

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

It's not you, it's them: Social influences on trust propensity and trust dynamics

Michael D. Baer¹  | Fadel K. Matta² | Ji Koung Kim¹  |
David T. Welsh¹  | Niharika Garud³

¹Arizona State University

²University of Georgia

³The University of Melbourne

Correspondence

Michael D. Baer, Department of Management & Entrepreneurship, W. P. Carey School of Business, Arizona State University, P.O. Box 874006, Tempe, AZ 85287-4006, USA.
Email: mikebaer@asu.edu

Abstract

Scholars agree that trust primarily has two bases: trustworthiness—the extent to which a trustee is competent, honest, and has goodwill toward the trustor—and trust propensity—a stable trait reflecting the trustor's generalized belief that others can be trusted. Due to this trait characterization, the literature has largely reached a consensus that trust propensity is only an important base of trust in the earliest stage of a relationship—before information on trustworthiness has been gathered. Additionally, the trait conceptualization of trust propensity inhibits it from being modeled as an explanatory mechanism. Drawing on accessibility theory, a theory of trait activation, we argue that trust propensity has state-like characteristics that are “activated” by the daily treatment an employee receives from coworkers. Our model highlights that the social context—predominantly ignored in prior trust research because of its lack of relevance to dyadic perceptions of trustworthiness—can have a substantial impact on dyadic trust. Across two multisource experience sampling methodology studies, we provide evidence that state trust propensity transmits the effects of citizenship and deviance received to trust in a focal coworker, whether that focal coworker is a source of that treatment or not. We also address how general levels of workplace unfairness—a between-person construct—influence these dynamics. We discuss the theoretical and practical implications of these within-person dynamics for fostering trust within organizations.

1. | INTRODUCTION

A defining feature of productive workplace relationships is *trust*—the willingness to be vulnerable to another person without an ability to monitor or control that person's actions (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Among its many benefits, trust enables cooperation (Deutsch, 1962; Gambetta, 1988), strengthens social exchange relationships (Blau,

1964), reduces employees' need to "watch their backs" (Bromiley & Cummings, 1995; Mayer & Gavin, 2005), and ultimately improves job performance (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Given these numerous benefits, scholars have devoted considerable effort to exploring the factors that lead to trust. These efforts have centered on the proposal that there are two primary predictors of trust: *trustworthiness*—the extent to which the trustee is perceived to be competent, honest, and have the best interests of the trustor at heart—and *trust propensity*—a trait reflecting the trustor's generalized belief that the words and deeds of others can be relied on (Mayer et al., 1995).

Summarizing the literature's consensus view of trust propensity, Mayer et al. (1995, p. 716) argued that it is "a trait that is stable across situations" (for a recent review see Lyu & Ferrin, 2018). Due to this characterization, the literature has limited its role to the earliest stage of trust development (McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998). To illustrate, consider an employee who has just been introduced to a new coworker. The employee does not yet have any "data" on whether this coworker can be trusted. Consequently, the employee's initial trust in this new coworker is necessarily based on trust propensity rather than trustworthiness. An employee with high trust propensity will naturally be inclined to trust this coworker, whereas an employee with low trust propensity should be hesitant to trust this coworker. Through interactions within the dyad, the employee quickly learns whether the coworker is competent, honest, and has the employee's best interests at heart. As the employee accumulates data on whether this particular coworker is good and honest, the generalized belief that *people* are good and honest should become less salient (Johnson-George & Swap, 1982; Mayer et al., 1995; Rotter, 1980). McKnight et al. (1998, p. 477) proposed that this data will quickly "swamp the effects" of trust propensity in ongoing relationships—a proposal supported by laboratory and field research (Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005; van der Werff & Buckley, 2017).

Given how quickly the role of trust propensity is expected to wane, the literature has focused almost exclusively on the notion that trust in an individual is based on observations of that individual's behavior (Abrams, Cross, Lesser, & Levin, 2003; Levin & Cross, 2004; Mayer et al., 1995; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Levin and Cross (2004), for example, demonstrated that strong ties between an employee and coworker made that coworker's behavior more visible to the employee, thereby facilitating assessments of trustworthiness. In a similar vein, scholars have argued that a better understanding of trust development within the workplace should naturally start with a focus on intradyadic behaviors (Ferris et al., 2009). It is intuitive, therefore, that the literature has reached an implicit consensus that trust propensity is generally not an important consideration in most workplace relationships.

We propose that this consensus is incomplete and problematic. It is incomplete because it ignores developments outside the trust literature, which have demonstrated that many generalized tendencies are not as stable as once believed. Scholars have established that individuals regularly exhibit meaningful variations from their baseline dispositional tendencies, with these variations clarifying dynamics that are not otherwise apparent (Cervone, 2005; Fleeson & Jolley, 2006; Judge, Simon, Hurst, & Kelley, 2014; Mischel & Shoda, 2008). This consensus is problematic because it has led trust scholars to overlook predictors of trust that lie outside the dyad, specifically the role of the social context (Cook & Hardin, 2001; Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2006; Kramer, 1996, 1999). Ferrin et al. (2006, p. 870) observed this is a critical oversight, as in actual organizations "dyads rarely operate in isolation from their social context."

Our goal in this article is to shift the literature's consensus on the nature of trust propensity, thereby encouraging a focus on the role of the social context in trust dynamics. Whereas the literature has assumed that an employee's trust propensity is a stable inclination to trust others, we draw on research on "personality states"—temporary fluctuations in traits (Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009)—to suggest that the inclination to trust others can vary on a daily, within-person basis. Whereas a personality trait pertains to how a person is *in general*, a personality state pertains to how a person is *at a specific moment* (Huang & Ryan, 2011). Adopting this terminology, we propose that the trait component of trust propensity, which conveys the notion "I am *generally* inclined to trust others," exists alongside a state-like component, which conveys the notion "*Right now* I am inclined to trust others."

To illustrate these dynamics, consider the dyadic relationship between an employee and a focal coworker. Traditional trust perspectives suggest that the behavior of coworkers outside that dyad should be irrelevant to the employee's trust in that coworker (Ferrin et al., 2006). This is an intuitive suggestion when trust propensity is conceptualized as a static trait, as current models of trust do not provide a pathway for the social context to influence trust. Indeed, the behavior of coworkers is unlikely to "move the needle" on the dispositional notion that "I am

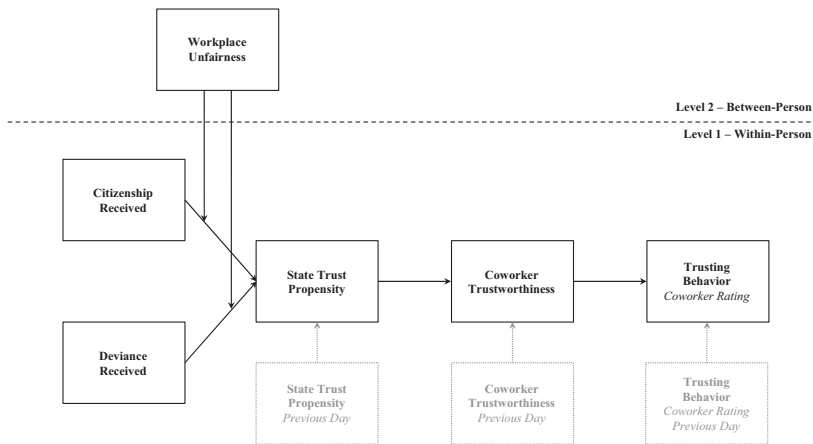


FIGURE 1 Hypothesized model

generally inclined to trust others.” It follows from this perspective that, for example, being treated positively by coworkers in the morning, although potentially beneficial to those relationships, should have no bearing on whether the employee trusts a different coworker later in the day.

This scenario has a very different conclusion if trust propensity also has state-like attributes. With this lens, consider an employee who receives particularly positive treatment from coworkers on a given day. This employee is receiving clear signals that people can be relied on—that they are deserving of trust and will not exploit the employee. On that day, compared to days when less positive treatment is received, the employee is more likely to endorse the notion “Right now I am inclined to trust others.” This inclination may influence the employee’s later interactions with coworkers for a limited time—whether those coworkers were a source of the treatment or not. When trust propensity is conceptualized as having state-like attributes, it becomes a potential avenue for the social context to influence dyadic trust.

The question now becomes, what aspects of the social context might cause people to experience momentary fluctuations in their trust propensity? To answer this question, we draw on research outlining the foundations of trait conceptualizations of trust propensity. Trust propensity is formed early in life as children interpret the positive and negative treatment they receive from significant others—such as family members, peers, and teachers—as signals of whether people in general can be relied on (for reviews, see Bernath & Feshbach, 1995; Webb & Worchel, 1986). Likewise, the key to understanding the state component of trust propensity may be the positive and negative treatment that the trustor has *recently* received. Just as the treatment received in early childhood forms a trait belief that people in general can be trusted, the treatment that is received from coworkers on a day-to-day basis may contribute to a state belief that people in general can be trusted. We conceptualize positive and negative treatment in the workplace as the citizenship (e.g., helping, kindness, inclusion, loyalty) and deviance (e.g., harming, rudeness, exclusion, gossip) received by the trustor from coworkers (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Shao, Resick, & Hargis, 2011).

Drawing on accessibility theory (Higgins, 1996, 2011), which outlines the causes and outcomes of trait activation, we develop a theoretical model that proposes a consideration of citizenship and deviance received will, on a day-to-day basis, cause state-like fluctuations in trust propensity (see Figure 1). Across two experience sampling methodology (ESM) studies, we explore this relationship and the downstream effects of citizenship and deviance received—through state trust propensity—on an employee’s trust in a focal coworker. Study 1 serves as an initial test of our proposals. In Study 2, we replicate our test while more explicitly controlling for any potential confounding effects of the focal coworker’s treatment of the employee. We also examine the boundary conditions of these effects in Study 2 by incorporating workplace unfairness as a cross-level moderator.

Our research makes several contributions to the trust literature. First, our work builds and extends theory by suggesting that trust propensity exhibits state-like characteristics. This proposal provides a corrective to the trust

literature, which has characterized trust propensity as static (Gill et al., 2005; Lyu & Ferrin, 2018; Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998; Mooradian, Renzl, & Matzler, 2006). We also make a contribution by highlighting the importance of the social context to dyadic trust. Although research outside the trust literature has acknowledged that coworkers influence job attitudes and behaviors (Beehr & Drexler, 1986; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Schneider, 1987), scholars have noted that the trust literature has not attended to these social dynamics (Cook & Hardin, 2001; Ferrin et al., 2006; Kramer, 1999). By demonstrating the state-like attributes of trust propensity, our research reveals a mechanism through which coworkers can shape and define how employees generally perceive those around them. Our research is also practically relevant. Proposals for fostering trust within organizations have focused on improving within-dyad behavior (Ferrin et al., 2006; Ferris et al., 2009; Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002; Kramer, 1999). By acknowledging the role of social influences, our research provides a more universal approach. In sum, our work shifts the consensus about trust propensity and social influences on trust in ways that could not be extrapolated from the literature. Given the demonstrated benefits of trust, these dynamics should be of interest to all organizations.

2. | THEORY DEVELOPMENT

The notion that people have trait tendencies to trust has received considerable attention. This stream of inquiry largely stemmed from Rotter's (1967, 1971, 1980) proposal that trust is based on a person's generalized faith in human nature. This trait tendency to trust has been referred to as dispositional trust (Kramer, 1999), generalized trust (Stack, 1978), faith in humanity (McKnight et al., 1998), and trust propensity (Mayer et al., 1995). Scholars agree that trust propensity begins to take shape in early childhood (Deutsch & Krauss, 1965; Erikson, 1963; Rotter, 1971; Webb & Worchel, 1986) and is solidified in adolescence through experiences with peers, teachers, and significant others (Flanagan & Stout, 2010; Katz & Rotter, 1969; Rotter, 1967; Sakai, 2010; Webb & Worchel, 1986).

This trait perspective was subsequently incorporated into models of trust in the organizational literature, such as Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative model of trust. Echoing Mayer and colleagues' trait characterization, McKnight et al. (1998) contended that trust propensity is "a consistent tendency to be willing to depend on others across a broad spectrum of situations and persons—a personality construct" (p. 477). Likewise, Gill et al. (2005, p. 289) argued that "propensity to trust...refers to an individual's general willingness to trust others. This construct represents a stable individual difference." In a meta-analysis of the trust literature, Colquitt et al. (2007, p. 911) noted that the literature has treated trust propensity as a "personality-based" predictor of trust. Lyu and Ferrin (2018) summarized these proposals in a recent narrative review of the antecedents of trust, stating: "Propensity to trust is considered to be a dispositional, stable within-person factor" (p. 77). This consensus view of trust propensity has also been confirmed by empirical research outside the organizational literature. Following a narrative review and an analysis of multiple sets of multiyear panel data, Uslaner (2008) concluded, "The belief that 'most people can be trusted' is stable over time" (p. 729; see also Uslaner, 2002).

Given the consensus conceptualization of trust propensity as a stable trait, it is understandable that the trust literature has not considered that trust propensity might vary within-person. Yet, personality and social psychologists have long debated the concept of within-person variation in traits, or what some scholars have called the "personality paradox" (Mischel, 2004). On the one hand, research indicates that people possess stable traits over time (McCrae & Costa, 1994). On the other hand, there is "equally compelling empirical evidence" that a person's behavior can vary widely across diverse situations (Mischel, 2004, p. 1). For example, an employee who rates highly on conscientiousness will, on average, tend to be detail oriented. However, that attention to detail may be higher or lower than the employee's average on a given day (Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009; Huang & Ryan, 2011; Judge et al., 2014).

