ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF

RELATIONAL AMBIVALENCE:

A LONGITUDINAL AND DAILY DIARY STUDY INVESTIGATION

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"There are moments when one has to choose between living one's own life, fully, entirely, completely-or dragging out some false, shallow, degrading existence that the world in its hypocrisy demands."

- Oscar Wilde

"It seems we are capable of immense love and loyalty, and as capable of deceit and atrocity. It's probably this shocking ambivalence that makes us unique."

- John Scott

Declaration

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Abstract

Employee-manager relationships have received significant attention in the literature in attempting to understand the development and consequences of 'good' and 'bad' relationships. Whilst much is known about these relationships independently, relatively little is known about those relationships that are both 'good' **and** 'bad'. This thesis uses 'relational ambivalence' to describe such relationships and addresses a fundamental question in employee-manager research; can employees simultaneously like and dislike their managers? Two separate research methodologies address this question. The first study, employing a longitudinal survey over a six-month period, explored how historical, individual and social-cognitive perspectives contributed to employee relationship valuations (positive, negative, and ambivalent). This study also tested the impact that each relationship valuation had on interpersonal and organisational outcomes. The second study employed a daily diary method to explore how employee relationship valuations impacted responses to manager-induced psychological contract violations over a two-week period.

Findings indicated that relational ambivalence is a distinct relationship valuation both in terms of its antecedents and consequences. The first study revealed that relational ambivalence had a curvilinear relationship with both leader-member exchange and relational schema similarity. Additionally, preoccupied attachment was positively related to relational ambivalence, whilst oneness perceptions were negatively related to relational ambivalence. The study examined two outcome categories: interpersonal and organisational. The interpersonal outcomes revealed a negative relationship with affectbased and cognition-based trust, as well as relational identification; whilst the organisational outcomes revealed that relational ambivalence was the strongest relationship valuation linked to turnover intent. Relational ambivalence was negatively related to OCBs directed toward the organisation, and job control negatively moderated OCBs directed toward the manager. Finally, study two revealed that relational ambivalence changes in intensity over time and leads to increased OCBs, decreased forgiveness, and increased intrusive thoughts after a manager-induced psychological contract violation. Employees offering positive valuations lowered their OCBs, increased forgiveness, and did not experience intrusive thoughts; whilst those offering negative valuations only lowered their OCBs. Contributions and implications of this thesis are discussed.

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As anyone who has a doctorate would agree, this journey is definitely an emotional one. I simply could not have done it without the support of my friends and family. My fellow PhDs, namely Bethania Antunes, Veronica Palau and Dr. Horen Voskeritsian, played a pivotal role in helping to maintain my sanity. Whether over cups of coffee or pints of beer, our shared experiences made the difficult times much easier to bear. Stephanie Moss also made life easier for me, and she will continue to do so for many years. In addition, I will always be thankful to my friend and colleague, Dr. Mindy Bergman, who paved the way for my interest in this fascinating world of research. My brother's eternal scepticism for our field of work inspires my motivation, as does the steadfast love of my wonderful parents. Mom and Dad, you have given me so much to help make this dream come true. Finally, Neil Robinson has been by my side through every step of the way. He has helped me through one of the most difficult periods of my life, and for that I am eternally grateful. For these and many other reasons, I am truly blessed.

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1.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 – Introduction

"One must know how things happen in order to make them happen." –Forsterling & Rudolph, 1988

1.1 Introduction

In the context of life within organisations, relationships, especially with managers, are often fraught with ambiguity and uncertainty. Further, the quality of the relationships individuals develop with managers is often contingent on previous interactions and context-specific cues. These indicators give rise to informational deficiencies and often result in questions such as "Do I belong in this organisation?", "Is my manager treating me right?", and "Do I desire to build a stronger relationship with my manager?" These questions motivate the initiation of attitude formation, where individuals assign meaning to the various experiences and interactions they have with their manager. Whilst attitudes toward the relationship might often be determined as either positive or negative, such clarity in classification might not always be the case.

A long history of research suggests that when employees feel as though the relationship they have with their manager is positive, employees tend to reciprocate with favourable interpersonal and organisational behaviours. Likewise, when relationships with managers are negative, employees tend to respond with negative workplace behaviours. The inducement-contribution model (March & Simon, 1958) is regularly used in organisational research to explain why employees generate these types of reciprocal relationships with managers. Accordingly, the extant literature utilizes various constructs to capture and describe positive and negative employee-manager relationships. Specifically, leader-member exchange (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997), perceived supervisor support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988), interactional justice (Bies, 1986), and psychological contract fulfilment (Rousseau, 1989; Morrison & Robinson, 1997) are used to describe positive employee relationships; while abusive supervision (Griffen & O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Tepper, 2007) aggressive supervision (Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006), supervisor undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), malevolent supervision (Tepper, 2000) and destructive leadership (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007) are used to describe negative employee relationships with managers. Whilst the existence and associated outcomes of these relational frameworks has been well documented, there are still unanswered questions regarding the way in which relationship quality is conceptualized and measured.

For instance, although the above relational constructs are useful for representing employee-manager relationships that are either positive or negative, the literature is void of relational constructs representing relationships that are both positive *and* negative. Indeed, the measures associated with the above constructs incorporate bipolar continuums that force individuals into two finite relationship-defining possibilities (i.e., high or low quality / support / abuse / etc.). Consequently, their depiction of relationship quality is limited since these constructs do not account for the full range of potential relationship outcomes. For example, some employees might feel as though their relationship with their manager is difficult to define, because the relationship is characterized by an amalgam of both positive and negative exchanges. These employees might regularly experience support *and* abuse from their managers; so the relationship is neither positive nor negative, but both. This thesis suggests that such conditions give rise to ambivalent employee attitudes toward the relationship.

Ambivalent attitudes occur when an individual is inclined to give an attitude object equivalently strong positive or negative valuations (Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995). For example, ambivalence might occur when a manager offers an employee adequate training for professional development but also publicly reprimands the employee when minor mistakes are made. Ambivalence, in this way, stems from cognitive dissonance whereby an individual's behaviour is inconsistent with her attitude (Festinger, 1957). Accordingly, the more familiar individuals become with one another, the more pronounced their competing positive and negative features become. Such increased familiarity might arouse dissonance, and the greater the dissonance, the greater the motivation to resolve ambivalence (Festinger, 1957). Accordingly, such felt dissonance has important implications for relationship research and has, thus far, not been included in its assessment. Therefore, this thesis suggests employee valuation of relationship quality with managers is much more intricate than currently recognised, and introduces *relational ambivalence* to assuage this shortcoming.

This thesis defines relational ambivalence as occurring when employees simultaneously hold favourable and unfavourable attitudes toward their managers. Research investigating attitudes seems to suggest that the experience of ambivalence is an inevitable aspect of all relationships (Coser, 1956). Nordgren, Harreveld, and van der Pligt (2006) suggest that it is the centrality or accessibility of the attitude object that heightens our awareness of ambivalence. It seems apparent, therefore, that relationships that require a considerable amount of interaction, like in the case with employees and managers, will eventually experience some degree of ambivalence. Contradictions over time, for example, will plant the seeds for ambivalence as will differences in values and discrepancies in relational identity (Goffman, 1963). Therefore, as individuals make

sense of relationships over time, an ambivalent valuation is to be expected (Weigert, 1991).

In line with other researchers expressing the need to account for ambivalence in organisations (e.g., Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Locke & Braun, 2009; Oreg & Sverdlik, 2010), this thesis seeks not only to gain a more realistic understanding of relationship quality by acknowledging the role of ambivalence, but also by assessing it in ways prescribed by early ambivalence scholars (Kaplan, 1972; Thompson, Zanna & Griffin, 1995). In doing so, this thesis offers a framework that integrates prior relationship quality research with various factors that I consider might heighten the experience of relational ambivalence. It identifies certain antecedent conditions to relational ambivalence to key psychological and behavioural outcomes that organisations consider important.

The integration of several streams of research forms the theoretical foundation for this thesis. These include evolutionary psychology, social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964; March & Simon, 1958), interdependence theory (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003; Kelley et al. 2002), social cognition (Fiske & Taylor, 1991), personality and attitudes (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). These theories will be outlined in the following chapter (Chapter 2) and will resurface throughout the empirical chapters (e.g., Chapters 4, 5, and 6) of this thesis. Following the review of the literature, Chapter 3 will introduce the methodology employed in order to investigate relational ambivalence. Chapters 4 will explore how historical, individual, and social-cognitive perspectives contribute to relationship valuations. Then, Chapter 5 will examine the interpersonal and organisational outcomes of relational ambivalence. Chapter 6 will investigate how

the perceptions of the relationship employees have with their manager (i.e., positive, negative, ambivalent) moderates reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations. In addition, Chapter 6 tests the stability of relational ambivalence over time. Finally, Chapter 7 will review the significant findings of this thesis and discusses the theoretical and practical implications associated with the results.

The next chapter will demonstrate the ways in which the research questions throughout this thesis were derived. In doing so, it will review prior employee-manager relationship quality research, explain why relationships are important and how they are formed, introduce relational ambivalence and explore its antecedents and consequences, and explain how relationships with managers are also relevant to psychological contract research. Together, this thesis aims to shed new light on relationship quality research in organisations by recognizing and rectifying the present limitations.

Chapter 2 – Integrating Relational Ambivalence into the Employee-Manager Relationship

2.1 Introduction

- 2.2 A Brief Overview of Social Exchange Theory and EOR Research
- 2.3 The role of organisational agents in understanding the EOR
- 2.4 Why is Our Understanding of Employee-Manager Relationship Quality Incomplete?
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Chapter 2 – Integrating Relational Ambivalence into the Employee-Manager Relationship

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present a critical overview of employee-manager relationship quality research. This chapter sets out to accomplish the following: 1) To demonstrate the necessity of research regarding relationships with managers, 2) To explore the relational ambivalence construct and its conceptualization, and 3) To demonstrate the implications of the employee-manager relationship for psychological contract research. The research questions will be presented as well as the overall structure of this thesis.

2.2 A brief overview of Social Exchange Theory and EOR research

Scholars across multiple disciplines have made great strides in order to discover more about the ways in which relationships at work develop and evolve. A vast majority of these efforts, particularly within the realm of organisational behaviour, have concentrated on the relationships that employees develop with their organisations (e.g., Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Robinson & Brown, 2004, Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009). This concept, generally referred to as the employee-organisation relationship (EOR), groups a plethora of research dedicated to the understanding of how employees interact, interpret, and form relationships with their employing organisation. The theoretical underpinnings of the EOR are grounded in the theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; March & Simon, 1958).

Social exchange theory suggests relationships are formed out of unspecified obligations or "favours that create diffuse future obligations (i.e., reciprocity), not precisely specified ones, and to which the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it" (Blau, 1964, p.50). Simply stated, a certain level of trust must develop between two parties (e.g., an employer and employee, or a set of co-workers) in order to reciprocate future obligations. Social exchange theory is widely accepted as a framework for understanding the employment relationship (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003); however, in order to understand its role in developing employee-manager relationships, it might be useful to examine Blau's (1964) definition in two parts.

First, a "favour that creates a diffuse obligation" (Blau, 1964, p.108) indeed defines reciprocity in an applied setting; however, it is ambiguous as to what specifically is exchanged. What is implied, however, is that the item of exchange must be of value in order to generate the need to reciprocate. Most researchers in this area acknowledge that the act alone may carry more symbolic value than the actual goods exchanged, or that there may exist varying degrees of overlap between the implicit and explicit value of the exchange (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch and Barksdale, 2006; Coyle-Shapiro and Shore, 2007). These assertions are grounded in Foa and Foa's (1975, 1980) discussion of the six classes of human need (e.g., love, status, information, money, goods and services). These classes, which are similar to the desired characteristics in others, represent the resources that are often exchanged in relationship construction as well as the value motive for reciprocity that develops as a result of feeling in debt to another party. Foa and Foa (1975) recognised a resource as "anything transacted in an interpersonal situation" (p.78). For example, a tenured employee might share information regarding office politics with a new co-worker. As a result, the new employee might feel a sense of imbalance as she is now obligated to offer something in return (e.g., to support the tenured employee for project leads). The resources exchanged might be physical (e.g.,

money) or completely intangible (e.g., love). Foa and Foa (1975, 1980) refer to these differences in resource type as being *concrete* versus *symbolic*.

Employment relationship research has attempted to explain the type of relationships that emerge according to the resources that are exchanged. For example, Rousseau (1995) suggests individuals form one of two contract relationships in employment over time: transactional or relational. Transactional contracts are typically more economic in nature and are based primarily on explicit (i.e., concrete) resource exchanges. Rousseau (1995) suggests these relationships are formed in the short term and are limited with respect to levels of commitment and affect. Relational contracts, which are based more on trust and implicit (i.e., symbolic) resource exchanges, envelope higher levels of affect and more emotional attachment.

Similarly, Shore et al. (2006) describe organisational economic exchange relationships as incorporating *financial* and tangible exchange resources (e.g., pay for performance) while organisational social exchange relationships incorporate more *socio-emotional* resources such as trust, affective commitment, and investment. For example, I may develop more of a trusting relationship with my employer as he invests resources into my area, appropriately socializes me with the department, or provides me with meaningful tasks. Equally, I might reciprocate by demonstrating my commitment to the organisation through my reliability, citizenship, and obedience. No matter how an exchange resource is perceived, Blau (1964) discusses two motives for engaging in reciprocity. He suggests individuals reciprocate according to a desire to stay out of social debt or as a need for social power. Reciprocity, therefore, is developed as a motive for restoring an imbalance of power to a given supplier. In this way, a failure to

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reciprocate is often viewed as ingratitude and unacceptable in terms of societal norms (Gouldner, 1960).

The second part of the social exchange definition states, "the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it." (Blau, 1964, p. 108) Essentially this segment alludes to trust since it requires individuals to afford valuable resources even under conditions of uncertainty. It assumes, for example, that the receiving party will act according to the giver's best interest at any future point in time, which is a commonly recognised feature of encapsulated trust (Cook, Hardin, and Levi, 2005). If, however, the other party does not reciprocate, a relationship based on trust will fail and future acts of reciprocity will be hindered.

In a relatively recent review of social exchange literature, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) reveal the importance of examining all dimensions of social exchange relationships – including what is exchanged and when. These authors suggest an exchange requires a bidirectional transaction. Their assertion aligns with the aforementioned relevance of trust as a component of reciprocity. According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), an example of a social exchange relationship might entail an organisational member offering commitment in exchange for support. Their review calls into question the timing of a social exchange and suggests its ability to transform from an economic to a more social exchange. This is consistent with the argument regarding a transaction as a symbolic action of trust and suggests the importance of considering the situational aspects and timing of relationship formation.

Social exchange theorists have examined work relationships as an interaction between individuals (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997), an interaction between individuals and

the broader organisation (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Shore et al., 2006) or both (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008). As a result, these studies indicate that individuals will return the benefits they receive to the party with whom they feel they have a social exchange relationship (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). Consequently, there are three particular constructs of the EOR that describe the way employees and organisations exchange resources. These are psychological contracts, perceived organisational support (POS), and leader-member exchange (LMX). Accordingly, these three constructs explain the ways in which resources are exchanged between employees and their organisation as governed by the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). The key factor that distinguishes each construct from the other, and therefore the quality of the relationship created, is the way in which the relationship with the organisation is understood.

For psychological contracts, a relationship is conceived when beliefs are made about the reciprocal obligations one has with their organisation (Rousseau, 1989, 1995; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Here, the perceived expectations one has regarding such an exchange is paramount to understanding the EOR (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski & Bravo, 2007), and the quality of the EOR is strengthened when the organisation fulfils employee expectations and vice versa. POS, on the other hand, is primarily concerned with the extent to which employees feel as though their contributions are valued and that the organisation cares about their well being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). Such felt support creates a sense of indebtedness which fuels the creation of the EOR as, according to this perspective, individuals give back to the organisation. Finally, LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997) suggests that leaders differentiate relationships with followers according to the resources they provide. Here, higher quality relationships with leaders (high LMX) engender higher-

level resources such as trust, mutual respect and obligation, whereas relationships based primarily on the written employment contract (low LMX) are more transactional (Liden, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2004). The leader, in this case, largely influences the EOR (Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2008) by serving as a primary representative of the organization.

2.3 The role of organisational agents in understanding the EOR

Although some research evaluating POS and psychological contracts does theorize regarding who, in the mind of the employee, represents the organisation (e.g., Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Rousseau, 1995, 2001; Morrison & Robinson, 1997), LMX is the primary construct within the EOR literature to specify a bona fide organisational agent. While empirical results for POS and psychological contracts regarding the EOR have been useful, as discussed below, many scholars in this area assert the need to identify a specific organisational agent(s) responsible for exchanges within the EOR for a number of reasons. Liden, Bauer and Erdogan (2004), for example, emphasize that leaders, such as direct supervisors, play a pivotal role in representing the organisation, since they are often involved in the socialisation of newcomers. In this way, supervisors may influence the extent to which employees feel as though they are accepted into a working partnership, welcomed and trusted by other group members, familiarised with their specific roles, and evaluated fairly by the organisation (Feldman, 1976; Fisher, 1986).

With regard to the latter, organisational support theory (OST) holds that, due to the directive and evaluative roles supervisors have, subordinates may view the receipt of favourable or unfavourable treatment from their supervisors as a direct indication of how the organisation feels towards them (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa,

1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995). Further, OST suggests that since supervisors communicate directly with upper management regarding the evaluation of their direct reports, subordinates may associate supervisor behaviour as representative of the organisation as a whole (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). As a result, subordinates have been shown to follow managers that exit organisations (Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006).

Consistent with this theme, Reichers (1985) argued that it is more useful to understand an organisation and its behaviour by examining its various constituents. According to this view, recognizing an organisation as a monolithic entity is fallible and does not capture the various goals and values of individual members. In light of this, it has been observed that employees fully recognise the interpersonal treatment they receive from authority figures within organisations (Lind & Tyler, 1988). As such, interpersonal relationships in employment have received a lot of attention from organisational researchers, and the consequences of developing high quality relationships, particularly between supervisors and subordinates, are well documented (e.g., Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Rousseau, 1995; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). The outcomes of these empirical works are primarily based on a reciprocal exchange where employees respond to a leader's fulfilment (or under fulfilment) of certain expectations.

The results for such studies reveal that high quality relationships with managers instigate positive outcomes such as increased employee affective commitment (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006), emotional attachment (Rousseau, 1995), trust (Robinson, 1996; Cook, Hardin, & Levi, 2005), long-term investment (Amato, 1993), in-role (Shore & Shore, 1995; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006) and extra-role

performance (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Similarly, recent meta-analyses regarding LMX reveal a positive relationship with performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, role clarity, and organisational citizenship behaviour (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Such perceived interpersonal closeness with one's manager signals to an employee that she is respected and valued by the organisation (Tyler & Lind, 1992), which creates a strong inclination for the employee to positively reciprocate. Managers who neglect or even abuse the relationship they have with their subordinates run the risk of increasing employee stress (Biron, Brun & Ivers, 2008) and creating an unfair or malicious environment (Tepper, 2007). Such mistreatment might lead to certain retaliatory behaviours (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) such as decreased organisational citizenship behaviours (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002) or decreased performance (Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007).

2.4 Why is our understanding of employee-manager relationship quality incomplete?

Although existing empirical research regarding social exchanges between employees and managers has pervasively highlighted the benefits of establishing high quality relationships, such efforts have been challenged for their inability to confidently determine how such relationships develop (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). More specifically, few studies have explored the key resources that managers and subordinates might exchange and many neglect the role of interpersonal closeness within such relationships altogether. In addition, a limited number of studies have recognised the symbolic role managers play in embodying their organisations (e.g., Eisenberger et. al, 2010). Therefore, a starting point for this research primarily rests on the recognition that most individuals do care about the relationships they have with their superiors and often carry a fundamental (though sometimes instrumental) desire to

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increase closeness by exchanging resources that demonstrate trust (Cross & Morris, 2003). In such cases, trust and long term orientation are heightened when the resources exchanged are reciprocated and are of similar value. Exchange relationships, in this way, begin to encompass a more emotional attachment (Rousseau, 1995) and are further strengthened by increased interaction (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007).

In an employment setting, there are various incentives both for the manager and subordinate to exchange trust and commitment and to invest in one another (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Although doing so may take time, this type of exchange creates a sense of indebtedness that must be repaid, and it is this form of reciprocity that solidifies the quality of a relationship and affords individuals to think in the long-term (Amato, 1993). Prior research in this area maintains that such investment has more to do with a desire to remain with an organisation or committed to a relationship as a result of positive affect and less to do with transactional or economic motives (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch & Barksdale, 2006). Accordingly, when individuals on either side of a dyad make salient the benefits of forming a trusting relationship, they establish credibility and reliability – both of which are key to relationship functioning (Cook, Hardin & Levi, 2005).

The extant literature in this area has been primarily concerned with the key dimensions that must be present in order to enhance relationship quality; however, research demonstrating how such dimensions evolve is relatively scarce. As a result, studies, which concentrate on relationship quality as a consequence of the reciprocation of specific, valued resources, are few and far between. Again, Foa & Foa (1975, 1980) discuss both symbolic and concrete resources that may enhance this process; and while a minority of studies have advanced this agenda and recognise that relationships emanate from both material and nonmaterial goods (Liden et al., 1997; Liden & Graen, 1980), we still know very little about the exact nature of these goods. It seems imperative, therefore, that we should explore the roles that relationship dynamics and context play within employee-manager relationships since these may influence the ways in which resources are exchanged. Although we are generally limited in our understanding of how and why high quality employee-manager relationships develop, close relationship and evolutionary psychology literature (as discussed in the following section) suggests we cognize and prioritize relationships according to the satisfaction of basic human needs. Understanding more about the ways in which employees communicate and develop needs may enable organisations to introduce new strategies for effectively managing interpersonal relationships.

2.5 Why do we need relationships?

Our evolutionary roots might determine that in principle, human beings were created for interaction. For example, reciprocity, or "the pattern of exchange through which the mutual dependence of people is realized" (Gouldner, 1960: 169–170) provides organisation and has proven to be a behaviour that contributes to the ultimate success of a species (Alexander, 1974) and a "vital principle of society" (Thurnwald, 1932). Through this realized dependence on one another, we interact in an effort to benefit both ourselves and a collective, because the sum of our strengths provides utility and survival (Alexander, 1974). Ultimately, we understand (or have learned) that attempting to survive alone will almost guarantee our own demise.

Whether lifelong or short-lived, the relationships we develop throughout our lives may, in many cases, be attributed to a method for handling various socially adaptive problems (Buss, 1995). These methods, or reciprocal alliances, "require complex psychological mechanisms that are uniquely designed for specialized adaptive problems" (Buss, 1995, p. 17). Cooperative (i.e., reciprocal) social relationships, as a result, have been shown to generate remarkable benefits (Trivers, 1971) and have primed the plentiful curiosity of research around social exchange (discussed previously in this chapter) and equity (e.g., Adams, 1965). The idea, therefore of symbiosis, where two or more individuals establish a cooperative, exchange relationship, has been around since the foundation of human survival.

Beyond survival, human beings have an innate need for belonging and "strongly resist the dissolution of relationships and social bonds" (Baumeister & Leary, 1995, p. 503). Still further, individuals internalize relationships with others, which influences personal identity and the sense of self (Baldwin, 1992). Theoretically, it might not be possible to experience who one actually is without the ability to relate to others (Mead, 1934; Self-conception, in this way, is highly contingent on various Sullivan, 1953). interpersonal factors. These ideas, which evoke strong implications for the theoretical development of this thesis, will be discussed as social cognitive differences (e.g., belongingness and identity) in Chapters 4 and 5. Based primarily on human psychological need, Homans (1950) suggested we have motivations "hard wired" into our human network. These motivations either drive us toward safety, which incorporates dependency and trust; or toward effectiveness, which incorporates competition or envy (Kadushin, 2002). Suggesting the former is more plausible, McClelland (1961) and several other motivational theorists found that, in addition to achievement and power, intrinsically, human beings encompass a strong need for affiliation. Thus, he suggested individuals strive to maintain relationships and prefer cooperation to competition. In this way, survival is linked to goal-directed behaviour that might operate subconsciously (Giddens, 1984). Attending to the basic drives of

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human nature, this assumption was further reinforced by Greenberg (1991), who suggested the need for human interaction in relationship formation. Such assertions are important since the development and maintenance of relationships, whether consciously recognised or not, consume our day-to-day energy (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

An understanding of this inherent, human motivation and fundamental need for interaction provides the foundation for the following section where relationship formation is discussed. Complementing the theory behind this thesis, the section will help explain, in many ways, why we spend so much time preserving the relationships that we already have – an assertion that resonates quite soundly with the agenda of my second area of exploration.

2.6 How are relationships formed?

Despite the vast array of potential relationships available throughout our societies, it seems we only have time or, perhaps more accurately, "room" for a select few (Dunbar, 1993; Tooby & Cosmides, 1996). How then, do we go about selecting individuals that are compatible or appropriate? Better still, on what basis do we attempt to form close relationships when they are thrust upon us in organisations?

The extant literature suggests that with interdependent relationships, in general, we prefer specific likable characteristics (e.g., loyalty, dependability, thoughtfulness), and that we value such things as kindness, social status, attractiveness, trustworthiness and similarity (Buss, 1989; Fletcher & Simpson, 2000; Cottrell, Neuberg & Li, 2007). Still further, benevolence (e.g., honesty, loyalty, helpfulness, forgiveness, and responsibility) seems to serve as an aspiring principle for one's life and, consequently, a filter for the types of individuals with whom we might form a relationship (Schwartz, 1992;

Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Cottrell, et al., 2007). A consistent theme throughout the literature, and an otherwise strong declaration by others (e.g., Deutsch, 1960), is that trust is a necessary condition for effective cooperative exchange.

Effectively (or perhaps egoistically), we often consider the attributes and implications of forming a relationship with another person in an effort to understand the ways in which we might benefit from establishing a relationship with that person (Fiske & Haslam, 1996). Thus, the *salience*, or "property of stimuli given a particular context" (Taylor & Fiske, 1978), of available resources a relationship might provide is typically heightened by individual needs and goals, accordingly. For example, Lusk, Macdonald and Newman (1998) found that when ranking ideal leaders, individuals tended to develop their responses according to what was most salient (and therefore important) to them (e.g., attractive, conscientious, intelligent, etc.). In effect, these descriptions were characteristic of what individuals needed or sought from a leader. As will be discussed below, our keen understanding (and often immediate judgment) of the resources others can potentially provide is largely based on our past experiences with a given set of people (e.g., managers, leaders, co-workers, friends, etc.).

The ways in which individuals make sense of the availability of others to provide relationship-edifying resources is an interesting one. Obviously, people differ in the amount of attention they give to relationship construction; however, the basic pattern is generally consistent (Cross & Morris, 2003). Indeed, the early stages of relationship formation are built on very few experiences (Baldwin, 1992). Elaborating on the concept of *schema*, or "mental structures that represent some aspect of the world" (Bartlett, 1932; Anderson, 1977), Baldwin (1992) developed the idea of *relational schemas* and defined these as "cognitive structures that represent regularities in patterns of interpersonal relatedness" (p. 461). Better stated, to make sense of our highly

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uncertain world, individuals intuitively develop cognitive maps based on prior experiences. This is done in an effort to normalize and understand acceptable patterns of behaviour and to maximize potential gains. Thus, our ability to function in the social world, particularly within our own culture, becomes increasingly more possible as we experience more and more interaction.

Once relational schemas are developed, individuals have a primary tool for handling future interactions. For example, when an individual is faced with a situation of need, she will most likely rely on past experiences and emotional cues to navigate her toward individuals who will nurture her. In organisations, for example, we establish relatively quickly whom are the individuals that we can turn to for assistance or support. In this way, whether conscious or unconscious, it seems our primary motivations leverage our decision to formulate relationships (Baldwin, 1995). Relational schemas, therefore, may in some ways be viewed as a double-edged sword, because individuals begin to use past experiences to explain away new experiences (Baldwin, 1992). As a result, unique experiences with a relationship partner might be ignored (i.e., explained away), the inconsistent experiences might lead to conflict, or new relationships might fail to develop altogether. Of particular relevance to this research are instances of inconsistent experiences. How do relationships develop when exchange related patterns are both positive and negative? What type of relationship (if any) is formed, and how do individuals reciprocate under these conditions? The answer to these questions might further explained through research on attitudes.

