fairness because in many cases, leaders have more discretion in terms of interactional fairness than in terms of procedural or distributive fairness. For example, Skarlicki and colleagues have studied interactionally demanding situations focusing on factors that help leaders treat their subordinates fairly (e.g., Patient & Skarlicki, 2005; 2010). Patient and Skarlicki (2010) found recently that empathic concern and moral development were associated with higher interactional fairness when delivering negative news. Moral identity is also found to predict procedural fairness (Brebels, De Cremer, Van Dijke, & Van Hiel, 2011). In terms of subordinate-related factors, studies have shown that cooperative employees (e.g., Gilliland & Schepers, 2003) and employees who evoke positive sentiments within leaders are treated more fairly (Scott et al., 2007). Employees who demand justifications and interactional fairness are found to be more likely to receive fairness than employees who are less assertive (e.g., Korsgaard, Roberson, & Rymph, 1998). Studies on abusive supervision have suggested that leaders' own fairness-related experiences might trickle-down to their own fairness and further to subordinates' behavior (e.g., Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Bardes, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012).

However, few leaders want to be intentionally unfair; instead, justice rule violation might be related to goal attainment, which is used to justify the means (Scott et al., 2009). Scott and colleagues (2009) have recently presented an actor-focused model of managerial justice rule adherence and violation. One focal idea of the model is that leaders' fairness motivation arises from multiple interactions between leaders and their subordinates over time. The model suggests various affective and cognitive motives that account for the relationship between interactions with subordinates and justice-rule adherence or violation. It is suggested that leaders control subordinates' behavior, manage their leader identity, maintain belief in a just world, and regulate their emotions. These goals are used to legitimate justice rule adherence and violation. Scott et al.'s (2009) model is the only existing approach to leaders' justice motivation, even though other researchers have

presented more general models of factors that influence the leader's ability to act fairly (see e.g., Masterson, Byrne, & Mao, 2005). Scott et al.'s model is not comprehensive and, for instance, it does not cover relationship-related motivation.

The leader's trust in a subordinate might also offer a reasonable justification for the leader's fairness enactment. Justice rules adherence might enhance the leader's vulnerability in a relationship with a subordinate, and hence fairness enactment is more likely when the leader trusts the subordinate. For example, making a recommendation for a deserved promotion can diminish the power-distance in a leader-subordinate relationship and this might be threatening to leaders, especially when their own position is insecure (e.g., Georgesen & Harris, 2006). Moreover, low trust can be a believable excuse for ignoring others' opinions and perspectives and for keeping decision-making power to oneself. After an unfair incident, the leader might appeal to a lack of trust in order to justify the unfair act. Hence, in line with the character-based approach to trust, this dissertation suggests that a supervisor's trust in a subordinate mediates the positive relationship between the subordinate's cooperation and supervisor fairness enactment.

1.4 TRUST IN COWORKERS: THE ROLE OF A SUPERVISOR'S FAIRNESS

In addition to trust between a leader and a subordinate, employees' trust in peers is found to be an important facilitator of voluntary cooperation and performance in groups (e.g., Dirks, 1999; 2000; Ferres, Connell, & Travaglione, 2004; Lee, Gillespie, Mann, & Wearing, 2010; Mach, Dolan, & Tzafirir, 2010; McAllister, 1995) (see Gargioulo & Ertug, 2006; Langfred, 2004 for limitations). Trust in coworkers can be considered either as trust in a particular coworker or as trust in coworkers as a collective entity (e.g., Costa, Bijlsma-Frankema, & De Jong, 2009), though both are found to be related (e.g., Naquin & Kurtsberger, 2009; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998). Trust in a particular coworker within a group is an example of interpersonal trust. Studies have shown that especially interpersonal helping, other forms of voluntary cooperative behaviors and interaction frequency predict trust in a peer (e.g., Becerra & Gupta, 2003; Costa, 2003; McAllister, 1995; Webber, 2008). Moreover, group leaders are found to offer predictive third-party information about the trustworthiness of a particular peer (e.g., Lau & Liden, 2008) and more generally leaders have an important role in facilitating trust among employees (e.g., Costa et al., 2009). When the focus of trust is the whole group as a collective entity, a group member's ability to trust in the group does not depend only on the member's beliefs about the group but also on the member's own position within the group. In the 1990s Kramer (1994; 1998) emphasized the role of standing-related concerns in

trust in his theory on collective distrust. For some reason, this theory has not found a place among the foremost theories on trust even though the theory offers valuable insights into the development of trust and distrust within groups.

Kramer's (1994; 1998) theory on collective distrust depicts cognitive mechanisms which enhance a group member's distrust in a group when the person is insecure about his or her position within the group. According to the theory, perceived social distinctiveness, perceived evaluative scrutiny or uncertainty about social standing within a group increase a group member's self-consciousness. Heightened self-consciousness, in turn, makes the person consider the reasons for these feelings. This search is associated with hypervigilance and rumination over others' words and actions leading to various judgmental biases which create and sustain distrust in this collective entity (see also Fenigstein & Venable, 1992 for paranoia and self-consciousness). Although the theory and conducted studies have focused on distrust-producing mechanisms, the theory can also be utilized to outline trust-related propositions. Generally, when a group member is certain about his or her social standing within a group, and perceives less evaluative scrutiny or social distinctiveness, he or she should be less self-conscious and more willing to approach others trustfully.

Fairness is an important source of standing-related information. Relational theories on justice suggest that fairness offers information about the group's values and group members' positions within the group (e.g., Tyler & Lind, 1992). Thus, fairness plays an essential role in forming the group member's trust in the group. Studies have shown that group-related pride and respect mediate the positive relationship between fairness and group-related outcomes such as OCB (e.g., Blader & Tyler, 2009; Tyler & Blader, 2000; 2003). Because the group leader is a likely source of fairness (see e.g., Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001), she or he has an essential role in trust formation within groups. Group members are found to want accurate information about their status within groups (Anderson, Srivastava, Beer, & Spataro, 2006) and not all leaders are equally informative in terms of group-related identity (e.g., Lipponen, Koivisto, & Olkkonen, 2005; Lipponen & Olkkonen, 2005; Platow, Brewer, & Eggins, 2008; Smith et al., 1998). The social identity approach to leadership suggests that the leader needs to represent the group, its values and norms; the leader needs to be group prototypical in order to be a legitimate source of information with respect to group-related identity (Haslam, 2004; Haslam et al., 2011; Hogg, 2001; Hogg & Van Knippenberg, 2003). Several studies have supported this suggestion (e.g., Lipponen et al., 2005; Lipponen & Olkkonen, 2005).

Some recent studies have suggested that the leader's group prototypicality legitimates the leader's position so forcefully that group prototypical leaders are also perceived fair and trustworthy (Giessner & Van Knippenberg, 2008; Van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2008; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005). According to some studies, prototypicality works even as a substitute

for fairness (Janson, Levy, Sitkin, & Lind, 2008). These influences are especially found among highly identified work group members (Van Dijke & De Cremer, 2008; 2010; Ulrich, Christ, & Van Dick, 2009). However, findings have been controversial and other studies have shown that leaders are more efficient when they are both fair and group prototypical (e.g., De Cremer, Van Dijke, & Mayer, 2010; Lipponen et al., 2005). Closer inspection of these studies reveals that prototypicality and fairness seem to substitute each other when outcomes concern the leader, whereas prototypicality enhances the positive influence of fairness when the consequences are related to self-evaluation or group-level outcomes (see also De Cremer, Van Dijke, Brebels, & Hoogervorst, 2008 and Van Knippenberg, 2011 for similar suggestions).

Consequently, based on Kramer's theory of collective distrust, relational models of fairness and the social identity approach to leadership, it is suggested that the supervisor's fairness is positively and more strongly related to the employee's trust in coworkers as a collective entity when the supervisor is more group prototypical rather than less group prototypical.

1.5 PERSONAL AND CONTEXTUAL BASES OF COOPERATION

Previous chapters in this dissertation have suggested that group leaders are able to facilitate employees' engagement in cooperation by treating them fairly and by building trust in leadership and coworkers. The presented theoretical approaches suggest different mechanisms why fairness and trust motivate cooperation, but the one thing that is common to all is that leadership matters. Although leadership actions significantly influence employees' attitudinal, emotional and behavioral outcomes in organizations (e.g., Stouten, Baillien, Van den Broeck, Camps, De Witte, & Euwema, 2012), employees' motivations also arise from other sources and there are factors that neutralize or substitute for leadership influences (e.g., Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr, & Podsakoff, 2007). The fourth research question of this dissertation focuses on the more personal motivation of cooperating for the benefit of the work units.

Employees are found to join in organizations in order to express themselves and consequently they are likely to join in organizations which appear to share similar values with them (e.g., Billsberry, 2007; Cable & Judge, 1996). In time, consistency between the organization's and employees' values tends to increase through organizational socialization (e.g., Chatman, 1991; Krishnan, 2008). However, personal and organizational values can turn out to be too dissimilar and several studies have shown that employees are more willing to leave an organization than to change their values (e.g., O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). Personal values are suggested to be relatively constant in time and from one

situation to another (e.g., Schwartz, 2005). People's values are found to change when they try to adapt to slow or more sudden changes in their culture and societal environment or are based on their personal experiences (e.g., Bardi, Lee, Hofmann-Towfigh, & Soutar, 2009). People are motivated to behave according to their values, value congruent behavior promotes well-being, and values have been found to affect behaviors in various contexts, including work organizations (e.g., Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Nauta, De Dreu, & Van der Vaart, 2002; Sosik, 2005).