This literature suggests that although an employee has a trait tendency to trust, there will be momentary fluctuations from that average. To illustrate, consider an employee who rates herself a 4 out of 5 on a trait measure of trust propensity—which conveys the notion "I am generally inclined to trust others." On a state measure of trust propensity—which conveys the notion "Right now I am inclined to trust others"—that employee might rate herself as 3 out of 5 on

Monday yet a 5 out of 5 on Tuesday. In this example, average levels of the state measure are consistent with the trait measure, yet there are fluctuations on a daily level. To date, the trust literature has not considered that these fluctuations might exist nor that they might be meaningful. In contrast, we propose that these fluctuations occur and that their consideration provides a more complete picture of social influences on trust dynamics.

Scholars have argued that acknowledging the state-like attributes of traits allows them to act as endogenous, explanatory mechanisms (Cervone, 2004; Fleeson, 2012; Judge et al., 2014; Kenrick & Funder, 1988; Mischel, 2004). In other words, a within-person perspective can reveal situational influences on behavior that are not apparent with traditional between-person approaches. This idea has only recently been addressed in organizational research. One of the first and only empirical investigations of the within-person variation of traits in organizational research was conducted by Judge et al. (2014). In a 10-day experience sampling study, they found that 38% to 57% of the variance in the Big Five personality traits was within person. This within-person variation was predicted by daily work experiences, such as daily within-person variation in goal-setting and intrinsic motivation.

By identifying the causes of deviations from baseline trait tendencies, Judge et al. (2014) provided insights into the dynamics of the Big Five that could not be extrapolated from traditional between-person investigations. This is consistent with scholars' proposals that a complete understanding of trait dynamics must necessarily include a within-person component (Cervone, 2005; Epstein, 1983; Fleeson & Nofhle, 2009; Higgins, 1996, 1999, 2011; Mischel, 2004). Furthermore, scholars have argued that the key to understanding within-person variation in traits is identifying the situational triggers that increase or decrease the level of those traits (Higgins, 1996, 2011; Mischel, 2004). Although some strides have been made in identifying these triggers across a range of situations and traits, the situational triggers for most traits—including trust propensity—have yet to be examined (Cervone, 2005; Mischel, 2004).

Before addressing the state-like attributes of trust propensity, it is important to clarify the terminology that the literature has used in examinations of within-person variation in traits. Fleeson and Gallagher (2009, p. 1099) proposed state manifestations of traits should be termed personality "states"—defined as momentary displays "having the same affective, behavioral, and cognitive content as a corresponding trait...but as applying for a shorter duration." Although scholars have recognized the contradiction in the terminology of a personality state, Fleeson (2012, p. 52) argued it is appropriate because, at a conceptual level, it clearly "transfers the content of the trait as a whole to the state" and, at an operational level, it indicates "states are directly commensurate with traits." Following this convention, we refer to between-person trust propensity as "trait trust propensity" and within-person trust propensity as "state trust propensity." This approach signals that trait and state trust propensity occupy the same conceptual domain and are operationalized with commensurate measures (e.g., Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009; Huang & Ryan, 2011; Judge et al., 2014; Meyer, Dalal, & Bonaccio, 2009).

2.1 | Accessibility theory

Our attention now turns to why trust propensity might exhibit state fluctuations. Accessibility theory (Higgins, 1996, 2011) provides a framework for understanding how the social context affects downstream attitudes and behaviors through the activation of trait dispositions. According to the theory, dispositions will be activated and used to the extent that they are accessible and applicable. Dispositions that are frequently used or are relevant to people's actions, and decisions are more easily "accessed" in response to a stimulus. Their frequency of use and relevance keep them "closer to the surface" of conscious and nonconscious processing, thereby increasing the likelihood that they will be activated by a given experience. Dispositions toward others (e.g., a tendency to see others as reckless, stubborn, or hostile) have a relatively high level of accessibility, as they are regularly used to guide interactions (Higgins, King, & Mavin, 1982; for a review see Higgins, 2011). The applicability aspect is the extent to which a stimulus and a disposition possess similar features. As applicability increases, so does the likelihood of activation. We rely on accessibility theory to develop predictions for how the influence of the social context (citizenship and deviance received from coworkers) on trust in a focal coworker is conveyed through variation in state trust propensity.

2.2 | The social context and trust propensity

The literature has not always acknowledged that coworkers are an important aspect of employees' workplace experiences. Indeed, Schneider's (1987) assertion that people "make the place" was, in part, a rebuttal to some scholars' insistence that employees' attitudes and behaviors were almost exclusively driven by personality. Supporting Schneider's (1987) assertion, research indicates that peer interactions contribute to job satisfaction (Beehr & Drexler, 1986), commitment and withdrawal (Harrison, 1995; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001; Nicholson & Johns, 1985), task performance (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007), and employee well-being (Halbesleben, 2006; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). In sum, this research addresses the question, do coworkers matter to employee attitudes and behaviors?

Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) pursued this question in a meta-analysis that investigated "the relationship between what coworkers provide or do, and their colleagues' individual role perceptions, work attitudes, withdrawal, and effectiveness" (p. 1083). Although their study provides an indication of the importance of coworker treatment for employee outcomes, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) explicitly noted that they did not address trust, nor any other coworker-directed attitudes, as potential outcomes. Given that our research does address employee attitudes toward coworkers, it addresses a critical issue raised by Chiaburu and Harrison (2008, p. 1082): "Thus, important questions about how coworkers 'make the place' for individuals (focal employees) remain not only unanswered but, in some cases, unasked."

The role of coworkers in trust development has also been touched on in the social networks literature. This research focuses on the notion that "familiarity breeds trust" (Gulati, 1995), which might occur through two different informational processes. First, the behavior of a potential trustee is more easily observed when the trustor has close ties with that individual (Borgatti & Foster, 2003; Ferrin et al., 2006; Levin & Cross, 2004). Second, a trustor might decide to trust a coworker based on whether others in the social network trust that particular coworker (Ferrin et al., 2006; Lau & Liden, 2008; Simmel, 1950). Although this research acknowledges the potential role of coworkers in trust dynamics, the focus is squarely on how coworkers convey data about a specific individual to a trustor. The trust literature classifies this data as trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995). Therefore, the potential impact of coworkers' treatment of an employee on generalized perceptions of others remains an unanswered question.

It would also be difficult to deduce the answer to this question from research that has considered how other aspects of the social context impact fluctuations in perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors. Two streams of research in this vein deserve specific mention. First, past research has demonstrated that the social context can act as a contagion that influences the interpretation of future interactions, such as the receipt of rudeness leading to heightened perceptions of rudeness (e.g., Woolum, Foulk, Lanaj, & Erez, 2017). Second, research has indicated that the social context can affect employee behaviors by draining regulatory resources, such as customer service encounters affecting employees' deviance toward coworkers (e.g., Deng, Walter, Lam, & Zhao, 2017; Grandey, 2003). Although these streams of research highlight that the social context can alter perceptions and behaviors, the dispositional conceptualization of trust propensity has precluded the notion that it might be influenced by discrete events. The trust literature has also maintained that trustworthiness and trust are based on rational assessments of intradyadic behavior (Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Mayer et al., 1995). Current theorizing on trust, therefore, does not allow for the possibility that day-to-day interactions might impact trust propensity nor that day-to-day interactions outside the dyad might influence downstream trust dynamics. In sum, the impact of the social context on trust propensity has a distinct function in the trust literature that has not previously been examined and could not be extrapolated from between- or within-person research in other domains.

We turn now to coworkers' treatment of the employee as an aspect of the social context with the potential to impact trust propensity. Following prior research, we conceptualize positive and negative treatment in the workplace as the citizenship and deviance received by the trustor. *Citizenship received* encompasses the extent to which others have helped, treated kindly, defended, or included an employee (Dalal et al., 2009; Shao et al., 2011). *Deviance received* encompasses the extent to which others have harmed, treated rudely, criticized, or excluded an employee (Dalal et al., 2009; Shao et al., 2011). Scholars have suggested that researchers explore citizenship and deviance as a pair, given that low levels of positive treatment are not the same conceptually or empirically as high levels of negative treatment, and vice versa (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Shao et al., 2011; Venkataramani & Dalal, 2007). For example, an employee

could have coworkers who are largely indifferent, exhibiting low levels of both citizenship and deviance. An employee might also have coworkers who exhibit “competing” treatment, such as high citizenship and high deviance. We explore the impact of citizenship and deviance received to capture this range of treatment.

According to the propositions of accessibility theory, citizenship and deviance received should affect state trust propensity to the extent that: (a) trust propensity is accessible and (b) citizenship and deviance received are applicable to trust propensity. Turning first to accessibility, scholars have suggested that highly accessible constructs include persistent attitudes toward generalized others (Higgins & Brendl, 1995). Because those attitudes are persistent, they are more easily accessible in memory; even small experiences can activate them (Higgins, 1996). Trust propensity is a generalized expectancy of others that persists throughout an individual's lifetime. Trust propensity is also used frequently—another identifying feature of highly accessible constructs (Higgins, 2011). Scholars have suggested that trust propensity is employed in all encounters with new people (Rotter, 1967, 1971, 1980), which occurs quite frequently, considering that “new people” includes salespeople, waiters, people on the street, and even people seen on television. Thus, because of its persistence and frequency of use, trust propensity is likely to be a highly accessible construct.

Accessibility indicates that a construct *can* be activated. Whether it *will* be activated by a given contextual trigger is dependent on whether it is applicable to that trigger. It follows that citizenship and deviance received should affect state trust propensity to the extent that they are perceived as relevant to the beliefs encapsulated by trust propensity. The signals sent by citizenship and deviance received are conceptually similar to the beliefs encapsulated in trust propensity. Citizenship received encapsulates loyalty, inclusion, help, and kindness, thereby conveying concern for the trustor's well-being. Deviance received encapsulates criticism, exclusion, harm, and rudeness, thereby conveying a lack of concern for the trustor's well-being. Given the relevance—the applicability—of these signals to trust propensity, we theorize that the recent treatment that trustors have received will have a meaningful impact on state trust propensity. Importantly, these hypothesized effects of the social context are not accounted for in existing models of trust, as trust propensity is conceptualized as a static construct (Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998).

Hypothesis 1: Citizenship received has a positive relationship with state trust propensity.

Hypothesis 2: Deviance received has a negative relationship with state trust propensity.

2.3 | Trustworthiness and trusting behavior

The question now becomes, how will these aspects of the social context impact dyadic perceptions and behaviors? To answer this question, we again turn to accessibility theory, which arose from research demonstrating that the recent activation of trait constructs led people to temporarily categorize the behavior of others according to the activated construct (for a review, see Higgins, 1990). For example, activating a trait tendency to believe that others are inherently reckless increased the likelihood that participants interpreted ambiguous information as reckless (Higgins, Rholes, & Jones, 1977). Accessibility theory proposes that the temporary activation of a trait construct causes people to interpret others' behavior through the lens of that trait for a limited time. Importantly, these activated traits affect generalized perceptions of others, not solely the source of the activation. Higgins (2011, p. 78) proposed that this “activation...could occur in an *incidental* situation that had nothing to do with the target *and* could impact how the target is categorized without the perceiver being aware of the influence” (emphasis in original). These effects can be relatively persistent, occurring either within day or lasting until the subsequent day (Higgins, 1999, 2011; Srull & Wyer, 1979, 1980).

Drawing on this conceptual and empirical research, we suggest that the daily aggregate of citizenship and deviance from coworkers will indirectly affect—through state trust propensity—an employee's trustworthiness perceptions of a focal coworker. Although trustworthiness is based on person-specific data, trust propensity may “color” that data. Accessibility theory proposes that activated traits lead people to go “beyond the information given,” operating as temporary filters that encode the available data in a manner consistent with the activated trait (Higgins, 1990, 2011; Higgins & Chaires, 1980). To illustrate, research has shown that priming subjects with constructs such as “conceited” or

“stubborn” causes them to interpret a target individual's ambiguous behavior as consistent with that prime (Higgins & Brendl, 1995; Higgins et al., 1982). In other research, even subtle primes were able to activate participants' predispositions to judge another person as more hostile, despite this judgment exceeding the available evidence (Srull & Wyer, 1979). Summarizing these proposals, trait activation leads people to “make a judgment of the target that is not based solely on the target's properties” (Higgins, 2011, p. 76). As state trust propensity increases, the employee should view a focal coworker in a more positive light, essentially giving that coworker the benefit of the doubt. Increases in state trust propensity will, therefore, be associated with increased trustworthiness. In sum, the general treatment received from coworkers should indirectly—through state trust propensity—impact an employee's perception of a focal coworker's trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 3: State trust propensity has a positive relationship with trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 4: Citizenship received has a positive indirect effect on trustworthiness through state trust propensity.

Hypothesis 5: Deviance received has a negative indirect effect on trustworthiness through state trust propensity.

To fully demonstrate the importance of the social context to trust dynamics, it is necessary to examine its downstream, behavioral consequences. The most proximal behavioral outcome of trust propensity and trustworthiness is risk taking in the relationship (Mayer et al., 1995), which has also been termed *trusting behavior* (McKnight et al., 1998). Trusting behavior is the manifestation of a willingness to be vulnerable; it includes behaviors such as relying on others' work-related judgments, depending on others' abilities, and sharing confidential personal and professional information (Mayer et al., 1995; see also Gillespie, 2003, 2012). Given that these behaviors are vital components of effective workplace relationships (Lind, 2001; Tyler & Lind, 1992), a significant impact of trustworthiness on trusting behavior would provide further evidence of the theoretical and practical importance of the social context.