2.7 Understanding Relationship Quality through Competing Positive and Negative Attitudes

One way that individuals communicate needs is through formulating and expressing an attitude. Attitudes are, "psychological tendencies that are expressed by evaluating a

particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.1). When we encounter someone new, for example a friend or a manager, we are presented with a stimulus. Our favour or disfavour toward that individual represents our attitude and can largely impact whether or not a relationship is formed. However, such valuation may be influenced in a variety of ways. Emotions, which impact attitudes (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), are a driving force behind the formation of relationships, and are hard wired into our genetic composition in order to enable individuals to adapt to specific situations and communicate needs effectively (Panksepp, 1992; Plutchik, 1980; Tooby & Cosmides, 1990). In this way, the expression of attitudes might enable cooperativeness and loyalty, which are considerably valued by organisations and help enable individuals to avoid exclusion. To date, however, "little empirical research has explored the ways in which the quality of the employment relationship can shape attitudes and behaviors." (Thompson & Heron, 2006, p.28).

In line with this view, this research maintains that one major deficit thwarting our full understanding of employee-manager relationship quality is derived from the way in which quality is assessed. Although current measures of relationship quality with managers do target employee perceptions and attitudes regarding key facets of the relationship, these measures are largely one-sided. Current measures separately assess positive and negative aspects of the relationship (e.g., trust, support, abuse, neglect) and fail to recognise that employees could potentially experience varying degrees of both. Therefore, despite the long-standing utility of LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997) and OST (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995) research, our current assessment of the quality of the relationship employees have with their manager is somewhat limited.

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As previously discussed, LMX researchers differentiate in-group and out-group members according to *low* or *high* quality supervisory relationships and confine their assessment of quality according to very specific, albeit evolving, dimensions (i.e., originally: trust, respect, and obligation, later: contribution, affect, loyalty, and professional respect) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). In this way, LMX theory assumes that individuals indeed have a finite attitude about the manager despite the fact that, in reality, finite attitudes might not always be the case. Equally, measures that capture negative employee-manager relationships suffer from a similar problem. Measures such as abusive supervision (Griffen & O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Tepper, 2007), supervisor undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002) and psychological contract violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) increase in utility when assessments are of either extreme (e.g., high or low abuse / undermining / violation). Presumably, researchers assume that individuals scoring high on a scale such as abusive supervision would score low on a scale like LMX. Although this might often be the case, our current measures of relationship quality do not account for employees who score high on both of these scales and who are otherwise ambivalent about the relationships they have with their managers.

Ambivalent attitudes primarily evolve from conflicting affective reactions whereby an individual may feel both positive and negative affect toward an object at the same time (Larsen, McGraw & Cacioppo, 2001). For example, ambivalent attitudes might develop when a manager shows his support by rewarding an employee with an extended holiday, but also harasses the employee by demanding to see photos of the employee in her bathing suit. Such conflicting signals from the employee's manager might instil competing positive and negative attitudes toward her manager. Ambivalence, in this way, is comparable to cognitive dissonance whereby an individual's behaviour is

inconsistent with their attitude (Festinger, 1957; Ashforth & Rogers, 2010). Despite it being described as a "universal human phenomenon" (Beohm, 1989: 921), thus far, ambivalence has been completely neglected by studies involving employee-manager relationships and is rarely discussed within organisational research (exceptions: Pratt & Rosa, 2003; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Oglensky, 2008; Oreg & Sverdlik, 2011).

Therefore, relying solely on current measures to understand employee-manager relationship quality might limit our ability to distinguish positive or negative relationships from other types of relationship outcomes. Although the constructs used to explore employee-manager relationship quality have been effectively utilized to capture positive and negative relationships, these measures do not offer the ability to discern whether or not ambivalence exists within employee-manager relationships. Although Sparrowe & Liden (1997) do discuss exchange continuums with respect to reciprocal expectations, ambivalence is not captured through this approach.

As such, this thesis examines employee-manager relationship quality by taking into account competing attitudes toward certain facets of the relationship. It assumes that employee attitudes toward the relationships, like any other attitudinal target, vary in their level of favour and disfavour. Accordingly, it will independently assess the positive and negative facets of employee-manager relationships in order to account for the strength and intensity of relational ambivalence. In doing so, it hopes to account for the aforementioned deficiencies in our current assessment. The theory put forth regarding the first research question (described in the following section) will primarily incorporate the symbolic resources that are thought to encapsulate the majority of interpersonal relationships. Here, the aim is to clearly define how managers might either raise or lower employee relationship valuations by either meeting or falling short

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of these antecedent conditions. In doing so, the outcomes for the relationship and the organisation can be better understood.

Since the outcomes of positive and negative relationships between employers and employees are empirically supported, an investigation with the agenda to learn more about other types of relationship valuations, and how these valuations influence employee behaviour, seems fitting. Though many have contributed to a better understanding of what contributes to relationship quality, Shore & Coyle Shapiro (2003), suggest there is a "need for subsequent research that elaborates on theories that may further explain the role of cognitive processes in the formation and revision of the EOR" (p.446). In light of such assertions, the first part of the current research will attempt to meet the current challenges discussed above. Since subordinates tend to interpret their manager's treatment as an indicator of the organisation's appraisal of themselves (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006), the first part of this thesis examines the antecedents and outcomes of employee attitudes toward relationships with managers. Such objectives should set the foundation for the aims of the second part of this thesis where the context of a negative event is introduced to the employee-manager relationship.

2.8 Proposed contributions of the first research aim: Exploring the antecedents and consequences of relational ambivalence

By incorporating employee attitude as an indicator of relationship quality with managers, the first part of this thesis seeks not only to expand our theoretical understanding of this important phenomenon, but also bridge any gaps regarding its [under]development. Borrowing from social psychology's close relationship literature (Fincham & Linfield, 1997), a new measure for relationship quality will be introduced which enables the ability to account for positive, negative, and ambivalent relationship

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valuations. As discussed previously, to date, such categorization has been primarily limited to only positive and negative exchanges. Indeed, most attitudes are evaluated according to these types of bipolar continuums (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

Close relationship literature has revealed that individuals may report both positive and negative experiences within a relationship, and has therefore been able to determine attitudes by considering the strength and importance of each (Fincham & Linfield, 1997). Independently accounting for both positive and negative experiences with managers will remove the bipolar consequences associated with previous designs and provide a more accurate depiction of the relationship. Accordingly, a positive attitude toward the relationship is genuinely marked by numerous positive interactions and low (or no) negative interactions, whereas a negative attitude is marked by more negative interactions and fewer (or no) positive interactions. *Relational ambivalence*, on the other hand, is marked by a combination of numerous positive and numerous negative interactions with managers.

Ambivalence (literally meaning "both" "to be strong") by definition is when an individual simultaneously holds favourable and unfavourable attitudes toward someone or something (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Kaplan, 1972; Katz & Hass, 1988). It is often described as having "mixed feelings" or being "torn between conflicting impulses." For example, an employee might experience ambivalence when her manager is good at introducing her to key players in the field but terrible at offering her proper feedback on her performance. In this way, it seems on the surface ambivalence is likely the result of direct and observable positive and negative interactions.

However, aside from competing positive and negative experiences that are within an individual's immediate awareness, cognitive psychologists might suggest ambivalent attitudes are derived from something far more complex. For instance, research by Carver and Scheier (1998) would suggest that competing thinking processes might contribute to the experience of ambivalence as well. Indeed, their proposed *dual processing model* suggests individuals have top-level and bottom-level processing mechanisms that guide thinking and behaviour. Top-level processors decode information that is brought into conscious awareness, whilst bottom-level processors are responsible for decoding subconscious information. Accordingly, top-level processing has been referred to as a rational system (Epstein, 1985; 1990; 1994) since responses to information are deliberative and controlled. Contrary to this, bottom-level processing is more automatic, experiential, and implemental (Beckman & Gollwitzer, 1987). As such, it is more emotionally charged and driven by discrepant information.

Johnson, Chang, and Lord (2006) expand upon dual processing theories through their meta-analysis on cognitive processes and behaviour. Whilst their model also features elements of conscious and subconscious cognitive processing, their hierarchy is broken into four discrete levels. These levels consist of social, rational, cognitive, and biological. According to their theory, moving down the hierarchy (i.e., from social to biological) requires a depreciation of consciousness, whilst moving up the hierarchy (i.e., from biological to social) requires discrepant information over time. For example, higher order systems, like that of the social and cognitive levels, focus on direct feedback, whilst lower order systems focus on performance-goal discrepancies. Therefore, much like dual processing theory (Carver & Scheier, 1998), bottom up processes are based more on physiological and psychological feedback, whilst top down processes are based on direct feedback (e.g., social cues). Bottom level processors

move into consciousness when discrepant information is prolonged (Johnson et al., 2006).

How these dual-processing models might incite ambivalence is fairly straightforward. Simply put, ambivalence could potentially be the result of top-level (conscious) processors that are in conflict with bottom level (subconscious) processors. For example, an employee's conscious thought might be that good relationships with managers are important to promotion-based opportunities. As such, the employee might, in many ways, derive social cues that positively contribute to this end (i.e., a somewhat self-serving bias). All the while, subconscious processors are able to derive the true nature of the relationship by processing information ignored or missed by the conscious processor. When discrepancies at lower-levels are realised, the employee is likely to become emotional (e.g., sad or angry). Ambivalence, therefore, might ensue when the negative emotion (processed at lower-levels) conflicts with the standard through which top-level processing occurred.

Unfortunately, we know very little about the ways in which individuals deal with attitudinal ambivalence within organisations. In some cases, ambivalence has been shown to lead to negative outcomes such as behavioural vacillation and paralysis (Pratt & Doucet, 2000; Weigert & Franks, 1989); however, it has also been shown to lead to creativity (Fong, 2006), organisational commitment (Pratt & Rosa, 2003), trust (Pratt & Dirks, 2006), and wisdom (Weick, 1998). Though research involving the behavioural outcomes of ambivalence might be scarce, Carver and Scheier (1998) would again suggest that when top-level and bottom-level processors are aligned (i.e., non-ambivalence), performance will occur; and when top-level and bottom-level processors are aligned response to the processors are in conflict (i.e., ambivalence), behaviour will be hindered. As depicted in Figure 2.1

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below, Carver and Scheier (1998) suggest top-level and bottom-level processor alignment and processor conflict is analogous to a rowboat with oars rowing in the same direction (i.e., alignment) versus in competing directions (i.e., conflict). A rowboat will move forward when both oars move simultaneously in the same direction, and it will not move forward if both oars move simultaneously in opposite directions.

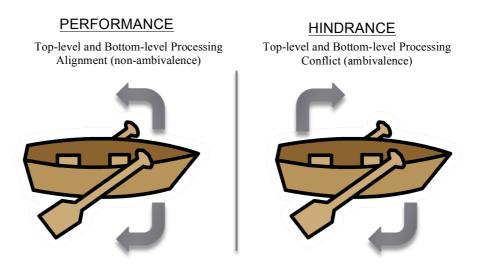


Figure 2. 1 Analogy depicting the performance or hindrance of behaviour associated with top level-bottom level processing alignment and top level-bottom level processing conflict

The relationship above can be moderated slightly, however, if the individual is driven by a particular goal. For example, Maes (1990) suggests goals make action easier even if the action does not seem advantageous from a narrow, immediate perspective. Thus, whilst bottom-level (i.e. subconscious) processers might be in conflict with top-level (i.e. conscious) processors, goals might sustain behaviour at least in the interim since they afford individuals the ability to supress the negative feedback derived from bottom-level processors. Carver and Scheier (1998) proposed, however, that goal disengagement or goal abandonment might occur when negative feedback loops from bottom-level processors eventually reach conscious processing. In other words, individuals stop and assess their expectancy for goal achievement after repeated efforts to reduce discrepancies fail (Campion & Lord, 1982; Carver & Scheir, 1998). Reduced effort toward goal attainment, however, is less likely when the valence of goals is high. In such cases, individuals might consider more strategic ways to achieve the desired end.

Indeed, individuals holding ambivalent attitudes tend to process information regarding their attitude more carefully. This may be in an attempt to either alleviate the tension they are feeling toward the attitude object (Jonas, Diehl, & Bromer, 1997; Maio, Bell, & Esses, 1996) or to determine whether or not they are reaching their desired goal (Johnson et al., 2004). Interestingly, any subsequent positive or negative event or information tends to sway the individual's attitude accordingly (Katz & Hass, 1988). Therefore, in the absence of highly anticipated goals, behaviour is also likely to be impacted. It is for this reason that attitudinal ambivalence has been associated with decreased forgiveness after a transgression (Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; Kachadourian, Fincham, & Davila, 2005) and decreased trust in political leaders (Anderson & LoTempio, 2002). In line with the results of prior ambivalence research, this thesis predicts that inconsistent exchanges with managers as well as discordance in top-level and bottom-level cognitive processing will likely contribute to employee ambivalent attitudes toward the relationship. As such, this thesis suggests that relational ambivalence occurs when employees simultaneously hold favourable and unfavourable attitudes toward their managers (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998; Kaplan, 1972; Katz & Hass, 1988).

Research on attitudes tends to suggest that one's valuation of a given entity is influenced by various experiences. As a result, prior attitudes can be influenced by an integration of new information allowing for a more thorough, and perhaps more accurate, appraisal. Further, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) suggest a multifaceted approach to attitude construction improves reliability. Therefore, the first research questions

investigate several (primarily symbolic) resources that are further classified into three broad antecedent perspectives believed to guide employee positive, negative, and ambivalent relationship valuations. These are the historical, individual, and socialcognitive perspectives.

As will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4, the historical perspective accounts for exchange perceptions between managers and employees. It incorporates LMX and relational schema similarity in its assessment. The individual perspective accounts for adult attachment style functioning. This perspective gathers information about the way in which individuals are comfortable with intimacy in their adult relationships. It specifically examines how secure, preoccupied, and fearful adult attachment styles contribute to relationship valuations. Finally, the social cognitive perspective accounts for employee perceptions of oneness with managers. Here, levels of felt belonging are predicted to impact the employee and therefore influence the way in which they valuate the relationship.

The research questions for the first part of this thesis are formed according to these three antecedent perspectives. Namely:

- 1) Does relational ambivalence exist?
- 2) Do positive and negative exchanges with managers lead to relational ambivalence (i.e., Does the midpoint of LMX and relational schema similarity significantly related to relational ambivalence?)
- 3) Do aspects about the individual (i.e., adult attachment style functioning) influence perceptions of relationship valuation?
- 4) Do employees examine the social environment (i.e., oneness perceptions) when assessing the relationship?

Although some debate exists concerning whether or not attitudes lead to behaviour (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), interpersonal relationships inherently allow for direct experiences with the attitudinal entity, which is said to enhance the attitude-behaviour linkage (Regan & Fazio, 1977). As such, the second part of the first research question examines the interpersonal and organisational outcomes of relational ambivalence. As detailed in Chapter 5, this thesis determined that cognition-based trust, affect-based trust, and relational identification were important to examine as interpersonal outcomes; and turnover intent, organisational outcomes. The question of whether or not relational ambivalence contributes to these outcomes will be explored. The second half of this research explores the ways in which relationships with managers gauge employee reactions to highly negative and emotional events. For this I turn to psychological contract research.

2.9 Proposed contributions of the second research aim: Exploring prosocial reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations

When a relationship that we value is threatened in some way, as in over a broken promise or conflict of interest, the tendency for most individuals is to employ strategies that will enable the relationship to return to a state of balance, thus diminishing its failure (Duck, 2007). For example, consider the way you feel when someone close to you fails to meet your expectations. A likely response is you feel angry, offended, or perhaps confused; however, there are many things to consider before you enact a behaviour response. For instance, you might consider either positive and negative features of the relationship's history or whether or not the incident was a unique experience or a seemingly reoccurring pattern. You might also think about the situation you are in, and whether or not you can afford to react negatively to such treatment. Obviously responses across individuals differ, and responses are largely contingent on the way in which individuals' interpret negative events. As considered above, these interpretations are particularly guided by individual and situational differences. Therefore, some individuals may interpret the failed expectation in the scenario above as a negative inward reflection of (or threat to) the self (Markus & Nurius, 1986), while still others may use such incidents as an opportunity for growth (Knee, Patrick & Lonsbary, 2003). In the same way that friends and family members let us down from time to time, so too do those who lead us within organisations. For organisational research, we typically turn to psychological contract literature (Rousseau, 1995) to explore such occurrences.

2.10 Psychological contract theory

Psychological contracts, or employee beliefs about reciprocal obligations between themselves and their employers, are the foundation of the employment relationship (Rousseau, 1989, 1995; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). At their core, psychological contracts engender both implicit and explicit expectations and are an important concept in understanding the employment relationship (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski & Bravo, 2007). Though the concept has been theorized and empirically tested for over fifty years (see Argyris, 1960; Levinson et al., 1962; and Schein, 1965, 1978, 1980), research involving its specific content and definition has only evolved within the past two decades (Conway & Briner, 2009).

Researchers, from what has been described as the 'modern era', have made great strides toward a better understanding of the conceptual development of the psychological contract (Shore et al., 2004; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004). One individual demonstrating the greatest amount of influence is Rousseau (1989, 1990, 1995, and 2001). Rousseau (1995) defined the psychological contract as *individual beliefs*, shaped by the organisation, regarding the terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organisation. This definition asserts the notion that psychological contracts are unique to every employee, and an understanding of one's psychological contract is determined by perceptions of promise-based obligations. For Rousseau, psychological contracts are this point, Rousseau (1995) distinguishes psychological contracts from other types of contracts by observing key differences that are determined by level (individual versus group) and perspective (within versus outside). Accordingly, these are:

- Psychological (within-individual) Beliefs that individuals hold regarding promises made, accepted, and relied on between themselves and another (employee, client, manager, organisation)
- Normative (within-group) The *shared* psychological contract that emerges when members of a social group (e.g., church group), organisation (e.g., U.S. Army, Xerox, United Way), or work unit (e.g., the trauma team at a community hospital) hold common beliefs
- Implied (outside-individual) Interpretations that third parties (e.g., witnesses, jurists, potential employees) make regarding contractual terms
- Social (outside-group) Broad beliefs in obligations associated with a society's culture (e.g.,, reliance on handshakes)

Only expectations that emanate from perceived implicit or explicit promises by the employer are part of the psychological contract (Robinson, 1996). Though opinions differ on the origins of psychological contract beliefs (Meckler, Drake & Levinson, 2003; Rousseau, 2003), nearly all contract researchers have adopted this conceptualization (Taylor and Tekleab, 2004).

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To further understand the psychological contract, researchers have distinguished between the contents of the exchange and the exchange itself (Conway & Briner, 2009). The contents primarily refer to the 'expectations of what the employee feels she or he owes and is owed in turn by the organisation' (Rousseau, 1990, p.393) while the exchange (or process), though ill-defined, explains how these expectations are fulfilled (Langley, 1999). Though very little research has concentrated on the exchange itself (exceptions: Rousseau, 1995, Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Levinson et al., 1962), much has been accomplished in order to understand its content. Rousseau (1990), for example, determined that psychological contracts can be transactional or relational depending on the perceived promises of the exchange. Her research suggests that transactional psychological contracts involve promises that are specific, explicit, take place in a short time frame, and entail more concrete resources. In contrast, relational psychological contracts are more subjective, involve no clear time frame, and entail the exchange of more intangible, meaningful resources. Although some work delineates from this type of categorization (see: Guzzo, Noonan & Elron, 1994; Herriot, Manning & Kidd, 1997), many researchers define the contents of psychological contracts according to these dimensions (Conway & Briner, 2009).

In terms of its formation, the psychological contract can be influenced by various factors both outside and within the employing organisation (Conway & Briner, 2009). Though external factors are relatively unknown, some believe these to include preemployment experiences, exposure to work through family and friends, exposure to media, and experiences within education (Anderson, 1987; Holloman, 1972; Kolb, Rubin & McIntyre, 1984; Lobuts & Pennewill, 1984). Psychological contract development, however, has been more thoroughly understood through various organisational factors. For example, psychological contracts have been shown to

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develop most significantly via interactions with organisational agents such as managers (Guest & Conway, 2000), while other factors include policy documents (Rousseau, 1995), human resources practices (Guest & Conway, 1998; Westwood, Sparrow & Leung, 2001; Conway & Monks, 2008), idiosyncratic inferences from structural practices (Dick, 2006), and the employment contract itself (Beard & Edwards, 1995; Claes, 2005; Conway & Briner, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006; Druker & Stanworth, 2006; Guest, 2004; Guest & Conway, 2000). Such experiences and documents develop the psychological contract by adding perceived clarity to the role relationship one has with their employing organisation (Rousseau, 1989).

Furthermore, some studies suggest that individual differences might play an important role with respect to the content of the psychological contract and its development. Though still in its early stages, such efforts have revealed that the contents of psychological contracts are influenced by exchange ideologies (Bunderson, 2001; Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004), personal and social identities (Hallier & Forbes, 2004), work values (De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2005), and personality (Raja, Johns & Ntalianis, 2004). Raja, Johns and Ntalianis (2004) assert that this is because individual differences influence the ways in which employees construe and enact contract terms. Similarly, other studies indicate that newcomer proactivity (Thomas & Anderson, 1998) and values (De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2005) influence the terms of the psychological contract (Robinson, 1996) by demonstrating the active role employees play in shaping and seeking its contents.

Contributions to the psychological contract literature have flourished over the past few decades (Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau, 1990; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004; Conway & Briner, 2005, 2009). As such, the majority of these studies focus on the many workrelated outcomes which the psychological contract helps to explain. More precisely, these outcomes are largely contingent on whether employees perceive that their organisation has adequately fulfilled the numerous available facets of their psychological contract (Conway & Briner, 2002; Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood, & Bolino, 2002; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). According to psychological contract theory, it is generally recognised that a mutual psychological contract (one where perceived mutual obligations are met by both the employer and the employee) will result in less stressed and more productive employees (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994). In this way, psychological contract fulfilment, in accordance with its contents, provides individuals with a level of security and confidence in the relationships they have with their organisation and reinforces its underlying value (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005).

In contrast to this, the opposite is likely true when perceptions of psychological contract breach, or "cognitions that one's organisation has failed to meet one or more obligations within a psychological contract" (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, p.230), occur. Though the terms are often used interchangeably, psychological contract breach often leads to psychological contract violation. These violations represent "the emotional and affective state that *may* result from the belief that one's organisation has failed to adequately maintain the psychological contract" (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, p. 242). Historically, psychological contract literature has had a primary focus on the impact of unmet expectations on attitudes and behaviours (Zhao et al., 2007; Conway & Briner,

2009). By examining breach as the focal point of psychological contract research, researchers have been able to more adequately identify the contents of the psychological contract and further ascertain how their perceived absence is linked to organisational outcomes (Conway & Briner, 2009).

As proposed by Morrison and Robinson (1997) reneging and incongruence constitute two types of antecedent situations where organisational influence impacts employee perceptions of unmet promises (i.e., the missing contents within their psychological contract). Reneging is "when agents of the organisation recognise that an obligation exists but they knowingly fail to follow through on that obligation" (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, p. 228). This typically happens when an organisation is incapable or unwilling to fulfil a particular promise. Incongruence occurs "when employee perceptions of a given promise differ from those held by the organisational agent" (Morrison and Robinson, 1997, p. 228). Empirical examples demonstrating these types of antecedents to breach include inadequate human resources practices (Grant, 1999; Greene, Ackers & Black, 2001; Guest & Conway, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2004), unsupportive relationships at work (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; Sutton & Griffin, 2004; Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005), and the inequitable social comparison of coworkers (Ho, 2005). Though research in this area is limited in breadth and depth, other studies suggest individual differences influence perceptions of breach (Edwards et al., 2003; Raja, Johns & Ntalianis, 2004).

Psychological contract breach is most likely to occur during times of organisational change (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Such instances of organisational change include corporate restructuring (i.e., a change in leadership or a structural change from a decentralized to a centralized hierarchy), downsizing, the hiring of temporary workers

and contractors, or increased foreign competition (Turnley & Feldman, 1998). Each of the above instances correlates with employee insecurity. This is because added pressure is placed on both parties involved in the psychological contract since organisational change makes it difficult for an employer to attend to individual employees (Rousseau, 1995). It is important for employers to recognise and attend to the relational needs of their employees when the opportunity is available to lay the foundation for perceptions of predictability and control (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). One reason for this is that psychological contracts focus on the extent to which predictability and control are present in an employee's relationship with his/her employer and perceived incongruence or an employer's reneged promise can be directly linked to stress (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). This increased ambiguity and perceived lack of control have been shown to lead to negative consequences of breach.

Empirical evidence seems to consistently demonstrate the negative impact of psychological contract breach on employee attitudes and behaviours. More specifically, psychological contract breach has been associated with negative emotions (Conway & Briner, 2002), reduced psychological well-being (Conway & Briner, 2002), decreased levels of trust in the organisation (Robinson, 1996; Grimmer & Oddy, 2007; Deery, Iverson & Walsh, 2006), reduced organisational commitment (Lester et al., 2002; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Bunderson, 2001; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994), reduced job satisfaction (Bunderson, 2001; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003), the development of cynical attitudes toward the organisation (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003), decreased in-role performance (Turnley, Bolino, Lester & Bloodgood, 2003; Restubog, Bordia & Tang, 2006; Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000; Thompson & Heron, 2006), lowered obligations toward the organisation (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002), decreased organisational citizenship behaviours

(Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 2000), increased intent to leave the organisation and turnover (Tekleab & Taylor, 2003; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson, 1995, 1996), and deviant behaviour toward colleagues (Restubog, Bordia & Tang, 2007). In general, psychological contract breach elicits confusion, uncertainty, and frustration since it causes employees to question the status of the relationship they have with their organisation.

Studies testing moderators to the breach-outcome relationship have had a primary focus on variables that might lessen the impact of breach on negative work-related outcomes. Such studies reveal that age (Carstensen, Isaacowitz & Charles, 1999), importance of the promise (Conway & Briner, 2002), employee attributions of the organisation's control of the breach (Conway & Briner, 2002; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Turnley et al., 2003; Robinson & Morrison, 2000), the procedural, distributive, or interactive justice of the breach (Kickul, Lester & Finkl, 2002; Lo & Aryee, 2003, Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Turnley & Feldman, 1999), personal ideologies (Bunderson, 2001), national culture (Grimmer & Oddy, 2007; Kickul, Lester & Belgio, 2004), and supportive relationships (Dulac et al., 2008; Restubog & Bordia, 2006) are capable of such moderation. It is still not clear, however, whether supportive relationships buffer the effects of breach or enhance feelings of betrayal.

Despite the plethora of research investigating work-related attitudes and behavioural reactions to psychological contract breach and violation, a deeper understanding of work-related relationships as a result of this concept is justified (Conway & Briner, 2009). Coyle-Shapiro and Shore (2007), for example, assert that, "a greater focus on outcomes that capture the *quality* of the employee-organisation relationship itself in

terms of fulfilment of needs, quality of interaction, adaptability and identification is needed" (p.28).

As seen above, research to date has thoroughly examined the immediate and often negative consequences of psychological contract breach and violation; however, in this way, the majority of studies have neglected to assess relationships beyond this initial stage (exceptions: Zottoli, 2003 [unpublished]; Brockner, De Cremer, Fishman & Spiegel, 2008; Ingram & Booth, 2011; Dulac et al., 2008). In light of this, the second research question commences with the agenda to understand and examine breached relationships beyond their proximal consequences. Previous research has confirmed the link between negative emotions and job attitudes (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Thoresen et al., 2003). Therefore, psychological contract breach, which elicits negative emotions (i.e., a psychological contract violations) (Morrison & Robinson 1997), should bear relevance to research exploring attitudes toward managers. To test this assertion, my second research question will sustain the theme for this research by specifically testing the behavioural and socio-emotional implications for employees in positive, negative, and ambivalent relationships under the context of manager-induced psychological contract violations. In other words, it will explore how employee relationships with managers influence employee responses to perceived negative events within the relationship.