Values have been defined in various ways in the literature (see e.g., Hofstede, 2001; Maio, 2010; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Rohan, 2000; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992; Triandis, 1995). At the individual level, values can be defined as broad personal goals that serve as guiding principles in people's lives (Schwartz, 1992). Schwartz's (1992) theory of universal content and structure of personal values is one of the most widely applied contemporary value frameworks (e.g., Schwartz, 2005). It offers a solid and comprehensive theoretical basis for deriving hypotheses based on individuals' value systems. The theory defines ten distinct value types that are based on different motivational goals. The value types are: universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation and self-direction. These value types are considered to be universal and value types are found to be related to each other in a systematic way. The overall structure of relations among values forms a circle (see Figure 3). In the value circle, compatible, neighboring values share a motivation and can be easily pursued with the same behavior. In line with this, the more distant the value types are in the circle, the more contradictory goals they represent and the harder it is to pursue them at the same time. Overall, the value circle is ordered by two bi-polar dimensions: self-transcendence versus self-enhancement and conservation versus openness to change. Values associated with the end of each dimension share a similar motivation.

As presented in Chapter 1.1, part of the employees' volitional cooperative behaviors can be seen as more protective in nature, whereas other forms disturb the status quo and aim at change in organizations (see e.g., Moon et al., 2005). Different types of discretionary behaviors can be considered to reflect different values (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Protective behaviors, such as compliance, reflect conservation values which include the values of tradition, conformity and security (e.g., Schwartz, 1992). These values and value-related behaviors are important for organizations because every social community needs a minimal amount of continuity in order to survive (Schwartz, 1992). Status quo-disturbing behaviors in organizations, such as personal initiative, voice, innovation and change-oriented OCB, reflect openness to change values which capture values of self-direction and stimulation (Schwartz, 1992). These values and value-related behaviors are important for organizations in their development and adaptation to changing circumstances (Schwartz, 1992). This study focuses on employees' value-

driven motivation on the promotive type of cooperation. One such type of behavior is captured by change-oriented OCB, which has been defined as “constructive efforts by individuals to identify and implement changes with respect to work methods, policies, and procedures to improve the situation and performance” (Choi, 2007, p. 469).

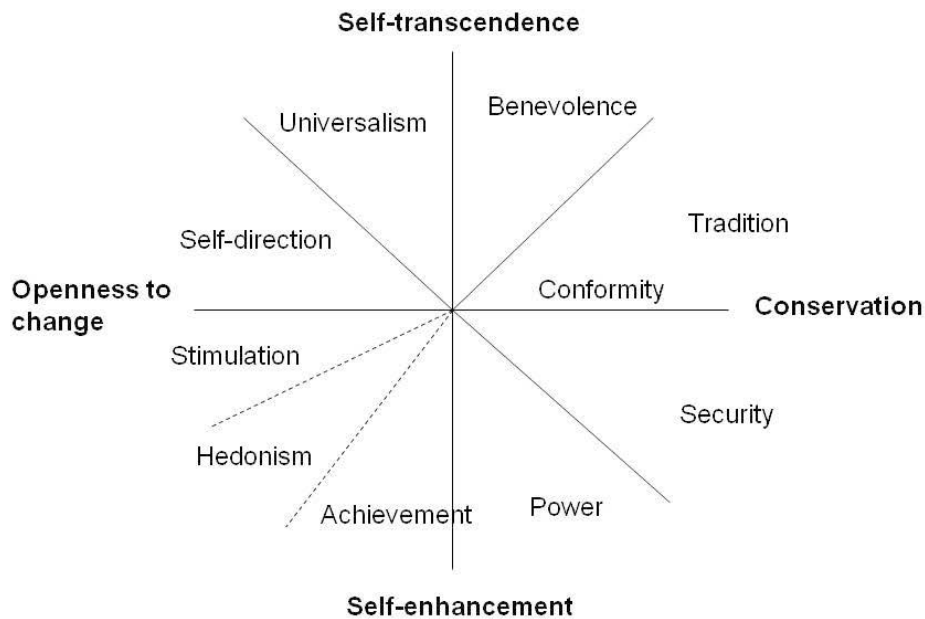


Figure 3 Schwartz’s model of motivational types of values (adapted from Schwartz, 1992).

Although value consistent behavior is experienced as rewarding, the direct influence of values, personality and dispositional characteristics on behavior in organizations is found to be at the most moderate (e.g., De Dreu & Nauta, 2009; George & Zhou, 2001). This relates to the fact that employees’ discretion is restricted by various contextual factors (e.g., Janssen, 2005; Ohly & Fritz, 2007). The influence of value and other personal factors is stronger in a weak situation, when it is unclear how one should act (e.g. De Kwaadsteniet, Van Dijk, Wit, & De Cremer, 2006). Moreover, studies on employee’s voice behavior have suggested that employees’ motivation to make suggestions and to be innovative is frequently overpowered by other motives (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003). Two factors are found to be essential: employees consider on the one hand whether their input will be efficient and on the other hand what kinds of risks are associated with status quo-disturbing behavior (e.g., Morrison, 2011; Wellen & Neale, 2006). These findings also offer a useful framework for

exploration of the factors that support or prevent value-motivated and change-oriented behavior.

Change-oriented OCB is risky behavior. Morrison's (2011) recent review of voice behavior suggests that suggestion-making for change and the implementation of changes can have negative influences on group harmony, coworkers' attitudes, employee's public image or evaluation and rewarding. This can be more so for highly identified employees, for whom the group membership is an essential part of identity. Organizational and work group identification are found to motivate cooperation, group benefiting behaviors (e.g., Ellemers, De Gilder, & Haslam, 2004), and innovativeness among other things (e.g., Hirst, Van Dick, & Van Knippenberg, 2009; Lipponen, Bardi, & Haapamäki, 2008; Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006). Lipponen et al. (2008) found that highly identified employees who privately valued openness to change values made suggestions for change more frequently than less identified group members. Values can be expressed and pursued through various behaviors and in different contexts (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003) and identification was considered to direct value-congruent motivation toward group-related goals. However, the general tendency among highly identified employees is conformity toward group norms and values (e.g., Adarves-Yorno, Postmes, & Haslam, 2007; Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 2002). For example, Adarves-Yorno et al. (2007) found in experimental studies that groups tended to conform to group norms even when carrying out a creative task. Identified group members pursue acceptance by valued groups and this is likely to happen by showing conformity to the group's norms and values (e.g., Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Retaliation from group norms poses the threat of rejection, which threatens one's group-based identity. Also, studies on change-oriented behaviors suggest that employees are more likely to engage in change-oriented behaviors when the normative and emotional climate in work units is open to change (Choi, 2007; Hülgsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011; Paulus & Dzindolet, 2008; West, 2002).

However, un-normative or status quo-disturbing behavior does not pose equal identity threats to all identified employees. Group members' ability to deviate in groups is found to be related to members' relative position within the group (e.g., Stouten, & Tripp, 2009). For example, studies of leadership have shown that group prototypical leaders are given more leeway to deviate from group norms than less group prototypical leaders (e.g., Abrams, De Moura, Marques, & Hutchison, 2008; Platow, Van Knippenberg, Haslam, Van Knippenberg, & Spears, 2006). In terms of other group members, studies have shown that less prototypical group members tend to conform to group norms more strongly than more prototypical group members in order to gain acceptance by other group members (e.g., Jetten, Hornsey, & Adarves-Yorno, 2006).

In addition to the leeway promoted by group prototypicality, an employee's relation to risk-taking might influence his or her willingness to

engage in risky behavior, such as change-oriented behavior. As mentioned earlier, the approach/inhibition theory of power (Keltner, et al., 2003) suggests that a higher sense of power is related to a greater willingness to take risks. Thus a high sense of power is likely to neutralize group identity-related threats and risks associated with change-oriented behavior. Moreover, a sense of power refers to the belief that one is able to have an influence within a specific social context. Thus, it is likely that a high sense of power is associated with a stronger belief in the efficacy of change-oriented behaviors. In other words, employees with a high sense of power believe that their contributions will actually lead to something rather than be inefficient. Hence, it is suggested that employees' work unit identification enhances their pursuance of their personal values for the development of the work unit when they feel powerful within the unit.

2 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The research questions, theory-driven propositions and detailed hypotheses of this study are given in the following.

Question 1: How does reciprocal trust develop in hierarchical organizational relationships?

Proposition 1: In hierarchical relationships, reciprocal trust is enhanced by balancing power difference so that affective and cognitive processes become favorable for trust development.

Hypothesis 1: The positive relationship between the supervisor's and the subordinate's trust is partially mediated by work-related autonomy.

Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between work-related autonomy and the subordinate's reciprocal trust in the supervisor is mediated by the subordinate's sense of power.

These hypotheses were tested in sub-study I.

Question 2: What motivates leaders' fairness enactment?

Proposition 2: Subordinates' cooperation motivates leaders' fairness because it enhances leaders' trust in subordinates.

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationships between a subordinate's in-role performance, helping and compliance with the supervisor's perceived distributive, procedural and interactional fairness are mediated by the supervisor's trust in a subordinate.

This hypothesis was tested in sub-study II.

Question 3: What is the role of the group leader in subordinates' trust in the workgroup?

Proposition 3: Leaders' fairness matters in terms of employees' trust in coworkers only when leaders are perceived to be a legitimate information source with respect to the group member's standing in a specific collective entity.

Hypothesis 4: The positive relationship between the supervisor's distributive, procedural and interactional fairness and the subordinate's trust in coworkers as a collective entity is moderated by the supervisor's group prototypicality in that the relationship is stronger when the supervisor is more group prototypical than when the supervisor is less group prototypical.

This hypothesis was tested in sub-study III.

Question 4: When are identified group members able or willing to express their personal values on change for the benefit of the group?

Proposition 4: Identified group members express their change-oriented goals for the benefit of the group when their position within the group is such that status quo-disturbing behavior does not pose a threat to their group-based identity.

Hypothesis 5: The positive relationship between an employee's openness to change values and change-oriented OCB in the group is moderated by work unit identification and a sense of power in that values and identification positively interact only when the sense of power is high but not when the sense of power is low.

This hypothesis was tested in sub-study IV.