At the between-person level, trusting behavior stems from positive expectations of a potential trustee's behavior (Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). As positive expectations increase, so does the likelihood of trusting behavior. Those positive expectations are represented directly by trustworthiness and indirectly by trust propensity (McKnight et al., 1998). Although it might be assumed that these relationships hold at the within-person level, traditional between-person models of trust propose that trustworthiness is relatively stable in established relationships. Indeed, scholars have suggested that trustworthiness is only reevaluated when the exchange of goods and services in the relationship is out of balance (Mayer et al., 1995) or the relationship experiences an event with “extreme emotional and instrumental content” (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010, p. 373). Existing theoretical approaches, therefore, would not necessarily support an extrapolation of these trust dynamics to the within-person level. Accordingly, we again turn to accessibility theory to support our within-person predictions.

Accessibility theory proposes that activated traits and perceptions exert strong effects on behavior through a non-conscious process. Addressing this point, Higgins (2011, pp. 88–89) observed, “It is as if the construct activated by priming becomes an intent to directly express the construct in action.” Similarly, Bargh (2005) argued that activated constructs “need” to be behaviorally expressed. For example, experimental research has found that participants subliminally primed with concepts related to cooperation engaged in more cooperative behavior in subsequent tasks (Bargh, Gollwitzer, Lee-Chai, Barndollar, & Tröetschel, 2001). In the case of trusting behavior, this line of reasoning would suggest that a temporary increase in trustworthiness would correspond with a temporary increase in trusting behavior. Even relatively transient increases in trustworthiness should be interpreted, either consciously or unconsciously, as relevant signals that trusting is advisable. In line with these arguments, we propose that an increase in the perceived trustworthiness of a focal coworker should increase the sense that trusting behavior is the appropriate and necessary course of action. Taken together, our theorizing suggests that within-person fluctuations in trustworthiness will have residual carryover to trusting behavior.

Hypothesis 6: At the within-person level, trustworthiness has a positive relationship with trusting behavior.

3 | OVERVIEW OF STUDY 1

Given our focus on within-person fluctuations in trust propensity, trustworthiness, and trusting behavior, we tested our model using an ESM design. A focal employee and one of the employee's coworkers were each asked to complete one survey per day during a period of 17 consecutive workdays (cf. Judge et al., 2014). We took several steps to mitigate potential concerns about the casual ordering of our focal constructs and concerns about common method variance. We first employed both time and source separation in our model (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). We assessed citizenship and deviance received as ratings from the focal employee at the mid-point of the workday. These two variables were specified from the *previous* workday in our model (days 1–16), thus providing time separation between those predictors and state trust propensity. Focal employees rated state trust propensity and focal coworker trustworthiness at the midpoint of the *current* workday (days 2–17). Finally, we assessed trusting behavior from the focal coworker at the conclusion of the *current* workday (days 2–17), thus providing source and time separation for our dependent variable. We also included four theoretically relevant control variables in our model. First, we controlled for previous-day state trust propensity when predicting state trust propensity. Second, we controlled for employee ratings of the coworker's trustworthiness from the previous day when predicting trustworthiness. Third, we controlled for previous-day trusting behavior when predicting trusting behavior. By controlling for previous-day assessments when predicting state trust propensity, coworker trustworthiness, and trusting behavior, we can interpret our results as a change in the level of these three variables from prior assessments (for similar results, see Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Scott & Barnes, 2011). This approach also provides additional evidence for our hypothesized causal direction (Beal, 2015). Fourth, we controlled for *opportunity to observe*—the extent to which coworkers were able to observe the focal employee on each day they assessed trusting behavior, as coworker ratings may be confounded by the ability to observe the employee's behavior (Judge & Ferris, 1993; Rodell, 2013).

We also modeled the direct effects of citizenship and deviance received on trustworthiness. Our arguments focus on the notion that the social context will affect dyadic trust in a focal coworker. It was necessary, therefore, to account for that focal coworker's treatment of the employee. If our measures of citizenship and deviance were substantially contaminated with the focal coworker's treatment of the employee, there should be a significant direct effect of citizenship and deviance received on trustworthiness. A nonsignificant direct effect, however, would indicate that the focal coworker's behavior did not substantially contribute to the employee's ratings of citizenship and deviance. Thus, Study 1 serves as an initial demonstration of our proposals. However, as the focal coworker's behavior was not explicitly excluded from our measures in Study 1, we later conducted a Study 2 in which we explicitly excluded the focal coworker from assessments of coworker treatment.

4 | STUDY 1: METHOD

4.1 | Sample

The sample for this study was 109 executive MBA students at a private business school located in the eastern region of India. Participants—hereafter referred to as “employees”—were employed full-time by organizations in a variety of fields, including education, finance, manufacturing, retail, and engineering. The average age of employees was 34 years ($SD = 6$ years); their average organizational tenure was 4.3 years ($SD = 4.3$ years). Fifty-three percent of employees were female. Each employee recruited one coworker to participate in our study. Forty-eight percent of coworkers were female. On average, employees had worked with their coworkers for 2.5 years ($SD = 3.5$ years). The average age of coworkers was 32 years ($SD = 7.7$ years); their average organizational tenure was 3.7 years ($SD = 4.2$ years).

4.2 | Procedure

We recruited the focal employees for our study in exchange for course credit. To be eligible to participate, employees had to be working full time and have a coworker who was willing to participate in the study with them. Employees who

did not meet these criteria had the option to complete an alternative assignment for credit. Coworkers who participated received a gift card to Amazon.in for 1,000 Indian rupees (approximately \$15 US). We followed suggested best practices for ensuring reliable responding with Internet-based surveys (Birnbaum, 2004; Nosek, Banaji, & Greenwald, 2002; Teitcher et al., 2015). First, the invitation to participate and all the daily surveys came from us rather than from the student. Second, the majority of participants provided work email addresses that contained their full or partial name (e.g., EmployeeName@Company.com). Third, we compared the IP addresses that participants used to complete the surveys (Birnbaum, 2004; Nosek et al., 2002; Teitcher et al., 2015). Our analyses did not reveal any suspicious patterns of responding.

Our ESM design utilized daily surveys that were administered online over a period of 17 consecutive workdays. Consistent with prior ESM research (e.g., Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016; Rodell & Judge, 2009), we provided participants with an extended “window” to complete their daily surveys. Specifically, we asked participants to complete surveys on 15 days during a 17-day study. This approach allowed participants with extenuating circumstances (e.g., a planned absence, a sick day, being in a meeting during a survey window) to fully participate in the study. Following the procedures outlined by Rodell and Judge (2009), we retained responses from participants who went above and beyond the study requirements and completed 16 or 17 daily surveys.¹ Each “day” of the study consisted of two surveys—an employee survey at mid day and a coworker survey at end-day. Employees’ mid-day survey included measures of citizenship and deviance received, state trust propensity, and coworker trustworthiness. Coworkers’ end-day survey included measures of the employees’ trusting behavior and the extent to which the coworkers were able to observe the employees during the workday. Each day at 11 AM, employees received an email with a link to the mid-day survey. We sent two reminders each day—at 12:15 PM and 1:15 PM—to employees who had not yet completed the mid-day survey. The mid-day survey closed each day at 2 PM. At 3 PM, we sent emails to coworkers containing their end-day survey links, followed by reminders at 4:15 PM and 6 PM. To ensure that coworkers’ responses for each day were only influenced by work events from that day, we closed the end-day surveys at 7:30 PM.

For employees’ mid-day survey, the response rate was 1,603 data points out of a possible maximum of 2,040—a 78.6% response rate across individuals and time periods. The response rate was 1,594 data points for coworkers’ end-day survey—a 78.1% response rate. We applied three additional criteria for inclusion in our final sample. First, each level-1 (daily-level) dyad had to include responses from the employee’s mid-day survey as well as the coworker’s end-day survey. In other words, if the coworker or employee did not participate, the dyad was not included in the data analysis. Second, dyads were included in the final sample only when they had full responses for three days of surveys, which has been suggested as the minimum number of within-person cases for ESM analysis (e.g., da Motta Veiga & Gabriel, 2016; Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, & Beal, 2014). Third, as our theoretical model includes lagged relationships (i.e., those between previous-day citizenship and deviance received and current-day state trust propensity), surveys needed to be completed on successive days. This process resulted in a final sample of 109 dyads with 1,050 daily observations (9.63 observations per dyad). To clarify, a “daily observation” is 2 consecutive days in which the employee completed the mid-day survey and the coworker completed the end-day survey.

4.3 | Employee-rated measures

All employee-rated measures were assessed using a 6-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*).

4.3.1 | Citizenship received

Each day, employees holistically assessed the extent to which they received citizenship behaviors using Dalal et al.’s (2009) 6-item measure, which was developed specifically for ESM. Sample items included “Today, people have gone out of their way to be nice to me,” “Today, people have tried to help me,” and “Today, people have been available for me.” Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .95.

4.3.2 | Deviance received

We measured deviance received using Dalal et al.'s (2009) 6-item measure, which was developed specifically for ESM research. Sample items included "Today, people have behaved in an unpleasant manner toward me," "Today, people have spoken poorly about me to others," and "Today, people have criticized my opinions or suggestions." Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .95.

4.3.3 | State trust propensity

We assessed employees' state trust propensity using 5 items from MacDonald, Kessel, and Fuller's (1972) measure of trust propensity. Following the procedure suggested by Judge et al. (2014), instructions asked participants to "Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about yourself today. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself *today*, not as you are in general, or as you wish to be in the future." Judge et al. proposed that these instructions and the use of present perfect participle phrasing (e.g., "I have had") in the items helps ensure that responses reflect state levels of dispositions that day, up to and including the present moment. Sample items included "Today, I have had faith in human nature," "Today, I have expected other people to be honest and open," and "Today, I have had faith in the promises or statements of other people." Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .93.

4.3.4 | Coworker trustworthiness

We assessed the employee's perception of the focal coworker's trustworthiness using nine items from Mayer and Davis (1999). This measure included three items from each of the subfacets of ability, benevolence, and integrity. As with our assessment of state trust propensity, we followed the procedures outlined by Judge et al. (2014) in our instructions: "Perceptions of others sometimes change on a daily basis. Describe [coworker name] as you honestly have seen this person *today*, not as they are in general." The coworker's name was merged into the items using the survey software. Sample items included "Today, [coworker name] has been very capable of performing his/her job," "Today, [coworker name] has been very concerned about my welfare," and "Today, [coworker name] has tried hard to be fair in dealing with others." Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .92.

4.4 | Coworker-rated measures

All coworker-rated measures were assessed using a 6-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*).

4.4.1 | Trusting behavior

Coworkers assessed the focal employee's trusting behavior at the end of each day using Gillespie's (2003) 10-item measure. Items were adapted to capture the behavioral manifestation of trust with a daily ESM design. Sample items included "Today, [employee name] has relied on my work-related judgments," "Today, [employee name] has confided in me about personal issues that are affecting his/her work," "Today, [employee name] has relied on my task-related skills and abilities," and "Today, [employee name] has discussed work-related problems or difficulties with me that could potentially be used to disadvantage him/her." Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .94.

4.4.2 | Opportunity to observe

We used Rodell's (2013) 3-item measure to assess the extent to which coworkers were able to observe participants each day. Sample items included "Today, I've had the opportunity to observe [employee name]'s behavior" and "Today, I have been able to monitor [employee name]'s behavior." Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .98.

TABLE 1 Variance components of null models for substantive Study 1 variables

Variable	Within-individual variance (ρ^2)	Between-individual variance (τ_{00})	Percentage of variability within-individual
Citizenship received	.46*	.70*	39.5%
Deviance received	.40*	.34*	54.2%
State trust propensity	.22*	.47*	32.3%
Coworker trustworthiness	.12*	.32*	27.5%
Trusting behavior (coworker-rated)	.40*	.89*	31.1%

Note: ρ^2 = within-individual variance in the dependent variable. τ_{00} = between-individual variance in the dependent variable. Percentage of variability within-individual was computed as $\rho^2/(\rho^2 + \tau_{00})$.

* $p < .05$.

4.5 | Data Analysis

Due to the multilevel nature of our data (i.e., daily observations nested within individuals), we analyzed our data using multilevel path analysis in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015). We used random slopes for all paths in our model (Beal, 2015). All our substantive constructs were specified as level-1 (within-person) variables. Following recommendations for centering predictors in multilevel models (e.g., Enders & Tofghi, 2007; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010), we group-mean centered exogenous level-1 variables. The primary benefit of group-mean centering is that it empirically isolates situations in which individuals are above or below their own average level (e.g., on days when an employee receives more/less citizenship behavior than his/her typical average level, what is the effect on state trust propensity?). Importantly, any unmodeled level-2 constructs like gender or personality are uncorrelated with such variations, eliminating such variables as potential confounds (Enders & Tofghi, 2007). For testing the mediation of our within-person effects, we bootstrapped the indirect effects using a Monte Carlo simulation for creating sampling distributions and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs) for indirect effects (Selig & Preacher, 2008).

Following recent recommendations for the use of control variables (e.g., Breugh, 2008; Spector & Brannick, 2011), we conducted a series of analyses both with and without several control variables. We controlled for previous-day state trust propensity when predicting state trust propensity, previous-day ratings of the coworker's trustworthiness when predicting coworker trustworthiness, and previous-day trusting behavior when predicting trusting behavior. This design allows us to interpret our results as a change in the level of these variables (for similar results, see Johnson et al., 2014; Scott & Barnes, 2011) and provides additional evidence for our hypothesized causal direction (Beal, 2015). We also controlled for coworkers' opportunity to observe to ensure that ratings of trusting behavior were not confounded by the ability to observe the employee's behavior that day (Judge & Ferris, 1993; Rodell, 2013). The results of our hypothesis testing are the same with and without the inclusion of these controls. We present our analyses with the control variables as a conservative test of our predictions.