To date, there are no empirical studies that examine the formation of psychological contracts between managers and employees (Conway & Briner, 2009) despite claims that individuals develop distinct relationships with various organisational foci (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner, 2007). Consequently, psychological contract research has not addressed the notion of who represents the organisation in the mind of the employee.

Rather, most researchers endorse the personification of the organisation and disregard Rousseau's (1989) claim that organisations cannot perceive a psychological contract with their employees. While some speculate that supervisors may be responsible for maintaining (or in fact breaching) the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1998), this thesis did not uncover any studies that specifically examined the psychological contract in this way. Conway and Briner (2009) suggest that by concentrating on specific foci, previously discussed may assuage the weaknesses associated with we anthropomorphizing the organisation. Work in this area is essential since interpersonal relationships often drive the success of organisations (Williams, 2001; Johnson, Cullen, Sakano, and Takenouchi, 1996; Kumar, 1996), and assuming one party does not exit, the relationship must continue for better or worse.

There is strong evidence, particularly in close relationship research, to believe that relationships that do not terminate will improve over time (Rusbult and Van Lange, 2003); however, the existing research on this topic fails to explain how and why managers and employees are capable of such resilience and repair within organisations. Psychological contract breach, for many, unveils the status of the relationship individuals have with their organisation (i.e., contents are exposed and can thus be accounted for), and research to date seems to focus solely on the immediate and negative outcomes of this type of exposure. Accordingly, prior research suggests individuals are blinded by the arousal of a negative event (LeDoux, 1995) and have limited reaction-relevant responses available (Forgas & George, 2001; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Though proximal consequences are important for organisational outcomes, it is essential to examine psychological contract breach and violation beyond their foremost consequences. In a recent review of psychological contract breach outcomes, Zhao et. al (2007) highlighted the importance for researchers in this area to attempt to understand the possible constructive reactions to breach that individuals might have. Though Farrell (1983) contributed in part to this interest, we still know very little about how prosocial (or pro-relational) reactions to breach and violation might contribute to improved employment relationship functioning and quality – especially as a purposefully self-regulated outcome. Therefore, the second research agenda integrates psychological contract theory with interdependence theory (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003; Kelley et al. 2002) and social cognition to more fully understand employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations.

2.11 Interdependence Theory

Interdependence theory offers a complimentary lens through which to view the psychological contract (and its violation). Indeed, the exchange relationship between employee and employer underscores the dependence of each on the other to fulfil expectations that cannot be met without the other's cooperation (Taylor & Tekleab, 2004). According to this theory, the interdependence of two parties is determined by the situation in which they interact, together with the needs, expectations, cognitions and motives that are relevant to the situation, in a manner that reflects social psychology's emphasis upon "the power of the situation" and Lewin's (1936) classic formula B = f(P,E) (i.e., behaviour is a function of the person and their environment). Interdependence between two parties is represented by a similar equation, I = f(S,A,B), and represents the interaction (I) between two parties (A and B), given a specific situation (S).

One reason why interdependence theory is so relevant to situations involving psychological contract breach and violation is because such instances initiate an

unpleasant experience between relationship partners where one party recognises that their needs (either instrumental or socio-emotional) are no longer being fulfilled. Therefore the interactional component is engaged when individuals initiate cognitive activity to better understand the other party's needs, goals and motives. Typically, due to their reliance on the other for specific outcomes, the more dependent individual is required to employ such sense making efforts before reacting.

For this reason, it might be said that specific elements regarding employee individual differences and consequences of the relationship's past might be used to predict the ways in which employees react to manager-induced psychological contract violation. In other words, emotional response contingencies to cognitions of unmet expectations for subordinates would be largely influenced by the interpersonal consequences of the relationship's valuation and specific individual and situational differences relevant to those laid out by interdependence theory. More specifically, the research agenda for the second research question explores how an employee's valuation of the relationship (i.e., positive, negative, ambivalent) moderates the relationship between manager-induced psychological contract violations and employee prosocial and self-regulatory reactions.

Prosocial behaviour, according to interdependence theory (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003), is a consequence of many relational factors, and is thought to be a fertile area for exploration due to its positive implications for organisations. Prosocial behaviours are characterized by an individual's willingness to accommodate, sacrifice, and forgive a relationship partner after experiencing a negative event (such as a psychological contract violation). It is largely based on a transformation rule, used frequently within high quality relationships, that enables individuals to "see the bigger picture." The

following four questions correspond with this ideology and demonstrate the specific aims of my second area of exploration.

- 1. Do relationship valuations moderate employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations?
- 2. Can employees demonstrate prosocial behaviours (i.e., forgiveness and OCBs) in response to manager-induced psychological contract violations?
- 3. Is relational ambivalence a temporary state?
- 4. How does the type of relationship moderate employee coping strategies after a manager-induced psychological contract violations impact?

2.12 Summary regarding the aims of this research

Due to consistent assertions derived from previous research in this area to concentrate efforts on the antecedents and processes through which the psychological contract is formed (Rousseau, 2001; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004; Conway & Briner, 2009) and evaluated (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, 2004; Robinson & Brown, 2004), this thesis is designed to help better understand the situational and interpersonal dynamics that evolve and influence relationships in organisations, and further, how and why these relationships are strategically (i.e., purposefully) maintained or restored when challenged by manager-induced psychological contract violation. In addition, the ideas in this thesis will challenge our current understanding of employee-manager relationship quality research by developing and testing the concept of relational ambivalence. If this research is able to empirically answer the questions laid out through this agenda, we will most assuredly walk away with a better understanding of the cognitive and affective states that influence employee behaviour within relationships at work.

2.13 The structure of this thesis

This chapter presented a critical overview of EOR research and specifically detailed relationship quality and psychological contract research. The next chapter will describe the general methodology employed for this thesis. The chapters following will begin the empirical investigation regarding the concepts and limitations discussed above. Though the current chapter has provided an overview of the theory used throughout this thesis, each empirical chapter will reiterate the relevant aspects of the theory to be tested. Each will resemble a separate investigation; however, a common theme (i.e., relational ambivalence) will be observed throughout. The following chapter begins with a general overview of the methodology employed for this research. Once again, the empirical chapters will provide more detail regarding the methodology used for each study. Chapter 4 will introduce the relational ambivalence construct and test its antecedents. Chapter 5 will examine the consequences of relational ambivalence for the relationship and the organisation. Chapter 6 will explore relationship quality and manager-induced psychological contract violations on a daily basis. Finally, Chapter 7 will summarize and discuss the results of this thesis in its entirety before providing suggestions for future research.

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Rationale Behind Research Design

3.2.1 The Longitudinal Study3.2.2 The Daily Diary Study

3.3 Research Setting

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

3.3.1 The Longitudinal Study 3.3.2 The Daily Diary Study

3.5 HLM as the Analytical Method

3.6 Conclusion

Chapter 3 – Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The research questions involved in this thesis influenced the choice of methodology employed. Given that the primary interests of this research involved developing a new relational framework and testing its effects over time, it was essential to design the studies using methods that could reflect these aims. Whilst a number of organisational studies employ qualitative techniques using case studies or interviews to understand issues relating to managers (e.g., Harwood & Ashleigh, 2005; Trevino, Brown & Hartman, 2003), longitudinal and experienced sampling techniques allow researchers to quantitatively observe time-varying information (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). Therefore, this thesis elected to use mixed methods from quantitative designs, since doing so appeared to more appropriately satisfy the goals for this research

The use of multiple methods have been advocated by several researchers (e.g., Creswell, 2003; Jick, 1979; Langan-Fox & Tan, 1997; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), since the integration of multiple research methods allows for the cross validation and comparison of data collected from each method. Therefore, this thesis employed cross-sectional, longitudinal, and daily diary surveys to test the study's hypotheses. A timeline outlining the phases of this research is displayed below.

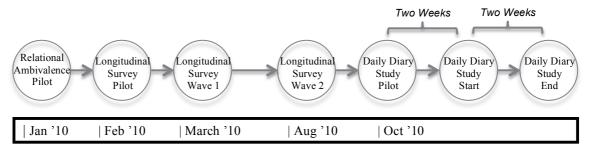


Figure 3. 1 Model of Mixed Method Research Design and Timeline of Research Study

Each of the following results chapters (Chapters 4, 5, and 6) contains a detailed description of the methodology employed for each study; however, the present chapter will help explain the rationale behind the chosen methodology and subject pool. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section discusses the rationale for the chosen research design. The second section describes the context and rationale behind the chosen organisation in which data were collected. The third section outlines data collection procedures. Finally, the fourth section discusses the purpose behind the use of HLM.

3.2 Rationale Behind Research Design

3.2.1 The Longitudinal Study

The key reasons for this particular investigation were to understand whether or not ambivalence exists within the employment relationship and whether its antecedents and outcomes differed from positive and negative relationship valuations. To do so, it was essential to introduce a new method for capturing this potential. After careful consideration, I decided it was imperative that the new measure maintained similar dimensions to previously established relationship quality scales (e.g., LMX, POS). As seen in Appendix B, the broad dimensions for this measure covered both the cognitive and affective components that employees typically contemplate in order to assess relationship quality with managers. Indeed, these particular items were determined to be content valid by four subject matter experts. By measuring the positive and negative components of these dimensions independently, I was able to calculate an ambivalence score using the following calculation originally introduced by Kaplan (1972):

$$Ambivalence = (P+N)/2 - |P-N|,$$

where P = the positive aspects of the relationship, and N = the negative aspects of the relationship. Full details of this calculation and the validation of these items are provided in Chapter 4.

The longitudinal design was driven by two specific aims 1) To examine and differentiate the direct effects of the antecedents and outcomes of relationship valuations, and 2) To make an attempt to avoid issues regarding common method bias. Although some scholars argue that true longitudinal designs must consist of at least three waves of data (e.g., Bliese & Ployhart, 2002; Singer & Willet, 2003), scholars studying the EOR often draw inferences from only two (e.g., Bauer et al., 2006; Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2002; Tekleab et al., 2005). Therefore, this study provided identical data at two separate time periods such that directional predictions could be made.

To fulfil the second objective, I also obtained employee performance data from managers. Here, the longitudinal design provided the means to combat common method variance by examining constructs over multiple periods and through two different sources (i.e., the manager and the employee). The full analysis for the longitudinal study is explained in detail in Chapters 4 and 5.

3.2.2 The Daily Diary Study

Part of the reason for exploring the proposed constructs through the quantitative daily diary investigation was to make causal predictions using lagged regression. Lagged regressions, through such experienced sampling, allow for plausibility or implausibility of causal pathways (Kenny, 1975; Leary, 1995; Rogosa, 1980; West, Biesanz, & Pitts, 2000). For example, this methodology will help reveal whether employee attitudes toward managers on Day 1 predict employee attitudes toward managers on Day 2. No association would rule out a causal effect over this time period. Thus, unlike within-day analyses, lagged analyses test the plausibility of causal associations for each

hypothesized pathway in the model. Such ability may bring considerable insight into the employment relationship literature and help strengthen the findings from prior research. Since one of the aims of the diary study was to test the stability of ambivalence over a 10-day period, the diary study method seemed most appropriate for this particular goal.

Very few studies have examined the employment relationship using diary techniques (exceptions: Conway & Briner, 2002; Tomprou et al., 2011) and there are no studies (to my knowledge) that examine psychological contract violations specifically with managers. The rationale for identifying a specific organisational agent responsible for the violation is threefold: 1) To assuage any shortcomings in the literature associated with anthropomorphizing organisations, 2) To examine the role that managers play in influencing employee behaviour, and 3) To understand whether or not employee coping strategies are specifically related to the type of relationships employees have with managers.

The questions proposed in this thesis necessitate the diary study technique, because it allows the ability to make comparison of results within and across individuals (Singer & Willet, 2003). Therefore, the proposed temporary nature of relational ambivalence can be explored, as can any between person effects impacting its level of existence. For example, the diary study method will help reveal whether psychological contract violations (a between person effect) impact the intensity of relational ambivalence (a within person effect). Finally, the daily diary study method was selected as the most appropriate method for exploring employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations. Exploring these constructs on a daily basis allows for an assessment of the immediate employee reactions that other studies typically provide through retrospective data.

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3.3 Research Setting

The design for this research does not necessitate a particular type of organisation. Rather, due to the social-psychological, and therefore micro-level, nature of data collected, the primary concern was whether the organisation would comprise a significant number of employee-manager relationships to make meaningful observations. Given that this dissertation was written during an economic crisis, the banking industry seemed like an appropriate avenue for exploring the research questions involved. By doing so I assumed, like any other environmental change (see Morrison & Robinson, 1997), that the crisis would add tension to employee-manager relationships within these types of organisations and make such relationships considerably more important.

Unfortunately, as a result of the financial crisis, my experience revealed that banks were also becoming increasingly tight-lipped regarding information made available to the public. Aside from this unfortunate contextual issue, it is also incredibly difficult for most organisations to agree to provide the type of information this study required. Diary study data and manager reports of employee performance are notoriously difficult to obtain, because this methodology takes a considerable amount of employee time. In addition, most organisations do not want employees answering questions about issues that might not reflect favourably on the organisation. Not surprisingly, I had considerable difficulty gaining access to corporate banking institutions that were willing to share the delicate type of information of which my studies required. Even when I did gain access to the bank represented in this thesis, the Vice President requested that I not share any information that did not portray the bank in a favourable light.

For the sake of privacy, the name of the bank will not be revealed; however, it is one of the largest banking institutions in North America. The organisation has a significant presence in the United States and Canada. It has over 47,000 employees who provide over 7 million customers with a broad range of retail banking, wealth management and investment banking products and services. My organisational contact was the Vice President and CFO of auditing – a 165-member group located within the bank's headquarters which spread across two sites. These 165 auditors were the subject pool for this research. The organisational contact provided me full access to the department including the ability to interact with the training manager who also assisted with study correspondence (e.g., see Appendix F and Appendix G).

During my 5-day site visit, I held discussions with employees at various levels in the organisation and toured two of the organisation's campuses. This enabled me to make some sense of the organisation's culture (e.g., language, physical environment, dress, etc.). The organisation provided me an office where I could conduct private interviews and pilot tests, and, though qualitative data were not recorded, I was able to better understand the context of the organisation through these experiences.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

Prior to initiating the full study investigation, two pilot studies were conducted. The first pilot study (see Appendix A), which is detailed in Chapter 4, used a convenience sample to validate the new relationship valuation measure. The second pilot study also used a convenience sample to help calculate the timing of the questionnaire and to assess comprehension of the questions. After making a few adjustments to the problematic items, the full study investigation commenced. The empirical component of the project consisted of two additional studies. The first study captured the antecedents and consequences of relationship valuation, while the second study employed a daily diary investigation to understand how employees use the relationship's valuation to respond to negative workplace events with their managers.

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The longitudinal research design was chosen in order to understand the longer-term consequences of relational ambivalence. Accordingly, observations were made over a sixth month period. In addition, managers were asked to offer employee performance reports so as to combat any issues with common method variance. The names of the managers were incorporated directly into the questionnaire items in order to eliminate any confusion regarding the target of employee assessments¹. This was particularly important, because employees at this particular organisation report to more than one manager. For added clarity, the direct line manager (according to the organisational chart) was chosen for this study. In addition, items for this study were randomly assigned so as to limit the common method variance that might occur when predictor measurements precede criterion measurements (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This procedure limits the possibility for sample participants to guess (and potentially influence) the outcomes of the study.

The diary study research design was chosen in order to understand the short-term consequences of relational ambivalence, and to understand how daily interactions with managers influence employee behaviour. Diary studies are useful for generating information that might otherwise go unnoticed in cross-sectional designs. Given that the study was also interested in manager-induced psychological contract violations (M-I PCVS), the diary study provided a significant period of time (i.e., 2-weeks) to make such observations. In addition, since diary study techniques allow for lagged regression, the results of these studies can be interpreted with considerable confidence. The timetable for both of these studies was presented to and accepted by the organisational contact prior to the surveying period (see Appendix E).

¹ Qualtrics © Survey Software provides a specific code to manipulate items according to previously obtained information. For this study, once employees indicated the name of their manager, the remaining items on the questionnaire, where appropriate, inserted the manager's name in place of "my manager."

3.4.1 The Longitudinal Study

In the first study, two waves of data were collected in order to draw conclusions about the antecedents and outcomes of relationship valuations. The distributions of identical questionnaires, which can be found in Appendix B, were separated by a sixth month period. Between distributions, managers also provided details of each of their employees regarding the performance constructs of interest for this study (see Appendix C). A \$500 prize was offered by the Vice President of this organisation to provide incentive for the 165 employees to complete both questionnaires and to increase the investigation's response rate. Consequently, the first survey wave obtained 111 observations (67.23% response rate), and the second survey wave obtained 118 observations (71.52% response rate). Managers completed performance data for 106 employees. In total, the data gave way to 96 complete dyads. Hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) was used to analyse this data since employees were nested within managerial groups. Full details for the methods employed in this study are provided in in section 3.5 (below) as well as Chapters 4 and 5.

3.4.2 The Daily Diary Study

Prior to the start of the second study, I travelled to the organisation's headquarters in order to give a presentation regarding the procedures for the daily diary investigation. I provided guidelines for completing the diary study. My instructions included: when to complete diary entries, what to do in the event of an absence, who the diary should be about, and how to contact me with any questions. After the presentation, I randomly assigned five employees to pilot test the daily diary questionnaire. After making some adjustments, the daily diary investigation commenced.

Through this study, ten waves of data were collected over a two-week period. The quantitative daily diary investigation was employed in order to understand whether

changes in relationship valuations occur over time and to understand whether employee relationship valuations moderate reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations. Therefore, an identical questionnaire, which can be seen in Appendix D, was distributed each day at the exact same time. Thirty-eight employees originally volunteered for and ultimately participated in this study. Together, these employees completed 357 daily surveys across the 2-week period (93.9% response rate). HLM was used to analyse this data since observations were nested within individuals. Full details for the methods employed in this study are provided in Chapters 6.

3.5 HLM as the Analytical Method

The majority of research exploring employee-manager relationships is conducted through the use of quantitative survey methods; however, only recently has the dyad in organisational research been appropriately tested (Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & Yammarino, 2001). Employee-manager relationship research is considered to be dyadic because of the one-to-one linkages these studies provide. Therefore, since most managers oversee a particular group of employees, these types of studies are best theorised and analysed using multi-level methods (Gooty & Yammarino, 2011). This, however, is contingent on the study's design. As seen below, the rationale for analysing data through HLM differs for the longitudinal and daily diary study.

In the longitudinal study, the data comprises two levels because employees are nested in managers. The first level, or Level 1, captures variance within employees and consists of the antecedent measures to relationship valuation. The second level, or Level 2, captures variance between individuals within managerial groups. By assigning a unique identification number to each manager, it is easy to account for the Level 2 effect. In a similar fashion, the daily diary data comprises two levels because employees are nested within their own observations. Therefore, Level 1 captures variance within employees

and consists of the repeated, within-individual measures taken on a daily basis. Here, instead of the manager, Level 2 captures variance between individuals within observations. Figure 3.2 displays this information graphically.

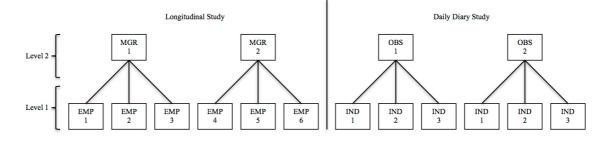


Figure 3. 2 Model Depicting Differences in the Level 1 and Level 2 Effects for the Longitudinal and Daily Diary Study

HLM is an appropriate method for the analyses in this study because it accounts for both within and between-group variability in the variables whilst estimating individuallevel relationships. This controls for any potential group-level dependencies among the data such as variances among workgroup practices, the nature of the workgroup, or manager style. Therefore, the longitudinal study tests the antecedents and outcomes of employee valuations of relationships with their managers by taking into account the nonindependence that occurs when managers have multiple employees within their groups (i.e., the dyad). Likewise, the diary study tests the moderating impact of relationship valuations on manager-induced psychological contract violations by taking into account the nonindependence that occurs when employees have multiple Ideally, recognizing the hierarchical nature of these relationships and observations. analysing them accordingly (i.e., via HLM) should account for this nonindependence and provide a more accurate depiction of the variables in question (Gooty & Yammarino, 2011). Therefore, while the rationale for employing HLM differs across these methodologies, the general approach is the same.

HLM for the longitudinal and daily diary study was analysed using STATA version

11.1 using the 'xtmixed' command with unstandardized covariance. This command accounts for the within and between effects that multiple levels of data create.

3.6 Conclusion

As mentioned throughout the present chapter, greater details for the methodology employed by each study can be found in the study's respective chapter. The purpose of the present chapter was to help understand more about the processes involved in data collection, the rationale behind the chosen variables, and the strategy involved in selecting this particular organisation. With this understanding, the dissertation will now address the research aims proposed in Chapter 2. Chapter 4 will introduce relational ambivalence and explore the antecedents of relationship valuation, Chapter 5 will explore the outcomes of relational ambivalence, and Chapter 6 will introduce the daily diary study method in order to understand the stability of ambivalence and whether or not relationship valuation moderates employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations. The following chapter is the first of the three results chapters.

Chapter 4 – Antecedents of relationship valuation: The introduction of relational ambivalence

4.1 Introduction

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Chapter 4 – Antecedents of relationship valuation: The introduction of relational ambivalence

4.1 Introduction

The relationships people develop with supervisors and other authority figures in organisations are among the most significant ones in people's lives (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Authorities often control many desirable material and social outcomes, and most employees are accountable to organisational authorities. A large body of research committed to the study of relationships at work suggests that people tend to feel happy, healthy, and contribute to production when they entertain positive relationships with authorities (e.g., Shore & Shore, 1995; Rousseau, 1995; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). Conversely, people are more likely to feel depressed, sick, and to engage in counterproductive behaviours when their relationships with authorities are negative (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Biron, Brun & Ivers, 2008). Although these studies document the significance of relationship quality between subordinates and authorities for people and for organisations, they fail to consider that people often feel neither bad nor good about relationships, but both (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Locke & Braun, 2009; Oreg & Sverdlik, 2010).² People may feel at times ambivalent about their relationships. The next two chapters investigate the possible antecedents and outcomes of relationship valuation, including *relational ambivalence*, which I define as a state in which individuals are inclined to give a particular relationship equivalently positive and negative evaluations (similar to Thompson et al., 1995, p.367).³

Ambivalence has never been applied to employee-manager relationships. Therefore, it is

² These studies do not actually capture employee-manager relationships; however, they do point out that one such attitudinal object of ambivalence could be the relationship between employees and supervisors ³ Thompson et al., 1995 suggest ambivalence refers to holding equivalently strong positive and negative attitudes toward the same attitude object. Relational ambivalence, therefore, specifies the relationship as the attitude object.

worth exploring whether or not its antecedents and outcomes differ from the more often-researched positive (i.e., high quality) or negative (i.e., low quality) relationship appraisals. From my review on the developmental processes of relationships (see Chapter 2), we know that individuals strive to make sense of their relationships with others and often do so according to distinct, albeit related, perspectives. As a reminder, these relationally defining perspectives often incorporate prior experiences with others, aspects of the individual themselves, and social comparisons (Mead 1931; Sullivan, 1953; Baldwin, 1992; Baumeister & Leary, 1995). With this in mind, in this chapter I explore how these influential relational antecedents predict relationship valuation (see Figure 4.1, below). Accordingly, I incorporate the historical perspective, the individual perspective, and the social-cognitive perspective. These three perspectives will be discussed in the following sections, and will be succeeded by hypotheses linked to positive, negative and ambivalent relationship valuations, respectively.

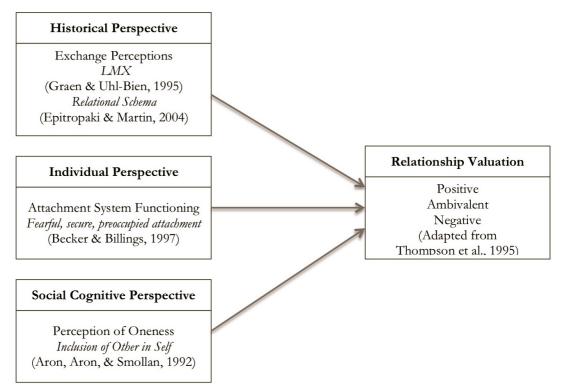


Figure 4. 1 Antecedents of Relationship Valuations

4.2 The Historical Perspective: Exchange Perceptions

Relationships are largely built on the exchange of mutually beneficial resources. As a result, it can be very easy to qualify the status of our relationships simply by taking into account the amount of inputs we receive in exchange for our outputs (Adams, 1963), or by assessing what we hope to get out of a relationship versus what we are actually receiving. The *historical perspective* accounts for precisely this. It is the employee's account of the relationship that is based on favourable or unfavourable work-related experiences with their manager. It represents, for example, the number of times an employee's manager encouraged her, smiled at her, failed to acknowledge her, gave her an (un)expected day off, gossiped about her, offered her training, made her work late, and so on. Accordingly, one can imagine that relationships with managers are valuated more positively by employees when positive experiences outweigh negative experiences, negatively when negative experiences outweigh positive experiences, and ambivalent when both positive and negative experiences are about the same.

To understand how the historical perspective contributes to these three types of relationship valuations, I turn to leader-member exchange (LMX) and relational schema. These two relational constructs were chosen because their assessment is based on a conglomerate of exchange-related experiences employees might have with their manager.

4.2.1 LMX

Leader-member exchange (LMX), which focuses on the quality of exchanges between employees and managers, has long been utilized as an indicator of relationship quality between managers and employees (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). For decades, LMX has been used as a term to represent the unique relationship between managers and employees, and, though the concept has evolved since its theoretical roots (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), the fundamental concept has remained the same. Consequently, LMX embodies the quality of exchanges between managers and employees that are primarily based on emotional support and valued resources (Wayne et al., 2002). The principal reason for selecting LMX as an antecedent for this particular study was threefold: 1) To demonstrate its similarity with positive relationship valuations, 2) To demonstrate its inverse relationship with negative valuations, and 3) To explore its potential curvilinear and distinct relationship with relational ambivalence.

The fundamentals of LMX theory suggest that leaders or managers within organisations tend to have separate and unique relationships with each of their subordinates (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). This concept, which focuses on the differing types of exchange patterns between managers and subordinates, has more recently been referred to as LMX differentiation (Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2006). Accordingly, the resources that are exchanged within low quality relationships differ from those exchanged within high quality relationships. As such, low quality relationships are expected to be more transactional in nature (Liden & Graen, 1980), whereas high quality relationships often incorporate resources that supersede those found within the employment contract. For example, employees in high quality relationships have been shown to receive more mentorship opportunities (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994), sponsorship (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005), and empowerment (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000).

There is little to debate regarding whether or not LMX is capturing positive or negative relationships. As described, the overall assessment of LMX is largely contingent on the

exchange patterns that emerge between managers and employees. Accordingly, the antecedents of high quality relationships are derived from the dimensions of LMX that consists of affect, loyalty and contribution (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). When the experiences associated with each of these dimensions are favourable, LMX will be high, and when the experiences associated with these dimensions is not favourable, LMX will be low. Therefore, when assessing employee valuations of relationship quality within this study, I expect LMX to be positively related to positive valuations and negatively related to negative valuations. Such predictions do not differ from prior assertions made by Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002) who suggest LMX and supervisor consideration are simply alternative forms for capturing perceived supervisor support (PSS).

Hypothesis 1: LMX has a direct and positive relationship with positive employee valuations toward their manager.

Hypothesis 2: LMX has a direct and negative relationship with negative employee valuations toward their manager.