3 METHODS

The hypotheses presented in this dissertation were tested by using a cross-sectional survey methodology. One survey questionnaire was formulated for work unit employees and the other survey for their supervisors within these work units. Questionnaires included all the needed scales to test the presented hypotheses. Wherever possible, previously validated measures were used. Some measures were not available in Finnish and in these cases measures were translated by using translation/back-translation method (Brislin, 1970). Moreover, questionnaires included background-related questions such as sex, age, educational level, tenure in the work unit, tenure in the supervisor position and type of contract (permanent or terminable). Employees were first asked the background questions. After that, they were instructed to rate identification with the work unit, trust in the supervisor, trust in coworkers, sense of power in the work unit, work-related autonomy, group prototypicality of the supervisor, perceived fairness of the supervisor and personal values. Work group supervisors were first asked the background questions and then they were instructed to assess each of their subordinates separately on change-oriented OCB, voluntary helping, compliance, in-role performance and trust. The measures used are presented in Appendix I.

The initial aim was to gather data from various Finnish middle-sized organizations so that the organizations would represent several different branches. The other criterion was that recruited organizations would consist of several small units with a supervisor and subordinates. After a recruitment process of several months, two organizations pledged to the study. One was a restaurant organization which consisted of 23 units with 149 employees in the Helsinki city area. The other organization was a social service provider which consisted of 22 units with 768 employees in Finland. All the units of the restaurant chain were invited to participate in the study, whereas 17 units with 136 employees from social service provider organizations were invited (notably larger units than average were excluded). Thus, altogether 285 employees and 40 supervisors participated. Surveys were delivered to participants through the help of human resources managers. Participants were allowed to fill in the questionnaires during working hours and the completed questionnaires were returned directly to the researcher in the prepaid envelopes provided. After one reminder, 189 (66%) subordinates and 40 (100%) supervisors had returned questionnaires. Subordinates' questionnaires were connected with supervisors' questionnaires with the help of a number code marked in the questionnaires. Supervisors with no subordinate answers were removed from the final data. The final samples varied somewhat from one sub-study to another and more detailed information is offered in each sub-study. Findings of the survey study were

presented to the supervisors and representatives of the organizations' human resources management. At the same sessions supervisors were also offered training related to fairness and trust-building by professional trainees.

Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted in each study to test the validity of measures and measurement models (Arbuckle, 2006). Because subordinates were nested within supervisors, data was analyzed by using a methodology which took into account this two-level structure (Kenny & Judd, 1986). The two-level structural equation model (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2007) was used in studies one and two. The work unit was modeled as a level-two variable and other variables were modeled as level-one variables. Random coefficient modeling (Snijders & Bosker, 1999) was conducted in studies three and four, and the work unit was modeled as a grouping variable. Studies one and two tested mediation hypotheses (Baron & Kenny, 1986) by estimating confidence intervals for direct, indirect and total effects in line with recommendations presented by MacKinnon, Lockwood & Williams (2004). Study three tested a two-way interaction and study four tested a three-way interaction (Aiken & West, 1991). Simple slope analyses were conducted by following the recommendations of Aiken and West (1991), and Dawson and Richter's (2006) macro was utilized in drawing slopes.

4 RESULTS

The main results of the each sub-study are presented here. Detailed information about basic statistics, perceived correlations, reliability scores, factor analyses, intra-class correlations, estimated coefficients and explained variances are presented in original articles at the end of this dissertation. The main results are presented in Figures 4-7, and results are also gathered together into a dynamic model of reciprocal trust and cooperation, which is presented in Figure 8.

Sub-study one (Figure 4) found that a supervisor's trust in a subordinate was positively related to the level of the subordinate's work autonomy, sense of power and trust in the supervisor. Mediation analyses showed that work-related autonomy partially mediated the association between supervisor trust and a subordinate's sense of power. Furthermore, the subordinate's sense of power partially mediated the association between work-related autonomy and trust in the supervisor. These findings are in line with the hypothesis that a supervisor's trust in a subordinate produces reciprocal trust in the supervisor through autonomy, and autonomy accounts for that association because of a higher sense of power. Moreover, supervisor trust had a direct positive association with the subordinate's trust. This might be accounted for by some other factors which were not taken into account in this study.

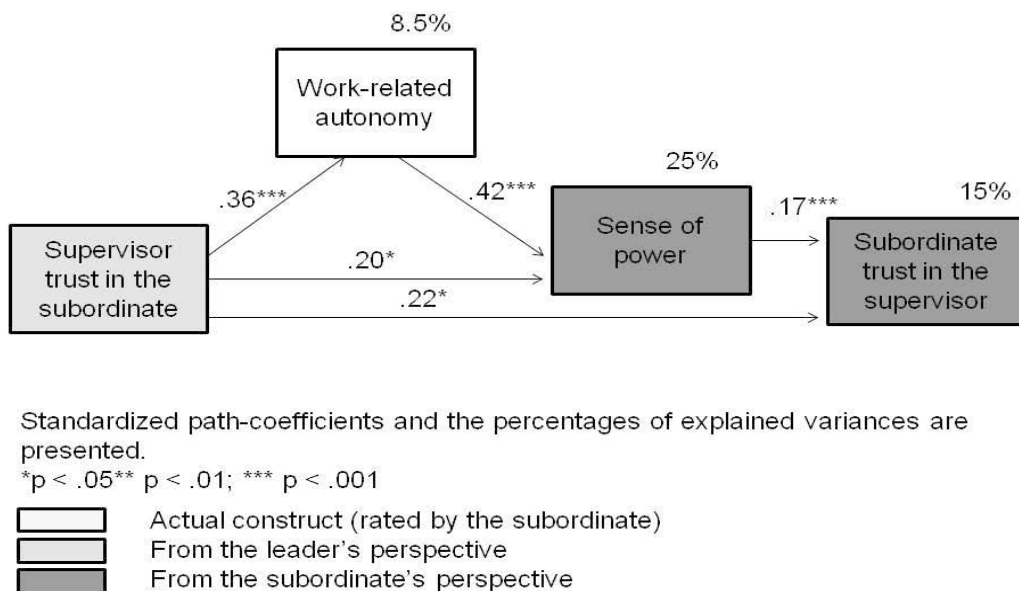
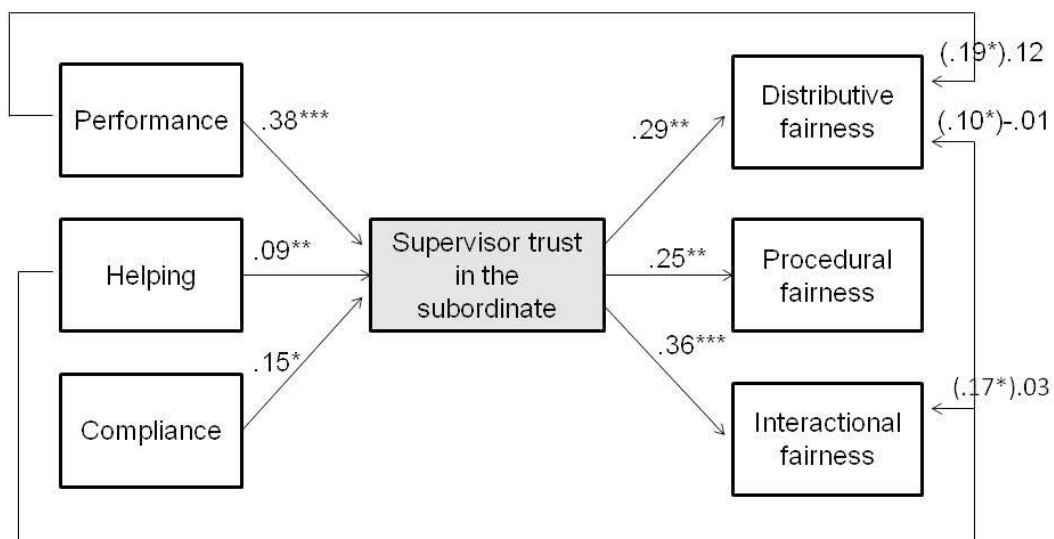


Figure 4 Development of the reciprocal trust in the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttilä-Backman, & Lipsanen, 2011)

Sub-study two consisted of a theoretical and empirical part. The empirical part found that the subordinate's cooperation was positively related to the supervisor's trust in the subordinate and supervisor's perceived fairness. Mediation analyses suggested that the supervisor's trust accounted for the positive relationship between the subordinate's cooperation and the supervisor's fairness. Findings of the study are presented in Figure 5. The presented trust-focused model of leaders' fairness enactment (see original article II) integrated leaders' and subordinates' perspectives on trust and fairness. The model supplemented the findings of the first study by suggesting that, in addition to autonomy, fairness also produces reciprocal trust in the supervisor-subordinate relationship, and that the subordinate's trust produces the supervisor's reciprocal trust through cooperation. The model also supplemented previous literature by suggesting that in addition to trust in the leader, subordinates' feelings of being trusted by the leader might account for the positive relationship between perceived fairness and cooperative behavior.



Standardized path-coefficients are presented. Only statistically significant mediated associations are presented; direct associations are in parentheses, and direct associations in the mediated model are presented. *p < .05 ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Figure 5 Subordinate's cooperation, supervisor's trust and perceived fairness

Sub-study three found that the supervisor's distributive, procedural and interactional fairness interacted with the supervisor's group prototypicality in predicting employee's trust in peers as a collective entity. The fairness of a more group-prototypical leader was positively related to employees' trust in peers, whereas fairness of a less group-prototypical leader was unrelated to

peer-directed trust. More precisely, results suggested that the perceived fairness of the group-prototypical leader does not necessarily enhance employees' trust in peers but that low levels of fairness are especially detrimental for trust in peers when the leader is perceived as group prototypical, as Figures 6a-6c show. Meanwhile, the level of trust in peers was rather high when the leader was rated as low group prototypical.