5 | STUDY 1: RESULTS

5.1 | Variance components

Prior to testing our hypotheses, we examined the variance residing at the within-person and between-person levels of analysis in all the daily constructs. As shown in Table 1, the null models showed that the day accounted for 39.5% of the variance in citizenship received, 54.2% of the variance in deviance received, 32.3% of the variance in state trust propensity, 27.5% of the variance in coworker trustworthiness, and 31.1% of the variance in trusting behavior. These results suggest that all our constructs exhibited sufficient within-person variance to confirm our modeling approach.

5.2 | Test of measurement model

We conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) to provide evidence for our hypothesized factor structure. We modeled citizenship and deviance received, as well as state trust propensity, at the within-person level using item-level indicators. Consistent with its operationalization (Mayer & Davis, 1999), we modeled trustworthiness by specifying three first-order latent constructs (coworker ability, benevolence, and integrity) as indicators of a second-order trustworthiness factor at the within-person level. We also modeled trusting behavior in accordance with its operationalization (Gillespie, 2003) by specifying two first-order latent constructs (reliance and disclosure behavior) as indicators of a second-order trusting behavior factor at the within-person level. The results of the MCFA revealed that our proposed model fit the data well: $\chi^2(579) = 2004.37$ ($p < .01$), CFI = .94, RMSEA = .048, SRMR (within) = .031. All indicators loaded significantly on their corresponding factor. A comparison model in which the trust propensity and trustworthiness items loaded on one factor added significant misfit to the data: $\chi^2(586) = 6193.07$ ($p < .01$), CFI = .76, RMSEA = .095, SRMR (within) = .078, $\Delta\chi^2(7) = 4188.70$ ($p < .01$). These results support the dimensionality and discriminant validity of our substantive constructs and confirm our modeling approach.

5.3 | Descriptive statistics and correlations

The means, within-person standard deviations, and within- and between-person correlations among the focal variables are reported in Table 2. The within-person correlations are reported below the diagonal, the between-person correlations are reported above the diagonal, and the average levels of coefficient alpha are reported on the diagonal.

5.4 | Test of hypotheses

The results of the multilevel path analysis are presented in Table 3. Hypothesis 1 predicted that citizenship received is positively associated with state trust propensity. In support of Hypothesis 1, citizenship received was positively related to state trust propensity ($\gamma = .06$, $p < .05$). As we controlled for previous-day state trust propensity, this effect can be interpreted as a change in state trust propensity. Hypothesis 2 predicted that deviance received is negatively associated with state trust propensity. The multilevel path model results failed to support this hypothesis, as the path coefficient from deviance received to state trust propensity was not statistically significant ($\gamma = -.02$, $p > .05$).² The pseudo R^2 for state trust propensity was 12.1%.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that state trust propensity is positively associated with coworker trustworthiness. Providing support for Hypothesis 3, we found a positive relationship between state trust propensity and coworker trustworthiness ($\gamma = .18$, $p < .05$). Because we controlled for previous-day coworker trustworthiness, this effect can be interpreted as a change in the employee's perception of the focal coworker's trustworthiness from the previous day. The pseudo R^2 for coworker trustworthiness was 20.0%. Hypothesis 4 predicted that citizenship received has a positive indirect effect on coworker trustworthiness via state trust propensity. In support of Hypothesis 4, the results of our bootstrapping procedure showed that the 95% CI for the indirect effect excludes zero (indirect effect = .01, 95% CI [.001, .030]). However, we failed to find support for Hypothesis 5, which predicted that deviance received has a negative indirect effect on coworker trustworthiness through state trust propensity, as the 95% CI includes zero (indirect effect = .00, 95% CI [-.014, .002]). In support of Hypothesis 6, we found a positive within-person relationship between trustworthiness and trusting behavior ($\gamma = .16$, $p < .05$). Again, because we controlled for previous-day trusting behavior, this effect can also be interpreted as a change in trusting behavior from the previous day. The pseudo R^2 for trusting behavior was 33.7%.³

Finally, we note that the direct effects of citizenship ($\gamma = .04$) and deviance ($\gamma = -.02$) received on trustworthiness were nonsignificant. These results provide initial evidence that the focal coworker's behavior was not a substantial component of employees' ratings of coworker treatment and, therefore, that it did not bias our results. We further explore these dynamics in Study 2 with an alternative research design that explicitly accounts for the focal coworker's behavior, thereby demonstrating replication and providing a point of comparison.

TABLE 2 Descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 1 variables

Variable	Mean	SD-w	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Citizenship received	4.11	.64	(.95)	-.36*	.54*	.62*	.41*	.38*	.54*	.63*	.41*
2. Deviance received	1.76	.60	-.12	(.95)	-.52*	-.40*	.01	-.17	-.53*	-.41*	.00
3. Previous-day state trust propensity	4.70	.44	.25*	-.13*	(.93)	.44*	.14	.13	-	.44*	.13
4. Previous-day coworker trustworthiness	4.85	.34	.28*	-.11*	.22*	(.92)	.47*	.31*	.45*	-	.46*
5. Previous-day trusting behavior (coworker rated)	3.87	.61	.07	-.02	-.07*	.03	(.94)	.47*	.14	.46*	-
6. Opportunity to observe (coworker rated)	3.69	.92	.03	-.03	.03	-.05	.06	(.98)	.14	.30*	.49*
7. State trust propensity	4.69	.47	.10*	-.03	-.00	.07	.06	.00	(.93)	.46*	.13
8. Coworker trustworthiness	4.85	.35	.09*	-.05	.05	.15*	.05	.03	.22*	(.92)	.46*
9. Trusting behavior (coworker rated)	3.89	.63	.03	.05	-.01	-.04	.15*	.33*	-.06	.04	(.94)

Note: Level-2 $N = 109$. Level-1 $n = 1,050$. Within-person correlations are reported below the diagonal. Between-person correlations are reported above the diagonal. Coefficient alphas are reported on the diagonal. SD-w = within-person standard deviation. Because previous-day and current-day operationalizations of the same construct capture identical between-person proportions of variance (i.e., the average level of the construct across the entire study), the between-person correlations for such situations were replaced with “-” to avoid confusion. * $p < .05$.

TABLE 3 Results of Study 1 multilevel path analyses

Variables	State trust propensity	Coworker trustworthiness	Trusting behavior (coworker-rated)
	γ	γ	γ
Intercept	4.66 [*]	4.00 [*]	3.42 [*]
Previous-day state trust propensity	-.01	.01	-.02
Citizenship received	.06[*]	.04	.03
Deviance received	-.02	-.02	.05
Previous-day coworker trustworthiness		.12 [*]	-.04
State trust propensity		.18[*]	-.07
Previous-day trusting behavior (coworker rated)			.10 [*]
Daily opportunity to observe (coworker rated)			.21 [*]
Coworker trustworthiness			.16[*]
Pseudo R ²	12.1%	20.0%	33.7%

Note: For the between-person level of analysis, $N = 109$. For the within-person level of analysis, $n = 1,050$. Hypothesized coefficients are bolded. Controlling for the previous day assessment of criteria constructs allows us to interpret our results as a change in that criteria from the previous day (e.g., state trust propensity is positively associated with a change in coworker trustworthiness from the previous day) (Johnson et al., 2014; Scott & Barnes, 2011).

* $p < .05$.

5.5 | Supplemental analysis

At the suggestion of anonymous reviewers, we also explored the interactive effects of citizenship and deviance received on state trust propensity. The receipt of conflicting behaviors can be a particularly detrimental experience for employees (Major, Zubek, Cooper, Cozzarelli, & Richards, 1997). Illustrating this proposal, Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002) found that when supervisor support and undermining were both high, employees experienced the highest levels of somatic complaints and counterproductive behaviors. This suggestion provided an opportunity to shed additional light on the implications of the social context. Analyses indicated that citizenship and deviance received did not have an interactive effect on trust propensity ($\gamma = -.05, p > .05$).⁴ As a potential explanation for this nonsignificant interaction, whereas Duffy et al. (2002) examined conflicting behavior from a single individual—a supervisor—our research design captured whether the focal employee generally received positive or negative treatment. Some of that positive and negative treatment on a given day may have come from the same coworker. It is possible, however, that one set of coworkers treated the employee positively, whereas an entirely different set of coworkers treated the employee negatively. In this case, there should be less of a tension between the received behaviors, thereby reducing the potential for an interaction.

6 | STUDY 1: DISCUSSION

Study 1 is an initial demonstration of how the social context can influence state trust propensity and downstream trust dynamics. Analyses indicated that the extent to which coworkers, in general, provided citizenship to an employee influenced subsequent trusting behaviors toward a focal coworker. Our analytical model also provides initial evidence that these effects were independent of how that focal coworker had treated the employee, given the nonsignificant direct effects of citizenship and deviance received on trustworthiness. Nonetheless, our measures of citizenship and deviance received did not explicitly exclude the focal coworker's own citizenship and deviance toward the employee. This may have biased the indirect effects of citizenship and deviance received on trustworthiness. To address this

possibility, we conducted a Study 2 that explicitly excluded the focal coworker from the assessments of citizenship and deviance received. Although the impact of deviance received was nonsignificant in Study 1, Study 2 provided an opportunity to conduct a more complete and controlled test of our proposals. The inclusion of deviance in Study 2 also follows scholars' recommendation to investigate citizenship and deviance as a pair to capture a more complete range of behavior (Berry et al., 2007; Shao et al., 2011; Venkataramani & Dalal, 2007). Study 2 also provided an opportunity to explore how between-person aspects of the social context might moderate the within-person relationship between this full range of coworker treatment and state trust propensity. Accordingly, we included both citizenship and deviance received in our Study 2 data collection and analyses.

Our exploration of between-person aspects of the social context that might affect our hypothesized model focused on *workplace unfairness*—a Gestalt sense that people in the workplace do not behave as they should (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; see also Ambrose, Wo, & Griffith, 2015; Colquitt & Rodell, 2015). Workplace unfairness is a global assessment rather than a discrete experience, which suggests that it is appropriately modeled as a between-person construct (Colquitt & Rodell, 2015; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015). Our decision to focus on unfairness was inspired by the trust literature and the important role that unfairness plays in defining the social context. For example, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos, 2001), and uncertainty management theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002) all propose that fairness information helps individuals determine when and whom to trust. Drawing on this research, scholars have suggested that an understanding of trust dynamics necessarily incorporates fairness (Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Lewicki, Wiethoff, & Tomlinson, 2005).

Accessibility theory asserts that the potential for an experience to activate a disposition is due to the salience of that experience (Higgins, 1989). An unnoticed experience has low activation potential, whereas an experience that grabs an individual's attention is more likely to be perceived as consequential (Higgins, 1996). Addressing this point, Higgins (1996, p. 156) proposed that the extent to which an experience is "conspicuous or stands out is always influenced by its relation to the immediate surroundings." To outline how these dynamics might unfold with respect to trust propensity, we incorporate uncertainty management theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002), which posits people are motivated to seek out information on fairness to reduce feelings of uncertainty regarding their social context. One of the primary sources of employees' uncertainty is whether they will be exploited by others in the organization (Lind, 2001). Fair environments create an enduring sense of stability that ends the search for uncertainty-reducing information, whereas conditions of unfairness push people to continue their search (Proudfoot & Lind, 2015).

On the one hand, consider an employee who has indicated that workplace unfairness is low. The employee should form a general impression that he or she will not be exploited within that social context (Lind, 2001). This general impression reduces the employee's need to carefully attend to new information about coworkers. Turning first to citizenship received, against this backdrop citizenship received on a given day may not garner sufficient attention to affect state trust propensity. High citizenship received reinforces the general impression of the workplace rather than providing new information. Low citizenship received is a decrease in helpful behavior rather than the receipt of harmful behavior. It does not provide uncertainty-reducing information, but neither does it provide uncertainty-increasing information.

Likewise, Lind and Van den Bos (2002, p. 196) theorized that "fairness reduces the anxiety about being excluded or exploited." It follows that employees in workplaces with low unfairness should be less attentive to and impacted by deviance received, which encompasses both exclusion and exploitation. Low workplace unfairness also anchors employees on the notion that others have their best interests at heart (Lind, 2001), suggesting that daily fluctuations in deviance received are more likely to be perceived as relatively inconsequential "blips" in the social context. In support of this proposal, Van den Bos and Lind (2002) argued that in fair environments more immediate uncertainties "can be ignored because the fair treatment implies that in the long run one can be certain of a good resolution of the uncertain issues" (p. 39). According to accessibility theory, the low salience of citizenship and deviance received in this social context makes them unlikely to affect state trust propensity, either positively or negatively. In sum, when workplace unfairness is low, employees' day-to-day endorsement of the notion "Right now I am inclined to trust others" should be relatively stable.

Consider, on the other hand, an employee who has indicated that workplace unfairness is high. In the absence of fairness, employees are motivated to scan the environment for alternative information that might relieve their uncertainty (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). With regard to citizenship received, on a day with high citizenship the active search to reduce uncertainty about potential exploitation reveals compelling evidence that others can be relied on and, therefore, that trust is appropriate. Although there is the possibility that high citizenship might be attributed to ulterior motives in a high unfairness workplace, uncertainty management theory proposes that the search for uncertainty-related information is adaptive—striving to reduce uncertainty rather than increase it. Interpreting citizenship behavior in a negative fashion “would be simply to exchange one uncertainty for another, and this would not be a very effective way of resolving discomfort of the sort caused by uncertainty” (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002, p. 199).⁵ In contrast, consider an employee who experiences low citizenship received on a given day. On that day, neither the between-level data (high workplace unfairness) nor the within-level data (low citizenship received) are able to reduce the employee's uncertainty about exploitation. Given this relatively high level of uncertainty about exploitation, on that day the employee should be less likely to endorse the notion “Right now I am inclined to trust others.”