There is room to debate, however, whether or not LMX is capturing the fullness of relationship quality. As discussed in Chapter 2, one major limitation regarding the measurement of relationship quality using LMX (or any of the other current relationship quality measures) arises when attempting to account for relationships that are not of the high quality or low quality sort. For example, there has been no endeavour within the existing literature to understand the implications for employees who regularly receive both positive and negative treatment and who may inherently find it difficult to assess the quality of the relationship they have with their manager. Employment relationship

scholars, therefore, have overlooked the fact that an employee's inability to appropriately assess relationship quality with their managers might carry outcomes that are just as relevant as those who can assess the relationship's quality. Nevertheless, scholars often use the term *indifference* to describe employee scores comprising the midpoint on relationship quality scales. This term, which suggests a lack of interest in the relationship (Fincham & Linfield, 1997), might not be an accurate depiction, since it has never been empirically tested. Like other scholars that have attempted to unravel issues in the scale development of attitudes (e.g., Kaplan, 1972; Katz & Hass, 1988; Eagly & Chaiken, 1998), I propose that, rather than being indifferent about their relationships, these employees do care about their relationships with their managers, and are perhaps more aptly characterized as ambivalent.

Ambivalence is a plausible relationship appraisal for those scoring along the midpoint on LMX, because it represents employees who are not overly satisfied and not overly dissatisfied with their managers. The composite score, therefore, seems to indicate that the core dimensions comprising LMX are perhaps true on some days and not true on others. For example, an employee may feel as though their manager is supportive one day and not supportive the next, understanding in some situations and not understanding in others, or reliable with some things and not reliable with others. When employees decide to select the midpoint (often 'undecided') when responding to an LMX item, they are indicating that they are not exactly certain as to where they stand with their manager.

While it might be conceivable that an employee's lack of interaction with their manager disables them from appropriately appraising the relationship (Pearce & Gregersen, 1991), ambivalence theorists would suggest it has more to do with the mental oscillation

(e.g., Do I like or dislike this guy?) associated with a history of numerous positive and negative exchanges. Therefore, I expect LMX to have a distinct and curvilinear (inverted-U) relationship with relational ambivalence such that the midpoint of LMX (i.e., LMX squared) ratings will be strongly related to ambivalence. Support for this particular hypothesis would confirm my earlier assertion that the full range of manager relationships has not been completely understood in the literature, and that relational ambivalence is a valid construct.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between LMX and relational ambivalence is curvilinear, such that the midpoint of LMX represents higher levels of employee relational ambivalence toward their manager.

4.2.2 Relational Schema

Schemas, especially toward work, develop very early on in life (Rousseau, 2001b). Between the ages of 4 and 11, children begin to have a clearer understanding of what the world of work consists of (Berti & Bombi, 1988). As a result, they start to make sense of the employment relationship by observing the experiences and circumstances that their parents expose them to through their own employment (Dickenson & Emler, 1992). For example, it is said that children between the ages of 7 and 8 can distinguish their parents' level of job satisfaction (Abramovitch & Johnson, 1992), and some suggest parental attitudes toward work are linked to the development of a child's own work beliefs and attitudes (Barling, Dupre, & Hepburn, 1998). As a result, children whose parents have been laid off tend to be more sceptical of organisations and generally unimpressed by authority (Jurkiewicz, 2000). In general, these early experiences can shape the way a child views the employment relationship which may impact future work performance (Barling et al., 1998).

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Childhood attitudes are further solidified when an individual initially enters the working world, which, for most, occurs within the teenage years (Loughlin & Barling, 1998). Experiences at work within the years of adolescence largely shape one's impression of the employment relationship, and there is evidence to suggest that such attitudes are stable once established (Gottfredson, 1981; Krosnick & Alwin, 1989; Staw & Ross, 1985). Individuals with initially positive experiences, such as high autonomy or opportunities for social interaction, may engender an optimistic formation of the employment relationship while those encountering negative experiences, such exploitation or inability to use skills, may evoke scepticism (Stern, Stone, Hopkins & McMillon, 1990; Loughlin & Barling, 1998). In this way, it seems that individuals' initial attitude development toward work and the employment relationship may influence whether or not future high quality relationships with managers are probable.

Schemas have frequently been used to help clarify and make sense of the employment relationship (Rousseau, 1995, 1998, 2001; Pugh et al., 2003). As previously stated, individuals use schema in order to process, interpret and categorize information (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). When (or possibly before) employees enter an organisation, they try to make sense of the employment relationship and do so by relying on various cues from organisational agents such as supervisors or line managers (Rousseau, 2001). Even when information is unavailable, in an attempt to minimize uncertainty, individuals rely on other information (e.g., body language, greetings, etc.) to fill in the missing blanks (Crocker, Fiske, & Taylor, 1984). As a result, initial attitudes toward the employment relationship are likely formed very early and are based on only a few interactions. In this way, attitudes enable individuals to categorize (interpret) experiences with managers as positive or negative.

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Specific to this notion, employees may look for regularities in behavioural cues from managers and attribute these identified patterns as the type of relationship they have (or can be expected to have) with their manager (Baldwin, 1992; Rousseau, 2001b). For example, a manager may state to a new recruit that she has an open-door policy, and that the individual is welcome to stop by anytime. Such a statement may signal to the employee that she is valued. This type of early experience with the manager provides a specific instance whereby the individual has the ability to assess how she feels about the relationship. Rousseau (2001b) suggests the interpretation of such experiences accounts for a higher-level meaning (e.g., high or low quality relationship) and adds clarity to the relationship. Consequently any future interactions with the employee's manager will help solidify this interpretation making the schema less abstract, more organized, and more difficult to change (Lord & Foti, 1986, Rousseau, 2001b). Organizing ones primary thoughts about the employment relationship in this way accounts for the cognitive component of attitude formation since attitudes are a subtype of schema (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

Therefore, I predict that when employee experiences with their managers are similar to what they have come to expect (i.e., aligned with their schematic view of managerial relationships), employees will valuate the relationship positively. Alternatively, if experiences with managers are dissimilar to an employee's schematic view of managerial relationships, I would expect the employee to valuate the relationship negatively. For example, if an employee believes managers should be domineering and masculine, and, in fact, works with a domineering and masculine boss, the employee should rate the relationship with their manager more favourably than if their manager was feminine and passive. Ambivalent valuations on the other hand are likely to arise when managers are somewhat similar to an employee's schematic view and somewhat

dissimilar. In other words, ambivalence will once again define the midpoint of this particular scale.

Hypothesis 4: When employee actual experiences with managers are similar to their schematic perceptions of managerial relationships, a direct positive relationship with positive employee valuations toward their manager will exist.

Hypothesis 5: When employee actual experiences with managers are dissimilar to their schematic perceptions of managerial relationships, a direct positive relationship with negative employee valuations toward their manager will exist.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between relational schema and relational ambivalence is curvilinear, such that the midpoint of relational schema represents higher levels of employee relational ambivalence toward their manager.

4.3 The Individual Perspective: Attachment System Functioning

As explained in the introduction, very little attention has been given to how individual differences contribute to the development or corrosion of quality within employment relationships. To meet this shortcoming, I consider the role of attachment theory (Bowlby, 1988; Ainsworth, 1982) on the appraisal of managerial relationships as one possible contribution from the individual perspective. Only recently have studies focused on attachment relationships in organisations (e.g., St. Clair, 2000; Grosvenor & Boies, 2006).

Attachment theory, on a very basic level, suggests that infant-level attachments play a highly important role in the development of adulthood relationships (Bartholomew &

Shaver, 1998). Infants form mental models (i.e., *affective schemas*) of themselves and others by internalizing interactions with their primary caregivers over time (Bowlby, 1973). In this way (and similar to the following section's discussion on need for affiliation/safety), individuals are innately predisposed to form bonds with primary caregivers as a means of survival. Within the first 2-3 years of life, a child attempts to establish a secure base on which she can depend. Infants that recognise they can successfully rely on an attachment figure in times of need or stresses are considered *secure*, whereas those that experience inconsistent, cold or thwarted reliability in terms of support are labelled *fearful*.

The extant research suggests the attachments we develop in early childhood and, more specifically, the affective schemas for understanding the self in relation to others (Bartholomew, 1990; Shaver, Collins, & Clark, 1996) provide the foundations for future attachment relationships in adulthood (Bartholomew, 1990, 1993; Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985; Shaver, Hazan, & Bradshaw, 1988; Weiss, 1982). Whilst there are numerous implications and categories of attachment styles (see Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bartholomew, 1990), for adult relationships (particularly with respect to work-related consequences), secure, fearful, and preoccupied types seemed the most appropriate to elaborate with respect to the three types of relationship valuations considered here.

4.3.1 Secure Attachment

Whilst it is observed that some attachment styles may evolve in time, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) determined that children who develop secure (i.e., trusting) attachments early in life would also engender secure relationships in adulthood. These individuals are more likely to establish comfortable relationships with a healthy balance of intimacy and autonomy (Bartholomew, 1990) and, in general, hold a positive regard for others. Further, individuals who are securely attached often view dependence as

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safe, experience more trusting expectations about their partners, and adopt more constructive strategies in adapting to violations of trust (Baldwin, Keelan, Fehr, Enns, & Koh-Rangarajoo, 1996).

Securely attached individuals also tend to be more resilient when confronted with failure (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Mikulincer & Florian, 1998), which could be linked to their apparent eagerness to explore and their apparent comfort with the unfamiliar (Ainsworth, 1982). Further, securely attached individuals seem to have the ability to process information under high stress situations (Lopez, 1995). This resilient curiosity, coupled with the perception of safety and trust, could help explain why securely attached individuals seek and often maintain high quality relationships. As a result, when assessing the quality of their relationship with their manager, securely attached individuals, especially when compared with their fearful and preoccupied counterparts, are more likely to report a positive relationship with their manager. This is primarily because secure individuals are predisposed to view themselves as worthy of support and that dependability on others is safe. Such faith in themselves and humanity was presumably hard-wired into the way in which they originally made sense of relationships (Bowlby, 1969, 1973, 1980)

Hypothesis 7: *An employee's secure attachment style has a direct and positive relationship with employee positive valuations toward their manager.*

4.3.2 Fearful Attachment

Bowlby (1973, 1980) revealed, through a series of studies involving infants, that fearful (sometimes referred to as avoidant) attachment styles were derived from babies who, in their time of need, experienced rejection, lack of physical contact, and rigidity by their caregivers. Bartholomew (1990) later suggested that this early rejection carried

important implications for adult relationships. In fact, empirical results from her studies suggest that fearful attachments in adulthood often lead to distrust and an individual's hypersensitivity to social approval. In a similar fashion to their experiences at infancy, these individuals desire contact with others but ultimately undermine the possibility of satisfying social relations. Further, due to their inability to rely on their caregivers, fearful individuals develop a fear of intimacy and make every attempt to increase personal distance (Bartholomew & Harrowitz, 1991).

Individuals classified as fearful, or who otherwise do not develop secure relationships early on, may avoid social contact altogether or develop relationships characterized by a fear of intimacy. Due to their insecurity regarding the intentions of others (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Hazan & Shaver, 1987), individuals demonstrating these affectionless patterns, tend to have a negative view of the self and others and develop a high degree of dependency in the relationships they do construct [or have constructed for them as in a work setting]. Therefore, I expect fearfully attached individuals to rate their relationships with their manager more negatively than secure or preoccupied employees.

Hypothesis 8: An employee's fearful attachment style has a direct and positive relationship with employee negative valuations toward their manager.

4.3.3 Preoccupied Attachment

Preoccupied individuals develop an overall sense of unworthiness yet maintain a positive regard for others (Bartholomew & Harrowitz, 1991). This is primarily because, as infants, these individuals received inconsistent treatment from their caretakers and a general lack of sensitivity to their needs (Ainsworth et al., 1978). For instance, these infants learned that, whilst they could not always rely on their caregivers, when they did receive interaction, it was a pleasurable experience. Consequently, in adulthood

preoccupied individuals have a tendency to blame themselves for perceived rejections (Bartholomew & Harrowitz, 1991) and have a strong desire to gain approval from others (Bartholomew, 1990). The inconsistent treatment and inherent functioning afforded through this attachment style is likely to carry important implications for employee perceptions of relationship quality with managers.

The very definition of relational ambivalence (offered at the start of this chapter) seems to directly mimic these patterns that, from infancy, contributed to the formation of the preoccupied attachment style. For this reason, when a manager (or organisational 'caregiver') treats a preoccupied employee inconsistently, it is likely to conjure feelings reminiscent of those from their childhood experiences. An ambivalent valuation, in such a context, is more plausible, because the employee is struggling with the internal conflict that comes from his or her own self-deprecation and strong desire for affiliation (Bartholomew & Harrowitz, 1991). Consequently, even if a manager is consistently fair, the functioning afforded through an employee's preoccupied attachment style is likely to limit his or her ability to be comforted (Ainsworth, 1982). Therefore, I predict that, due to their proclivity to misappropriate the actions of others and their tendency to dilute their own relational capabilities, preoccupied individuals will generate ambivalent valuations with respect to their relationship with their manager.

Hypothesis 9: An employee's preoccupied attachment style has a direct and positive relationship with employee ambivalent valuations toward their manager.

4.4 The Social Cognitive Perspective: Perception of Oneness

For many decades, it has been recognised that an individual's behaviour is largely contingent on the environment. Lewin (1951), for example, through his theory of

lifespace, discovered that individuals behave differently according to the context they are in. Behaviour, in this way, was said to change as individuals worked through tensions between the perceptions of the self and of the environment. Lewin also suggested that individual needs play a role in determining behaviour -- a theme that is also prevalent throughout motivation research (e.g., theory of needs, expectancy theory, goal-setting theory). More recent research elaborates similar ideas and urges researchers to consider context especially with organisational research -- asserting that context may constrain or provide opportunities for behaviour and attitudes (Johns, 2001).

To this aim, the social cognitive perspective explores whether or not employee perceptions of oneness with their managers impacts their valuations of relationship quality. Oneness is portrayed as a contextual and social cognitive factor, because it represents an individual's effort to make sense of and define the self according to a particular relationship. Given that managers carry such influence within organisations (and that relationships with managers tend to differ for each employee), an employee's perception of oneness might indicate that she is on good terms with her manager and that she inherently fits in with the organisation. Such felt closeness would likely produce positive managerial appraisals. To explore this assertion, I revisit the theory of belongingness as a key indicator of interpersonal closeness.

4.4.1 Inclusion of Other in Self (Belongingness)

As discussed in Chapter 2, people do have a fundamental need to belong to social groups (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). There are good reasons to believe that belongingness needs are innate because our ancestors' chances of survival were better when they lived in groups rather than alone (e.g., Stevens & Fiske, 1995). Belonging to a group has been shown to influence one's self-concept (Kelman, 1958), which results

in a motivation to preserve one's positive identity with the groups to which individuals belong (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Across social spheres, people care about their attachments to others and they feel happy, satisfied, and psychologically safe, when their level of belonging is high.

The need for belonging is a pertinent component of human satisfaction and well-being. Consequently, individuals develop a powerful motivation to reach or maintain this state among those with whom they regularly interact (e.g., peers, organisations, supervisors, and groups). Baumeister and Leary (1995) outlined numerous antecedents to belonging including evolutionary need through interdependence, need for social contact, and intimacy. Among the benefits to felt belonging are higher self-esteem, longer life expectancy, positive affect, and cooperation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). In the employment context, when employee belongingness needs are met by the organisation, increases in job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisation citizenship behaviours have been recognised (Schnake, 1991; Kidwell, Mossholder, & Bennett, 1997). Despite all of these empirical works, there is little known regarding the direct role managers have in satisfying employee belongingness needs, or what impact this has (if any) on employee relationship valuations.

The desire to maintain a state of belonging can become frustrating if obstructed. Moreover, the absence of belonging often leads to sadness, depression and lowered selfesteem (Baumeister, Twenge & Ciarocco, 2002). Organisational researchers have especially recognised that belongingness can explain various phenomena in work groups (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Tajfel, 1972; Edwards, 2005). As individuals identify with a group, they often begin to feel a sense of belonging, which leads to a cognitive merging of the self and the group (Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995; Mashek, Aron, & Boncimino, 2003). A manager (or group team leader) is a logical member of an organisation with the status or position power necessary to influence employee actual (versus desired) belonging (Ashforth, 2001). Sparrowe & Liden (1999), for example, empirically revealed that sponsorship from a manager could either help or hinder an employee depending on whether the manager is trusted or avoided by other organisational members. Such results suggest the relationship an employee has with their manager is highly relevant for organisational inclusion. Hence, key resources for employees are enhanced when managers are part of an employee's social network (Morrison, 2002).

Though individuals might make every attempt to avoid the loss of their sense of belonging with an organisational group, conflict or neglect with a manager (or any other high status group member) might generate an opposing threat. This may lead to what some researchers describe as thwarted co-worker belonging or "the perceived discrepancy between one's desired and actual levels of belonging with respect to one's coworkers" (Thau, Aquino & Poortvliet, 2007, p.840). Thwarted belonging is an aversive and psychologically significant experience. It is a feeling most attempt to avoid at all costs. As a threat to high quality living, people who experience thwarted belonging, for example, feel psychologically numb, suffer from low self-esteem and tend to experience depression. As a result, these individuals often engage in uncooperative and aggressive behaviours (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001; Twenge, Ciarocco, Cuervo, Bartels, &, Baumeister, 2005). Moreover, the adverse effects of thwarted belonging include social isolation (Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001) and other self-defeating behaviours (Thau, Aquino & Poortliet, 2007).

In sum, feeling emotionally attached to others provides a sense of security and reduces anxiety (Baldwin, 1992). Since people learn the types of behaviours that signal both increases and decreases in relatedness with others, feelings of thwarted belonging provoked by a manager would most likely aggravate employee anxiety and distrust. Therefore, whether or not belongingness needs are being met by an employee's manager could impact the way in which she evaluates the relationship she has with her manager. In particular, when a manager meets belongingness needs, employees are likely to valuate the relationship more positively than when belongingness needs are left unmet. Ambivalence is also likely to have a negative relationship with felt belonging, since a manager's inconsistency in positive and negative treatment would create an unpleasant environment that is both welcoming and threatening.

Hypothesis 10: An employee's felt belonging has a direct and positive relationship with employee positive valuations toward their manager.

Hypothesis 11: An employee's felt belonging has a direct and negative relationship with employee negative valuations toward their manager.

Hypothesis 12: An employee's felt belonging has a direct and negative relationship with employee ambivalent valuations toward their manager.

4.5 Methods

Participants included 133 auditors (66 females, 67 males) working at a large bank in North America. The 133 employees worked in groups that were supervised by one of 31 different managers, which were part of a larger department of 165 people. The 133 focal participants completed 229 surveys over two separate time periods (111 at Time 1; 118 at Time 2). At Time 1, online surveys were administered to all potential participants, and self-reports of all variables of interest in this study were obtained. At Time 2, six months following Time 1, relationship valuation with managers was assessed. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 66 years old (M = 42.35, SD = 11.77), and organisational tenure ranged from 4 months to 46 years (M = 12.20, SD = 11.92). 40% of the participants had a master's degree or some other higher education qualification. 50% of the participants were lower-level auditors, 30% were mid-level managers, and 20% held executive roles.

At Time 1, a training director from the organisation sent recruitment e-mails to all employees informing them of the nature of the study and requesting their voluntary participation. Following this recruitment e-mail, I sent e-mails to all employees that included instructions for completing the survey as well as a link to access it. These emails were sent directly to the participants' work e-mail addresses and participants had the choice of completing the survey during working hours or at a different time. All organisational members who were e-mailed the survey had access to their own private computer at their worksite. After viewing an informed consent form, participants were requested to complete the survey.

The participants were given three weeks to complete the Time 1 and Time 2 questionnaires. To facilitate response rates during these three-week periods, I sent reminder emails at 8:30 am twice per week. The email reminders contained the link to the online survey. Participants were instructed to complete the survey at their earliest convenience before, during, or after work. The Time 1 questionnaire contained the measures of relationship valuation, LMX, relational schema, attachment, and inclusion of other in self, while the Time 2 questionnaire contained the relationship valuation

measure. Participants also completed demographic variables that were used as controls (age, gender, organisational status).

In all, online surveys were made available to 165 employees. Responses were received from a total of 111 individuals at Time 1 and 118 at Time 2. This resulted in a total response rate of 67.3.% for Time 1 and 71.5% for Time 2. After removing cases that did not include complete data on all variables of interest or that, due to any number of reasons, did not complete both time periods for this study, the sample size for examining the full set of hypotheses was 96 employees (who reported to 27 different managers). This provided an overall response rate of 58.2%.

4.5.1 Measures

At Time 1 and Time 2, subordinates provided ratings of relationship valuation (i.e., positive, negative, ambivalent), LMX, relational schema, attachment style and inclusion. Additionally, employees provided ratings for control variables. To ensure employees were consistent in the ratings of their specific manager, I altered the survey software to include the manager's name (provided earlier in the survey by the employee) when it appeared in a measure. Summated scale scores were created for each measure; however, relational ambivalence was calculated using the formula recommended by Thompson et al. (1995).

Relationship Valuation and Pilot

A global measure of relationship valuation was captured at Time 1 and Time 2 using a process similar to the Positive and Negative Quality in Marriage Scale (PANQIMS) (Fincham & Linfield, 1997) that was originally modelled on the format used by other ambivalence scholars (Kaplan, 1972; Thompson et al., 1995). Kaplan (1972) developed a method known as the 'split semantic differential technique' that was used in order to

capture the positive and negative attributes assigned to an attitude object. In doing so, he allowed for an ambivalence score calculation by taking into account the intensity and strength of the positive and negative scores using this equation:

Ambivalence =
$$(P+N)/2 - |P-N|$$

where P and N are measured on unipolar scales in two separate questions. Several studies have used this calculation in order to understand the fullness of individual attitude (Breckler, 1994; Jonas, Diehl, & Bromer, 1997; Priester & Petty, 1996; Thompson et al., 1995), and recent reviews have described this as a favourable method for capturing attitudes (Locke & Braun, 2009; Larsen, in press).

Therefore, to assess relationship valuation, I asked participants to think separately about the positive and negative aspects of nine relationship-based characteristics (e.g., inclusion, support, loyalty). In two separate questions, participants were first asked to rate how positive each of their manager's characteristics are while ignoring the negative aspects of that characteristic; and then, participants were asked to rate how negative each of their manager's characteristics are while ignoring the positive aspects of that characteristic. The positive items were averaged to create positive valuations, the negative items were averaged to create negative valuations, and ambivalent valuations were calculated using the equation above.

Given that this is the first time this scale has been used to report relationship quality between managers and subordinates, a pilot study was conducted to test whether or not the three distinct dimensions of relationship valuation (positive, negative, ambivalent valuations) were separately uni-dimensional, whether positive and negative valuations converged with LMX and whether ambivalent valuations diverged from LMX. Participants for the pilot included 100 individuals (68 Females, 32 Males) from various different work backgrounds. Participants' ages ranged from 20 to 61 years old (M = 31.25, SD = 6.88), and organisational tenure ranged from 1 year to 31 years (M = 8.23, SD = 6.60). Participants' highest level of education consisted of high school (2%), twoyear degree (4%), bachelor's degree (35%), master's degree (45%), PhD (11%), and other (3%).

An exploratory factor analysis revealed that the positive and negative items gave way to two separate and distinct factors. This indicated that positive and negative valuations are indeed independent. Using the correlation matrix for the pilot study (see Table 4.1 below), I also observed a high negative correlation between the positive and negative valuation scales (r = -.73, p<.05). This further indicated that the positive and negative scales were independent of each other. Though the correlation is admittedly high, it is not perfect. Therefore, the squared variance of 53% seems to suggest the potential for other valuation possibilities. More specifically, even though, by and large, people valuate their relationships with their managers as either positive or negative, ambivalent valuations are certainly plausible. To explore this assertion, I examined the frequency distribution of the ambivalence scale within the pilot sample. Indeed, this indicated that at least 25% of employees from my sample were ambivalent about their relationship with their manager.

| Variable | М | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|----------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|---|
| [1] Positive Valuation | 5.23 | 1.31 | - | | | | | |
| [2] Negative Valuation | 2.48 | 1.42 | 73* | - | | | | |
| [3] Ambivalent Valuation | .45 | 1.80 | 52* | .76* | - | | | |
| [4] LMX | 5.21 | 1.37 | .86* | 75* | 52* | - | | |
| [5] Supervisor Undermining | 1.44 | .59 | 73* | .71* | .40* | 79* | - | |
| [6] Attitude Certainty | 7.43 | 1.46 | .30* | 28* | 52* | .34* | 18* | - |

 Table 4. 1

 Correlation Matrix for Pilot Study Focal Variables

Notes: N=100, p<.05. Ambivalent Valuation calculations are based on Thompson et al. (1995), which yield scores ranging from -2 (least ambivalent) to 7 (most ambivalent)

To test whether or not positive and negative items converged with LMX and ambivalent items diverged from LMX, I ran a simple regression (see Table 4.2 below) with each of the valuation types on LMX. As predicted, the analysis revealed that positive valuations converged with LMX ($\beta = .67$, p<.01), negative valuations converged with LMX ($\beta = .33$, p<.01) and ambivalent valuations did not converge with LMX ($\beta = .06$, p = .33).

| Т | ิล | h | le | 4. | 2 |
|---|-----|---|----|----|---|
| | 6-E | ~ | 10 | | _ |

Results Predicting Relationship Valuations on LMX (Pilot Sample)

| Variable | Coeffic | ient |
|-----------------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Model 1 (β) | Model 2 (β) |
| Controls | | |
| Age | 02 | 01 |
| Gender | .19 | .01 |
| Education | .14 | .03 |
| Organisational Tenure | .04† | .01 |
| Main Effects | | |
| Positive Valuation | | .67** |
| Negative Valuation | | 33** |
| Ambivalent Valuation | | .06 |
| R^2 | .04 | .78 |
| Adjusted R^2 | .00 | .76 |
| R ² Change | | .72 |
| F Change | | 45.86** |

 $N = 100; \ \dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

The evidence above provided sufficient evidence to proceed to the full study using the constructed relationship valuation scale, which accounts for relational ambivalence. To back this assertion, I tested whether the data were inflated and thus could generate problems of multicollinearity. The results of this test indicated that none of the independent variables had VIFs greater than the stringent cutoff of 4.0 (the more lenient cutoff is 10) (cf. Belsley et al. 1980). Accordingly, the coefficient alphas for the current study were $\alpha = .97$ for the positive valuation scale, $\alpha = .98$, for the negative valuation scale, and $\alpha = .97$ for the ambivalent valuations scale.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

LMX was captured using the LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Items for the LMX-7 capture effectiveness of the working relationship, understanding of job problems and needs, recognition of potential, and willingness to support the other. Examples for the current research included "I usually know where I stand with my manager" and "My manager recognises my potential." The coefficient alpha for the LMX-7 was $\alpha = .94$

Relational Schema Similarity

Relational schema were assessed using Epitropaki & Martin's (2004) 21-item Implicit Leadership Theories scale (ILTs), which was adapted from Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz's (1994) research. The ILTs in a work context represents managers across six broad areas: Sensitivity, Intelligence, Dedication, Dynamism, Tyranny, and Masculinity. At the beginning of the questionnaire I requested participants to rate the extent to which each of the 21 single-word traits were characteristic of what they believed a manager *should* be (0 = Not at all characteristic; 10 = extremely characteristic). Later in the questionnaire, I requested participants to rate the extent to which each of the traits were characteristic of their actual manager. To capture relational schema similarity, I calculated the absolute difference of the discrepancy between the belief score and the actual score, divided each by their respective standard deviations, and then summed and reversed the result such that higher scores indicated greater similarity. This method for capturing similarity is commonly used in the literature (e.g., Turban & Jones, 1988; Vecchio & Bullis, 2001).