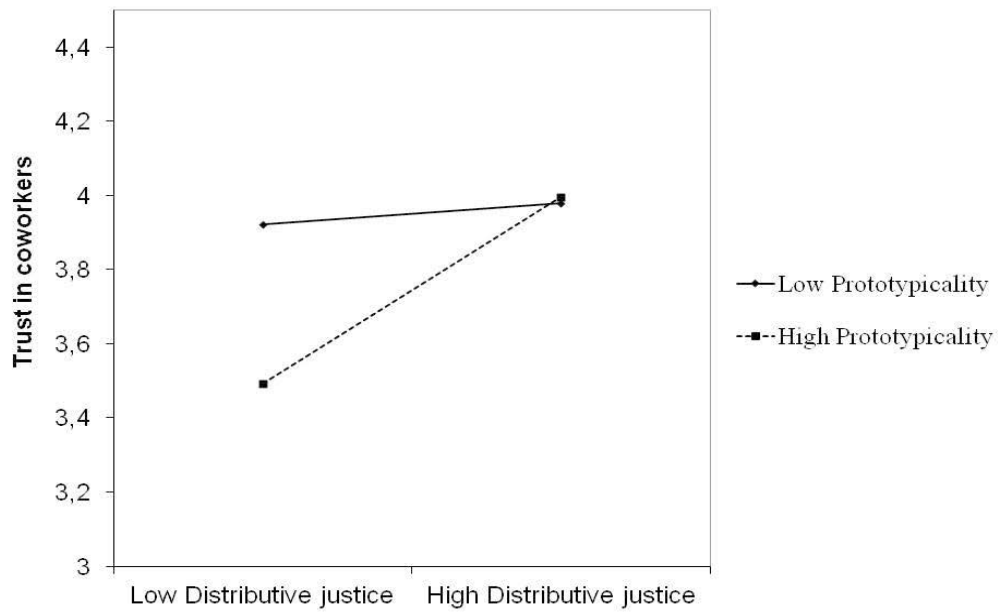


Figure 6a Supervisor's distributive fairness, group prototypicality and subordinate's trust in coworkers (Seppälä, Lipponen, & Pirttilä-Backman, 2012)



Figure 6b Supervisor's procedural fairness, group prototypicality and subordinate's trust in coworkers (Seppälä et al., 2012)

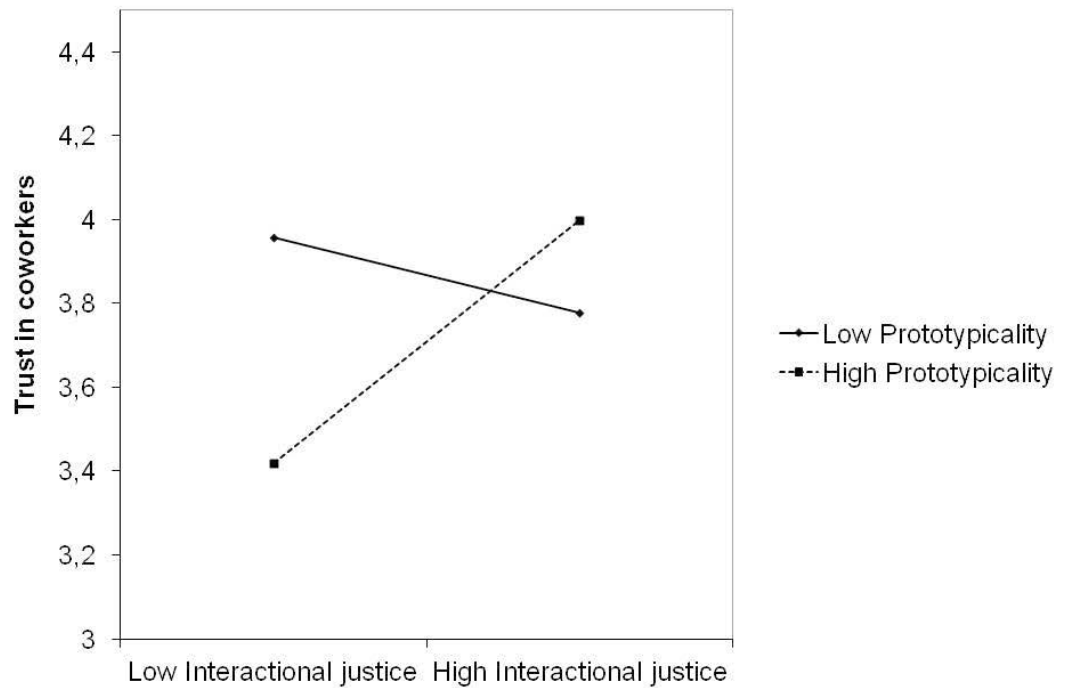


Figure 6c Supervisor interactional fairness, group prototypicality and subordinate's trust in coworkers (Seppälä et al., 2012)

Sub-study four found a three-way interaction between openness to change values, work unit identification and sense of power in predicting change-oriented OCB (see Figure 7). This interaction was interpreted so that two-way interaction of values and identification appeared only at the higher sense of power conditions but not when the sense of power was reported to be lower. In a high sense of power condition, values and identification interacted positively so that openness to change values was more positively related to change-oriented OCB for highly identified employees than for less identified employees. In a low power situation, the level of identification had no influence on the association between openness to change values and value expressive behavior.

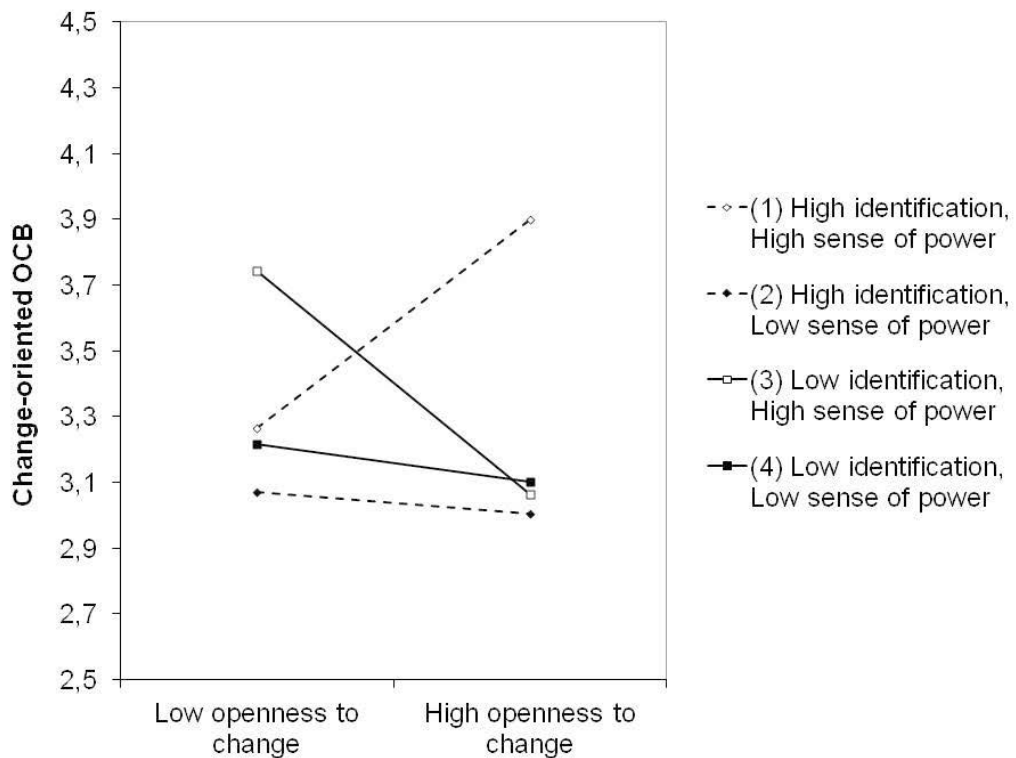


Figure 7 Openness to change values, work-unit identification and the sense of power in predicting change-oriented OCB (Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttilä-Backman, & Bardi, 2011)

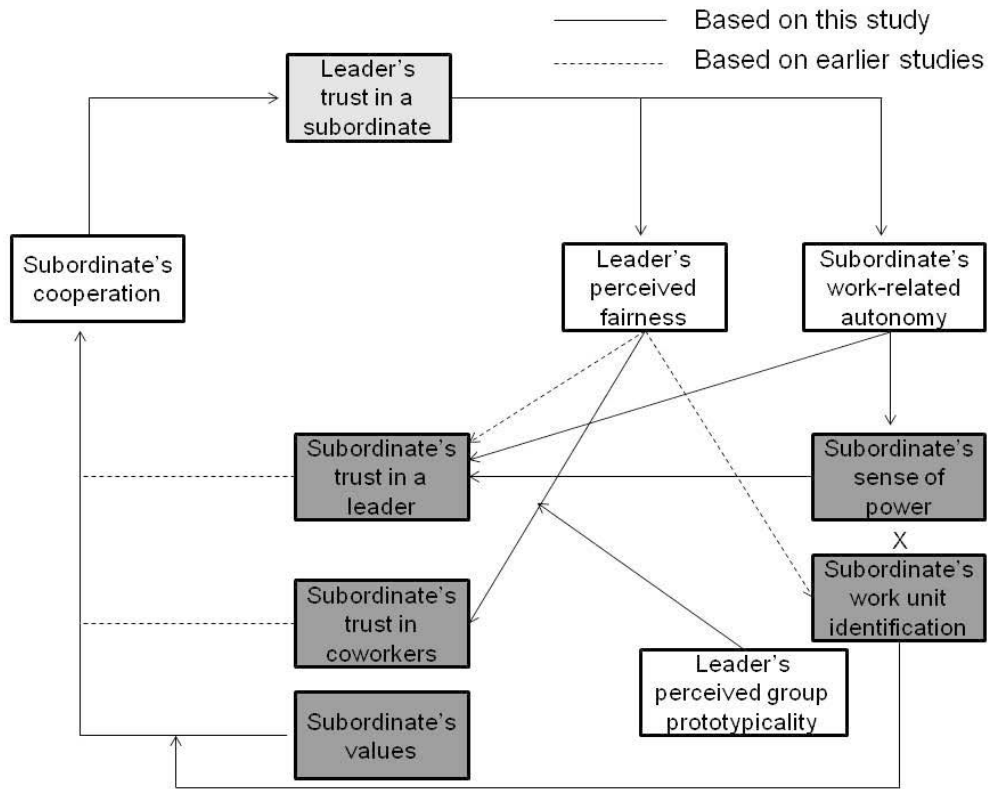


Figure 8 Model of reciprocal trust and cooperation in the supervisor-subordinate relationship