The increased salience of coworker treatment when workplace unfairness is high should also be reflected in the relationship between deviance received and state trust propensity. Workplace unfairness creates a general sense of uncertainty that heightens employees' sensitivity to more moment-to-moment information on whether others will exclude or exploit them (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002). Whereas employees in fair workplaces can operate under the assumption that negative experiences are fleeting (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002), employees in unfair workplaces do not have this assurance. Absent this general long-term assurance, deviance received from coworkers becomes a salient short-term indicator to employees that others will exclude and exploit them. In this situation, employees' search for uncertainty-reducing information encounters information (i.e., deviance) that should amplify the unease about trusting others rather than resolving it. Taken together, our proposals suggest that when workplace unfairness is high, state trust propensity will have a stronger relationship with daily citizenship and deviance received. In turn, these dynamics will result in conditional indirect effects of citizenship and deviance received on trustworthiness, through state trust propensity.

Hypothesis 7: Workplace unfairness (between-person) will amplify the positive effect of citizenship received on state trust propensity.

Hypothesis 8: The positive indirect effect of citizenship received on trustworthiness through state trust propensity will be stronger at high levels of workplace unfairness.

Hypothesis 9: Workplace unfairness (between-person) will amplify the negative effect of deviance received on state trust propensity.

Hypothesis 10: The negative indirect effect of deviance received on trustworthiness through state trust propensity will be stronger at high levels of workplace unfairness.

7 | STUDY 2: METHOD

7.1 | Sample

The sample for this study was 119 professional MBA students at a large Southwestern university. Participants (hereafter referred to as “employees”) were employed full-time by organizations in a variety of fields, including finance, retail, healthcare, and manufacturing. Employees' average age was 33 years ($SD = 7.3$ years), and their average organizational tenure was 5.3 years ($SD = 4.8$ years). Twenty-six percent of employees were female. As was the case in Study 1, each employee recruited one coworker to participate in our study. The average age of coworkers was 35 years ($SD = 10.1$ years); their average organizational tenure was 6 years ($SD = 7.1$ years). Coworkers had worked with the focal employee for an average of 3 years ($SD = 3.5$ years). Thirty-eight percent of coworkers were female.

7.2 | Procedure

We recruited employees to participate in our study in exchange for course credit. To be eligible to participate, employees were required to be working full time and have a coworker willing to participate in the study. We provided employees who did not meet these criteria with an alternative assignment. Participating coworkers received an Amazon.com gift card for \$20. Employees and coworkers who met our criteria completed a registration survey one week prior to the start of the study. The registration survey captured demographic information and the employee's rating of workplace unfairness (between-person level ratings). In addition, we followed recommended best practices for Internet-based surveys (e.g., Birnbaum, 2004; Nosek et al., 2002; Teitcher et al., 2015) to ensure that our participants responded in a reliable manner (for details, see Section 4). Our analyses did not reveal any suspicious patterns of responding.

Our ESM design for Study 2 utilized daily surveys that were administered online over a period of 12 workdays.⁶ Each "day" of the study consisted of three surveys: an employee survey at mid day, an employee survey at end day, and a coworker survey at end day. Employees' mid-day survey included measures of citizenship and deviance received from organizational members *excluding* the coworker and state trust propensity. Employees' end-day survey included a measure of the trustworthiness of the focal coworker. Coworkers' end-day survey included questions about the employees' trusting behavior and the extent to which coworkers were able to observe the focal employees during that workday. Employees received their mid-day survey at 11 AM each day; they were required to complete the survey by 2 PM. We sent one reminder at 1:15 PM each day to employees who had not yet completed the mid-day survey. At 3 PM, we sent the end-day surveys for both employees and coworkers, followed by reminders at 6 PM. We closed the end-day surveys at 7:30 PM.

For employees' mid-day survey, the response rate was 1,262 data points out of a possible maximum of 1,584—a 79.7% response rate across individuals and time periods. The response rate was 1,291 data points for employees' end-day survey—a 81.5% response rate. For coworker surveys, we obtained a total of 1,062 data points—a 67.1% response rate. We applied two criteria for inclusion in our final sample. First, each level-1 (daily-level) dyad had to include responses from the employee's mid-day and end-day surveys as well as the coworker's end-day survey. Second, dyads were retained in our final sample only when they had full responses for at least 3 days of surveys (e.g., da Motta Veiga & Gabriel, 2016; Trougakos et al., 2014). This resulted in a final sample of 119 dyads with 709 daily observations (6.0 observations per dyad).

7.3 | Employee-rated measures

All employee-rated measures were assessed using a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). We used the same measures from Study 1 to assess state trust propensity and coworker trustworthiness. Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .89 for state trust propensity and .94 for coworker trustworthiness.

7.3.1 | Citizenship received

Employees rated the extent to which they received citizenship using the same measure from Study 1. However, in a change from Study 1, the instructions were altered to explicitly exclude the focal coworker. The instructions specified: "Please indicate to what extent the actions described below match that of people at work, EXCLUDING [coworker name]. In other words, think about how people at work—except [coworker name]—have generally treated you today." We then repeated this as the lead-in to the items: "Today, the people in my organization *excluding* [coworker name]..." The name of the focal coworker for each employee was merged into these instructions using the survey software. Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .92.

7.3.2 | Deviance received

Employees rated the extent to which they received deviance using the same measure from Study 1. The instructions matched those in the Study 2 measure of citizenship received, specifically excluding the focal coworker. Across days, the average level of coefficient alpha was .94.

TABLE 4 Variance components of null models for substantive Study 2 daily variables

Variable	Within-individual variance (ρ^2)	Between-individual variance (τ_{00})	Percentage of variability within-individual
Citizenship received	.17*	.23*	42.7%
Deviance received	.17*	.21*	44.1%
State trust propensity	.13*	.25*	33.9%
Coworker trustworthiness	.11*	.19*	36.7%
Trusting behavior (coworker-rated)	.30*	.28*	51.7%

Note: ρ^2 = within-individual variance in the dependent variable. τ_{00} = between-individual variance in the dependent variable. Percentage of variability within-individual was computed as $\rho^2/(\rho^2 + \tau_{00})$.

* $p < .05$.

7.3.3 | Workplace unfairness

We assessed employees' perceptions of workplace unfairness using Colquitt, Long, Rodell, and Halvorsen-Ganepola's (2015) three-item measure. This was assessed in the registration survey, one-week prior to the start of the daily surveys. Prefaced by the phrase "In general, people in my organization...", items included "Act unfairly," "Do things that are unfair," and "Behave like unfair people would." Coefficient alpha for this scale was .94.

7.4 | Coworker-rated measures

We used the same measures from Study 1 to obtain coworkers' ratings of the focal employees' trusting behavior ($\alpha = .88$, averaged across days) and coworkers' opportunity to observe employees ($\alpha = .93$, averaged across days). Both were assessed using a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

7.5 | Data analysis

As in Study 1, we tested our theoretical model and hypotheses using multilevel path analysis in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015) with random slopes used to link hypothesized constructs. Because the hypothesized paths were tested within-day in Study 2 (whereas Study 1 included within-day as well as across day paths), we modeled the lagged controls with fixed slopes in order to avoid losing cases due to lagging control variables across days (for similar modeling of controls using fixed slopes, see Gabriel, Koopman, Rosen, & Johnson, 2018; Ilies, Liu, Liu, & Zheng, 2017; Koopman et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2013). We note that our results also hold when lagged controls are modeled as fixed slopes in Study 1. All daily constructs were specified as level-1 (within-person) variables, and our cross-level moderator—workplace unfairness—was specified as a level-2 (between-person) variable. Following suggestions for centering predictors in multilevel models (e.g., Enders & Tofghi, 2007; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Ohly et al., 2010), we grand-mean centered our level-2 moderator and group-mean centered all exogenous level-1 variables. We also followed the same procedures outlined in Study 1 for testing our indirect effects and alternative models, both with and without control variables.

8 | STUDY 2: RESULTS

8.1 | Variance components

To justify our method of analysis, we tested null models to assess the amount of variance residing at the within-person (level-1) and between-person (level-2) levels of analysis of all level-1 constructs. As depicted in Table 4, the results of

the null models showed that the day accounted for 42.7% of the variance in citizenship received, 44.1% of the variance in deviance received, 33.9% of the variance in state trust propensity, 36.7% of the variance in coworker trustworthiness, and 51.7% of the variance in trusting behavior. These results suggest that there is sufficient within-person variance for all daily constructs to confirm our modeling approach.

8.2 | Test of measurement model

We conducted an MCFA to confirm the factor structure of our proposed model. We modeled workplace unfairness at the between-person level. We modeled citizenship received, deviance received, and state trust propensity at the within-person level, using item-level indicators. As in Study 1, we modeled coworker trustworthiness by specifying three first-order latent constructs (ability, benevolence, and integrity) as indicators of a second-order trustworthiness factor at the within-person level. Again following Study 1, we modeled trusting behavior by specifying two first-order latent constructs (reliance and disclosure behavior) as indicators of a second-order trusting behavior factor at the within-person level. The results of the MCFA revealed that our proposed model fit the data well: $\chi^2(579) = 1533.20$ ($p < .01$), CFI = .92, RMSEA = .048, SRMR (within) = .044, SRMR (between) = .000. All indicators loaded significantly on their corresponding factor. A comparison model in which the trust propensity and trustworthiness items loaded on one factor added significant misfit to the data: $\chi^2(586) = 3189.03$ ($p < .01$), CFI = .78, RMSEA = .079, SRMR (within) = .084, SRMR (between) = .000, $\Delta\chi^2(7) = 1655.83$ ($p < .01$). These results support the dimensionality and discriminant validity of our substantive constructs.

8.3 | Descriptive statistics and correlations

The means, within- and between-person standard deviations, and within- and between-person correlations among Study 2 variables are reported in Table 5. The within-person correlations are reported below the diagonal, the between-person correlations are reported above the diagonal, and coefficient alphas are reported on the diagonal.

8.4 | Test of hypotheses

The results of the multilevel path analysis are presented in Table 6. Our Study 2 results largely replicated the results of our first study. We found a significant positive relationship between citizenship received and state trust propensity ($\gamma = .12, p < .05$), providing additional support for Hypothesis 1. In contrast with Study 1, we found a significant negative relationship between deviance received and state trust propensity ($\gamma = -.18, p < .05$), providing support for Hypothesis 2. The pseudo R^2 for state trust propensity was 23.8%. Following our approach in Study 1, we conducted a supplemental analysis that revealed that relationship length failed to explain incremental variance in the within-person slopes between citizenship received ($\gamma = -.01, p > .05$) as well as deviance received ($\gamma = -.01, p > .05$) and state trust propensity. State trust propensity was positively associated with coworker trustworthiness ($\gamma = .13, p < .05$, pseudo $R^2 = 10.0\%$), providing added support for Hypothesis 3. In support of Hypothesis 4, citizenship received had a positive indirect effect on coworker trustworthiness through state trust propensity (.02, 95% CI [.003, .036]). Likewise, in support of Hypothesis 5, deviance received had a negative indirect effect on coworker trustworthiness through state trust propensity (-.02, 95% CI [-.053, -.006]). Providing further support for Hypothesis 6, we found a positive relationship between within-person trustworthiness and within-person trusting behavior ($\gamma = .13, p < .05$). The pseudo R^2 for daily trusting behavior was 33.7%.⁷

Our Study 2 results provided partial support for our expanded set of hypotheses. Hypothesis 7 predicted that workplace unfairness amplifies the positive relationship between citizenship received and state trust propensity. As indicated by the significant interaction term in Table 6, this proposal was supported ($\gamma = .12, p < .05$). To further examine the nature of this significant interaction, we conducted simple slopes analysis at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the cross-level moderator (Aiken & West, 1991). As shown in Figure 2, the positive relationship between citizenship received and state trust propensity is stronger when employee perceptions of workplace

TABLE 5 Descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 2 variables

Variable	Mean	SD-w	SD-b	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Previous-day state trust propensity	3.92	.31	-	(.89)	.46*	.06	-.08	.63*	-.58*	-	.50*	.04	-.19*
2. Previous-day coworker trustworthiness	4.18	.35	-	.05	(.93)	.08	-.05	.63*	-.44*	.47*	-	.08	-.13
3. Previous-day trusting behavior (coworker rated)	3.13	.45	-	.05	.11	(.87)	.40*	.02	.21*	.08	.04	-	.12
4. Opportunity to observe (coworker rated)	3.55	.75	-	.05	-.02	.10	(.93)	.01	.13	-.09	-.08	.38*	.09
5. Citizenship received	3.81	.38	-	.02	-.02	.09*	.05	(.92)	-.58*	.64*	.60*	.00	-.21*
6. Deviance received	1.68	.37	-	-.03	.10	-.06*	-.01	-.43*	(.94)	-.55*	-.44*	.19*	.48*
7. State trust propensity	3.91	.36	-	.19*	-.01	.03	-.06	.25*	-.27*	(.89)	.52*	.05	-.18*
8. Coworker trustworthiness	4.24	.33	-	.13*	-.01	.01	.09	.10*	-.04	.08*	(.94)	.04	-.11
9. Trusting behavior (coworker rated)	3.09	.53	-	.06	-.04	.12	.43*	.03	-.02	.03	.13*	(.88)	.10
10. Workplace unfairness	1.91	-	.70	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	(.94)

Note: Level-2 $N = 119$. Level-1 $n = 709$. Within-person correlations are reported below the diagonal. Between-person correlations are reported above the diagonal. Coefficient alphas are reported on the diagonal. SD-w = within-person standard deviation. SD-b = between-person standard deviation. Because previous-day and current-day operationalizations of the same construct capture identical between-person proportions of variance (i.e., the average level of the construct across the entire study), the between-person correlations for such situations were replaced with “-” to avoid confusion.