Attachment Style Functioning

To assess the three different styles of adult attachment, I used Becker & Billings' Attachment Style Scale (1997) that characterizes individuals as secure, fearful, or preoccupied. Example items for each dimension included "I find others are reluctant to get as close as I would like" (preoccupied), "I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others" (fearful), and "I do not often worry about other people letting me down" (secure). Employees responded using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The coefficient alphas were $\alpha = .84$ for secure, $\alpha = .84$ for fearful, and $\alpha = .85$ for preoccupied.

Perception of Oneness

To assess employee perceptions of oneness with their managers, I adapted the Inclusion of Other in Self scale by Aron, Aron, & Smollan (1992). This scale, which typically captures perceptions of closeness between romantic partners, was altered to include perceptions of closeness with managers. It required individuals to indicate how close they feel to their manager by selecting from a series of paired circles ranging from zero overlap (not close) to almost one (very close). The individual circles from each set were labelled "self" and "other." The specific instructions for this item were, "Please indicate which picture below best represents the relationship you have with <u>Manager's Name</u> at this moment. The more closely you feel you relate to <u>Manager's Name</u>, the more the circles should overlap." The options ranged from 1 to 7, where 7 was the greatest degree of overlap possible.

Controls

Consistent with other research of this type (e.g., Eisenberg, 2000; Thompson et al. 1995), age, gender, and organisational status were used as controls for the current study. Age and organisational status are often related to more favourable organisational outcomes, and female responses to questionnaire items often differ from males. Job type was controlled by design, because employees and their managers all worked for the same company and in the same occupation (auditing). Finally, relationship valuations from Time 1 were used as controls at Time 2 in order to determine the unique value added through each predictor.

4.5.2 Analysis

Given the multilevel nature of my data, I used hierarchical linear modelling (HLM; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) to test the relationships among participants' leader-member exchange, relational schema similarity, attachment style, and perception of oneness. HLM consists of a series of regression equations that take into account the nonindependence in the data that arises from having participants contribute multiple data points across time and from having participants cluster in groups. In the current study, the data comprises two levels because employees are nested in managers. The first level, or Level 1, captures variance within employees and consists of the antecedent measures of LMX, relational schema, attachment style functioning, and perception of oneness. The second level, or Level 2, captures variance between individuals within managerial groups. By assigning a unique identification number to each manager, I was able to account for this Level 2 effect.

HLM is an appropriate method for the analyses in this study because it accounts for both within and between-group variability in the variables while estimating individuallevel relationships. This controls for any potential group-level dependencies among the data such as variances among group work practices, the nature of the workgroup, or manager style. Full maximum likelihood estimation was used so that deviance tests, analogous to chi-square tests in structural equation modelling or R-square difference tests in OLS regression, could be conducted to indicate effect size (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Model deviance is equal to two times the negative log-likelihood and the difference in deviance between two models has a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in the number of parameters between the two models. Controls and main effects were entered separately in order to examine effect size. All study variables were grand mean centered for ease in interpretation of the results (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Significance tests were based on a one-tailed test since directionality of the hypotheses was predicted.

4.6 Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations are shown in Table 4.3 below. Correlations are at the within-individual level and are calculated by standardizing the regression coefficient obtained in HLM analyses between one predictor and one criterion at Level 1. As shown in Table 4.3, at the within-individual level, there are several expectedly high correlations. Positive valuations were significantly correlated with ambivalent valuations (r = -.69, p < .05), negative valuations (r = -.89, p < .05), LMX (r = .72, p < .05), relational schema (r = .62, p < .05) and oneness perceptions (r = .55, p < .05). Further, negative valuations were correlated with ambivalent valuations (r = .72, p < .05), tMX (r = .72, p < .05), fearful attachment (r = .31, p < .05), preoccupied attachment (r = .26, p < .05), and oneness perceptions (r = .48, p < .05).

Ambivalence was negatively correlated with LMX (r = -.56, p < .05), relational schema

(r = -.40, p <.05), secure attachment (r = -.24, p <.05), and oneness perceptions (r = -.43, p <.05); and positively correlated with negative valuations (r = .78, p <.05), fearful attachment (r = .30, p <.05), and preoccupied attachment (r = .33, p <.05). Secure attachment was negatively related to the two other attachment styles, and, as is typically the case, fearful and preoccupied attachment styles were positively correlated (r = .41, p <.05).

 Table 4. 3

 Descriptive statistics of and correlations among focal variables

| Variable | Μ | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|----------------------------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|----|---|
| [1] Positive Valuation | 5.56 | 1.18 | - | | | | | | | | |
| [2] Ambivalent Valuation | .02 | 1.85 | 69* | - | | | | | | | |
| [3] Negative Valuation | 2.17 | 1.37 | 89* | .78* | - | | | | | | |
| [4] LMX | 5.04 | 1.28 | .72* | 56* | 72* | - | | | | | |
| [5] Relational Schema | 49.66 | 11.86 | .62* | 40* | 67* | .70* | - | | | | |
| [6] Secure Attachment | 5.07 | 2.71 | .12 | 24* | 14 | .22* | .19* | - | | | |
| [7] Fearful Attachment | 3.44 | 1.15 | 29* | .30* | .31* | 42* | 33* | 66* | - | | |
| [8] Preoccupied Attachment | 2.27 | .89 | 29* | .33* | .26* | 28* | 13 | 44* | .41* | - | |
| [9] Oneness Perception | 3.66 | 1.74 | .55* | 43* | 48* | .59* | .39* | .15 | 16 | 15 | - |

Notes: Means, standard deviations and correlations are based on within-individual (Level 1) scores (N=111), p<.05. Ambivalent Valuation calculations are based on Thompson et al. (1995), which yield scores ranging from -2 (least ambivalent) to 7 (most ambivalent)

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1-6 had to do with employee exchange perceptions and its effect on positive, negative and ambivalent valuations. Hypotheses 1 and 4 predicted that LMX and relational schema similarity would have a direct positive relationship with positive valuations, and Hypotheses 2 and 5 predicted LMX and relational schema similarity would have a direct negative relationship with negative valuations. To test these hypotheses, I utilized HLM to discern the main effects of LMX and relational schema similarity on positive and negative valuations. Two models were estimated for each of

the outcomes of LMX and relational schema similarity. Table 4.4 reveals the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, and the second model examining LMX and relational schema similarity direct effects on positive valuations. Table 4.5 reveals the direct effects on negative valuations.

| HLM Results Predicting Positive Valuations (Time Variable | | Coefficient | | | |
|--|---------|-------------|--|--|--|
| Variable | Model 1 | Model 2 | | | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.04** | 5.20** | | | |
| Controls | | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | .00 | | | |
| Gender γ_{20} | 10 | 04 | | | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | .16* | .12 | | | |
| Positive Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .62** | .17 | | | |
| Historical Perspective | | | | | |
| Leader-member Exchange γ_{50} | | .39** | | | |
| Relational Schema γ_{60} | | .02† | | | |
| Deviance | 235.60 | 220.54 | | | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 15.06** | | | |

| Table 4. 4 | | |
|--|-------|---|
| HLM Results Predicting Positive Valuations (| (Time | 2 |

| Table 4. 5 | |
|---|--|
| HLM Results Predicting Negative Valuations (Time 2) | |

| Variable | Coeffic | eient |
|--|---------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 3.25** | 2.58** |
| Controls | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 02 | 01 |
| Gender γ_{20} | 10 | 03 |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | 13 | 06 |
| Negative Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .62** | .23* |
| Historical Perspective | | |
| Leader-member Exchange γ_{50} | | 40** |
| Relational Schema γ_{60} | | 03* |
| Deviance | 266.36 | 241.12 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 25.24** |
| $N = 96; \ \dot p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$ | | |

As shown, Hypothesis 1, 2, 4, and 5 were supported. LMX and relational schema similarity are positively related to positive valuations and negatively related to negative valuations. The data in Table 4.4 revealed that LMX is associated with positive

evaluations of the relationship ($\gamma_{50} = .39$, p < .01). For relational schema similarity, utilizing a two-tailed test, the direct relationship was marginally significant ($\gamma_{60} = .02$, p = .07). However, given that the second-level main effect hypothesis is directional in nature, a one-tailed significance test is sufficient (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; e.g., Gabriel, Diefendorff, & Erickson, 2011; Ilies, Demotakis, & De Pater, 2010). Therefore, the directional finding suggested that both LMX and relational schema similarity were positively related employee valuations for the relationship. Hence, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted a curvilinear effect between LMX and ambivalent valuations and Hypothesis 6 predicted a curvilinear effect between relational schema similarity and ambivalent valuations. To test these hypotheses, I had to test the direct effect of each predictor together with their squared main effect. Therefore, I tested three models to estimate the outcomes of LMX and relational schema similarity. Table 4.6 reveals the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, the second model examining LMX and relational schema similarity direct effects on ambivalent valuations, and the third model examining the squared effects of LMX and relational schema similarity on ambivalent valuations.

| Variable | | Coefficient | | | | |
|---|---------|-------------|---------|--|--|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | | | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 1.68* | .94 | 1.19† | | | |
| Controls | | | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 02 | 01 | 01 | | | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .00 | .05 | 17 | | | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | 40** | 22 | | | | |
| Historical Perspective | | | | | | |
| Leader-member Exchange γ_{50} | | 69** | 84** | | | |
| Relational Schema γ_{60} | | 01 | 05* | | | |
| Curvilinear Effects | | | | | | |
| Leader-member Exchange ² γ_{70} | | | 18* | | | |
| Relational Schema ² γ_{80} | | | 01* | | | |
| Deviance | 466.92 | 347.12 | 329.36 | | | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 119.8** | 17.76** | | | |

| Table 4. 6 | |
|--|---------|
| HLM Results Predicting Ambivalent Valuations (| Time 2) |

As shown, Hypotheses 3 and 6 were supported. The results indicated a significant curvilinear effect for both LMX ($\gamma_{70} = -.18$, p<.05) and relational schema similarity ($\gamma_{80} = -.01$, p<.05) and a significant decrease in model deviance as a result of the inclusion of this curvilinear effect. To make sense of these results, Figures 4.2 and 4.3 (below) display the results graphically. These results indicate that scores comprising the midpoint on LMX and relational schema similarity scales are represented by ambivalence. Put differently, individuals, that are either between high and low quality LMX relationships or who have managers that are not completely similar to their idealized manager, are more likely to generate ambivalent valuations regarding their relationship with their manager.



Figure 4. 2 The curvilinear effect of LMX on ambivalent valuations

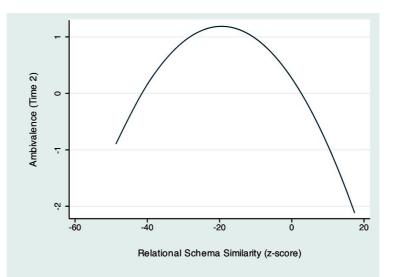


Figure 4. 3 The curvilinear effect of relational schema similarity on ambivalent valuations

Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9 had to do with attachment style functioning and predicted that secure, fearful, and preoccupied attachment styles would be related to positive, negative, and ambivalent valuations, respectively. To test these hypotheses, I once again used HLM to test the main effects of attachment on relationship valuations. Two models were estimated for each of the outcomes of attachment style functioning. Table 4.7 depicts the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, and the second model examining secure, fearful and preoccupied attachment styles' direct effects on positive valuations.

| Variable | Coeffic | ient |
|---|---------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.04** | 5.16** |
| Controls | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | .00 |
| Gender γ_{20} | 10 | 14 |
| Organisational Status γ ₃₀ | .16* | .15† |
| Positive Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .62* | .60** |
| Individual Perspective | | |
| Secure Attachment γ_{50} | | .00 |
| Preoccupied Attachment γ_{60} | | 15 |
| Fearful Attachment γ_{70} | | .03 |
| Deviance | 235.60 | 233.60 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 2.00** |

Table 4.7

As shown, Hypothesis 7 was not supported since secure attachment had no relationship with positive valuations under these conditions. This effect, however, tested in the absence of Time 1 positive valuation as a control, revealed a marginally significant and positive relationship ($\gamma_{50} = .16$, p<.10). This indicates that secure attachment, on its own, could be a potential contributor to employee positive valuations.

Table 4.8 (below) depicts the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, and the second model examining secure, fearful and preoccupied attachment styles direct effects on negative valuations.

| Variable | Coeffic | ient |
|---|---------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 3.25** | 3.13** |
| Controls | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 02 | 02† |
| Gender γ_{20} | 10 | 05 |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | 13 | 11 |
| Negative Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .62* | .66** |
| Individual Perspective | | |
| Secure Attachment γ_{50} | | 10 |
| Preoccupied Attachment γ_{60} | | .23† |
| Fearful Attachment γ_{70} | | 18 |
| Deviance | 266.36 | 261.56 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 4.80** |

Table 4.8

As shown, Hypothesis 8 was not supported since fearful attachment has a negative and non-significant relationship with negative valuations under these conditions. Preoccupied attachment styles, however were found to have a marginally significant positive relationship with negative valuations ($\gamma_{60} = .23$, p < .05, one-tailed test).

Table 4.9 (below) depicts the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, and the second model examining secure, fearful and preoccupied attachment styles direct effects on ambivalent valuations.

| Variable | Coefficient | |
|---|-------------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 1.97* | 1.66* |
| Controls | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 03* | 03† |
| Gender γ_{20} | 23 | 12 |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | 26† | 23† |
| Ambivalent Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .53** | .55** |
| Individual Perspective | | |
| Secure Attachment γ_{50} | | 19 |
| Preoccupied Attachment γ_{60} | | .39* |
| Fearful Attachment γ_{70} | | 25 |
| Deviance | 344.80 | 338.38 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 6.42** |

 Table 4. 9

 HLM Results Predicting Ambivalent Valuations (Time 2)

 $N = 96; \ \dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

As shown, Hypothesis 9 was supported since preoccupied attachment had a significant positive relationship with ambivalent valuations ($\gamma_{60} = .39$, p<.05) and since inclusion of this effect significantly decreased model deviance.

Hypotheses 10, 11, and 12 had to do with employee perceptions of oneness and its effect on positive, negative and ambivalent valuations. Hypotheses 10 predicted that employee perceptions of oneness with their manager would have a direct positive relationship with positive valuations, and Hypotheses 11 and 12 predicted perceptions of oneness would have a direct negative relationship with negative and ambivalent valuations, respectively. To test these hypotheses, I utilized HLM to discern the main effects of oneness perceptions on positive, negative and ambivalent valuations. Two models were estimated for each of the outcomes of oneness perceptions. Table 4.10 depicts the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, and the second model examining oneness perceptions' direct effects on positive valuations. Table 4.11 shows the direct effects on negative valuations, and Table 4.12 shows the direct effects on ambivalent perceptions.

| Variable | Coefficient | | |
|---|-------------|---------|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.04** | 5.23** | |
| Controls | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | .00 | |
| Gender γ_{20} | 10 | 11 | |
| Organisational Status γ ₃₀ | .16* | .09 | |
| Positive Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .62* | .51** | |
| Social Cognitive Perspective | | | |
| Oneness Perception γ_{50} | | .17** | |
| Deviance | 235.60 | 226.92 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 8.68** | |



 $N = 96; \ \dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

Table 4.11

HLM Results Predicting Negative Valuations (Time 2)

| Variable | Coefficient | | |
|---|-------------|---------|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 3.25** | 2.90** | |
| Controls | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 02 | 01 | |
| Gender γ_{20} | 10 | 07 | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | 13 | 03 | |
| Negative Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .62* | .55** | |
| Social Cognitive Perspective | | | |
| Oneness Perception γ_{50} | | 22** | |
| Deviance | 266.36 | 254.52 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 11.84** | |
| $N = 96; \ † p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$ | | | |

Table 4. 12

| HLM Results | Predicting | Ambivalent | Valuations | (Time 2) |) |
|-------------|-------------------|------------|------------|----------|---|
|-------------|-------------------|------------|------------|----------|---|

| Variable | Coe | fficient |
|---|---------|----------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 1.97* | 1.51* |
| Controls | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 03* | 03† |
| Gender γ_{20} | 23 | 17 |
| Organisational Status γ ₃₀ | 26† | 11 |
| Ambivalent Valuation (Time 1) γ_{40} | .53** | .49** |
| Social Cognitive Perspective | | |
| Oneness Perception γ_{50} | | 30** |
| Deviance | 344.80 | 334.40 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 10.40** |

 $N = 96; \ \dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

As shown, Hypotheses 10, 11, and 12 were supported since employee perceptions of oneness with their manager had a significant positive relationship with positive valuations ($\gamma_{50} = .17$, p<.01) and a significant negative relationship with negative ($\gamma_{50} = .22$, p<.01) and ambivalent ($\gamma_{50} = -.30$, p<.01) valuations. In addition, model deviance significantly decreased with the addition of each of the direct effects indicating that employee oneness perceptions contribute to the ways in which valuation of the relationship with their managers is constructed.

Table 4.13 below summarizes the study's results predicting the antecedents of positive, negative and ambivalent relationship valuations.

| | Summary | of Kev | Study | Findings |
|--|----------------|--------|-------|-----------------|
|--|----------------|--------|-------|-----------------|

| Positive | Negative | Ambivalent |
|------------|---|--|
| .39** | 40** | 84** |
| .02† | 03* | 05* |
| Not Tested | Not Tested | 18* |
| Not Tested | Not Tested | 01* |
| N.S. | N.S. | N.S. |
| N.S. | .23† | .39* |
| N.S | N.S. | N.S. |
| .17* | 22** | 30** |
| | .39** .02† Not Tested Not Tested N.S. N.S. N.S. .17* | .39** 40** .02† 03* Not Tested Not Tested Not Tested Not Tested N.S. N.S. N.S. .23† N.S N.S. |

 $\dagger p < .10^4 * p < .05. ** p < .01;$ N.S. = Not Significant

4.7 Discussion

The extant literature regarding managerial relationships tends to suggest that employees qualify their relationships with managers as either positive or negative, and that this assessment is typically derived from bipolar scales that range from low to high quality. The current study demonstrates that relationships are not as black and white as this, and that some employees feel ambivalent about the relationships they have with their managers. Therefore, this study introduced and validated a new method for capturing

⁴ Given that the second-level main effect hypotheses for this study are directional in nature, a one-tailed significance test is sufficient (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; e.g., Gabriel, Diefendorff, & Erickson, 2011; Ilies, Demotakis, & De Pater, 2010). Therefore, the directional findings suggest that the two-tailed results, where p < .10, are significant for this study.

relationship quality with managers that enables researchers to account for relational ambivalence. I defined ambivalent valuations as those where employees hold simultaneous positive and negative attitudes toward their manager. Accordingly, I employed a popular method for calculating ambivalence scores that takes into account the strength and intensity of such competing attitudes. Through this method, the current study was able to determine that ambivalent valuations do exist, and that certain antecedents lead to or predict its construction.

Though the theoretical element was largely derived from close relationship and social exchange literatures, the primary purpose of this study was to examine the distinct contributing factors that lead to positive, negative or ambivalent valuations with managers. My first set of hypotheses set out to determine the role that exchange related patterns had on relationship valuations. As predicted, both LMX and relational schema similarity had direct positive relationships with positive valuations and direct negative relationships with negative valuations. More noteworthy, however, was the confirmation that these two exchange perceptions had a curvilinear relationship with ambivalent valuations. This finding is particularly important because it adds clarity to the meaning of the midpoint of such scales and suggests relationship valuations are more intricate than originally believed. This result was true in both the pilot study and the field study investigation.

The quadratic relationship between exchange perceptions and ambivalent valuations seems to resonate with the very definition of ambivalence. These are employees that are likely to have experienced numerous positive and negative interactions with their manager in such a way that a definitive positive or negative valuation would not be a realistic or an accurate portrayal of the relationship. Therefore, these employees tend to

select the midpoint or 'undecided' when asked to appraise their managers. Though the dimensions of this scale range from loyalty to competence, it seems employees' aggregate interpretations are defined by the center of the scale, which we can now confidently refer to as ambivalence.

Though attachment style functioning carried very little weight toward positive and negative valuations, preoccupied attachment styles significantly contributed to ambivalent valuations. Once again, this prediction seems to encapsulate the very essence of ambivalence, since preoccupied attachment styles are a derivative of inconsistent treatment in childhood. Such inconsistent treatment likely contributes to the individual's understanding of the way in which relationships operate. Therefore, despite their desire to get close to others, preoccupied individuals are limited by their own insecurities (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Accordingly, preoccupied individuals are more likely to offer ambivalent valuations, because their managers are perceived to mimic the same inconsistent behaviour they received from their early childhood caregivers. This distorted image of the way in which relationships operate

It was perplexing, however, that secure attachment styles were not related to positive relationship valuations. This result does not echo that of Grosvenor & Boies (2006), who found secure attachment to be highly related to leader-member exchange and transformational leadership. Typically, securely attached individuals develop strong and trusting interpersonal relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kurstedt, 2002). Although fearful attachment did not relate to negative relationship valuations, preoccupied attachment did. Studies on attachment suggest that some degree of overlap often exists across styles (Bartholomew, 1990). Whilst this

might be one potential explanation for this result, one other might be that the sample of individuals used for this study might not have provided the appropriate context to explore fearful attachment styles. Irrespective of this, it seems that in order to more fully understand antecedents to relationships with managers, attachment style functioning, at least in part, should be recognised.

Next, it was predicted and confirmed that perceptions of oneness would have a positive relationship with positive valuations and a negative relationship with both negative and ambivalent valuations. This finding provides further evidence for the notion that human beings have a strong need for affiliation and that work relationships (those that comprise most of our daily interactions) are important in terms of defining who we are. Therefore, it is not surprising that more distal perceptions of the relationship contribute to less favourable appraisals of the relationship. This strong psychological need for affiliation, which seems to have served us since creation (Alexander, 1974), continues even today as an antecedent condition for our relationships at work.

Finally, though not part of the proposed hypotheses, I ran separate regressions for each relationship valuation type and included all three antecedent conditions. These results revealed that above everything else, exchange perceptions were the strongest contributor to employee relationship valuations. This finding is consistent with other literatures (e.g., Affective Events Theory; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which suggests actual experiences with others carry the most influence in defining individual attitudes. Put differently, interactions with managers could potentially overcome the limiting conditions of employee disposition.

4.7.1 Limitations

Some limitations within my study should be noted. First, the responses gathered in both

the pilot test and the full study model were based on employee-reported responses, which raises the possibility that within-individual responses are inflated by common source variance. Given their perceptual nature, however, these variables are perhaps best assessed via self-report, as others cannot easily observe perceptions of the relationship and employee attachment styles. Grouping employees into their respective managerial groups should attenuate this slightly; however, my results should be interpreted with this issue in mind.

One other potential limitation of the study was the use of a new measure for relationship quality. This however was combated through the use of the pilot study through which I was able to test the scale for content, convergent, and discriminant validity. The pilot also provided evidence for the utility of the scale across various contexts and passed the multicollinearity test. However, since the full study was conducted using participants from a single organisation, the generalizability of my findings should be interpreted with caution.

4.7.2 Future Research

Given that this chapter has revealed the impact that historical, individual, and socialcognitive perspectives have on relationship perceptions, it seems future research should address other potential antecedents that fall within these domains. For example, researchers might be interested in exploring whether task interdependence, equity sensitivity or LMX differentiation impact relationship valuations. Also, since the focus of this chapter was on drawing direct predictors of relationship valuation, it would be useful to explore potential moderators to these relationships. It might be useful, for example, to explore whether context, team cohesion, and organisational culture impact these results. Consistent with earlier assertions made by Lewin (1936) and Johns (2001), the situation could largely impact how employees behave given these conditions. Furthermore, the salience of competing positive and negative features of the relationship would undoubtedly influence employee attitudes toward the relationship, and would be worth exploring in greater detail. Indeed, instances that cause managers to be ambivalent about their own relationships with their managers might impact their subordinate's felt ambivalence toward them.

Clearly, future research should include ambivalence as a potential relationship valuation, and, researchers might consider the methods employed in this chapter to calculate ambivalence scores. This research should encourage organisational scholars to consider whether or not efforts to capture relationship quality have been full and complete. In addition, although LMX and PSS were the comprised models through which the ambivalence scale for this chapter was created, it might be useful to develop a full-scale validation that includes a comprehensive range of potential causes of ambivalence. For example, ambivalence might not only be derived from employees whose exchanges with managers are inconsistent; it could also be the consequence of managers who are nice but also incompetent. At any rate, given the newness of this relationship construct, any future efforts will undoubtedly contribute to the way in which it is developed and perceived.

4.7.3 Conclusion

Combined, the results of this chapter suggest that ambivalent valuations do exist, and that the scale and calculation used within this study provide ample support for its use within subsequent studies. Prior relationship quality studies failing to capture ambivalent valuations have inherently circumvented or, in most cases, missed the opportunity, to curtail this particular issue. The results of this chapter have also revealed that certain historical, individual, and social-cognitive perspectives contribute to the ways in which employees assess relationship quality. Given this understanding, the aims for Chapter 5 are to explore the potential interpersonal and organisational outcomes of ambivalent valuations that might differ from the more often assessed positive and negative relationship valuations.

Chapter 5 – Interpersonal and organisational outcomes of relational ambivalence

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Interpersonal Outcomes of Relational Ambivalence

5.2.1 The Impact of Ambivalence on Cognitive and Affect-Based Trust 5.2.2 The Impact of Ambivalence on Relational Identification

5.3 Organisational Outcomes of Relational Ambivalence

5.3.1 The Impact of Ambivalence on Employee Turnover Intent5.3.2 The Impact of Ambivalence on In-Role and Contextual Performance

5.4 The Impact of Job Control on Organisational Outcomes of Relational Ambivalence

5.5 Methods

5.5.1 Measures 5.5.2 Analysis

5.6 Results

5.7 Discussion

5.7.1 Limitations5.7.2 Future Research5.7.3 Conclusion

Chapter 5 – Interpersonal and organisational outcomes of relational ambivalence

5.1 Introduction

The studies within the prior chapter provided empirical support for a relational ambivalence construct. The pilot study validated a measure for relational ambivalence while the full study revealed that certain historical, individual and social cognitive perspectives contribute to its existence. More specifically, LMX was shown to have a curvilinear relationship with relational ambivalence, preoccupied adult attachment styles had a direct and positive relationship with relational ambivalence, and employee perceptions of oneness with their managers had a direct negative relationship with relational ambivalence, the present chapter explores the possible interpersonal and organisational outcomes associated with this type of relationship valuation.

Up until now, studies regarding the outcomes of relationships with managers have focused on those associated with either the positive or negative type. Accordingly, such studies primarily suggest that when employees evaluate relationships with managers positively, affective commitment (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006), emotional attachment (Rousseau, 1995), trust (Robinson, 1996; Cook, Hardin, & Levi, 2005), long-term investment (Amato, 1993), in-role (Shore & Shore, 1995; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006) and extra-role performance (Robinson & Morrison, 1995) are increased; and when relationships are valued negatively, employees experience increased stress (Biron, Brun & Ivers, 2008) and often retaliate toward the organisation and its members (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). The outcomes accompanying ambivalent relationships with managers, however, are thus far undetermined.

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The pattern of behaviour discussed above emulates the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) that was previously discussed in Chapter 2, since employees either positively or negatively reciprocate depending on the quality of the relationship they have with their managers. The perceived interpersonal closeness associated with high quality relationships seems to signal to employees that they are respected and valued by the organisation (Tyler & Lind, 1992) and, as seen, engenders a strong inclination for employees to positively reciprocate. As such, valued resources are unequivocally traded between individuals for mutual benefit. Managers who consistently neglect or even abuse their subordinates create more distal relationships unaccompanied by felt support (Dulac et al., 2008; Levinson, 1965; Sutton & Griffin, 2004; Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005). These relationships, as seen above, can provoke retaliation. In its simplest form, however, this schematic view of relationship quality might eliminate the discomfort of uncertainty for the employee (regardless of the overall assessment), because the valence (either positive or negative) of the relationship is clear. Therefore, the productive or destructive reciprocity involved in response to the relationship's valuation is very much 'tit for tat,' since the attitude directing the behaviour is clear.