5 DISCUSSION

This dissertation focused on trust building and cooperation in the context of supervisor-subordinate relationships and small work units. Organizational relationships need trust, for instance, because trust lubricates daily interaction, decision making and cooperation. In sub-study II it was found that subordinates are able to earn their supervisors' trust by cooperating. Supervisors in turn are able to build subordinates' reciprocal trust by sharing power and acting fairly. Supervisors' fairness was also helpful in building employees' trust in their peers, but efficacy of fairness was dependent on supervisors' perceived group prototypicality. Trust in the supervisor and peers, in turn, are found to facilitate and motivate employees' cooperation. Cooperative actions were also found to be motivated by employees' personal values. A positive relationship between personal values and change-directed cooperative behaviors was, however, dependent on employees' identification and sense of power within the work unit. This suggested that leaders' trust in a subordinate also facilitates subordinates' abilities to pursue their personal values for the development of the work unit through fairness and power sharing, which in turn are associated with identification and sense of power, respectively. Thus, trust building and cooperation seem to be dynamic processes which work at multiple levels - intrapersonal, interpersonal and group levels - and these levels interact in producing trust and cooperation.

Next, the main findings of this study are discussed in more detail. After that, the discussion focuses on the limitations of this study, provides pointers for future studies and presents some practical implications concerning the found results.

5.1 RECIPROCAL TRUST AND POWER

Sub-study one (Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttilä-Backman, & Lipsanen, 2011) focused on the question how the leader's trust in a subordinate promotes the subordinate's reciprocal trust in the leader. The findings of the study suggested that a trustful supervisor is able to build the subordinate's reciprocal trust by sharing power. Power sharing, in turn, facilitated the subordinate's reciprocal trust because it enhanced the subordinate's sense of power. Based on the approach/inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003), it was assumed that a high sense of power is associated with affective and cognitive processes that are favorable for trust. Trust, in turn, was assumed to be beneficial for goal attainment, which is also associated with a high sense of power, but these underlying mechanisms were not actually studied in this research. The approach/inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003) or other recent cognitive power theories (Guinote, 2007; 2010) do

not recognize the role of trust. Trust is also absent from empirical studies on outcomes of the sense of power, although power is found to be related to other constructs closely associated with trust, such as risk-taking (e.g., Anderson et al., 2006). This study suggests that trust should be added to other approach tendencies recognized in the approach/inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003). The approach/inhibition theory of power suggests that approach tendencies, such as attention to rewards, positive emotions, automatic cognitions and trait-driven behavior, are activated in order that a powerful person is able to receive even more resources (Keltner et al., 2003). In terms of this goal, cooperation with other people is beneficial and thus the factors that facilitate cooperation, such as trust, might also be activated by the sense of power.

The finding that the supervisor's trust was positively related to the level of the subordinate's work-related autonomy was in line with previous studies on the outcomes of leaders' trust (e.g., Gómes & Rosen, 2001; Spreitzer & Mishra, 1999; Wells & Kipnis, 2001). This study supplements previous literature by showing why work-related autonomy actually accounts for trust building in hierarchical relationships. Empirical studies on trust development between parties are rare, even though reciprocity as such has been studied within the game theoretical paradigm (e.g., Deutsch, 1962) and leader-member exchange theory (see e.g., Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). However, the game theoretical paradigm reduces trust to calculated reciprocation to the other party's risk-taking behavior (see e.g., Ferrin et al., 2008; Williamson, 1993), and leader-member exchange theory focuses on the reciprocity of exchange rather than trust (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Reciprocal trust was understood in this study as a trust developed by the other party's trust such that trust is within a person and can be at different levels within parties. Previous studies on reciprocal trust have shown that mutuality of trust is frequently low (e.g., Brower et al., 2009; Serva et al., 2005) and the same was also found in this study. However, researchers have suggested that shared understanding on the level of trust between parties would be important for cooperation (Brower et al., 2009; Tomlinson et al. 2009).

Reciprocal trust between a supervisor and a subordinate was only partially explained by power sharing. In addition to autonomy, other mediators are also possible. Serva et al. (2005) found that delegation, reduced monitoring and formalization mediated trust between interacting teams. Ferrin et al. (2008) reported in another longitudinal study that cooperation accounted for the development of reciprocal trust. Moreover, they found that trust between parties developed without cooperation in face-to-face communication as parties found out trust-creating factors in each other. In the future, an integrative model of reciprocal trust development is needed. Based on the present and previous studies, power sharing, control reduction and cooperation seem potential mediators of trust between parties. These trusting actions have an influence on reciprocal trust though at least

two processes: through the perceived trustworthiness of the other party and through the trustee's conceptions of him- or herself in a specific relationship and context. These self-related conceptions can include a sense of power in a specific relationship, as was found in this study, and feelings of being trusted, which suggests that the author is better able to trust reciprocally when the other party's actions imply trust in the author (e.g., Brower et al., 2000; Gambetta, 1988).

What kind of trust can these factors then build between these interacting parties? General understanding on trust suggests that there are qualitatively different forms of trust, which are based on different antecedents (e.g., Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). If the influence of work-related autonomy on trust is accounted for by the sense of power – as this study suggests – the trust built is perhaps calculus-based. Lewicki and Bunker (1996) define calculus-based trust as “an ongoing, market-oriented, economic calculation whose value is derived by determining the outcomes resulting from creating and sustaining the relationship relative to the costs of maintaining or severing it” (pp. 119-120). This definition is in line with the presented idea that trust is an outcome of a sense of power because trust facilitates goal attainment, which is activated by the sense of power. In other words, trust rather than distrust is calculated to be efficient in goal attainment. Thus, trust promoted by the sense of power seems to be selfish rather than pure trust in another party's goodwill (see Eilam & Suleiman, 2004 for selfish and pure trust). On the other hand, because reciprocal trust was only partially explained by autonomy and a sense of power, there might also be other factors which are based on (from the leader's perspective) and created by (from the subordinate's perspective) other forms of trust within the parties and which together explain the total amount of trust in another party. For example, power sharing can also create knowledge-based trust by affecting the perceived trustworthiness of the trustor.

5.2 FAIRNESS MOTIVATION

Sub-study two (Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttilä-Backman, & Lipsanen, 2012) focused on leaders' fairness enactment. Cooperative employees were found to report more fairness than less cooperative and this association accounted for the supervisor's trust in a subordinate. This finding is in line with previous studies which suggest that leaders treat their subordinates differently depending on a subordinate's performance (e.g., Aquino & Bommer, 2003; Gilliland & Shepers, 2003; Shore, Bommer, & Shore, 2008; Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). The main contribution of this study was that it showed a mechanism which explains the influence of a subordinate's cooperation on a leader's fairness, namely trust.

This study also suggested a supplement for Scott et al.'s (2009) model on leaders' fairness motivation. Scott et al. (2009) have suggested that

subordinates' behaviors motivate leaders' fairness because leaders try to control subordinates future behaviors by following or violating justice rules, or because subordinates are perceived to deserve justice or injustice based on their behavior, or because subordinates' behavior elicits positive or negative sentiments within the leader. The results of this study suggest that, in addition to these factors, the leader's trust in a subordinate also motivates the leader's fairness. As Scott et al. (2009) noticed, leaders are willing to find justifications for justice rule adherence and violation. This study suggests that leaders might also justify their justice rule adherence and violation by appealing to their trust in a subordinate. This idea was illustrated recently by an incident in a Finnish organization. The organization dismissed an employee because she was considered to be uncooperative; the employee had publicly blamed her supervisor of employees' continual unfair treatment. The employee's dismissal was questioned widely, and it was considered unfair because the employee had instituted proceedings against her supervisor and the investigation was unfinished. The supervisor defended against the accusations of unfairness by appealing to a lack of trust in the redundant employee. This suggests that untrustworthiness and low levels of trust are so strong statements that people use those as arguments when they try to justify their dubious actions. This implies that trustworthiness and trust are important motivators of our actions, but this also illustrates that trust can be used unethically.

These findings can also be discussed from a less critical perspective. The character-based approach (Mayer et al., 1995) suggests that cooperation increases a leader's confidence in a subordinate's character as an employee. When the leader can trust the subordinate, the leader is more able to focus on taking care of his or her own duties than when he or she needs to control and monitor the subordinate. Thus, leaders might have more capacities to act fairly when trust is present because fairness demands more attendance and time than the violation of justice rules. Thus, trust can be seen to facilitate the leader's engagement in fairness, whereas a low level of trust inhibits leaders from following justice rules because of the limited resources. Moreover, people are found to approach trusted others and distance themselves from distrusted others (Murray et al., 2011). Hence, leaders may also cause the feelings of unfairness by distancing themselves from distrusted subordinates (see also Gilliland and Sheppers, 2003).

5.3 TRUST IN A COLLECTIVE ENTITY

Sub-study three (Seppälä, Lipponen, & Pirttilä-Backman, 2012) focused on a group member's trust in the group as a collective entity. The findings of the study suggested that a group supervisor's fairness was related to a member's trust in the group only when the supervisor was perceived to be high on the group prototypicality scale. A group prototypical leader is perceived to

represent the group's norms and values, and she or he is expected to be fair toward in-group members. Unfairness of a group prototypical leader creates uncertainty about the group's values and norms and promotes distrust among group members. In other words, the group prototypical leaders can not afford to be unfair toward in-group members. Thus, this finding is in line with studies that have shown that a leader's group prototypicality interacts with fairness (De Cremer et al., 2010; Lipponen et al., 2005), rather than substitutes it (see e.g., Van Knippenberg, 2011). Moreover, this finding was in accordance with the proposition (De Cremer et al., 2008; Van Knippenberg, 2011) that when the salient concern in group members' mind is the social evaluation by the leader, rather than the leader him- or herself, prototypicality enhances the influence of fairness.