* $p < .05$.

TABLE 6 Results of Study 2 multilevel path analyses

Variables	State trust propensity γ	Coworker trustworthiness γ	Trusting behavior (coworker-rated) γ
Intercept	3.92*	3.74*	2.29*
<i>Level-1 predictors</i>			
Previous-day trust propensity	.20*	.10	.01
Citizenship received	.12*	.07	-.03
Deviance received	-.18*	-.03	.03
Previous-day coworker trustworthiness		-.02	-.04
State trust propensity		.13*	.05
Previous-day trusting behavior (coworker rated)			.07
Opportunity to observe (coworker rated)			.31*
Coworker trustworthiness			.13*
<i>Level-2 predictor</i>			
Workplace unfairness	-.13		
<i>Cross-level interaction</i>			
Citizenship received \times Unfairness	.12*		
Deviance received \times Unfairness	.06		
Pseudo R^2	23.8%	10.0%	33.7%

Note: For the between-person level of analysis, $N = 119$. For the within-person level of analysis, $n = 709$. Hypothesized coefficients are bolded. Controlling for the previous-day assessment of criteria constructs allows us to interpret our results as a change in that criteria from the previous day (e.g., state trust propensity is positively associated with a change in coworker trustworthiness from the previous day; Johnson et al., 2014; Scott & Barnes, 2011).

* $p < .05$.

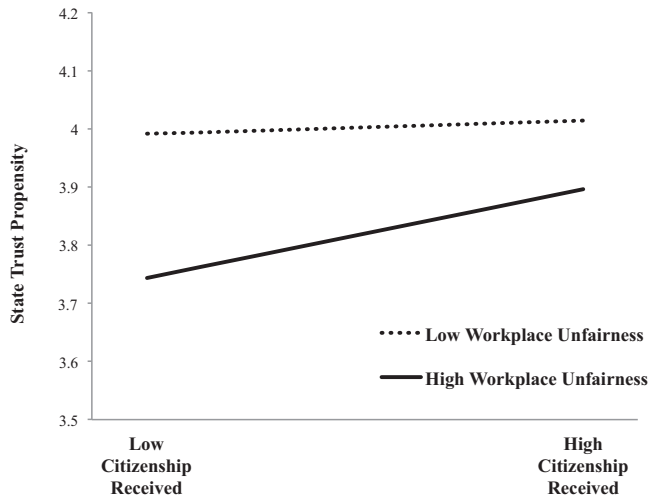


FIGURE 2 Cross-level moderating effect of workplace unfairness on the relationship between citizenship received and state trust propensity

unfairness are high (simple slope = $.20, p < .05$) than when they are low (simple slope = $.03, p > .05$), providing further support for Hypothesis 7. Figure 2 illustrates that in low unfairness workplaces, state trust propensity remained at a relatively stable level, regardless of the citizenship received. In high unfairness workplaces, however, citizenship received had a positive relationship with state trust propensity. Workplace unfairness explained 34.6% of the variance in the within-person slopes between citizenship received and state trust propensity. To test the conditional indirect effect in Hypothesis 8, we followed the same approach as in our indirect effects analysis but replaced the first-stage coefficient (from citizenship received to state trust propensity) with simple slope values at high and low workplace unfairness (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010; see also Lim, Ilies, Koopman, Christoforou, & Arvey, 2016). The magnitude of the conditional indirect effect was larger at high levels of workplace unfairness ($.02, 95\% \text{ CI } [.007, .048]$) than at low levels ($.01, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.005, .027]$). Tests confirmed moderated mediation (Hayes, 2015), as the CI for the difference in conditional indirect effects excluded zero $[.003, .040]$, thereby supporting Hypothesis 8. In contrast, our predictions in Hypotheses 9 and 10 regarding the interactive effects of workplace unfairness and deviance received were not supported. As shown in Table 6, workplace unfairness did not have a significant interaction with deviance received ($\gamma = .06, p > .05$), failing to support Hypothesis 9. By extension, Hypothesis 10, which predicted a conditional indirect effect of deviance received on trustworthiness was also unsupported.

9 | GENERAL DISCUSSION

"I am generally inclined to trust others." The trust literature has assumed that an employee will endorse this notion at a level that is consistent across time and situations (Lyu & Ferrin, 2018; Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998). This assumption has led trust scholars to largely ignore trust propensity as a base of trust in all but the newest relationships. With trust propensity "ruled out" as a base of trust, trust scholars have focused on within-dyad behavior as a predictor of trust (Ferrin et al., 2006). This intuitive focus has led to an implicit consensus that the social context is not an important consideration in models of trust (Ferrin et al., 2006).

Our results question this consensus. By viewing trust dynamics through a within-person lens, we demonstrated that trust propensity is not static. Rather, it exhibits meaningful daily variance as a result of the social context. The general treatment employees received from coworkers informed their state trust propensity and, subsequently, their trustworthiness perceptions of a specific coworker. Importantly, these within-person fluctuations in trustworthiness went on

to have a significant impact on trusting behavior. Although our theory was generally agnostic to whether the treatment received from coworkers included the focal coworker, these effects persisted even when the focal coworker's behavior was explicitly excluded (Study 2). Thus, intradyadic trust was clearly impacted by behavior external to the dyad.

We propose that these insights into the dynamics of trust could not be extrapolated from the existing literature. At the between-person level, scholars have proposed that trust propensity contributes very little to trust once perceptions of trustworthiness have been formed (Bigley & Pearce, 1998; Gill et al., 2005; Johnson-George & Swap, 1982; Mayer et al., 1995; Rotter, 1980). Given that the employees and coworkers in our studies had, on average, been acquainted for more than 2 and a half years, the literature would suggest that trust propensity should not have played a part in these dynamics. In contrast, our research indicates that the role of the social context in trust relationships becomes clear when trust propensity is modeled as a causal mechanism. We also contribute to theory by adding to the nascent research demonstrating that trust dynamics are more variant than typically portrayed (e.g., Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015). Although trustworthiness and trust are considered malleable constructs, research suggests this change is a process of steady growth (van der Werff & Buckley, 2017), with revisions generally occurring only when a trustee's actions significantly deviate from his or her established pattern of behavior (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Mayer et al., 1995). We demonstrated that key variables in trust models—trust propensity, trustworthiness, and trusting behavior—vary substantially on a day-to-day basis, which should encourage trust scholars to continue exploring these dynamics at a within-person level.

Taken together, our findings provide practical insights to managers and organizations seeking to increase employee trust. Prior suggestions for increasing trust have centered on how trustees can act in a more trustworthy manner (Abrams et al., 2003; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Whitener et al., 1998). For example, Abrams et al. (2003) proposed that managers who are striving to increase trust need to demonstrate discretion, consistency, transparency, expertise, and concern for employees. From this perspective, trust between an employee and a specific coworker can only be increased if that coworker displays more trustworthy behavior. Our work suggests that trust can be increased by focusing on the trustor. By striving to provide employees with positive interpersonal treatment and diminish negative interpersonal treatment, organizations may be able to positively dispose employees to more generally trust all members of the organization.

Our findings answer recent calls to uncover remedies to workplace unfairness that do not simply focus on the source of the unfairness (Barclay & Saldanha, 2015; Bobocel, 2013; Colquitt & Zipay, 2015; Okimoto & Wenzel, 2014). Citizenship received was particularly impactful in workplaces that were generally unfair. It seems that when the workplace itself does not provide assurances that an employee will not be exploited (i.e., fairness), daily citizenship behaviors from coworkers are a viable substitute for this crucial uncertainty-reducing information. Our results indicate that when citizenship received was high in high unfairness workplaces, state trust propensity climbed to levels similar to those in low unfairness workplaces. This is encouraging news, given that workgroups may not be able to directly reduce forms of unfairness that come from "higher up" in the organization. To the extent that coworkers can help one another retain a general belief that people can be trusted, they may be able to minimize the destructive side effects of unfairness, regardless of its source.

Although our results consistently supported our predictions regarding citizenship received, our results for deviance received were less consistent. For example, Study 2 did not support our prediction that workplace unfairness would amplify the effect of deviance received on state trust propensity. Rather, deviance received had a consistently detrimental impact on state trust propensity regardless of the workplace's general levels of unfairness. Whereas employees are more attentive to fluctuations in positive treatment when workplace unfairness is high, they seem to be equally vigilant to negative treatment. From a practical perspective, it might be natural to assume that "a little more" negative treatment will not have a substantial effect on trust propensity when workplaces are generally unfair. However, it appears employees are sensitive to these fluctuations. Accordingly, employees should be aware that how they treat their colleagues on a day-to-day basis has a measurable impact, regardless of the general tenor of the workplace.

Our findings have an additional implication for the type of environment organizations should strive to foster. Some trust scholars have proposed that the information gathered early in a relationship will be the largest determinant of trust (Lind, 2001), leading to the suggestion that organizations should primarily focus on providing positive

experiences early on in employees' interactions with colleagues and the organization (Lind, 2001). The assumption has been that these early experiences create a stable trust heuristic that is only revisited in extreme cases (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). Given that trust propensity and, by extension, trustworthiness are impacted by citizenship and deviance received on a day-to-day basis, more vigilant attention to the daily treatment employees receive is required.

9.1 | Limitations and suggestions for future research

Despite the strengths of our manuscript (e.g., replication across studies, ESM design, separation of measurement across time and source, assessing the change in all variables from the previous day), there are limitations that should be noted. Our assessment of trusting behavior only considered behavior toward one specific coworker in the organization. Therefore, we were unable to ascertain whether state trust propensity influenced trusting behavior toward all other individuals in the organization. That said, concerns over the choice of trustee are mitigated for two reasons. First, although the referent is important when considering between-person phenomena, it is generally of little consequence for within-individual research. Our results suggest that employees are more likely to engage in trusting behavior with a specific coworker on days in which they generally receive citizenship, or do not receive deviance, from members of their organization. Second, our theory suggests that state fluctuations in trust propensity should influence trusting behavior toward any and all individuals in the workgroup. Thus, due to the idiosyncrasies of interpersonal interactions (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Merton, 1957), selecting one coworker serves as a conservative test of our proposals.

Although our theoretical framework led us to investigate citizenship and deviance received as contextual influences, there are likely additional dynamics that convey their effects through state trust propensity. As one example, Hardin (1993) proposed that organizations might be able to proactively provide opportunities to trust (see also Bigley & Pearce, 1998). He argued that those with low beliefs in others' trustworthiness likely don't engage in the type of cooperative behavior that allows them to discover that others are trustworthy. Providing formal opportunities for individuals to trust—such as working with unfamiliar others on projects—might allow those individuals to see firsthand that people can be relied on. Thus, engaging in trusting behavior might create a positive spiral of trust. Future within-person research could investigate whether formal interventions like this have permanent or transient effects on trust.

We see the exploration of additional boundary conditions as a particularly fruitful way for future research to build on our model. Although trait trust propensity did not moderate the contextual effects that we explored, it may operate differently when considering other predictors. Some research suggests that intrinsic satisfaction is gained from expressing one's dispositional traits (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000). Accordingly, the effects of some contextual factors on state trust propensity may be enhanced for individuals high in trait trust propensity. As another example, considering that relationship length can play a moderating role in trust dynamics (Levin, Whitener, & Cross, 2006), relationship length would be a valuable moderator to consider in future work that explores additional aspects of the social context.

Another moderating factor might be the attributions that employees make for the citizenship that is received. Scholars have argued that attributing citizenship to ulterior motives—for example, impression management (Rioux & Penner, 2001)—may weaken its positive effects on employee attitudes and behaviors (Bolino, 1999). In high unfairness organizations, citizenship behavior might be seen as a lack of consistency, leading employees to attribute the citizenship to instrumental motives (Kelley, 1967). This suggests a mediated moderation model, in which workplace unfairness impacts the attributions for citizenship behavior. In turn, these attributions might moderate the relationship between citizenship received and state trust propensity. To tease out these effects, research would need to explicitly assess employee attributions for coworker citizenship.

The literature might also benefit from considering the within-person dynamics of distrust. Our decision to treat trust as unidimensional stemmed from our reliance on Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust to define our core constructs. According to this model, trust and distrust lie on opposite ends of the same continuum. Indeed, Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007, p. 350) strongly asserted that they could “find no credible evidence that a concept of distrust that is conceptually different from trust is theoretically or empirically viable.” Although we do not take a firm stance on this point, we focused on trust to remain consistent with Mayer et al.'s (1995) model. We note that other trust

scholars, however, have proposed that trust and distrust are distinct (e.g., Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998). We suggest that scholars who explore the within-person dynamics of trust from this perspective should explore whether unique relationships are revealed by treating trust and distrust as distinct constructs.