With relational ambivalence, the valence of the relationship, which is normally guided by the exchange of valued resources (Blau, 1964), is less clear. As a result, the rules directing an employee's motivation to reciprocate might be in conflict since exchanges with managers are both positive and negative. This could provoke an uncomfortable, confusing, or possibly aversive state for the employee as her attitudes toward her manager also fluctuate between positive and negative. Though research on the outcomes of ambivalence is scant, it has been shown to lead to negative outcomes such as behavioural vacillation, paralysis, and decreased trust in political leaders (Pratt & Doucet, 2000; Weigert & Franks, 1989; Anderson & LoTempio, 2002) as well as positive outcomes such as creativity, organisational commitment, and wisdom (Fong,

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2006; Pratt & Rosa, 2003; Weick, 1998). Accordingly, deciding how (i.e., positively or negatively) and whether employees in ambivalent relationships with their managers will reciprocate might in fact become a highly complex process, since experiences with managers are inconsistent.

The present chapter seeks to explain and empirically test the interpersonal and organisational outcomes of ambivalent relationships. As such, the following two sections (Section 5.2 and 5.3) articulate the theoretical justification for considering the interpersonal and organisational outcomes separately and elaborate on the outcome variables considered. Section 5.4 discusses the possible moderating role of job control on employee behaviour. As seen below, Figure 5.1 represents the research model, which is elaborated in the following sections.

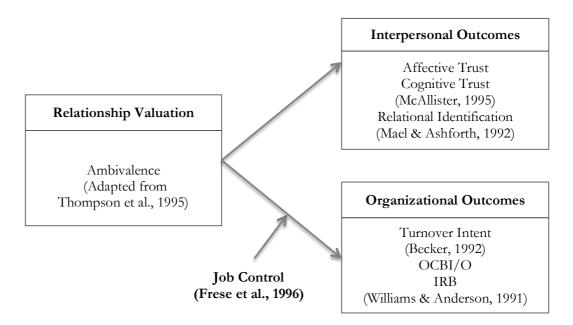


Figure 5. 1 Consequences of Relational Ambivalence

5.2 Interpersonal Outcomes of Relational Ambivalence

Empirical evidence suggests that employees engage in enduring exchanges with both the organisation as a whole and their immediate manager (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). In this way, individuals recognise that they have

obligations to both their manager and their employing organisation and view themselves as having a relationship with both (Bishop & Scott, 2000; Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000). In light of this, employees view managers not simply as organisational agents but as individuals having their own attitudes toward subordinates that may sometimes differ from those of the organisation. Thus, subordinates distinguish supervisor support from organisational support (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2002; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988), and differentiate fair treatment received from managers from fair treatment by the organisation (e.g., Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Further, subordinates' affective commitment (e.g., Becker, 1992; Becker, in press), trust (e.g., Stinglhamber, De Cremer, & Mercken, 2006; Tan & Tan, 2000), and citizenship behaviour (Becker & Kernan, 2003) are affected by their relationships with managers, over and above effects based on their relationships with the organisation. An understanding of this distinction provides the theoretical basis for examining the direct, interpersonal outcomes of relationships comprised of ambivalence. The theoretical justification pertaining to the organisational outcomes will be discussed in Section 5.3.

5.2.1 The Impact of Ambivalence on Cognitive and Affect-Based Trust

When employees develop strong interpersonal relationships with their managers, the benefits to the relationship are generally favourable. Equally, when employees develop weak interpersonal relationships with their managers, less favourable interpersonal outcomes tend to ensue (Liden et al., 2000). One such consequence often related to the strength of relationship quality is interpersonal trust.

Interpersonal trust is an important function for life within organisations. Trust gives people the feeling that others have their best interests at heart (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975), and that they will receive what is expected rather than what is feared

(Deutsch, 1973). According to these assertions, McAllister (1995) defined interpersonal trust as "the extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another" (p.25). Through his review of social psychological literature, McAllister (1995) determined that trust has both a cognitive and affective component. In other words, people think about and assign meaning to instances of reliability and dependability (Zucker, 1986), and express concern for the welfare of others in hopes of reciprocity (Pennings & Woiceshyn, 1987).

The distinctions McAllister (1995) makes with regards to the cognitive and affective components of interpersonal trust are pertinent to understand when making predictions about whether or not subordinates trust their managers. McAllister (1995) asserts that it is the success of past interaction, the extent of social similarity, and the organisational context that are antecedent conditions for the cognitive component of trust. Subsequently, the success of past interaction is defined according to the relationship's prior track record, role related duties of the past (Cook & Wall, 1980), behaviour consistent with the norm of reciprocity, and fairness (Linkskold, 1978; Stack, 1978, 1988).

The antecedents to the affective component of trust appear to be more aligned with the conditions of benevolence and integrity outlined by Mayer et al. (1995). For example, McAllister (1995) suggests affective trust incorporates behaviours that are recognised as chosen versus role prescribed, serve to meet legitimate needs, and express interpersonal care and concern for the other (Clark & Mills, 1979). Similarly, *benevolence* is defined as the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good for the trustor, apart from any profit motives, and *integrity* is defined as the extent to which a trustee is believed to at the extent to which a trustee is believed to a the extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be extent to which a trustee is believed to be adhere to sound moral and ethical principles (Mayer et al., 1995). Others have

determined that trustworthiness, or personal characteristics that inspire positive expectations (Butler & Cantrell, 1984), is antecedent to one's ability to trust others (Colquitt, Brent, & LePine, 2007). Therefore, employee ability to trust might largely depend on their assessment of manager motives.

Although there have been attempts to understand the various components of trust and how they are related to high quality relationships (e.g., Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008), the majority of studies tend to suggest that high quality relationships with managers engender increased trust with managers (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1996; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000) while low quality relationships correspond with less trust or, at the very least, more calculative forms of trust (e.g., Liden et al., 1997; Uhl-Bien et al., 2000). As described in the introduction (Section 5.1 above), the level of trust derived from such relationships is likely due to the mutual exchange of valued resources. Since ambivalent relationship valuations are constructed from uniformly favourable and unfavourable exchanges with managers, behavioural reciprocity in the form of in-role and extra role behaviours (as will be discuss in section 5.3.2) is difficult to predict. Trust, on the other hand is not.

McAllister's (1995) division of trust into cognitive and affective components suggests cognition-based trust relies on evidence of trustworthiness, whereas affect-based trust comprises a more emotional bond. Accordingly, these types of trust develop through varying degrees of favourable interaction with others. Whereas cognition-based trust relies on knowledge of reliability, affect-based trust relies on perceptions of genuine concern and virtue. As would be expected, employees who are ambivalent about the relationships they have with their managers are unlikely to engender either cognition or affect-based trust, although the logic behind these predictions slightly differs.

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Cognition-based trust is an unlikely outcome for ambivalent individuals purely because it necessitates reliability (McAllister, 1995). When reviewing the track record of their managers, ambivalent individuals are likely to recount inconsistencies in the way in which they have been treated. For instance, managers might demonstrate high levels of interactional justice (i.e., fair treatment) on one day and then undermine the employee on the very next (i.e., unfair treatment). Such bipolar interactions with managers limit predictability, which is a necessary condition for cognition-based trust (McAllister, 1995). Ambivalent employees that are unable to determine whether or not their managers will adhere to the norm of reciprocity – a compulsory element within higher quality relationships (Lindskold, 1978; Stack, 1978, 1988) -- are unlikely to develop cognition-based trust.

Hypothesis 1: Relational ambivalence is negatively related to employee cognition-based trust with managers.

Likewise, trust, in its more emotionally based form, is also an unlikely consequence for ambivalent individuals. As described throughout this thesis, individuals holding ambivalent attitudes often feel passionate about the foci for which their attitudes conflict (Ashforth & Rogers, 2010). In organisations, these individuals might desire a more favourable relationship with their managers; however, they are constantly met with behaviour from their managers that is unreflective of virtue or sincerity. Accordingly, the experience of ambivalence, which brings tension, conflict, and unpleasant emotions (Larsen, in press), is likely to impair an employee's ability to trust their managers affectively. It is only in higher quality relationships, where individuals are consistent in their favourable treatment and where the motives for such treatment can be easily interpreted, that affect-based trust can arise (McAllister, 1995). Therefore, it is predicted that ambivalent individuals are unlikely to experience affect-based trust.

Hypothesis 2: Relational ambivalence is negatively related to employee affect-based trust with managers.

5.2.2 The Impact of Ambivalence on Relational Identification

Much like the discussion above, the quality of the relationship employees have with their managers is likely to play an important role in whether or not employees identify with their managers and incorporate the relationship into their self-concept. This is likely because managers play a pivotal role in the development of one's identity within an organisation, since the sense of self is largely influenced by interpersonal relationships (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). Such role-related relationships, especially within organisations, are particularly important in terms of influencing a certain level of personal connection and intimacy.

An employee might therefore carry a strong personal motivation to ensure the welfare of the relationship he has with his employer (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), and managers might adjust their supervisory role depending on how they view a particular subordinate (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). As organisations are becoming more organic in nature, role-relationships may play a much greater function in terms of the formation of employee identity and affect (Flum, 2001) - making the role of managers inherently more crucial.

As an expansion of the self, the relationships employees have with their managers (and others within organisations) influence their interpretation of who they are (Aron & Aron, 2000). Termed *relational identification*, this represents "the extent to which one

defines oneself in terms of a given role-relationship" (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, p.11). A number of studies indicate that the more experiences or interactions an employee has with her manager, the more capable she is of understanding whether or not the relationship influences her identification (e.g., Ashforth, 2001; Epstein, 1980). Within high quality relationships, subordinates tend to internalize the goals of the group and its leader (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) and identify more with their managers as the relationship matures (Carmeli, Atwater, & Levi, 2011). Uhl-Bien (2006), for example, suggests that LMX relationships offering satisfying rewards should foster relational identity and enhance normative and affective commitment to the leader. This process can be fairly complicated, however, because individuals may use role-based or personbased identities in order to make an overall evaluation of the manager (Sluss & Asforth, 2007). Simply stated, employees might assess aspects about the individual (e.g., she is arrogant) or about the supervisory role (e.g., she's a good manager) to determine whether or not they relationally identify with that person. Consequently, this might limit the extent to which employees identify with their managers.

In addition to reducing uncertainty, "humans are motivated to identify with others as a means of attaining a human connection" (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, p.20). Markus & Nurius (1986), in their discussion on the future oriented component of the self, assert that individuals have some idea of what they would like to become, and that individuals have a basic fear of what they *might* become. In linking this assertion to life within organisations, we might find that employees seek validation from their managers in order to confirm their self-identity, and that such confirmation is likely done through various interactions with their manager (Swann, 1999). In this way, individuals strive for coherence when attempting to generalize their relationships even when experiences with others vary dramatically (Van Rooy, Overwalle, Vanhoomisen, Labiouse, &

French, 2003). In fact, individuals monitor and regulate behaviour to be consistent with oughts and ideals, and experience certain specifiable emotions (e.g. sadness or anxiety) in response to discrepancies between self and standards (Baldwin, 1992). As such, it is primarily when experiences with others are congruent with one's self-identity that satisfaction and stability ensue (Hardin & Conley, 2001; Holmes, 2000). The strength of relational identification therefore engenders empathy, mutual understanding, and social support (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999).

From what we know about relational identification through the above discussion, the question of whether or not employees who are ambivalent about the relationship they have with their managers are likely to relationally identify with their managers seems fairly straightforward. Once again, the prerequisite for consistent treatment from managers seems to determine whether or not employees are susceptible to such intimate Weigert (1991) suggests that with ambivalent attitudes, interpersonal outcomes. individuals indeed lose a sense of self because they are unable to rely on the norms that guide consistent attitudes and behaviours. For example, employees who are consistently treated fairly by their managers are familiar with how to respond to such treatment (e.g., positive reciprocation norm) whereas inconsistent treatment from managers challenges such programmed responses. This inherently weakens the ability or desire for employees to relationally identify with their managers, since such contradictory feelings limit the employee's understanding of who their manager is and thus their ability to connect with them.

Further, ambivalence has been described as a painful state that increases guilt and selfdoubt and that one's ability to alleviate such discomfort requires excessively firm action (Katz et al., 1977). More recent research confirms this assertion and suggests ambivalence evokes a consistency seeking motivation (Nordgren et al., 2006). Therefore, employees experiencing ambivalent attitudes toward their managers are likely to take whatever action is necessary in order to reduce such relational tension. Accordingly, it seems highly improbable that ambivalent employees will, through this process, relationally identify with their managers.

Hypothesis 3: Relational ambivalence is negatively related to employee relational identification with managers.

5.3 Organisational Outcomes of Relational Ambivalence

Levinson (1965) argued that actions by organisational agents are often interpreted by employees as indicators of the organisation's intent rather than simply being linked to the agents themselves. Those subscribing to this notion have suggested that managers (as organisational agents) may, for some employees, embody the organisation and influence the ways in which organisational policies, procedures, and general culture are perceived (Stinglhamber et al., 2005). Indeed, when employees develop an emotional bond with their organisation, they are more likely to participate in organisational activities and contribute to organisational goals (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday, Porter & Streers, 1982). As a result, an employee's affective commitment with their organisation has been shown to increase as the result of high frequency interactions with proximal organisational agents (Becker, 1992; Mueller & Lawler, 1999), and commitment to such agents has been shown to enhance organisational commitment (Hunt & Morgan, 1994). It stands to reason, therefore, that an employee's ambivalent attitude toward their manager would also carry important implications for the organisation. This section explores such possibility.

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5.3.1 The Impact of Ambivalence on Employee Turnover Intent

As described in section 5.2, the outcomes associated with ambivalence at the interpersonal level are often undesirable. Such attitudinal discord is likely to impact an employee's ability to perform, as well as his or her desire to remain with their present organisation. For example, in addition to the impact ambivalence has on identification, Weigert (1991) also suggests ambivalence weakens motivation, blocks decisions, inhibits actions, and generates anxiety. Although ambivalence is said to have a threshold before it becomes intolerable (Wyer, 1974), such intolerability is derived from the tension, conflict, and unpleasant emotions (Larsen, in press) it is likely to provoke. Consequently, individuals experiencing ambivalence develop a consistency seeking motivation and increase their vigilance toward cues that will alter their ambivalent state (Katz & Hass, 1988; Nordgren et al., 2006).

This type of heightened sensitivity to attitude confirming cues parallels the outcomes of cognitive dissonance theory (elaborated in more detail in Chapter 6) where individuals experience discomfort as the result of their own competing attitudes and behaviours (Festinger, 1957). Employees who have consistently favourable or even consistently unfavourable interactions with their managers are therefore likely to experience less tension in their relationships with their managers than those who experience relatively inconsistent interactions. As a result, employees who are unable to uncover cues that alter their attitude, and who otherwise remain ambivalent about their relationship with their manager, are likely to develop a strong desire to exit the organisation. Inevitably, as the dissonance afforded through ambivalence reaches levels that are no longer tolerable, employee turnover intentions are likely to intensify.

Hypothesis 4: Relational ambivalence is positively related to employees' intention to turnover.

5.3.2 The Impact of Ambivalence on In-Role and Contextual Performance

The quality of the exchange relationships employees have with their managers has consistently been linked to employee performance. Masterson et al. (2000), for example, discovered that the interactional component of justice was a better predictor of job performance than organisationally focused procedural justice. LMX has consistently demonstrated a stronger relationship on performance ratings than more organisationally assessed exchanges such as perceived organisational support (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne & Green, 1993). Likewise, commitment to one's manager, rather than commitment to one's organisation, has been revealed to be the better predictor of performance ratings (Becker, et al., 1997). Good relationships with managers, therefore, typically inspire positive outcomes for the organisation, while bad relationships with managers typically limit favourable outcomes or stir counterproductive behaviours. The ability to predict the way in which employees will behave within ambivalent relationships, however, is less straightforward.

When making predictions about the behavioural consequences of relational ambivalence, it seems there are two key areas to consider: 1) the emotion and stress that ambivalence conjures, and 2) the impact ambivalence has on motivation. Regarding the former, it is natural for individuals to monitor and appraise their environment (Lazarus, 1991) and therefore, to detect threats to interpersonal well-being. In organisations, conflict within interpersonal relationships is often viewed as a threat that induces anger and anxiety (Spector, 1998). Ambivalent individuals, in particular, are likely to experience heightened levels of stress and anxiety since the interpersonal conflict with

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their managers is sporadic and unpredictable. Indeed, ambivalence has been known to engender tension, conflict, and unpleasant emotions (Larsen, in press).

Accordingly, employee emotional responses to stressful workplace events have been related to counterproductive work behaviour (Fox & Spector, 1999; Restubog, Bordia & Tang, 2007) as well as decreased in-role performance (Turnley, Bolino, Lester & Bloodgood, 2003; Restubog, Bordia & Tang, 2006; Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000; Thompson & Heron, 2006) and decreased organisational citizenship behaviours (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). From an emotional standpoint, it seems clear that relational ambivalence will limit employee in-role and extra-role behaviour; however it may be useful to incorporate an example to demonstrate why this might be:

Imagine that your manager comes to your office and praises you for a job well done on a recent project. Later that same day in a committee meeting, he embarrasses you by saying you need to seriously increase your level of contribution to the team. Confused and bewildered, the mixed messages you have received both in private and in public, have now stirred your emotions and increased your level of stress. Prior to the meeting you were feeling good about yourself and ready to contribute to the organisation, and now, after the meeting, you are feeling deflated and severely inhibited. **You can't believe he has done this again.** Deciding why, when, and whether to increase your performance, as the result of your ambivalence toward your manager, has suddenly become a challenge. You begin to ruminate over your manager's behaviour -- further suspending your ability to perform, and you begin to question whether or not you can remain with this organisation any longer.

While the scenario above captures the emotional component of ambivalence (i.e., why an employee would find it difficult to perform), it is also important to consider whether ambivalence limits motivation (i.e., whether an employee *can* perform). When individuals hold ambivalent attitudes, they tend to oscillate between whether or not they like or dislike someone or something. Accordingly, finding favour or disfavour with someone (especially an organisational authority figure), is likely to frustrate an individual's decision to work exceptionally hard for the organisation or encourage them to withdraw helpful behaviours altogether. Moreover, ambivalent individuals tend to process information regarding their attitude with extreme caution (Jonas, Diehl, & Bromer, 1997; Maio, Bell, & Esses, 1996). The mental taxation involved in such careful consideration inevitably impedes an individual's ability to perform. Subsequently, ambivalence has been said to limit motivation and to stymie an individual's ability to make clear decisions (Weigert, 1991). As employees contemplate the favourable and unfavourable interactions they have had with their manager, decisions to positively or negatively reciprocate (respectively) become interlaced. In these cases, such distorted attitudes are likely to impair employee performance or possibly heighten retaliation out of frustration. Therefore, as seen through its impact on individual emotion and mental processing capability, relational ambivalence with managers seems to qualify as a hindrance-related stressor, which are often said to impair employee in-role and extra-role performance (Allen, Hitt, & Greer, 1982; Jamal, 1984, 1985; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992).

Hypothesis 5a: Relational ambivalence is negatively related to manager ratings of organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the manager (OCBI).

Hypothesis 5b: Relational ambivalence is negatively related to manager ratings of organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the organisation (OCBO).

Hypothesis 6: Relational ambivalence is negatively related to manager ratings of inrole behaviour (IRB).

5.4 The Moderating Effect of Job Control on Relational Ambivalence and Organisational Outcomes

The previous section highlighted several reasons for why employees within ambivalent relationships are likely to withdraw positive workplace behaviours. This section argues that, contrary to the known benefits of job control, ambivalent employees who are afforded more control over their jobs will further withdraw positive workplace behaviours as a form of coping and self-regulation. Job control in this instance does not refer to the degree of interpersonal power within the employment relationship. Rather, it refers to an employee's ability to make decisions, arrange their own work, and participate in decision-making activities (Frese et al., 1996). Consequently, ambivalent employees who are offered more control over their jobs might utilize such freedom to restore a sense of balance in the relationship. Job control was chosen because, theoretically, high job control would provide a scenario whereby employees are in charge of their own performance. Therefore, its moderating influence on employee performance is likely to coincide with the attitude employees have toward the relationship with their manager.

Spector (1987) describes the benefits of job control for organisations, which include high levels of job satisfaction, commitment, involvement, performance, and motivation, and low levels of physical symptoms, emotional distress, role stress, absenteeism, and turnover. Although there is a dearth of empirical research incorporating manager relationship quality with job control, recent efforts have discovered that employees maintaining high quality relationships with their managers (i.e., high LMX) generally feel more comfortable designing the task characteristics of their job (Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, & Weigl, 2010) and feel more empowered in their jobs (Aryee & Chen, 2006). In other words, high quality relationships have been shown to lead to increased job control. Interestingly, even individuals in low quality relationships

have reported increased effort in more decentralized (i.e., higher autonomy) organisations (Kacmar, Zivnuska, & White, 2007). Such studies demonstrate that job control might play a pivotal role in the processes leading from relationship quality to organisational outcomes.

Karasek (1979) suggested that the mental anguish for employees associated with demanding jobs could be attenuated through increased job control. Although his model pertains primarily to task-related stressors, increased job control under the conditions of interpersonal stress with managers (e.g., relational ambivalence) might also help to improve the situation for employees. In such cases, however, the outcomes might be far less altruistic. For example, employees who are ambivalent about the relationship they have with their managers might take advantage of the leniency in job control (i.e., decreased supervision) and withdraw in-role and extra-role behaviours in an effort to compensate for the imbalance provided through their manager's inconsistent treatment. The theoretical underpinnings explaining this potential might be located within control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1982). Control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1982) proposes that individuals regularly monitor for discrepancies in their present condition and make attempts to eliminate or reduce imbalances when they occur. Individuals assess the present situation, compare it against a point of reference, and enact compensatory behaviours when a discrepancy is perceived. Accordingly, control theory has been used to explain the negative behaviours employees engage in when they recognise an asymmetry in their exchange relationship with their organisation (Jensen, Opland, & Ryan, 2010). The idea, therefore, that individuals engage in compensatory efforts to restore a sense of balance could help explain why ambivalent employees who are afforded more control over their jobs might, in fact, contribute less to the organisation.

From the previous example, if you are offered more autonomy in your job (and therefore less accountability), you might disengage from work altogether whenever your manager intensifies your ambivalent attitude. Such inaction is motivated by the desire to lessen the discrepancy employees recognise between their current situation and a given reference point (e.g., their prior relationship status with their manager, or another employee's status with the same manager). Accordingly, employees might retract positive organisational behaviours in order to change their perception of the situation (i.e., a tit for tat reaction). In doing so, relatively powerless and largely dependent employees are able to passively punish their manager for the stress they have created. Such predictions are consistent with the equity norm in resource allocation (Greenberg, 1980) since one desired resource (e.g., high quality relationship status) forfeits another (e.g., performance).

Hypothesis 7a: Job control will negatively moderate the relationship between relational ambivalence and organisational citizenship behaviour directed toward the manager (OCBI) such that employees will lower OCBIs when they are offered more job control.

Hypothesis 7b: Job control will negatively moderate the relationship between relational ambivalence and organisational citizenship behaviour directed toward the organisation (OCBO) such that employees will lower OCBOs when they are offered more job control.

Hypothesis 8: Job control will negatively moderate the relationship between relational ambivalence and in-role performance such that employees will lower in-role performance when they are offered more job control.

5.5 Methods

Participants for this study were the same as for the previous chapter.

5.5.1 Measures

At Time 1, subordinates provided ratings of relationship valuation (i.e., positive, negative, ambivalent). Additionally, employees provided ratings for control variables. To ensure employees were providing ratings that targeted the same manager across items, I altered the survey software to include the manager's name (provided earlier in the survey by the employee) when it appeared in a measure. Summated scale scores were created for each measure; however, relational ambivalence was calculated using the formula recommended by Thompson et al. (1995). At Time 2, six months following Time 1, turnover intent and the interpersonal outcomes of interest for this study were collected. Managers provided reports for in-role and extra-role behaviours.

Relationship Valuation

Relationship valuation was captured at Time 1 using the method described in Chapter 4. To reiterate, I asked participants to think separately about the positive and negative aspects of nine relationship-based characteristics (e.g., inclusion, support, loyalty). In two separate questions, participants were first asked to rate how positive each of their manager's characteristics are while ignoring the negative aspects of that characteristic; and then, participants were asked to rate how negative each of their manager's characteristics are while ignoring the positive aspects of that characteristic. The positive items were averaged to create positive valuations, the negative items were averaged to create positive valuations were calculated using the equation recommended by Thompson et al. (1995) and described in Chapter 4. Accordingly, the coefficient alphas for the current study were $\alpha = .97$ for the positive valuation scale, $\alpha = .98$, for the negative valuation scale, and $\alpha = .97$ for the ambivalent

valuations scale.

Cognition-Based and Affect-Based Trust

Cognition-based and affect-based trust were captured at Time 2 (6 months after Time 1) using McAllister's (1995) scale. Cognition-based trust items tend to capture trust in competence, whereas affect-based trust captures trust on a more emotional level. Respondents were asked to assess on a seven-point scale (ranging from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree') the extent to which they trust their manager. Example items of cognition-based trust were "This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication" and "I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work." Examples of affect-based trust items were "We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes" and "I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship." Coefficient alphas for the two scales were $\alpha = .93$ and $\alpha = .91$ for cognition-based and affect-based trust, respectively.

Relational Identification

Relational identification items were also captured at Time 2. Relational identification items measure the extent to which individuals incorporate a given role-relationship into their sense of self. For this study, I adapted the method used by Becker's foci of commitment study (1992), and used five organisational identification items originally developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992) by replacing the word "organisation" with the employee's manager's name. Respondents were asked to assess on a seven-point scale (ranging from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree') the extent to which they identify with their manager. Example items were "When someone criticizes [manager's name] it feels like a personal insult" and "I feel a sense of ownership for [manager's name]." The coefficient alpha for relational identification was $\alpha = .90$.

Turnover Intent

Turnover intent was measured at Time 2 using the same items as Becker (1992). He measured intent to leave the organisation in part by two items from the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). They were "It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year," and "I often think about quitting." He also took two additional items from the Occupational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ): "It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation," and "There's not too much to be gained by sticking with the organisation indefinitely." Responses were given on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Intent to quit was assessed by summing across the four items. The coefficient alpha for turnover intent was $\alpha = .89$.

In-role and Extra-role Behaviour

Consistent with Williams and Anderson (1991), three classes of behaviours were captured in order to assess employee performance: organisational citizenship behaviour with a specific individual as the target (OCBI), organisational citizenship behaviour benefiting the organisation (OCBO), and in-role behaviour (IRB). Managers provided an assessment of each of their employees across these three performance classes. Since several managers had five or more subordinates, only three items from each performance class were utilized in order to shorten the amount of time managers had to spend assessing their employees. Example items were "This employee assists me with my work (when not asked)" (OCBI), "This employee gives advance notice when unable to come to work" (OCBO) and "This employee fulfils responsibilities specified in job description" (IRB). Manager responses were given on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The coefficient alphas for OCBI, OCBO, and IRB were $\alpha = .87$, $\alpha = .81$, $\alpha = .93$, respectively.

Job Control

To test job control as a moderator, four items from Frese et al. (1996) were incorporated into this study at Time 1. These items help determine the extent to which employees have control over their work. Respondents were asked to assess on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = `very little' to 5 = `very much') the extent to which certain aspects of the job were left to their own discretion. Example items were "Can you determine how you do your work?" and "How much can you participate in decisions of your superior (e.g., the superior asks you for your opinion and asks for suggestions)?" The coefficient alpha for job control was $\alpha = .85$.

Controls

Consistent with other research of this type (e.g., Eisenberg, 2000; Thompson et al. 1995), age, gender, and organisational status were used as controls for the current study. More favourable managerial ratings tend to stem from research participants who are older, female, or who have higher status within organisations. Job type was controlled by design, because employees and their managers all worked for the same company and in the same occupation (auditing).