Fairness also tells about group members' standing within the group. Employees who perceive that they have been fairly treated by the group prototypical leader feel that they are respected and important members of the group. As Kramer's (1994; 1998) theory on collective distrust suggests, these employees are secure in their standing in the group and are, hence, willing to trust the group. On the other hand, group members who think that the group prototypical leader treats them unfairly feel insecure and peripheral and, consequently, they are unwilling to trust the group. However, leaders who are less prototypical are unable to offer standing-related information, which is why their perceived fairness is unrelated to group directed trust. Hence, this study defined the role of leaders' fairness on trust in coworkers (see e.g., Forret & Love, 2008).

Although group prototypical leaders are found to be trusted more than less group prototypical leaders (Giessner & Van Knippenberg, 2008), in this study, the level of trust in coworkers was rather high when the leader was low on the group prototypicality scale. This finding might suggest that when the group leader is low on prototypicality, group members search for support and security from peers because group members do not have trust in the leader. This in turn creates cohesion and trust in the group. Social identity theory on leadership suggests (Hogg, 2001; Van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) that group prototypical leaders are effective because they are trusted to work for the good of the group. Thus, if the leader is low on group prototypicality, there is a lack of prototypicality-afforded trust in the leader, and employees are forced to turn to their peers for security and care. Although this finding suggests that the leader's low group prototypicality can indeed enhance group members' trust in the group, it also highlights the central role of prototypicality in leadership effectiveness: it is hard to lead or have an influence in cohesive groups if the leader is perceived to be peripheral or even an out-group member.

But what about the kind of trust created? Fairness is suggested to imply that the group is worthy of identification and fairness is also found to enhance identification (Blader & Tyler, 2009; Lipponen, Wisse, & Perälä, 2011; Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006; Tyler & Blader, 2000; 2003).

Identification, in turn, is suggested to have an influence on cognitive, affective and motivational processes so that in-group members are perceived as trustworthy and cooperative (Kramer, Brewer, & Hanna, 1996). Several empirical studies have also shown that identification predicts trust in a group (e.g., Han & Harms, 2010) (see e.g., suggestions by De Cremer, Van Dijke, & Bos, 2006 concerning reverse causality). So, fairness is likely to produce identification-based trust in a group, which is defined as “extremely positive confidence based on converged interests” (e.g., Lewicki & Bunker, 1996, pp. 122).

5.4 CHANGE-ORIENTED BEHAVIOR IN GROUPS

Sub-study four (Seppälä, Lipponen, Bardi, & Pirttilä-Backman, 2011) focused on employees' change-oriented OCB in work units. The findings of the study suggested that highly identified group members express their personal openness to change values by making suggestions for the development of the group only when they feel that they have power in the group. However, when identified employees felt that they had no power in the group, their personal values were unrelated to change-oriented OCB. These findings are in line with previous studies which suggest that when employees fail to make suggestions about change, they are not necessarily unmotivated but instead, other motives cause them to withhold their ideas rather than share them (see e.g., Milliken et al., 2003; Pinder & Harlos, 2001; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). The findings of the present study suggested that a sense of power determines whether other motivators (i.e., values and identification) lead to action or silence. Status quo-disturbing behaviors, such as change-oriented OCB or voice, can be risky behavior especially for highly identified group members. Identification is found to lead to conformity with group values and norms because deviance from the norms can lead to social rejection (e.g., Adarves-Yorno, Postmes, & Haslam, 2007; Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 2002). A high sense of power is likely to remove the shadow of identity-related risks because it reduces perceived risks in the social environment (e.g., Anderson & Galinsky, 2006). Moreover, the sense of power as a belief in one's ability to have an influence might also be related to perceived efficacy of the change-oriented OCB (e.g., Morrison, 2011) and is hence likely to enhance the positive interaction between values and identification.

In addition to the sense of power being associated with riskier behavior and the felt efficacy of efforts, the sense of power can be considered to imply an employee's position within the group. A high sense of power refers to a more central position or higher standing within the group, whereas a low sense of power is associated with a more peripheral position. Previous studies have shown that central or prototypical group members have more power in groups and that they have more power to define the group's identity, values and goals than more peripheral or less prototypical members

(e.g., Hogg & Reid, 2001). A high sense of power is also found to be related to self-expressive behavior derived from internal characteristics (e.g., Keltner et al., 2003). Thus highly identified employees with a high sense of power are able to follow their own values and at the same time pursue group goals. On the other hand, highly identified but more peripheral group members with a low sense of power are less able to follow their personal values in the group, at least if these values are related to status quo changes in the group. They need the acceptance of other group members and status quo-disturbing behavior might pose the threat of rejection and the loss of a positive group-related identity. As the approach/inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003) suggests, a low sense of power is associated with inhibition tendencies. These tendencies make the employees prone to distancing themselves from interaction and constraining their behavior by situational demands such as group norms. Moreover, these insecure group members may also ruminate more over others' possible reactions to their initiatives than central group members; consequently they perceive more risks and trust less in the workmates (Kramer, 1994; 1998). Thus these findings suggest that it is important to take into account the context – i.e., a group member's position within the group – when trying to understand the implications of identification for group members' behavior in groups (see also Spears, Ellemers, Doosje, & Branscombe, 2005 for similar ideas).

Finally, this study showed that power is not solely a destructive social force but rather power is needed even for prosocial behavior in organizations. The prevalent conception of power holds that power corrupts power holders' thoughts and behaviors (e.g., Fiske & Dépret, 1996; Tjosvold & Wu, 2009). Also the approach/inhibition theory of power (Keltner et al., 2003) suggests that power promotes the pursuance of personal aspirations and goals. However, our understanding of power is changing and researchers have shown that, under certain conditions, power may not lead to abuse and self-serving behaviors but that power holders may be willing to use their influence constructively for the benefits of the community. These moderating factors include felt responsibility, relationship orientation and orientation toward people rather than products (Chen, Lee-Chai, & Bargh, 2001; Overbeck & Park, 2001; 2006). This study supported this more positive conception of power by showing that power will lead to prosocial behavior together with identification, which makes the group related goals salient. The role of identification was important in terms of prosocial behavior; the association between openness to change values and change-oriented OCB was indeed negative for employees with high power but low identification. It is likely that these high power employees with low identification pursue their openness to change values through more self-serving ways (e.g. searching for a new job) and contribute less to the collective goals than identified employees. Thus, these moderating factors need to be integrated more closely to the theories and models on power.

5.5 LIMITATIONS

The results of this study are based on data from two organizations within one western country. Work units were rather small, and the majority of respondents were female. All these characteristics might limit the ability to generalize these findings. For example, cross- and intercultural studies on trust have shown that there are culture-related differences in the levels, antecedents, consequences, role, and meaning of trust (see Ferrin and Gillespie, 2010 for a review). Thus, the trust-related processes found in this study might be weaker, stronger or not present in other cultural contexts. Most of the cross- and intercultural studies on trust have utilized Hofstede's (2001) framework on cultural value differences. In terms of Hofstede's framework, Finland can be characterized as a relatively individualistic and low power-distance culture where the propensity to take risks is low (Hofstede, 2001). Moreover, the tendency to trust other people and institutions in general is at a high level (World value survey, 2005). In this kind of cultural context, it is reasonable to find what was found in this study, namely that reciprocal trust in hierarchical relationships is built partly through power sharing. The level of trust in general is suggested to be lower in high power distance cultures because people perceive others as a threat, and opportunistic behavior is more common than in low power distance cultures (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998). Studies in individualistic cultures suggest that control sharing is also a common antecedent of trust in that context (Wasti & Tan, 2010). However, reciprocity and risk-taking are not essential for trust building in all cultures (Cook, Yamagishi, Cheshire, Cooper, Matsuda, & Mashima, 2005; Holm & Danielson, 2005). Moreover, it remains open whether power sharing builds trust in high power distance cultures or whether given autonomy is experienced as confusing and the power sharing leader as incompetent rather than trustworthy.

Also, in terms of fairness, studies have shown that cultural value differences have an influence on the antecedents and outcomes of fairness (e.g., Leung, 2005). For example, the relationship between fairness and trust in the leader is found to be stronger in low rather than high power distance cultures (Lee, Pillutla, & Law, 2000). Moreover, individualized treatment is found to be more general in individualistic cultures, whereas collectivistic cultures prefer egalitarian treatment of in-group members (e.g., Triandis, 1995). These findings suggest that subordinates' cooperation and leader's trust in subordinates play a bigger role in leaders' fairness motivation in individualistic and competitive cultures valuing equity than in collectivistic cultures, which value social harmony in groups. Moreover, fairness might account more for the development of reciprocal trust in low rather than high power distance cultures. Social identity-related processes are also found to be more general in collectivistic than in individualistic cultures (Hinkle & Brown, 1990). Thus, the role of leader's fairness and prototypicality in terms of group members' trust in coworkers found in this study might be stronger

in more collectivistic cultures. However, findings in cross-cultural justice studies have been controversial (e.g., Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007) and it is hard to estimate how culturally dependent the findings of this study are.

Moreover, results concerning change-oriented OCB might be different in other cultural contexts. For example, in high power distance cultures, employees' behavior is determined more strictly by formal position and title than in low power distance cultures (Hofstede, 2001). Hence, employees in high power distance cultures might have fewer opportunities to pursue their personal values in the work context and to engage in change-oriented OCB in particular. Voice behavior is indeed found to be less frequent in high rather than low power-distance cultures (e.g., Botero & Van Dyne, 2009). Thus, personal initiative or suggestion making for change might not be considered cooperative behavior in high-power distance cultures (e.g., Organ et al., 2006). Furthermore, voice behavior is found to be targeted differently depending on the cultural context. For example, Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004) found that in China, employees' voice behavior aimed at preventing harms rather than actively changing the status quo.