The trust literature could also benefit from examining the within-individual dynamics in our model using a network-based approach (e.g., Ferrin et al., 2006; Levin & Cross, 2004). This approach could capture the citizenship and deviance received each day from each member of the workgroup. Building on our findings, this research could explore whether a colleague's position in an employee's network—strong or weak ties (Granovetter, 1973)—influences the impact of that specific colleague on the employee's state trust propensity. On the one hand, particularly positive treatment from a strongly connected coworker might loom large. On the other hand, this behavior might not “stand out” as much as fluctuations in behavior from weakly connected coworkers. Thus, it remains an open question how these structural ties might affect within-person trust dynamics. As a starting point, scholars might turn to existing work which has begun to explore the role of network ties in trust dynamics at the between-person level (Ferrin et al., 2006; Levin & Cross, 2004).

10 | CONCLUSION

People need “good reasons” to trust (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Those good reasons largely consist of the first-hand knowledge of a potential trustee. Yet, our results suggest that employees' trust is not just based on this hard data. Rather, daily coworker treatment—whether the focal coworker was included in this aggregate behavior or not—influenced employees' state trust propensity. The sense that “Right now I am inclined to trust others” went on to affect dyadic perceptions of trustworthiness. Although intuitive, the conceptualization of employees' trust propensity as fixed provides organizations with few options for increasing employee trust on a global scale. If organizations can increase employee trust across-the-board through a focus on increasing workplace citizenship and decreasing workplace deviance, they may see substantial gains in trust levels throughout the organization.

¹ We conducted a series of analyses to ensure our inclusion of days 16 and 17 did not meaningfully influence our results. First, we tested whether any significant differences existed between days 16–17 and days 1–15. We found no significant differences among the reliabilities, means, or standard deviations of our measures on these days, as compared to days 1–15. Second, we reestimated our model controlling for whether the observation was from days 16 and 17. Each of the hypothesized parameters was unchanged in both magnitude and significance level when a dummy code representing these days was included as a control on all endogenous constructs. Third, we reestimated our model including a within-person interaction on each path in the model between the relevant predictor and a dummy code representing these days to test whether the strength of the relationships differed between days 16–17 and days 1–15. The strength of the relationship of each parameter in the model was not significantly different from each other between days 16–17 and days 1–15. Finally, to ensure that the day of the week more generally (as well as cyclical patterns of affect, energy, or fatigue across the days in the study) did not influence our results, we reestimated our model following the recommendations of Beal and Ghandour (2011) to control for the day of the week as well as its sine and cosine. The results of this analysis revealed that each of the hypothesized parameters was unchanged in both magnitude and significance level from the primary model.

² The nonsignificant effect of deviance on state trust propensity may have been due to a “floor effect” that restricted its variance. However, although the mean of deviance was low, its variance ($SD_{within} = .60$) was very similar to the variance of citizenship ($SD_{within} = .64$), suggesting that restricted variance is not the sole reason for the nonsignificant effect.

³ Although our theoretical model concludes with trusting behavior, we collected ratings of employees' job performance from the coworkers using the Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) job performance scale. Highlighting the importance of trusting behavior, it was positively associated with coworker-rated job performance ($r = .40, p < .05$) at the within-person level, and also predicted coworker-rated job performance ($\gamma = .25, p < .05$) in a model in which coworker-rated job performance was added as the final downstream outcome. This model included the direct effects of all other variables in the model and controlled for previous-day coworker-rated job performance.

⁴ We also explored two other moderating effects recommended by the review team. First, because recent research suggests that the effects of trustworthy behavior on perceptions of trustworthiness may be affected by relationship length (Levin, Whitener, & Cross, 2006), we explored the moderating role of relationship length on the relationships between citizenship and deviance received and state trust propensity. Relationship length failed to explain incremental variance in the within-person slopes between citizenship ($\gamma = -.01, p > .05$) and deviance ($\gamma = .00, p > .05$) received and state trust propensity. Second,

we explored the moderating role of trait trust propensity on the relationships between citizenship and deviance received and state trust propensity. This analysis revealed that trait trust propensity failed to explain incremental variance in the within-person slopes between citizenship ($\gamma = -.02, p > .05$) and deviance ($\gamma = -.03, p > .05$) received and state trust propensity.

- ⁵ Providing additional evidence for our proposal that citizenship will be uncertainty reducing rather than provoking, Allen and Rush (1998) found that citizenship behaviors have a strong positive association with the attribution of altruistic motives and a strong negative association with the attribution of instrumental motives. This research indicates that citizenship tends to be received in a positive light.
- ⁶ We again conducted an analysis to ensure that the day of the week and cyclical patterns of affect, energy, and fatigue across the days in the study did not influence our results. Following the recommendations of Beal and Ghandour (2011), we reestimated our model controlling for the day of the week as well as the sine and cosine of that variable. The results of this analysis revealed that each of the hypothesized parameters was unchanged in both direction and significance level from the primary model.
- ⁷ To further highlight the importance of these dynamics, following Study 1, we collected ratings of employees' job performance from coworkers using the Griffin et al. (2007) job performance scale. Trusting behavior was positively associated with coworker-rated job performance ($r = .39, p < .05$) at the within-person level, and also predicted coworker-rated job performance ($\gamma = .22, p < .05$) in a model in which coworker-rated job performance was added as the final downstream outcome. This model included the direct effects of all other variables in the model and controlled for previous day coworker-rated job performance.

ORCID

Michael D. Baer  <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4524-2436>

Ji Koung Kim  <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7540-477X>

David T. Welsh  <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6475-8273>

REFERENCES

- Abrams, L. C., Cross, R., Lesser, E., & Levin, D. Z. (2003). Nurturing interpersonal trust in knowledge-sharing networks. *Academy of Management Executive*, 17, 64–77.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. New York, NY: Sage.
- Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 247–260.
- Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2009). The role of overall justice judgments in organizational justice research: A test of mediation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 491–500.
- Ambrose, M. L., Wo, D. X. H., & Griffith, M. D. (2015). Overall justice: Past, present, and future. In R. S. Cropanzano & M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace* (pp. 109–136). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Ballinger, G. A., & Rockmann, K. W. (2010). Chutes versus ladders: Anchoring events and a punctuated-equilibrium perspective on social exchange relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 35, 373–391.
- Barclay, L. J., & Saldanha, M. F. (2015). Recovering from organizational injustice: New directions in theory and research. In M. Ambrose & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of justice in work organizations* (pp. 497–522). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Bargh, J. A. (2005). Bypassing the will: Demystifying the nonconscious control of social behavior. In R. R. Hassin, J. S. Uleman, & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The new unconscious* (pp. 37–58). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Bargh, J. A., Gollwitzer, P. M., Lee-Chai, A., Barndollar, K., & Trötschel, R. (2001). The automated will: Nonconscious activation and pursuit of behavioral goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81, 1014–1027.
- Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good. *Review of General Psychology*, 5, 323–370.
- Beal, D. J. (2015). ESM 2.0: State of the art and future potential of experience sampling methods in organizational research. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 2, 383–407.
- Beal, D. J., & Ghandour, L. (2011). Stability, change, and the stability of change in daily workplace affect. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32, 526–546.
- Beehr, T. A., & Drexler, J. A. (1986). Social support, autonomy, and hierarchical level as moderators of the role characteristics-outcome relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 7, 207–214.

- Bernath, M. S., & Feshbach, N. D. (1995). Children's trust: Theory, assessment, development, and research directions. *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 4*, 1–19.
- Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 410–424.
- Bigley, G. A., & Pearce, J. L. (1998). Straining for shared meaning in organization science: Problems of trust and distrust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*, 405–421.
- Birnbaum, M. H. (2004). Human research and data collection via the Internet. *Annual Review of Psychology, 55*, 803–832.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Bobocel, D. R. (2013). Coping with unfair events constructively or destructively: The effects of overall justice and self–other orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*, 720–731.
- Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management Review, 24*, 82–98.
- Borgatti, S. P., & Foster, P. C. (2003). The network paradigm in organizational research: A review and typology. *Journal of Management, 29*, 991–1013.
- Breaugh, J. A. (2008). Important considerations in using statistical procedures to control for nuisance variables in non-experimental studies. *Human Resource Management Review, 18*, 282–293.
- Bromiley, P., & Cummings, L. L. (1995). Transactions costs in organizations with trust. *Research on Negotiation in Organizations, 5*, 219–250.
- Cervone, D. (2004). The architecture of personality. *Psychological Review, 111*, 183–204.
- Cervone, D. (2005). Personality architecture: Within-person structures and processes. *Annual Review of Psychology, 56*, 423–452.
- Chiaburu, D. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2008). Do peers make the place? Conceptual synthesis and meta-analysis of coworker effects on perceptions, attitudes, OCBs, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*, 1082–1103.
- Colquitt, J. A., Long, D. M., Rodell, J. B., & Halvorsen-Ganepola, M. D. (2015). Adding the “in” to justice: A qualitative and quantitative investigation of the differential effects of justice rule adherence and violation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*, 278–297.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Rodell, J. B. (2015). Measuring justice and fairness. In R. S. Cropanzano & M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace* (pp. 187–202). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., & LePine, J. A. (2007). Trust, trustworthiness, and trust propensity: A meta-analytic test of their unique relationships with risk taking and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 909–927.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Zipay, K. P. (2015). Justice, fairness, and employee reactions. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 2*, 75–99.
- Cook, K. S., & Hardin, R. (2001). Norms of cooperativeness and networks of trust. In M. Hechter & K. D. Opp (Eds.), *Social norms* (pp. 327–347). New York, NY: Russell Sage.
- da Motta Veiga, S. P., & Gabriel, A. S. (2016). The role of self-determined motivation in job search: A dynamic approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*, 350–361.
- Dalal, R. S., Lam, H., Weiss, H. M., Welch, E. R., & Hulin, C. L. (2009). A within-person approach to work behavior and performance: Concurrent and lagged citizenship-counterproductivity associations, and dynamic relationships with affect and overall job performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*, 1051–1066.
- Deng, H., Walter, F., Lam, C. K., & Zhao, H. H. (2017). Spillover effects of emotional labor in customer service encounters toward coworker harming: A resource depletion perspective. *Personnel Psychology, 70*, 469–502.
- Deutsch, M. (1962). Cooperation and trust: Some theoretical notes. In M. R. Jones (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation 1962* (pp. 275–319). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Deutsch, M., & Krauss, R. M. (1965). *Theories in social psychology*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 611–628.
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*, 331–351.
- Enders, C. K., & Tofighi, D. (2007). Centering predictor variables in cross-sectional multilevel models: A new look at an old issue. *Psychological Methods, 12*, 121–138.

- Epstein, S. (1983). A research paradigm for the study of personality and emotions. In M. M. Page (Ed.), *Personality—current theory and research: Nebraska Symposium on Motivation 1982* (pp. 91–154). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society*. New York, NY: Norton.
- Farh, J. L., Hackett, R. D., & Liang, J. (2007). Individual-level cultural values as moderators of perceived organizational support—employee outcome relationships in China: Comparing the effects of power distance and traditionality. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 715–729.
- Ferrin, D. L., Dirks, K. T., & Shah, P. P. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of third-party relationships on interpersonal trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 870–883.
- Ferris, G. R., Liden, R. C., Munyon, T. P., Summers, J. K., Basik, K. J., & Buckley, M. R. (2009). Relationships at work: Toward a multidimensional conceptualization of dyadic work relationships. *Journal of Management*, 35, 1379–1403.
- Flanagan, C. A., & Stout, M. (2010). Developmental patterns of social trust between early and late adolescence: Age and school climate effects. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 20, 748–773.
- Fleeson, W. (2012). Perspectives on the person: Rapid growth and opportunities for integration. In K. Deaux & M. Snyder (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of personality and social psychology* (pp. 33–63). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Fleeson, W., & Gallagher, P. (2009). The implications of Big Five standing for the distribution of trait manifestation in behavior: Fifteen experience-sampling studies and a meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 97, 1097–1114.
- Fleeson, W., & Jolley, S. (2006). A proposed theory of the adult development of intraindividual variability in trait-manifesting behavior. In D. K. Mroczek & T. D. Little (Eds.), *Handbook of personality development* (pp. 41–59). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Fleeson, W., & Nofle, E. E. (2009). In favor of the synthetic resolution to the person–situation debate. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43, 150–154.
- Gabriel, A. S., Koopman, J., Rosen, C. C., & Johnson, R. E. (2018). Helping others or helping oneself? An episodic examination of the behavioral consequences of helping at work. *Personnel Psychology*, 71, 85–107.
- Gambetta, D. (1988). *Trust: Making and breaking cooperative relations*. New York, NY: Basil Blackwell.
- Gill, H., Boies, K., Finegan, J. E., & McNally, J. (2005). Antecedents of trust: Establishing a boundary condition for the relation between propensity to trust and intention to trust. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 19, 287–302.
- Gillespie, N. (2003). *Measuring trust in working relationships: The behavioral trust inventory*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Conference, Seattle, WA.
- Gillespie, N. (2012). Measuring trust in organizational contexts: An overview of survey-based measures. In F. Lyon, G. Möllering, & M. Saunders (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods on trust* (pp. 175–188). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Grandey, A. A. (2003). When “the show must go on”: Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46, 86–96.
- Granovetter, M. S. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78, 1360–1380.
- Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 327–347.
- Gulati, R. (1995). Does familiarity breed trust? The implications of repeated ties for contractual choice in alliances. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 85–112.
- Halbesleben, J. R. (2006). Sources of social support and burnout: A meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 1134–1145.
- Halbesleben, J. R., & Wheeler, A. R. (2015). To invest or not? The role of coworker support and trust in daily reciprocal gain spirals of helping behavior. *Journal of Management*, 41, 1628–1650.
- Hardin, R. (1993). The street-level epistemology of trust. *Politics & Society*, 21, 505–529.
- Harrison, D. A. (1995). Volunteer motivation and attendance decisions: Competitive theory testing in multiple samples from a homeless shelter. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 371–385.
- Hayes, A. F. (2015). An index and test of linear moderated mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 50, 1–22.
- Higgins, E. T. (1989). Knowledge accessibility and activation: Subjectivity and suffering from unconscious sources. In J. S. Uleman & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *Unintended thought* (pp. 75–123). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Higgins, E. T. (1990). Personality, social psychology, and person-situation relations: Standards and knowledge activation as a common language. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Handbook of personality* (pp. 301–338). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Higgins, E. T. (1996). Knowledge activation: Accessibility, applicability, and salience. In E. T. Higgins & A. E. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 133–168). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