5.5.2 Analysis

Given the multilevel nature of my data, I used hierarchical linear modelling (HLM; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) to test the relationships among participants' relational ambivalence, cognition-based trust, affect-based trust, relational identification, turnover intent, extra-role performance, and in-role performance. HLM consists of a series of regression equations that take into account the nonindependence in the data that arises from having participants contribute multiple data points across time and from having participants cluster in groups. In the current study, the data comprises two levels because employees are nested in managers. The first level, or Level 1, captures variance within employees and consists of the interpersonal and organisational outcomes. The second level, or Level 2, captures variance between individuals within managerial groups. By assigning a unique identification number to each manager, I was able to account for this Level 2 effect.

HLM is an appropriate method for the analyses in this study because it accounts for both within and between-group variability in the variables while estimating individuallevel relationships. This controls for any potential group-level dependencies among the data such as variances among group work practices, the nature of the workgroup, or manager style. Full maximum likelihood estimation was used so that deviance tests, analogous to chi-square tests in structural equation modelling or R-square difference tests in OLS regression, could be conducted to indicate effect size (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Model deviance is equal to two times the negative log-likelihood and the difference in deviance between two models has a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in the number of parameters between the two models. Controls and main effects were entered separately in order to examine effect size. All study variables were grand mean centered for ease in interpretation of the results (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

Because I used a structured survey and self-report data, which may lead to common method bias, several steps were taken to alleviate this concern. First, I collected data at two different points in time to attempt to mitigate this problem (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Second, I utilized manager reports in order to obtain data regarding employee performance. Third, I tested whether the data were inflated and thus could generate problems of multicollinearity. The results of the Valence Inflation Factor test indicated that none of the independent variables had VIFs greater than the stringent cutoff of 2.5

(the more lenient cutoff is 10) (cf. Belsley et al. 1980). Hence, while I cannot rule out the possibility of common method bias, the aforementioned procedures and tests indicate that this issue is not problematic for this study.

5.6 Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations are shown in Table 5.1 below. Correlations are at the within-individual level and are calculated by standardizing the regression coefficient obtained in HLM analyses between one predictor and one criterion at Level 1. As show in Table 5.1, at the within-individual level, there are several expectedly high correlations. OCBIs were significantly correlated with OCBOs (r = .72, p < .05) and IRBs (r = .76, p < .05). Further, affect-based trust was correlated with cognition-based trust (r = .68, p < .05) and relational identification (r = .63, p < .05).

| Variable | М | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|---|
| [1] Ambivalent Valuation (T1) | .01 | 1.75 | | | | | | | | |
| [2] Cognition-Based Trust (T2) | 5.58 | 1.27 | 43* | - | | | | | | |
| [3] Affect-Based Trust (T2) | 4.66 | 1.39 | 35* | .68* | - | | | | | |
| [4] Relational Identification (T2) | 4.12 | 1.45 | 19 | .50* | .63* | - | | | | |
| [5] Turnover Intent (T2) | 2.53 | 1.54 | .27* | 38* | 38* | 28* | - | | | |
| [6] OCBI (Mgr) | 5.63 | 1.20 | 09 | .29* | .35* | .18 | -27* | - | | |
| [7] OCBO (Mgr) | 5.97 | 1.07 | 14 | .30* | .31* | .06 | 30* | .72* | - | |
| [8] In-Role Behaviour (Mgr) | 6.03 | 0.89 | 12 | .28* | .32* | .13 | 16 | .76* | .76* | - |

| Table 5. 1 | | | | |
|---------------|------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|
| Descriptive s | statistics of an | d correlations | among focal | variables |

Notes: Means, standard deviations and correlations are based on within-individual (Level 1) scores N=111 (Time 1), N=118 (Time 2), N=106 (Manager Reports) *p<.01. Ambivalent Valuation calculations are based on Thompson et al. (1995), which yield scores ranging from -2 (least ambivalent) to 7 (most ambivalent)

Finally, ambivalent relationship valuations were negatively correlated with cognition-

based trust (r = -.43, p <.05), and affect-based trust (r = -.35, p <.05), and positively correlated with turnover intent (r = .27, p < .05). Cognition and affect-based trust were both significantly correlated with all study variables.

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1-3 observed the impact of relational ambivalence with managers on interpersonal outcomes. Hypothesis 1 predicted that relational ambivalence would have a direct negative relationship with cognition-based trust; Hypothesis 2 predicted that relational ambivalence would have a direct negative relationship with affect-based trust; and Hypotheses 3 predicted that relational ambivalence would have a direct negative relationship with relational identification. To test these hypotheses, I utilized HLM to separately discern the main effects of relational ambivalence on each of these interpersonal outcomes. Two models were estimated for each of the outcomes of these three hypotheses. Tables 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4 depict the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, and the second model examining the direct effect of ambivalent valuations on cognition-based trust, affect-based trust, and relational identification, respectively.

| Variable | Coefficient | | |
|---|-------------|---------|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 4.71 ** | 4.58** | |
| Controls | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .01 | .01 | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .02 | .15 | |
| Organisational Status γ ₃₀ | .30** | .24* | |
| Main Effect | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | 31** | |
| Deviance | 379.90 | 294.30 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 85.60** | |

Table 5.2

 $N = 118 \pmod{1}$; N= 96 (Model 2) † p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01

| Variable | Coeffic | eient |
|---|---------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 3.97** | 4.33** |
| Controls | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .01 | .01 |
| Gender γ_{20} | 11 | 10 |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | .15 | .09 |
| Main Effect | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | 27** |
| Deviance | 406.98 | 312.24 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 94.74** |

 Table 5. 3

 HLM Results Predicting Affect-based Trust (Time 2)

 $N = 118 \text{ (Model 1)}; N = 96 \text{ (Model 2)}; \ddagger p < .10 \ast p < .05. \ast p < .01$

HLM Results Predicting Relational Identification (Time 2)

| Coefficient | | |
|-------------|--|--|
| Model 1 | Model 2 | |
| 2.63** | 2.87** | |
| | | |
| .02* | .02 | |
| 06 | .02 | |
| .33** | .33** | |
| | | |
| | 11 | |
| 407.16 | 327.98 | |
| | 79.18** | |
| | Model 1 2.63** .02* 06 .33** | |

 $N = 118 \text{ (Model 1)}; N = 96 \text{ (Model 2)}; \ddagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

As shown, Hypothesis 1 and 2 were supported. Employee relational ambivalence is negatively related to employee cognitive-based trust ($\gamma_{40} = -.31$, p<.01) and negatively related to affect-based trust ($\gamma_{40} = -.27$, p<.01) in managers. Hypothesis 3, though in the predicted direction, was not supported ($\gamma_{40} = -.11$, p =.17). Therefore, employee relational ambivalence is not significantly related to relational identification.

Hypotheses 4-6 had to do with the impact that relational ambivalence with managers has on organisational outcomes. Hypotheses 4 predicted that relational ambivalence would have a direct positive relationship with turnover intent; Hypotheses 5a/b predicted that relational ambivalence would have a direct negative relationship with

Table 5.4

organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the manager and the organisation (OCBI/O); and Hypotheses 6 predicted that relational ambivalence would have a direct negative relationship with in-role behaviour (IRB). To test these hypotheses, I utilized HLM to separately discern the main effects of relational ambivalence on each of these organisational outcomes. Two models were estimated for each of the outcomes of these three hypotheses. Tables 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7 and 5.8 show the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects, and the second model examining the direct effect of ambivalent valuations on turnover intent, OCBI, OCBO, and IRB, respectively.

| HLM Results Predicting Turnover Intent (Time 2) | | | |
|---|---------------------|----------|--|
| Variable | Coefficient | | |
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 4.99** | 5.20** | |
| Controls | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 05** | 05** | |
| Gender γ_{20} | 02 | 21 | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | 16 | 20* | |
| Main Effect | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | .28** | |
| Deviance | 412.20 | 308.56 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 103.64** | |
| $N = 118 \text{ (Model 1)}; N = 96 \text{ (Model 2)}; \ddagger p < .10 * p$ | p < .05. ** p < .05 |)1 | |

(100011), (100011), (100011), (p < 10011)

| Т | a | b | le | 5. | 6 |
|---|---|---|----|----|---|
| | | | | | |

Table 5.5

HLM Results Predicting OCBI (Manager Rating)

| Variable | Coefficient | | |
|---|-------------|---------|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.34** | 5.33** | |
| Controls | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | .00 | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .18 | .22 | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | .20* | .19† | |
| Main Effect | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | 08 | |
| Deviance | 335.76 | 338.24 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | -2.48 | |

N= 106; $\dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

| Variable | Coeffic | Coefficient | | |
|---|---------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.10** | 4.93** | | |
| Controls | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | .00 | | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .30 | .43* | | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | .26** | .23** | | |
| Main Effect | | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | 15* | | |
| Deviance | 304.16 | 289.30 | | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 14.86** | | |
| N= 106; $\dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$ Table 5. 8 | | | | |
| Table 5. 8 HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating) | Coeffic | ient | | |
| Table 5. 8 | Coeffic Model 1 | ient Model 2 | | |
| Table 5. 8 HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating) Variable | | | | |
| Table 5. 8 HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating) | Model 1 | Model 2 | | |
| Table 5. 8 HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating) Variable Intercept γ ₀₀ | Model 1 | Model 2 | | |
| Table 5. 8 HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating) Variable Intercept γ ₀₀ Controls | Model 1 5.67** | Model 2 5.59** | | |
| Table 5. 8 HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating) Variable Intercept γ_{00} Controls Age γ_{10} Gender γ_{20} | Model 1 5.67** .00 | Model 2 5.59** .00 | | |
| Table 5. 8 HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating) Variable Intercept γ_{00} Controls Age γ_{10} | Model 1 5.67** .00 .15 | Model 2 5.59** .00 .27† | | |
| Table 5. 8HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating)VariableIntercept γ_{00} ControlsAge γ_{10} Gender γ_{20} Organisational Status γ_{30} | Model 1 5.67** .00 .15 | Model 2 5.59** .00 .27† | | |
| Table 5. 8HLM Results Predicting IRB (Manager Rating)VariableIntercept γ_{00} ControlsAge γ_{10} Gender γ_{20} Organisational Status γ_{30} Main Effect | Model 1 5.67** .00 .15 | Model 2 5.59** .00 .27† .13† | | |

 Table 5. 7

 HLM Results Predicting OCBO (Manager Rating)

N=106; $\dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

As shown, Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5b were supported. Employee relational ambivalence is positively related to employee turnover intent ($\gamma_{40} = .28$, p<.01) and negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the organisation ($\gamma_{40} = ..15$, p<.05). Hypothesis 5a, though in the predicted direction, was not supported ($\gamma_{40} = ..08$, p =..31); and Hypothesis 6, though also in the predicted direction, was not supported ($\gamma_{40} = ..08$, p =..17). Therefore relational ambivalence is not significantly related to organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the manager or in-role behaviour.

Hypotheses 7-8 had to do with the moderating impact of job control on relational ambivalence and employee extra-role and in-role behaviour. Hypotheses 7a and 7b

predicted that job control would negatively moderate the relationship between relational ambivalence and organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the manager (7a) and toward the organisation (7b). Hypotheses 8 predicted that job control would negatively moderate the relationship between relational ambivalence and in-role behaviour (IRB). To test these hypotheses, I utilized HLM to separately discern the main and moderating effects of job control on each of these organisational behaviours. Three models were estimated for each of the outcomes of these three hypotheses. Tables 5.9, 5.10, and 5.11 reveal the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects; the second model examining ambivalent valuation and job control direct effects; and the third model demonstrating the within-level interaction effect (i.e., the full model) on OCBI, OCBO, and IRB, respectively.

Table 5.9

HLM Results Predicting the Moderating Effect of Job Control on OCBI

| Variable | | Coefficient | | |
|--|---------|-------------|---------|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.34** | 6.06** | 6.09** | |
| Controls | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | 01 | 01 | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .18 | .11 | .02 | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | .20 | .07 | .07 | |
| Main Effects | | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | .00 | .02 | |
| Job Control (T1) γ ₅₀ | | .50** | .51** | |
| Interaction Effect | | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation X Job Control γ_{60} | | | 14* | |
| Deviance | 335.76 | 322.64 | 315.46 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 13.12 | 7.18** | |
| $N = 106; \dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$ | | | | |

| Variable | Coefficient | | |
|--|-------------|---------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.10** | 5.66** | 5.65** |
| Controls | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .01 | .00 | .00 |
| Gender γ_{20} | .30 | .23 | .22 |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | .26** | .13* | .13* |
| Main Effects | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | 08 | 08 |
| Job Control (T1) γ_{50} | | .36** | .34** |
| Interaction Effect | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation X Job Control γ_{60} | | | 03 |
| Deviance | 304.16 | 266.92 | 266.82 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 37.24** | .10** |

Table 5. 10HLM Results Predicting the Moderating Effect of Job Control on OCBO

 $N = 106; \dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

Table 5. 11

HLM Results Predicting the Moderating Effect of Job Control on IRB

| Variable | | Coefficient | | |
|--|---------|-------------|---------|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 5.67** | 6.24** | 6.23** | |
| Controls | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | 01 | 01 | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .15 | .13 | .11 | |
| Organisational Status γ_{30} | .14† | .02 | .03 | |
| Main Effects | | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation (T1) γ_{40} | | 05 | 04 | |
| Job Control (T1) γ ₅₀ | | .28** | .27** | |
| Interaction Effect | | | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation X Job Control γ_{60} | | | 04 | |
| Deviance | 270.36 | 236.14 | 235.76 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 34.22** | .38** | |

 $N = 106; \dagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

As shown, Hypothesis 7a was the only interaction that was supported. Job control negatively moderates the relationship between relational ambivalence and organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward managers ($\gamma_{60} = -.14$, p<.05). Hypothesis 7b and 8 were in the predicted direction but both insignificant. Therefore

job control does not moderate the relationship between ambivalent valuations and employee citizenship behaviours directed toward the organisation ($\gamma_{60} = -.03$, p =.66) or in-role behaviour ($\gamma_{60} = -.04$, p =.49).

A plot of the significant interaction is shown in Figure 5.2 and reveals that the negative within-individual relationship between ambivalent employee valuations and citizenship behaviours directed toward their manager (OCBIs) was stronger in groups of employees who were offered more job control. Put differently, groups of ambivalent employees who were offered more autonomy in their roles (i.e., less supervision) were especially likely to decrease their level of extra-role performance toward their managers. The significant negative slope depicted in Figure 4.2 provides further support for Hypothesis 7a.

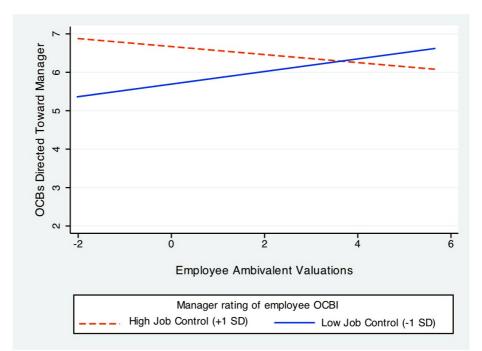


Figure 5. 2 The moderating effect of job control on the within-group relationship between employee ambivalent valuations toward their managers and citizenship behaviours directed toward their managers.

Table 5.12 below summarizes the key findings for this chapter and demonstrates the

outcomes of relational ambivalence on interpersonal and organisational outcomes.

Summary of Key Findings: The Interpersonal and Organisational Outcomes of Relational Ambivalence **Relational Ambivalence Interpersonal Outcomes** -.31** Cognition-based Trust Affect-based Trust -.27** **Relational Identification** N.S. **Organisational Outcomes** Turnover Intent 28** OCBI (Manager Rating) N.S OCBO (Manager Rating) -.15* IRB (Manager Rating) N.S. **Moderator Outcomes** OCBI x Job Control -.14* OCBO x Job Control N.S. IRB x Job Control N.S.

 $\frac{1}{p} < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01; N.S. = Not Significant$

5.7 Discussion

Table 5.12

Ambivalence is rarely studied within organisational behaviour, and relational ambivalence with managers has not been explored until now. In light of this, the present study set out to discover the consequences associated with maintaining ambivalent relationships. Elements of social exchange theory and control theory were utilized in an effort to uncover the interpersonal and organisational implications that relate to ambivalent attitudes toward managers and to reveal more about the complexities involved in these types of organisational relationships.

Accordingly, the first set of hypotheses set out to determine whether relational ambivalence had a negative impact on cognition-based trust, affect-based trust, and relational identification. As predicted, relational ambivalence had a direct negative relationship with cognitive-based and affect-based trust. However, interestingly, the prediction with relational identification was not supported. What seems to be apparent

from this particular finding is that employees with ambivalent attitudes toward their managers are likely to associate inconsistencies in treatment with the deterioration of the relationship. This is because trust is a building block for most relationships, and ambivalent attitudes seem to thwart such potential. Given that ambivalence relates negatively to both types of trust, this might also suggest that ambivalence itself has cognitive and affective components. In other words, employees might be ambivalent about the fact that their managers are not fully qualified for their jobs (i.e., cognition-based), or that managers might be sending mixed messages regarding the genuine concern they have for their employees (i.e., affect-based).

This finding is particularly important because it suggests that lack of trust is not merely a component of the consistent negative treatment found in low quality relationships, but it can also be found in relationships where employees experience highs and lows in manager conduct. Such a result provides further support for the idea that relationship valuations are likely to be comprised of both cognitive and affective components. Employees, therefore, might be ambivalent about their manager's level of competence, or ambivalence might arise from their manager's ability to exert friendliness. The fact that ambivalence did not relate to relational identification seems to support this claim, since employees might be confused as to what aspect of their manager's behaviour they would potentially emulate. The non-significance of this result most likely indicates that, unlike employees in high quality relationships (see Carmeli, Atwater, & Levi, 2011), ambivalent employees are likely to fluctuate in the degree to which they identify with their managers. Relational ambivalence, therefore, is probably more likely to be associated with ambivalent identification where individuals simultaneously identify and disidentify with a given target (Dukerich et al., 1998; Elsbach, 1999; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004).

The organisational outcomes revealed that the direct effects of relational ambivalence were significantly related to turnover intent and withdrawal of citizenship behaviours directed toward the organisation (OCBO) but not significantly related to citizenship behaviours directed toward the manager (OCBI). These finding seems to indicate that relational ambivalence is indeed an uncomfortable state for the employee. However, the non-significant finding with OCBIs suggests that the paralysis in thought and action often associated with ambivalence does not cause individuals to withdraw OCBIs (as predicted) but instead encourages inaction. In retrospect, this finding might reflect a 'target similarity effect' (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007), where relationships between constructs are stronger when the target of the behaviour is reflected through the study items, since relational ambivalence did not relate to OCBIs.

This way of thinking also helps explain why relational ambivalence with managers and OCBOs had a significant and negative relationship. Employees who are ambivalent about their relationship with their manager are thinking more about potential exit strategies (i.e., turnover intent) and less about what extra role behaviours they can perform to help the organisation. This finding coincides with studies that indicate ambivalence provokes rumination (Nordgren et al., 2006). Though not hypothesized within this particular study, when compared with positive and negative valuations, relational ambivalence was found to have the strongest relationship with turnover intent. This seems to indicate that consistent interactions with managers (even when negative) are less emotionally and cognitively impairing than inconsistent interactions. The withdrawal of OCBOs in relation to such treatment reinforces prior assertions that managers play a pivotal role in influencing employee organisational outcomes (Levinson, 1965). In this case, employee ambivalent attitudes toward managers impact the employee's level of dedication toward the organisation and thus the employee's

willingness to go the extra mile.

Interestingly, when employees are offered more control over their jobs, citizenship behaviours directed toward managers decrease. This moderating role of job control seems to suggest that when left to their own devices, ambivalent employees will withdraw helpful behaviours toward their managers in an effort to restore balance in the relationship. The fact that this relationship was not significant in the absence of job control further reinforces the idea that such retaliation might be occurring at the individual level. It could also mean that, in the absence of job control, employees do not have the freedom to withdraw citizenship behaviours directed toward their This could be because such behaviours have become the norm (i.e., managers. inadvertently required of employees), or because employees who work closely with their managers engage in OCBIs in an effort to soften the potential for the future negative interactions with their managers that contribute to their ambivalent valuations. Either way, the significant moderating result is consistent with control theory since ambivalent employees sense disruption in the relationship and make attempts to cognitively restore balance when given the flexibility to do so. Therefore withdrawing OCBOs in the absence of job control seems to be more of a motivational issue, whereas withdrawing OCBIs in the presence of job control seems to be more of a relationship balancing technique.

5.7.1 Limitations

A number of precautionary measures were taken in order to avoid potential limitations to this study; however, no one study is ever perfect. To avoid common method variance, the performance indicators were provided by each of the employee's managers, and the interpersonal outcomes were obtained six months after the relationship valuation measure. One limitation to the performance indicators, however, was the use of an abbreviated scale. As mentioned before, this was done so that managers who had several employees did not feel overwhelmed in the number of reports they had to provide, and because the organisational contact in charge did not want managers spending too much time on such efforts. The alpha coefficients for the performance dimensions suggest the abbreviated scale was not problematic. Finally, although this study was taken over a six month period, is it still difficult to imply causality since a true, longitudinal study should theoretically consist of at least three waves of data (Singer & Willett, 2003). Chapter 5 will address this shortcoming through use of a daily-diary investigation.

5.7.2 Future Research

On the whole, the results from this chapter seem to indicate that ambivalence is a negative feature for relationships and organisations. Whilst the interpersonal and organisational outcomes in this study were unfavourable, it would be worth exploring situations where relational ambivalence might generate positive outcomes. For example, it might be interesting to explore the leadership effectiveness or creative leadership abilities amongst employees who are themselves ambivalent toward their managers. Questions regarding whether their informed understanding of their superiors would help or hinder their performance as it transpires to their employees might be interesting. For example, a middle manager's informed perspective on her relationship with her superior could be advantageous to her own employees if she provides them a rationale for upper management's inconsistent treatment. Equally, it would be worth exploring the agreement of ambivalent attitudes toward leaders within teams, or indeed the degree of relational ambivalence differentiation amongst employees in specific workgroups. This might reveal whether managerial style, likability, or competence are consistent contributing factors to ambivalent valuations across employee groups.

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Relational ambivalence should also be explored through various different methods. Whilst the next chapter in this thesis will explore the impact of relational ambivalence on a daily basis, other scholars might wish to study relational ambivalence using experiments or through more qualitative approaches like those employed by Pratt & Rosa (2006). In addition, given the outcomes of this chapter, it would be important to recognise in what other areas relational ambivalence might be hindering the objectives of employees and organisations. For example, it might be worth exploring possible mediating relationships between relational ambivalence and employee turnover intent. Stress, role-confusion, or tolerance for ambiguity could be potential explanations for this. At any rate, the available avenues for future research on the outcomes of relational ambivalence seem to be plentiful.

5.7.3 Conclusion

Though a few of the hypotheses were not significant, the present study is the first to inform the literature of a new perspective on employee-manager relationships by offering a glimpse into the outcomes of relational ambivalence. On the whole, the results of this study are not surprising. Indeed, at first glimpse, critics of relational ambivalence might suggest the outcomes simply represent behaviours that are somewhere between those of high quality and low quality relationships. Whilst this in fact might be true in some cases, this study helps explain more about why ambivalent individuals behave in certain ways and how this differs from other relationship valuations. The implications for acknowledging such relational differentiation could be worthwhile.

For example, one implication worth noting is the new understanding that not all relationships with managers are the same, and that some relationships might be more soluble than formerly realized. For instance, managers that are aware of behaviours that instil ambivalent attitudes might be able to address such behaviours more clearly and improve upon the relationships they have with their employees. Managers provided this information can discount prior knowledge that employees are either of the high quality or low quality sort and recognise a certain set of their employees might be more enthusiastic about the relationship than originally perceived. This could build manager confidence in realising some hope exist in these sorts of relationships. Further, manager motivation to improve upon these relationships would likely emerge with the knowledge of the adverse effects it has on both interpersonal and organisational outcomes. This is particularly relevant since positive relationships tend to generate an increase in extra-role performance (Robinson & Morrison, 1995) and long-term organisational investment (Amato, 1993). Sharing this type of information with managers could change the way in which organisations train new leaders.

Finally, employees that are aware of their ambivalent attitudes may be able to take appropriate actions so as to alleviate the discomfort ambivalence provokes. For example, understanding why an employee feels the way they do, and calling it ambivalence, could enable more prescriptive actions for employees to improve their lives within organisations. Rather than withdraw OCBIs, for example, ambivalent employees might be able to discuss with their managers the implications that their inconsistent interactions bring. Such discussion might bring a more positive outcome and potentially lessen relational ambivalence altogether.

Although this study confirms the potential threats to the interpersonal and organisational outcomes associated with relational ambivalence, research regarding ambivalence seems to suggest that ambivalence is primarily a temporary state (Larsen, in press). Consequently, ambivalence in this study might have changed between its measurement

and its outcomes over the intervening six month period. Therefore, it seems imperative to explore the outcomes associated with relational ambivalence on a daily basis, and also to explore whether or not reactions to emotional threats to the relationship differ for ambivalent individuals in comparison to those in either positive or negative relationships. Such are the aims of Chapter 6.

Chapter 6 – Timing matters: Exploring sequential events that help determine, uphold and modify relationship valuation and its impact on subsequent employee behaviour

6.1 Introduction

6.2 The Stability of Relationship Valuation

6.2.1 When things are both good and bad: The Hopeful

6.2.2.1 My action will fix this: Do employee initiated OCBs attenuate ambivalence?

6.2.2.2 My manager's action will fix this: Will M-I PCV attenuate ambivalence?

6.2.2.3 This time I forgive

6.3 Ambivalent individuals: Upon subsequent violations

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6.3.3 Always on my mind: Does M-I PCV spark rumination for ambivalent employees?

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6.4.1 Do employees in positive relationships withdraw OCBs after M-I PCVs? 6.4.2 Do employees in positive relationships forgive after experiencing M-I PCVs?

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6.6 Methods

6.6.1 Measures 6.6.2 Analysis 6.6.3 Results

6.7 Discussion

6.7.1 Limitations6.7.2 Future Research6.7.3 Conclusion

Chapter 6 – Timing matters: Exploring sequential events that help determine, uphold and modify relationship valuation and its impact on subsequent employee behaviour

6.1 Introduction

The first study helped uncover a relationship valuation that, to date, has not been recognised in the management literature. We were able to see how valuations of the quality of the relationship employees have with their manager is not quite as black and white as originally conceptualised. Through the validation of a new scale, the idea of relational ambivalence was recognised and with it the insight that employees might simultaneously hold positive and negative attitudes toward their manager. Chapter 4 explored the ways in which historical, individual and social-cognitive differences in the relationship impacted employee valuations of the relationship with their manager, and Chapter 5 explored whether or not this had important interpersonal and organisational outcomes for ambivalent individuals. Indeed, the first study demonstrated that exchange related patterns, attachment style functioning, and perceptions of oneness contributed to relationship valuations; it also revealed the long-term interpersonal and organisational implications for ambivalent employees.