As mentioned above, most of the respondents were female. Comparison of means and variances in study variables revealed two statistically significant differences in respect of sex: female employees had higher variance in leader's prototypicality assessments and on average, female employees received higher ratings on compliance. Correlations of study variables were in the same direction with both sexes apart from the correlation between autonomy and trust in the supervisor and interactional fairness and trust in coworkers. These correlations were negative but statistically non-significant with males and positive and significant with females. These analyses suggest that the role of autonomy in the development of reciprocal trust might be different for male than for female employees.

Research was conducted in rather small work units, and it is possible that the processes found are different in bigger units. Interaction and history-based experience are important factors in trust building (e.g., Kramer et al., 1996). Thus, in bigger units, supervisors and subordinates might have less direct contacts with each other or dense contacts are limited to some dyads. Hence, trust-building and the fairness motivation might be based less on interaction and more on structural factors when there are fewer opportunities for the development of real trust.

In terms of the reliability and validity of this study it can be asked how well the theoretical constructs were operationalized, and also how well these constructs were measured. A general problem in studies on trust has been the low consistency between the definition and measurement of the trust construct (e.g., Lewicki et al., 2006). In this study, we applied Mayer et al.'s (1995) definition and Mayer & Davis (1999) operationalization of trust, which are well in line with each other. However, in this research trust was treated as a unidimensional construct, although the literature suggests that trust has an

affective and a cognitive component (e.g., McAllister, 1995). Thus, affective-based trust was not fully covered in this study.

Fairness, in turn, was treated as a three-dimensional construct. Confirmatory factor analyses suggested that three factors were needed, although correlation between procedural and interactional fairness was high. There are some other limitations, however, related to the reliability of fairness measurement. The supervisor's fairness was rated by subordinates, while at the theoretical level, the research question focused on the supervisor's fairness motivation. In other words, the subordinate's perceptions of the leader's fairness were used as proxies for the leader's actual motivation to follow or violate justice rules. The formation of fairness perceptions is a complex process (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2001; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Stouten, Ceulemans, Timmerman, & Van Hiel, 2011), and the parties' assessments of fairness are prone to be different (e.g., Messick, Bloom, Boldizar, & Samuelson, 1985). Although subordinates' perceptions of fairness are important in practical terms, third-party information might have been more reliable.

The same kinds of concerns are also related to supervisors' ratings of subordinates' cooperation. Supervisors rated their subordinates on performance, compliance, helping and change-oriented OCB. Supervisors' knowledge of their subordinates' performance and behavior in work units is limited and various perceptual and memory biases are possible (e.g., Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russel, 2000). Thus, Allen et al. (2000) suggests that multiple sources should be used in order to enhance the reliability of ratings. However, the systematic bias produced by the fact that employees were nested within supervisors was taken into account by modeling the work unit as a level-two factor in all the sub-studies.

All the variables seemed to correlate with other variables as the theories suggested, which indicates that the nomological validity of this study was good. However, common method bias can be a problem in studies using self-reported and single-source data (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Only one sub-study in this dissertation (study III), however, included solely single-source data. Although various procedures were conducted in order to reduce the bias (see e.g., the original article IV), concern over common method bias could have been reduced further by modeling a method factor. However, the complexity of the models in relation to the size of the data allowed no extra variables to be modeled.

Perhaps the most serious limitation of this research concerns the cross-sectional design. All the presented hypotheses included a causal statement but hypotheses were tested by using cross-sectional data. Thus, this research was unable to offer conclusive evidence for causality and alternative causal interpretations are possible. Although field studies are needed when relational phenomena such as trust are studied, the evidence of causality can be obtained only by experimental or longitudinal studies. Some findings of this study are vulnerable to alternative causal interpretations. In sub-study

II, it was suggested that the relationship between an employee's cooperation and a leader's fairness enactment is recursive so that the leader's fairness does not only have an influence on the employee's cooperation, as suggested in previous studies, but that cooperation has an influence also on fairness. Although various arguments were presented to support this causal direction, conclusive empirical or experimental evidence was not offered in this study. An alternative interpretation could be that leaders infer from their own fairness that they trust their subordinates and by showing that trust, they enhance subordinates' cooperation.

Finally, the contributions of this study to the utilized theories remained limited. Hypotheses were drawn from various theories but all the underlying mechanisms suggested by these theories were not actually studied. In sub-study II, a subordinate's cooperation was presented to predict a leader's trust through trustworthiness, as the Integrative model on organizational trust suggests (Mayer et al., 1995). Moreover, various mechanisms were suggested explaining the association between a leader's trust and his or her fairness enactment. However, these mechanisms were not measured. In sub-study III, based on the relational theories of fairness (e.g., Tyler & Blader, 2003), perceived fairness was suggested to inform employees of their standing in the group. It was further suggested that standing is related to the level of self-consciousness, rumination and vigilance, as Kramer's theory on collective distrust (1994; 1998) suggests, but these psychological factors were not actually studied. Hence, the study would have benefitted from a more fine-grained approach, which would have produced a deeper understanding about underlying processes.

5.6 FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The above limitations point to possible directions for future studies. First, the development of reciprocal trust and a leader's fairness enactment needs to be studied longitudinally. All the constructs should be measured at least in three time points, in order that the causal directions can be analyzed. Second, a more fine-grained approach is needed to study the underlying psychological processes. For example, empirical evidence on Kramer's (1994; 1998) theory on collective distrust is limited and experimental studies are needed to find out whether fairness actually predicts the level of self-consciousness, rumination and vigilance and if these, in turn, predict the level of trust in a collective entity. Further, the cross-cultural validity of these findings should be tested.

One particular issue which has not yet been discussed here but which deserves further attention is the relationship between trust and approach tendencies. On the one hand, it was presented (study I) that a high sense of power is associated with approach tendencies and that trust helps people approach others. On the other hand, it was presented (study II) that people

are prone to approach those in whom they trust and distance themselves from distrusted people (Murray et al., 2011). Thus, it was suggested that trust is both an outcome or a correlate and a predictor of approach tendencies. However, trust was suggested as being qualitatively different in these two studies; calculated trust was suggested as an outcome or a correlate of approach tendencies and pure trust was suggested as a predictor of approach tendencies. Hence, future studies should try to find empirical evidence for these ideas and, as such, enhance the limited knowledge about qualitatively different forms of trust (e.g., Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006; McAllister, Lewicki, & Chaturvedi, 2006).

In general, more studies on the development of reciprocal trust should be conducted. Reciprocity is suggested to be an essential part of trust relationships in many ways (e.g., Schoorman et al., 2007) but there are only a few studies which have actually focused on the development of trust between parties (e.g., Serva et al., 2005). This means that psychological and behavioral trust need to be combined in the research (e.g., Lewicki et al., 2006). Theoretical models about reciprocal trust development are also needed. Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model on trust could be one starting point for a model of reciprocal trust development (see also, Lewicki et al., 2006). The model should define the risk-taking behaviors which enhance the trustee's perceptions of the trustor's trustworthiness and the mechanisms which account for the trust building influence of the risk-taking actions. As already mentioned, potential risk-taking actions include control reduction, power sharing and cooperation. In addition to the trustor's trustworthiness, these risk-taking actions might build trust by affecting employees' sense of power and feelings of being trusted. The feelings of being trusted might be critical for the development of reciprocal trust. Namely, although the mutuality of trust is found to be low in the leader-subordinate relationships (e.g., Brower et al., 2009), the correlations between the feelings of being trusted and reciprocal trust are found to be notably larger (e.g., Lester et al., 2003; Salamon & Robinson, 2008). Thus, one reason for the low levels of mutuality might be that the communication and perception of trust are limited. Brower et al.'s (2000) model of relational leadership recognizes the path from the leader's risk-taking actions (i.e., behavioral trust) to the subordinate's perceptions of this trust and further to the subordinate's behavior, but the model does not take into account the possible reciprocal trust in the leader (see Figure 2). Thus, future studies should pay attention to the feelings of being trusted in the development of trust between the parties.

Although the relationship between trust and fairness has been studied and theorized for some time, there is still much to investigate. One recent example is Colquitt and Rodell's (2011) study in which they tested hypotheses of various theoretical models concerning fairness-trust associations, apart from the character-based approach. In that longitudinal study, they found that trustworthiness and fairness should be treated as reciprocally evolving phenomena which have a further influence on trust as a behavioral intention.

An approach which integrates different theoretical explanations is needed because it enhances a perspective from a snapshot to a process in which phenomena evolve together. In addition to the intrapersonal level, presented in Colquitt and Rodel's paper, integrative approach should also be applied at the interpersonal level which takes into account the different perspectives of interacting parties. The trust-focused model of the leader's fairness enactment presented in this dissertation (paper II) is a step towards that end. However, the model was only partially tested in this study, and thus in the future the model should be fully tested and theoretical ideas further developed. Furthermore, because trust, fairness and cooperation seem to evolve reciprocally and also recursively it might be impossible to say what the causal order of these phenomena is. Thus, in the future, qualitative studies which focus on employees' understanding of these phenomena are needed.

Future studies are also needed on the relationship between fairness and the leader's group prototypicality. Findings have been controversial suggesting substitutive and supplemental relationships between these phenomena. Van Knippenberg (2011) has recently suggested that controversial findings might imply that when concern for the leader's trustworthiness is salient, prototypicality attenuates the influence of fairness, but when the social evaluation by leaders is the salient concern, prototypicality enhances fairness effects. The sub-study III supports this statement but studies which test both processes at the same time are still needed.

In terms of value congruent behavior in the work context, the reliability of the suggested mechanisms could be further tested by studying the role of identification and a sense of power in associations between other values and value congruent behavior. In this research, dyadic relationships between a supervisor and a subordinate were studied without taking into account the group-level factors, such as a normative-climate for change. One important challenge for the future is to take these different levels (individual, interpersonal, group) into account.