- Higgins, E. T. (1999). Persons and situations: Unique explanatory principles or variability in general principles? In D. Cervone & Y. Shoda (Eds.), *The coherence of personality: Social-cognitive bases of consistency, variability, and organization* (pp. 61–93). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Higgins, E. T. (2011). Accessibility theory. In P. A. M. Van Lange, A. W. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of theories of social psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 75–96). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Higgins, E. T., & Brendl, C. M. (1995). Accessibility and applicability: Some “activation rules” influencing judgment. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *31*, 218–243.
- Higgins, E. T., & Chaires, W. M. (1980). Accessibility of interrelational constructs: Implications for stimulus encoding and creativity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *16*, 348–361.
- Higgins, E. T., King, G. A., & Mavin, G. H. (1982). Individual construct accessibility and subjective impressions and recall. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *43*, 35–47.
- Higgins, E. T., Rholes, W. S., & Jones, C. R. (1977). Category accessibility and impression formation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *13*, 141–154.
- Hofmann, D. A., & Gavin, M. B. (1998). Centering decisions in hierarchical linear models: Implications for research in organizations. *Journal of Management*, *24*, 623–641.
- Huang, J. L., & Ryan, A. (2011). Beyond personality traits: A study of personality states and situational contingencies in customer service jobs. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*, 451–488.
- Ilies, R., Liu, X. Y., Liu, Y. K., & Zheng, X. M. (2017). Why do employees have better family lives when they are highly engaged at work? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*, 956–970.
- Johnson, R. E., Lanaj, K., & Barnes, C. M. (2014). The good and bad of being fair: Effects of procedural and interpersonal justice behaviors on regulatory resources. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*, 635–650.
- Johnson-George, C., & Swap, W. C. (1982). Measurement of specific interpersonal trust: Construction and validation of a scale to assess trust in a specific other. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *43*, 1306–1317.
- Judge, T. A., & Ferris, G. R. (1993). Social context of performance evaluation decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, *36*, 80–105.
- Judge, T. A., Simon, L. S., Hurst, C., & Kelley, K. (2014). What I experienced yesterday is who I am today: Relationship of work motivations and behaviors to within-individual variation in the five-factor model of personality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*, 199–221.
- Kamdar, D., & Van Dyne, L. (2007). The joint effects of personality and workplace social exchange relationships in predicting task performance and citizenship performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 1286–1298.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Katz, H. A., & Rotter, J. B. (1969). Interpersonal trust scores of college students and their parents. *Child Development*, *40*, 657–661.
- Kelley, H. H. (1967). Attribution theory in social psychology. In D. Levine (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation* (pp. 192–240). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Kenrick, D. T., & Funder, D. C. (1988). Profiting from controversy: Lessons from the person-situation debate. *American Psychologist*, *43*, 23–34.
- Kirkman, B. L., Lowe, K. B., & Gibson, C. B. (2006). A quarter century of culture's consequences: A review of empirical research incorporating Hofstede's cultural values framework. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *37*, 285–320.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (2001). The impact of cultural values on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in self-managing work teams: The mediating role of employee resistance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*, 557–569.
- Koopman, J., Lanaj, K., & Scott, B. A. (2016). Integrating the bright and dark sides of OCB: A daily investigation of the benefits and costs of helping others. *Academy of Management Journal*, *59*, 414–435.
- Korsgaard, M. A., Brodt, S. E., & Whitener, E. M. (2002). Trust in the face of conflict: The role of managerial trustworthy behavior and organizational context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*, 312–319.
- Kramer, R. M. (1996). Divergent realities and convergent disappointments in the hierarchic relation: Trust and the intuitive auditor at work. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 216–245). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kramer, R. M. (1999). Trust and distrust in organizations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *50*, 569–598.
- Lau, D. C., & Liden, R. C. (2008). Antecedents of coworker trust: Leaders' blessings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*, 1130–1138.

- Levin, D. Z., & Cross, R. (2004). The strength of weak ties you can trust: The mediating role of trust in effective knowledge transfer. *Management Science*, *50*, 1477–1490.
- Levin, D. Z., Whitener, E. M., & Cross, R. (2006). Perceived trustworthiness of knowledge sources: The moderating impact of relationship length. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*, 1163–1171.
- Lewicki, R. J., McAllister, D. J., & Bies, R. J. (1998). Trust and distrust: New relationships and realities. *Academy of Management Review*, *23*, 438–458.
- Lewicki, R. J., Wiethoff, C., & Tomlinson, E. C. (2005). What is the role of trust in organizational justice? In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 247–270). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Lewis, J. D., & Weigert, A. (1985). Trust as a social reality. *Social Forces*, *63*, 967–985.
- Lim, S., Iliès, R., Koopman, J., Christoforou, P., & Arvey, R. D. (2016). Emotional mechanisms linking incivility at work to aggression and withdrawal at home: An experience-sampling study. *Journal of Management*, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316654544>.
- Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgments as pivotal cognitions in organizational relations. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 56–88). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Lind, E. A., & Van den Bos, K. (2002). When fairness works: Toward a general theory of uncertainty management. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *24*, 181–223.
- Lyu, S. C., & Ferrin, D. L. (2018). Determinants, consequences, and functions of interpersonal trust within organizations: What is the empirical evidence? In R. Searle, A. M. Nienaber, & S. Sitkin (Eds.), *The Routledge companion to trust* (pp. 65–104). London, UK: Routledge.
- MacDonald, A., Kessel, V. S., & Fuller, J. B. (1972). Self-disclosure and two kinds of trust. *Psychological Reports*, *30*, 143–148.
- Major, B., Zubek, J. M., Cooper, M. L., Cozzarelli, C., & Richards, C. (1997). Mixed messages: Implications of social conflict and social support within close relationships for adjustment to a stressful life event. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *72*, 1349–1363.
- Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*, 123–136.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, *20*, 709–734.
- Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. (2005). Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*, 874–888.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1994). The stability of personality: Observation and evaluations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *3*, 173–175.
- McKnight, D. H., Cummings, L. L., & Chervany, N. L. (1998). Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, *23*, 473–490.
- Merton, R. K. (1957). *Social theory and social structure* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.
- Meyer, R. D., Dalal, R. S., & Bonaccio, S. (2009). A meta-analytic investigation into the moderating effects of situational strength on the conscientiousness–performance relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *30*, 1077–1102.
- Mischel, W. (2004). Toward an integrative science of the person. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *55*, 1–22.
- Mischel, W., & Shoda, Y. (2008). Toward a unified theory of personality. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (Vol. 3, pp. 208–241). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablinski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*, 1102–1121.
- Mooradian, T., Renzl, B., & Matzler, K. (2006). Who trusts? Personality, trust and knowledge sharing. *Management Learning*, *37*, 523–540.
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. (2015). *Mplus 7.4*. Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.
- Nicholson, N., & Johns, G. (1985). The absence culture and psychological contract—who's in control of absence? *Academy of Management Review*, *10*, 397–407.
- Nosek, B. A., Banaji, M. R., & Greenwald, A. G. (2002). E-research: Ethics, security, design, and control in psychological research on the Internet. *Journal of Social Issues*, *58*, 161–176.
- Ohly, S., Sonntag, S., Niessen, C., & Zapf, D. (2010). Diary studies in organizational research. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, *9*, 79–93.

- Okimoto, T. G., & Wenzel, M. (2014). Bridging diverging perspectives and repairing damaged relationships in the aftermath of workplace transgressions. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *24*, 443–473.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 879–903.
- Preacher, K. J., Zyphur, M. J., & Zhang, Z. (2010). A general multilevel SEM framework for assessing multilevel mediation. *Psychological Methods*, *15*, 209–233.
- Proudford, D., & Lind, E. A. (2015). Fairness heuristic theory, the uncertainty management model, and fairness at work. In R. S. Cropanzano & M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of justice in work organizations* (pp. 371–385). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: A motivational analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 1306–1314.
- Rodell, J. B. (2013). Finding meaning through volunteering: Why do employees volunteer and what does it mean for their jobs? *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*, 1274–1294.
- Rodell, J. B., & Judge, T. A. (2009). Can “good” stressors spark “bad” behaviors? The mediating role of emotions in links of challenge and hindrance stressors with citizenship and counterproductive behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*, 1438–1451.
- Rotter, J. B. (1967). A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Personality*, *35*, 651–665.
- Rotter, J. B. (1971). Generalized expectancies for interpersonal trust. *American Psychologist*, *26*, 443–452.
- Rotter, J. B. (1980). Interpersonal trust, trustworthiness, and gullibility. *American Psychologist*, *35*, 1–7.
- Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, *23*, 393–404.
- Sakai, A. (2010). Children's sense of trust in significant others: Genetic versus environmental contributions and buffer to life stressors. In K. J. Rotenberg (Ed.), *Interpersonal trust during childhood and adolescence* (pp. 56–84). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*, 437–453.
- Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). An integrative model of organizational trust: Past, present, and future. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*, 344–354.
- Scott, B. A., & Barnes, C. M. (2011). A multilevel field investigation of emotional labor, affect, work withdrawal, and gender. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*, 116–136.
- Selig, J. P., & Preacher, K. J. (2008). Monte Carlo method for assessing mediation: An interactive tool for creating confidence intervals for indirect effects. *Computer Software*. Retrieved from <https://quantpsy.org/>.
- Shao, P., Resick, C. J., & Hargis, M. B. (2011). Helping and harming others in the workplace: The roles of personal values and abusive supervision. *Human Relations*, *64*, 1051–1078.
- Simmel, G. (1950). *The sociology of Georg Simmel*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Spector, P. E., & Brannick, M. T. (2011). Methodological urban legends: The misuse of statistical control variables. *Organizational Research Methods*, *14*, 287–305.
- Srull, T. K., & Wyer, R. S. (1979). The role of category accessibility in the interpretation of information about persons: Some determinants and implications. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *37*, 1660–1672.
- Srull, T. K., & Wyer, R. S. (1980). Category accessibility and social perception: Some implications for the study of person memory and interpersonal judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *38*, 841–856.
- Stack, L. C. (1978). Trust. In H. London & J. E. Exner, Jr. (Eds.), *Dimensions of personality* (pp. 561–599). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Teitcher, J. E., Bockting, W. O., Bauermeister, J. A., Hofer, C. J., Miner, M. H., & Klitzman, R. L. (2015). Detecting, preventing, and responding to “fraudsters” in internet research: Ethics and tradeoffs. *The Journal of Law, Medicine & Ethics*, *43*, 116–133.
- Tett, R. P., & Burnett, D. D. (2003). A personality trait-based interactionist model of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 500–517.
- Tett, R. P., & Guterman, H. A. (2000). Situation trait relevance, trait expression, and cross-situational consistency: Testing a principle of trait activation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *34*, 397–423.
- Trougakos, J. P., Hideg, I., Cheng, B. H., & Beal, D. J. (2014). Lunch breaks unpacked: The role of autonomy as a moderator of recovery during lunch. *Academy of Management Journal*, *57*, 405–421.
- Tyler, T. R., & Lind, E. A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 115–191). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

- Uslaner, E. M. (2002). *The moral foundations of trust*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Uslaner, E. M. (2008). Where you stand depends upon where your grandparents sat: The inheritability of generalized trust. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 72, 725–740.
- Van den Bos, K. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Assessing the information to which people are reacting has a pivotal role in understanding organizational justice. In S. Gilliland, D. Steiner, & D. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Theoretical and cultural perspectives on organizational justice* (pp. 63–84). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Van den Bos, K., & Lind, E. A. (2002). Uncertainty management by means of fairness judgments. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 34, 1–60.
- van der Werff, L., & Buckley, F. (2017). Getting to know you: A longitudinal examination of trust cues and trust development during socialization. *Journal of Management*, 43, 742–770.
- Venkataramani, V., & Dalal, R. S. (2007). Who helps and harms whom? Relational antecedents of interpersonal helping and harming in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 952–966.
- Viswesvaran, C., Sanchez, J. I., & Fisher, J. (1999). The role of social support in the process of work stress: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54, 314–334.
- Wang, M., Liu, S. Q., Liao, H., Gong, Y. P., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., & Shi, J. Q. (2013). Can't get it out of my mind: Employee rumination after customer mistreatment and negative mood in the next morning. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 989–1004.
- Webb, W. M., & Worchel, P. (1986). Trust and distrust. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 213–228). Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.
- Whitener, E. M., Brodt, S. E., Korsgaard, M. A., & Werner, J. M. (1998). Managers as initiators of trust: An exchange relationship framework for understanding managerial trustworthy behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 513–530.
- Woolum, A., Foulk, T., Lanaj, K., & Erez, A. (2017). Rude color glasses: The contaminating effects of witnessed morning rudeness on perceptions and behaviors throughout the workday. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102, 1658–1672.

How to cite this article: Baer MD, Matta FK, Kim JK, Welsh DT, Garud N. It's not you, it's them: Social influences on trust propensity and trust dynamics. *Personnel Psychology*. 2018;71:423–455. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12265>