5.7 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

This research has several practical implications. Researchers and practitioners have put their efforts into building subordinates' trust in leaders, managers and organizations. However, this study suggests that leaders' trust in their subordinates is indeed essential both in terms of subordinates' trust in the leader and in peers and further in subordinates' willingness to cooperate for the benefits of the organization. Thus, organizations and work units could benefit from investments in their leaders' and supervisors' willingness to trust in their subordinates. Because real trust building demands experience and knowledge of the other party's trustworthiness (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995), this means time for interaction and contacts between supervisors and subordinates so that they learn to know

each other. Moreover, trust is within a person and leaders need to communicate their trust in order that the subordinates become aware of leaders' trust. Furthermore, leaders should be able to feel that their own position in the organization is secure. Power sharing and dependence on subordinates is not necessarily easy for leaders and they may feel that their role and contribution will diminish as the employee's autonomy increases (Batt, 2004). Thus organizations should take care of leaders' and supervisors' fair treatment so that they are able to feel that they are respected and valued by the organization.

On the other hand, all the employees may not be trustworthy and thus it is important that, beside character- and relationship-based trust created in the course of interactions, there are other factors which offer bases for trust. These factors might be related to organizational structure, HR policies and organizational culture (Whitener et al., 1998). For example, the leader's possibilities to monitor their subordinates' performance might help them to trust in subordinates at a certain level. On the other hand, these monitoring activities can also prevent real trust from developing (e.g., Ferrin et al., 2007). However, leaders might also be able to influence their subordinates' trustworthiness. Leaders can show an example by their own behavior and create normative expectations about desirable performance and behavior (e.g., Kramer, 1999). Moreover, uncooperativeness and negative reciprocity might be turned into positive reciprocity by initiating trust within uncooperative subordinates by showing that they are trusted to do their best, in which case these subordinates should become more cooperative (e.g., Brower et al., 2009). This requires extra efforts in fairness which in turn demand time and knowledge about factors that influence fairness perceptions. Moreover, this study suggests that subordinates are able to influence the treatment they receive by doing their best in their work and voluntarily participating in helping others. Employees should be made aware that their own contribution also matters because employees might justly expect that it is the leader's responsibility to treat all the employees equally (e.g., Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

Time and interaction between supervisors and subordinates is also needed to assess how much autonomy each subordinate is willing to accept. Power sharing does not automatically enhance the subordinate's trust in the leader. Employees are different in how much autonomy they feel comfortable with. As this study showed, autonomy affects positively on trust because it enhances a sense of power but the reasons for power sharing might also be attributed to factors that do not support trust building, such as disregard and work overload (e.g., Bijlsma-Frankema & van de Bunt, 2003; Kalleberg, Nesheim, & Olsen, 2009). Thus, it is important that power is shared in a way which makes employees feel that they are trusted and that their sense of power is enhanced rather than diminished.

Even though the group prototypical leader might be excused of unfairness because he or she is trusted (e.g., Ullrich et al., 2009), sub-study four of this

dissertation suggests that unfairness may still have negative consequences on how employees perceive their relationships with coworkers. Hence, prototypical group leaders should also seek to treat all group members fairly both in distribution of varied outcomes and in interactions, as well as following the rules of procedural fairness.

Finally findings of this study imply that in times that call for change in the workplace, organizations can benefit from people who value openness to change, identify with their work unit and have a high sense of power. With regard to values, it does not necessarily make sense to try to influence them because the opposite values of conservation are beneficial to the organization in quiet times as well as for certain roles (e.g., Gandal, Roccas, Sagiv, & Wrzesniewski, 2005). Moreover, employees' engagement in other forms of organizationally beneficial behavior may be motivated by other values. Instead, organizations should make their employees feel motivated and comfortable to express their values in organization-enhancing ways. This research suggests that this may happen through the simultaneous enhancement of social identification and employees' sense of power, as the results show that identification matters only when employees feel that they have power. Leaders' trust and fairness are also essential in enhancing these factors. Fairness in distribution, procedures and interactions communicate to employees that the organization is worthy of identifying with and that its employees are valued and respected (Blader & Tyler, 2009). A commitment to justice in the workplace may also enhance employees' belief in their ability to have an influence (i.e., power) in their organization. For example, perceived distributive and interactional justice may be related to the experienced sufficiency of the recourses (e.g., respect, information), and procedural justice (e.g., rule of representativeness) may be related to the perceived ability to express one's ideas and to be heard. Support and a positive climate for innovation may enhance an employee's sense of power. Moreover, a sense of psychological safety – the employee's sense of being able to express him or herself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career (Kahn, 1990, pp. 708) – may also enhance a sense of power.

5.8 CONCLUSIONS

Some researchers have argued that the enthusiasm about trust has gone too far and it would be time to rethink trust. For example, Roderick Kramer (2009) argues that people are overly trusting as several scandals in the business world, for example, have shown. According to Kramer, trust is a default position and humans are predisposed to trust because trust has been beneficial in the course of evolution. Perceived similarity, physical touch and a squirt of oxytocin are enough to make us ready to trust in others' words and intentions. Moreover, several judgemental biases, such as confirmation bias,

implicit theories, a tendency to think that one's own judgments are better than average, the illusion of personal invulnerability and unrealistic optimism, boost the human tendency to take undue risks.

Overconfidence can have detrimental consequences (e.g., Moore & Swift, 2011). On the other hand, the predisposition to distrust and unfounded suspicions lead to lost possibilities. Where the line goes between justified trust and gullibility, is not an easy question to be answered. Kramer (2009) concludes that we should learn to trust judiciously: we should know ourselves; start with small risks; have an escape clause; signal that we are trustworthy but not naïve; take the other party's perspective; take into account the roles, remain vigilant and question things. Trust as such might not produce much good if the trustee is untrustworthy. However, by communicating that we are trustworthy and willing to trust we might be able to build trust and enhance other party's trustworthiness.

APPENDIX

Measures of the study.

Sub-study I

Supervisor's trust in a subordinate

- I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on him/her (reversed)
- I would be comfortable giving him/her a task or problem that was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions
- If I had my way, I wouldn't let him/her have any influence over issues that are important to me (reversed)
- I trust him/her as an employee (invented for this study)

Subordinate's trust in a supervisor

- If I had my way, I would not let my supervisor have any influence over issues that are important to me (reversed)
- I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this work unit
- I would be comfortable giving my supervisor a task or problem that was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions
- I really wish that I had a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor (reversed)
- If someone questioned my supervisor's motives, I would give him/her the benefit of the doubt

Subordinate's Sense of power

In my relationship with others in my work unit

- I can get people to listen to what I say
- My wishes do not carry much weight (reversed)
- Even if I voice them, my views have little sway (reversed)
- My ideas and opinions are often ignored (reversed)
- Even when I try, I am unable to get my way (reversed)
- If I want to, I get to make the decision
- I can get others to do what I want (omitted)
- I think I have a great deal of power (omitted)

Subordinate's work-related autonomy

- My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own
- I have a lot of say about what happens in my job
- In my job I have very little freedom to decide how I do my work (reversed)

Sub-study II

Subordinate's in-role performance

- She/he meets the qualitative requirements of his/her work
- She/he gets her/his work done on time
- She/he really puts effort into her/his work

Subordinate's helping behavior

- She/he assists others in this unit with their work for the benefit of the group
- She/he voluntarily helps orient new employees in this group
- She/he helps other in this group with their work responsibilities

Subordinate's compliance

- She/he follows working hours regulations with exactness
- She/he does not question workplace regulations
- She/he follows workplace practices exactly

Supervisor's trust in a subordinate

See study I

Distributive fairness

As far as I am concerned, the decisions my immediate supervisor makes concerning the distribution of work are fair

- considering the responsibilities
- in view of the amount of experience I have
- for the amount of effort I put in
- for the quality of my performance
- for the stress and strain of my job
- for my competence
- in relation to others doing a similar job

Procedural fairness

- My supervisor involves all sides in decision-making
- My supervisor generates standards so that decisions can be made with consistency
- My supervisor collects accurate information necessary for decision-making
- My supervisor provides opportunities to appeal or challenge decisions
- My supervisor hears the concerns of all those affected by a decision
- My supervisor provides useful feedback regarding the decision and its implementation
- My supervisor allows for requests for clarification or additional information about the decision

Interactional fairness

- My supervisor considers subordinates' viewpoints
- My supervisor provides us with timely feedback about the decision and its implications
- My supervisor shows concern about our rights as employees
- My supervisor treats employees with kindness and consideration
- My supervisor can be trusted (omitted)
- My supervisor took steps to deal with us in a truthful manner

Sub-study III

Distributive fairness

See study II

Procedural fairness

See study II

Interactional fairness

See study II

Leader's group prototypicality

- My supervisor represents what is characteristic about people who work in our work unit
- My supervisor is very similar to most employees in our work unit
- My supervisor is a good example of the kind of people who work in our unit
- My supervisor is not representative of the kind of people who work in our unit (reversed)

Trust in coworkers as a collective entity

- If I had my way I would not let my coworkers have any influence over issues that are important to me (reversed)
- I can rely on my coworkers
- I would be comfortable giving my coworkers a task which I'm responsible for if I do not have the time to do it myself
- I would feel comfortable talking explosive issues to my coworkers

Sub-study IV

Openness to change values

To what extend are the following people like or not like you?

- Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to her/him. She/he likes to do things in her/his own original way
- She/he likes surprises and is always looking for new things to do. She/he thinks it is important to do lots of different things in life

Change-oriented OCB

How often during the past year has (the name of the subordinate)

- suggested work improvement ideas regarding your work unit to you
- suggested changes to unproductive working methods in your work unit to coworkers
- changed the way she/he works to improve her/his efficiency

Work unit identification

- When I talk about this unit, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'
- When someone criticizes this unit, it feels like a personal insult
- I am not interested in what others think about this unit (reversed)
- This unit's successes are my successes
- When someone praises this unit, it feels like a personal compliment
- This unit has a lot of personal importance to me

Subordinate's sense of power

See study I

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