The third and final area of exploration comprises two primary goals. One, to test the assertion made at the end of Chapter 5 that ambivalent valuations are temporary; and two, to understand whether variations in employee responses to negative emotional events with their managers are contingent on the way in which they valuate the relationship. I describe these negative emotional events as *manager-induced psychological contract violations* (M-I PCV) and, unlike Morrison & Robinson's (1997) definition, I specify the organisational agent responsible for the psychological contract violations agent responsible for the psychological contract violation. Therefore, M-I PCV is defined as the emotional or affective state that employees experience after the cognition that one's *manager* has failed to meet one or

more obligations within an employee's psychological contract.⁵ This definition coincides with the aforementioned expectations that employees often generate with specific agents within their organisations -- thereby making the contents and terms of the exchange slightly more tangible. This section outlines two (tacitly connected) theoretical models (see Figure 6.1 below) through which employee valuations of the relationship they have with their manager is understood and, in the case of ambivalent valuations, altered. It rests primarily on a consistently emerging theme throughout this

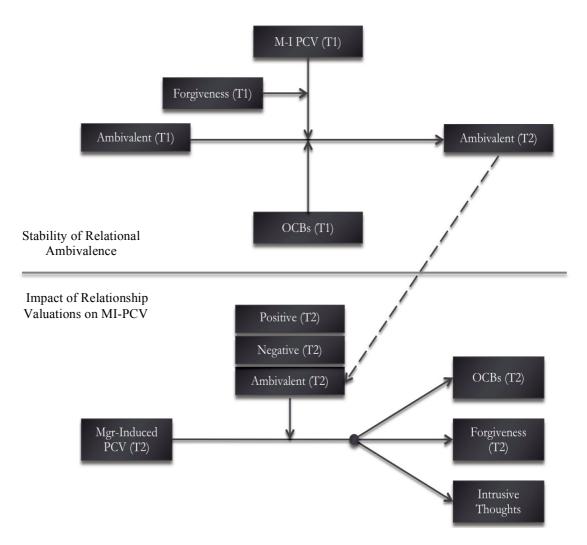


Figure 6. 1 Model Testing the Temporary State of Ambivalence and the Moderating Effects of Relationship Valuations on MI-PCV and OCBs and Coping

⁵ Morrison & Robinson (1997) define psychological contract violation using the organisation as the acting entity. By incorporating the manager into the definition, the agent responsible is far more explicit; therefore the act becomes more about the relationship between the manager and the employee rather than the anthropomorphized organisation at large.

thesis -- that experiences with managers are not isolated events, but rather an amalgam of interactions that together influence employee sense-making processes (e.g., Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As such, the research model further explicates how employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations (M-I PCV) are largely contingent on the way in which the relationship is valuated (i.e., positive, negative, ambivalent) and by certain adverse contextual conditions (e.g., situational entrapment).

Through the use of experience sampling methodology, I propose that, unlike positive and negative valuations of relationship quality, ambivalent valuations, at least in their intensity, should be less stable from one observation to the next. I also explore how time ordered events within the employee-manager relationship work to create such valuation and maintain that this valuation moderates subsequent employee behavioural and self-regulatory responses to successive manager-induced violations. As detailed below, the upper half of the model primarily operates on the theories of social exchange (Blau, 1964) and cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), whilst the lower half is conceptualized around social exchange and interdependence theory (Rusbult & van Lange, 2003). Though these theories were described in the introduction and literature review, I will reiterate the important components of each in order to justify my hypotheses.

6.2 The Stability of Relationship Valuation

As understood through the first research question, the valuation of the relationship an employee has with her manager reflects an attitude that is derived from the experience of both positive and negative events. As a reminder, throughout the current thesis, perceptions of relationship quality have been measured as a two-dimensional construct such that valuation is positive when pleasant experiences outweigh unpleasant experiences, negative when unpleasant experiences outweigh pleasant experiences, and ambivalent when pleasant and unpleasant experiences with a manager are balanced.

Attitudes are generally classified as an outward reflection of one's inner emotions and are capable of influencing individual behaviour (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993). With this in mind, it seems plausible that the three unique forms of relationship valuation (see Figure 6.2 below) might carry an attenuating influence on employee behaviour, not just in the long term (as seen in Chapter 5), but also on a daily basis. To support this assertion, it is imperative to become more familiar with these employee attitudes and to elaborate each in greater detail. I begin the discussion with ambivalence, since it is the only relationship valuation predicted to vary in its stability over time (Thompson, Zana, & Griffin, 1995) and because, in an effort to solidify their unstable attitudes, time ordered events seem to be more salient for ambivalent individuals (Maio, Bell, & Esses, 1996; Ashforth & Rogers, 2010).

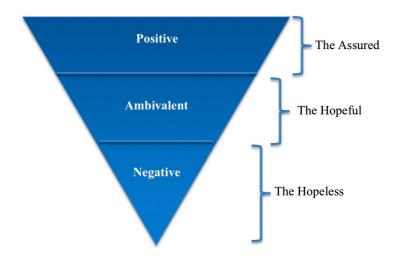


Figure 6. 2 Employee Valuation of Relationship Quality⁶

⁶ The inverted pyramid represents the depreciation of hope as a relationship's valuation shifts from positive, to ambivalent, to negative. Respectively, each sublevel reduces in size in order to present a shift from assured, to hopeful, to hopeless employee expectations regarding the relationship's inherent dynamics.

6.2.1 When things are both good and bad: The Hopeful

Whilst it may seem peculiar to describe ambivalent individuals as hopeful (especially after the outcomes revealed in Chapter 5), a deeper understanding of the derivation of ambivalent attitudes and the costs associated with remaining in an ambivalent state should help clarify this apparent paradox. To begin, individuals holding ambivalent attitudes have been described as having a less naïve or at least more informed perspective on attitudinal objects (Larsen, in press). Indeed, Ashforth and Rogers (2010) posit that ambivalence can breed wisdom and thoughtful uncertainty. This is primarily because in order to experience ambivalence, an individual must be aware of both the inherent positive and negative qualities of the individual or object. Wilson and Hodges (1992) assert that it is inevitable that the positive and negative aspects defining one's attitude will emerge over time. In this way, nearly all relationships seem to feature some degree of ambivalence (Coser, 1966) and, in fact, may indicate a more balanced and realistic appraisal (Thompson & Holmes, 1996).

One can imagine therefore, that especially within the context of work, employees would be able to recognise the positive and negative features of their relationship with their manager and still maintain a strong desire to limit the meaning afforded through interactions that are less relationship fortifying. Such drive might be due to individual motivational purposes (e.g., I can't possibly work for a manager I do not like), instrumental projection issues (e.g., If my manager does not like me, I will not receive a promotion), or even psychological need fulfilment (e.g., My relationship with my manager defines who I am). As a result, it seems individuals will do whatever it takes to lessen the possibility for the unpleasant outcomes that are associated with ambivalence (Larsen, in press).

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From its theoretical conception, ambivalence has been described as an aversive state that increases guilt, enhances self-doubt, generates anxiety, and weakens motivation (Katz et al., 1977; Wiegert, 1991). It produces tension, conflict and unpleasant emotions (Larsen, in press) and heightens an individual's attention to subsequent cues from attitudinal objects (Maio, Bell, & Esses, 1996; Ashforth & Rogers, 2010). Consequently, ambivalence arouses a consistency seeking motivation (Nordgren, van Harreveld, & van der Pligt, 2006) in such a way that any new information helps to assuage an individual's feelings of dissonance. Ironically, the unpleasantness of such dissonance (Festinger, 1957; Cooper & Fazio, 1984; Rudolph & Popp, 2007) is relieved irrespective of the constructive or destructive nature of subsequent events (Pratt & Barnett, 1997; Kachadourian, Finchan & Davila, 2005). Consequently, ambivalent individuals have been known to over-react to stigmatized persons in order to craft a more defined, and therefore less ambiguous status (Katz et al., 1977). For example, an employee holding an ambivalent attitude toward her manager might send a potentially job threatening, emotional email to her manager after her boss offends her.

This understanding of ambivalence, through the use of cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), will enhance the ability to predict the temporary nature of employee ambivalent valuations by suggesting that future events within the relationship might help overcome such mental oscillation. Therefore, consistent with prior research in this area, this study employs cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) as a framework for developing this assertion and also develops further predictions about the ways in which ambivalent individuals might behave given certain relational events. In testing the first part of the model (upper half of Figure 6.1), I decided to examine three commonly researched interpersonal constructs that employees might experience or initiate as part of their quest to lessen the intensity of ambivalence. Namely,

organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), psychological contract violation, and forgiveness were employed to examine this potential.

These three constructs were chosen for three reasons: 1) To test whether or not the destructive nature of a negative emotional event (manager-induced psychological contract violation) can shift ambivalence, 2) To test whether or not the constructive nature of employee initiated behaviour (OCBs) can shift ambivalence, and 3) To test whether or not employee internal coping strategies (forgiveness) help to lessen the intensity of ambivalent valuations. The first two objectives align with the aforementioned research which suggests ambivalence is temporary and can be shifted by subsequent events (Pratt & Barnett, 1997; Kachadourian, Finchan & Davila, 2005), whilst the third objective is consistent with the majority of forgiveness research which suggests forgiveness can reduce internal frustrations (e.g., McCullough et al., 2000; Aquino et al., 2003). Whether or not manager-induced psychological contract violations or employee initiated OCBs constitute events strong enough to shift ambivalent valuations remains to be tested.

6.2.2.1 My action will fix this: Do employee-initiated OCBs attenuate ambivalence?

OCBs are typically recognised as a form of relational accommodation or a technique that employees utilize in order to maintain the relationship they have with their manager or organisation at large (Karriker & Williams, 2009). Though often implicitly required, employees engage in OCBs as a form of positive reciprocity. In other words, when possible, employees give back to their organisations when they feel they are adequately supported and refrain from engaging in OCBs when they feel they are not (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Therefore, the proclivity to engage in OCBs when an employee holds an ambivalent attitude toward the relationship is understandably uncertain. In contrast to the proposed hypotheses of Chapter 5, there are two primary reasons why ambivalent employees might continue to engage in OCBs in the short run.

The first is that OCBs might simply be part of the established culture of the organisation (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Consequently, employees may no longer have the option to engage in OCBs, rather they may feel obliged to do so (Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009). In such organisational cultures, attempts not to engage in OCBs could potentially be ridiculed and quickly corrected by other organisational members. The second (and more appropriate avenue for this study) is that ambivalent employees might engage in OCBs in an effort to improve the quality of the relationship. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), for example, might suggest that even though employees are experiencing both positive and negative treatment from their manager, it is plausible that they still might engage in positive reciprocal acts in order to match some of the positive treatment they have previously received. If employees engage in these types of pro-relational behaviours, it would appear as though they are investing in the relationship – an obvious perspective they might hope their managers recognise. As explained in Chapter 4, such reciprocation typically brings favourable outcomes for managers and employees. However, when ambivalent employees perform OCBs in order to improve the relationships they have with their managers, such efforts, as seen below, might not have the desired effect.

According to cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), ambivalent employees operating along this rationale are likely to find themselves even more frustrated. Festinger argues that when our behaviour is inconsistent with our attitude, cognitive dissonance ensues. In line with this view, when ambivalent employees engage in OCBs in an attempt to improve the relationship they have with their manager, they behave in a way that contradicts (at least half of) their attitude. This inconsistency is likely to aggravate ambivalence, because the employee is uncertain as to why they would work harder for an individual whose treatment is often contradictory. Comparable to buyer's remorse, these employees find it difficult to justify their own behaviour. Also, consistent with Katz et al. (1977), organisational citizenship behaviours would not usually constitute an act strong enough to alter the relationship's status. It is therefore predicted that, all things being equal, employees who valuate their relationship with their manager as ambivalent and who engage in OCBs will only intensify their state of ambivalence rather than alleviate the discomfort associated with ambivalence.

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between prior ambivalence and current ambivalence will be positively moderated by OCBs such that the relationship between prior and current ambivalence will be stronger when employees engage in OCBs.

6.2.2.2 My manager's action will fix this: Will M-I PCV attenuate ambivalence?

The predictions for psychological contract violation are logically less complex than those for OCBs. When a manager treats an employee poorly, as in the case of psychological contract violation, employees with ambivalent attitudes are likely to use such instances to help solidify their perception of the relationship. Given that the relationship was equally balanced with both positive and negative experiences, an additional negative experience may enable the employee to reduce the discomfort associated with prior ambivalence. As previously described, even though the experience with the manager is negative, employee dissonance is likely to be attenuated because violation represents an event strong enough to overcome any self-doubt regarding the status of the relationship. The above assertion is largely based on the fact that ambivalent individuals are more likely to make decisions based on affect as opposed to cognition (Lavine et al., 1998). Since perceptions of psychological contract violation represent a strong, negative emotional appraisal of an event, it is believed that this type of within relationship circumstance will alter an employee's previous ambivalent valuation. Within cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), individuals assuage dissonance by either aligning their attitude with their behaviour or vice versa. Therefore, it is predicted that an employee's strong negative attitude associated with a manager's-induced psychological contract violation will force the relationship out of a state of ambivalence and thereby assuage their emotional unrest.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between prior ambivalence and current ambivalence will be moderated by manager-induced psychological contract violation such that the relationship between prior and current ambivalence will be negative when employees experience a manager-induced psychological contract violation.

6.2.2.3 This time I forgive

Dulac and his colleagues (2008) discovered that employee reactions to psychological contract breach and violation are largely contingent on certain interpersonal and situational variations. In line with this view, an ambivalent employee's eagerness to allow psychological contract violation to alter (and therefore define) the state of her relationship may largely contend on her willingness or desire to forgive. Workplace forgiveness has been defined by Aquino et al., (2003, p.212) as 'a process whereby an employee who perceives himself or herself to have been the target of a morally injurious offense deliberately attempts to (a) overcome negative emotions toward his or her offender and (b) refrain from causing the offender harm even when he or she believes it is morally justifiable to do so.'

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In this way, forgiveness inherently mirrors reciprocity at an interpersonal level since individuals withhold retaliatory behaviour in an effort to extend goodwill toward, or reconcile with, the other party. Aquino, Tripp and Bies (2006) suggest individuals are more likely to forgive when they consider their position within the organisation (e.g., individuals are more likely to forgive higher status individuals) and when procedural justice is high. This finding is consistent with prior research that suggests dependence (as a form of entrapment) may stimulate forgiveness as subordinates attempt to preserve the relationship they have with their organisation (Ingram & Booth, 2011). McCullough et al. (2000) also contend that less powerful partners find it easier to forgive.

Given these conditions for forgiveness, it does not seem plausible that an ambivalent individual will forgive after experiencing a psychological contract violation with their manager. However, if we consider the manager's status and the ramifications for not forgiving, we might find certain individuals who will forgive. Keeping in mind that ambivalent individuals have been characterized as curiously wise (less naïve) for their holistic understanding of the relationship (Ashforth & Rogers, 2010), forgiveness may in fact ensue for some. This is because these employees might recognise their manager as fallible and therefore capable of error. In such cases, since forgiveness represents an ability to let go of negative feelings toward an individual, it is predicted that it will have the ability to attenuate an employee's ambivalent valuation after experiencing a manager-induced psychological contract violation. In other words, in comparison to ambivalent individuals who do not forgive after a violation, ambivalent individuals who do forgive will re-evaluate the relationship with less ambivalence. Such ability to forgive might lessen the intensity of ambivalence and create a more tolerable existence for the employee.

Hypothesis 3: There is a three-way interaction among prior ambivalence, managerinduced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and forgiveness. When prior ambivalence is high and forgiveness is high, M-I PCV is negatively related to current ambivalence. When prior ambivalence is high and forgiveness is low, M-I PCV is positively related to current ambivalence.

6.3 Ambivalent individuals: Upon subsequent violations

The first three hypotheses examined events within the employee-manager relationship that were thought to alter an employee's valuation of ambivalence. Since ambivalent individuals strive to make sense of their manager's behaviour (Maio, Esses & Bell, 1996; Nordgren et al., 2006; Ashforth & Rogers, 2010), I believe it is a combination of these experiences, in addition to their own responses to their manager's behaviour, that help guide future interactions and ability to cope under conditions of subsequent violations. Otherwise stated, it is these *time-ordered* events that serve as a basis for understanding variance in behaviour and coping for ambivalent individuals.

Therefore, in the next three sections, I will examine the lower half of Figure 6.1, which outlines the way in which relationship valuation moderates employee responses to subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violations. Since previous events within the relationship are fundamentally more salient to ambivalent individuals, I continue my discussion regarding ambivalent individuals' anticipated reactions first, and then, in the following two sections (Sections 6.2.2 and 6.2.3), make predictions for positive and negative valuations, respectively. The moderating variables at Time 1 are now explored as dependent variables at a separate point in time (i.e., Time 2) in an effort to demonstrate the aforementioned sequential processing associated with ambivalence.

6.3.1 Relentless citizenship: Will ambivalent employees persevere and sustain OCBs?

Though it seems counterintuitive to do so, it is predicted that ambivalent individuals who experience subsequent psychological contract violations are unlikely to withdraw OCBs in the short term. This prediction is in stark contrast to the hypotheses offered in Chapter 5, because such behavioural attempts to improve the relationship are likely to have a shelf life. Figure 6.2 depicts that those individuals uncomfortably torn between

negative and positive valuations do preserve *some* level of hope. Unlike employees who valuate the relationship as negative, ambivalent employees recurrently experience varying degrees of positive interaction with their managers. In this way, it may be the ambivalent individual's wisdom and thoughtful uncertainty (Wilson & Hodges, 1992; Ashforth & Rogers, 2010), generated from the recognition of their manager's inconsistency in treatment, which enables them to persevere despite experiencing further negative, emotional events.

Alternatively, it could also be that, as a method for coping, ambivalent individuals refuse to acknowledge negative encounters with managers in an effort to lessen the dualism associated with equally positive and negative experiences. Other literatures have described such coping as a type of defence mechanism relating to denial (Baumeister et al., 1998), where individuals minimize disagreeable information in order to combat the negative impact it might yield. In this way, due to their manager's status within the organisation, it might be in the employee's best interest to uphold a relentless hope for the relationship's success by recognizing and simultaneously ignoring their manager's unfair treatment. Such behaviour emulates self-confirmation bias where individuals only recognise information that confirms their preconceptions regardless of the accuracy of the information (Plous, 1993).

In contrast to this, however, one might argue that it is once again the employee's holistic understanding of their manager's behaviour that prevents the employee from withdrawing relationally constructive behaviours. Plambeck & Weber (2009), for example, suggest that ambivalent attitudes may not only be tolerable but also advantageous to individuals. Hence, recognizing and being accustomed to a manager's imperfections may in fact enable ambivalent employees to better cope with violation. Inherently, this ability to cope may even triumph over employees that maintain a positive or negative valuation of their manager, since these individuals are seemingly more clued in. As Ashforth and Rogers (2010) point out, however, this does not

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necessarily reduce the discomfort that often accompanies ambivalence (also recall Hypothesis 1).

Finally, though violation may be viewed as another relational setback, ambivalent individuals may continue to demonstrate OCBs as a way of demonstrating a calculative interest in the relationship. This prediction is based on a wide range of empirical support, which suggests ambivalent individuals tend to systematically process information before making decisions (Hanze, 2001; Jonas, Diehl & Bromer, 1997; Maio, Bell, & Esses, 1996; Maio, Greenland, Bernard, & Esses, 2001). Therefore, it is conceivable that ambivalent employees may continue to display OCBs after experiencing violation purely for strategic relationship maintenance purposes. This effort to essentially "lead by example" may evoke some sort of positive reciprocity from their manager and inherently attenuate the possibility for future violations. Interdependence theory would also suggest, that in such cases, it is the more dependent individual that would be required to necessitate such restorative accommodation (Rusbult & van Lange, 2003). Since ambivalent individuals are cognizant of their manager's strengths and shortcomings, it may be plausible that, for any of the reasons discussed above, the effects of even a second violation are not strong enough to prevent employee citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between a subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation and OCBs will be moderated by ambivalence such that the negative relationship between M-I PCV and OCBs will be positive for employees holding ambivalent valuations.

6.3.2 "Fool me once..." Will ambivalent individuals forgive upon subsequent violations?

The extant literature examining ambivalent attitudes and forgiveness is scant. For this reason, it is imperative to once again cast a nomological net in the direction of close

relationship literature in order to help determine how these patterns might emerge. In their research regarding interpersonal relationship quality, McCullough et al. (1998) uncovered certain characteristics that couples acquire that make them more prone to forgive after a transgression. These include a mutual investment of resources, a longterm orientation, a merging of self and partner interests, and increased predictability in interpreting injurious behaviour. In 2001, McCullough simplified these assertions by recognizing that favourable attitudes alone are related to increased forgiveness. Likewise, Bradfield and Aquino (1999) discovered that individuals are more likely to forgive other individuals whom they like. Whether or not ambivalent individuals tend to forgive transgressions is relatively unknown.

One study, however, revealed that ambivalent partners are less likely to forgive after a transgression but only when individuals ruminate about the transgression (Kachadourian et al., 2005). This finding was largely based on the previously presented argument that ambivalent individuals use consecutive events to make sense of their situation of uncertainty. Otherwise stated, when individuals simultaneous hold a positive and negative attitude toward someone or something, either can be made dominant depending on subsequent experiences (Bell & Esses, 1997; Glick et al., 1997; Katz & Hass, 1988). Consequently, a negative event, such as a psychological contract violation, is likely to prime the negative feelings employees have toward their manager, which will inherently impact the ways in which individuals respond.

Since it has already been predicted that forgiveness will not reverse but only attenuate employee ambivalence after a violation (see Hypothesis 3), it makes sense that ambivalent individuals will find it considerably difficult to forgive their manager after experiencing subsequent violations. Further support for this prediction rests on the assumption that one substantial prerequisite to forgiveness is trust (Kim, Ferrin, Cooper & Dirks, 2004). Since trust is theorized to require predictability of another's behaviour (Lewicki, McAllister & Bies, 1998; McAllister, 1995; Rempel, Holmes & Zanna, 1985), it is unlikely that ambivalent employees, whose manager's behaviour is wholly inconsistent, will muster enough trust to employ forgiveness (trust was previously elaborated in Chapter 5). In the same way, Fincham (2000) alleges that the likelihood for forgiveness is largely contingent on predictions of future harm. Since ambivalent individuals are hopeful but not secure in their relationship with their manager and his or her future behaviour, it is unlikely that they will be able to let go of their feelings of resentment – a necessary condition for true forgiveness (e.g., Aquino et al., 2003; Aquino et al., 2000; Kidder, 2007; Wohl et al., 2006).

Therefore, since psychological contract violation aggravates the negative feelings ambivalent employees have toward their manager, and because it is this type of negative experience that has generated ambivalence in the past, it is unlikely that ambivalent individuals will employ forgiveness as a coping mechanism after experiencing subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violations (M-I PCV).

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between a subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation and forgiveness will be moderated by ambivalence such that the relationship between M-I PCV and forgiveness will be negative when employees hold ambivalent valuations.

6.3.3 Always on my mind: Does M-I PCV spark rumination for ambivalent employees?

As described in the previous section, one reason ambivalent individuals find it difficult to forgive a wrongdoer is primarily because they are more likely to ruminate about the offense (Kachadourian et al., 2005). Often described as a self-regulatory impairment (Thau & Mitchell, 2010), rumination, or intrusive thoughts, has to do with the repeated pondering of an offense (Caprara, 1986). Such consistent and unwanted intrusion of thought (Horowitz, Wilner, & Alvarez, 1979) impairs individuals by depleting their individual resources (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Oaten, Wiliams, Jones, & Zadro, 2008; Wegner, 1994). This, inherently, makes it difficult for individuals to progress after experiencing an offense (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001).

Intrusive thoughts are likely to be a prominent feature amongst ambivalent individuals who experience subsequent violations. This is most notably because the negative experience is likely to further provoke uncertainty and challenge the relationship the employee has with their manager. Therefore, the sense making involved in trying to eliminate the discomfort associated with ambivalence (e.g., Do I react strongly and force this relationship into a negative state or somehow excuse my manager's behaviour...again?) is likely to be the driving force behind employee intrusive thoughts. One study found that intrusive thoughts are likely to occur when managers abuse their employees and when distributive justice is high (Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Although they did not mention it in their results, this counterintuitive finding might be linked to ambivalence. For example, ambivalence research might suggest that the intrusive thoughts demonstrated in this thesis were primarily a consequence of the combination of competing positive and negative relationship indicators (e.g., A manager high in distributive justice who also abuses his employees). If we recall that ambivalence itself produces two competing outcomes: 1) that ambivalent individuals are highly informed (Locke & Braun, in 2009; Ashforth & Rodgers, 2010), and 2) that ambivalence is an uncomfortable state (Katz et al., 1977; Nordren et al., 2005), it makes sense that subsequent violations would, at the very least, force ambivalent employees to ruminate.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between a subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation and intrusive thoughts will be moderated by ambivalence such that the relationship between M-I PCV and intrusive thoughts will be positive when employees hold ambivalent valuations.

6.4 When things are good: The Assured

It is generally believed that no matter how great the relationship, most employees will experience varying degrees of anger, sadness or resentment in response to a manager's failure to meet their expectations. However, the way in which employees deal with such negative emotion *is* largely contingent on the relationship. Employees that valuate their relationship with their manager as positive do so primarily because they have had mostly favourable experiences with their manager in the past. These consistencies in favourable treatment generate a repertoire of mutual respect, commitment and trust and often contribute to a perception of relational closeness (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Consequently, employees that describe their relationship with their manager as being one of "higher quality" tend to have higher tolerance thresholds for broken promises and their reactions to injustices tend to be less severe (Tekleab et al., 2005). Dulac and his colleagues (2008) argue this is mostly due to the fact that individuals in higher quality relationships purposely interpret errors in the relationship with some degree of bias in an effort to avoid the dissonance associated with such paradox (e.g., I should not feel hurt by an individual who cares for me).

Though these studies confirm that individuals in higher quality relationships are less likely to report negative experiences, we know very little about the impact of psychological contract violation for these employees when tolerance is no longer a sustainable mechanism (i.e., when a manager's treatment cannot be ignored). Therefore, when an employee that valuates the relationship with their manager as positive experiences a psychological contract violation with their manager, it is predicted that the behavioural and self-regulatory reactions to such negative emotion might closely mimic those found within close relationships. More specifically, employees in positive relationships are likely to withdraw OCBs, ruminate less, and

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forgive their managers. In order to detail this assertion, I refer to the relevant aspects of interdependence theory (Rusbult & van Lange, 2003) and generate hypotheses accordingly.

According to interdependence theory, diagnostic situations provide opportunities to review and make sense of a given relationship. As is the case with psychological contract violation, these situations often elicit the impulse to reciprocate. Such methods of reciprocation can involve negative behaviour such as retaliation according to a "tit for tat" transformation rule or other destructive "selfish" behaviours found within more negative relationships. On the other hand, interdependence theory also suggests the possibility of positive reciprocation as displayed by a person's willingness to accommodate, sacrifice and forgive the offending party (Rusbult & van Lange, 2003).

In the employment context, organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) might be a sufficient means for capturing a prosocial reaction like accommodation, since they demonstrate the use of a transformation rule where a person tries to make something good out of a bad situation (violation) or thinks strategically for the good of the relationship (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). In section 6.3.1, I considered some features of interdependence theory that ambivalent individuals were likely to incorporate after experiencing a violation. More specifically, ambivalent individuals were proposed to accommodate (perform OCBs) their managers after a violation but were not secure enough within the relationship to forgive. Their willingness to accommodate is still in line with the transformation rule because it seems that ambivalent individuals are not willing to give up on the relationship. Individuals valuating the relationship with their manager more positively, however, are likely to feel more assured in their relationship and therefore react very differently to violation due to their more overt sense of security.

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6.4.1 Do employees in positive relationships withdraw OCBs after M-I PCVs?

Although current psychological contract models link violation directly to less favourable organisational and interpersonal outcomes, examining psychological contracts through the lens of interdependence theory introduces a few contrary predictions. In particular, individuals defined by positive relationships may correct the imbalances associated with psychological contract violation by withdrawing organisational citizenship behaviours and through increasing forgiveness. Support for these assertions are derived through various literatures.

Rusbult et al. (1991) discuss individual reactions to unmet expectations in close relationships. Whereas they acknowledge the possibility of an unfavourable reaction, they suggest individuals in close relationships may in fact inhibit destructive behaviour and instead enact more constructive responses. Indeed, they discovered that individuals display acts of accommodation rather than revenge in an effort to promote the future health of the relationship and to protect their own self-interest. These researchers, however, differentiate bad behaviour within a relationship from outright betrayal. Here, the less serious, 'bad behaviour' is met with accommodation in order to sustain close relationships, whereas 'betrayal' necessitates forgiveness. In the employment context, we might appropriately characterize OCBs as a form of interpersonal accommodation since they involve a positive act of reciprocity and sacrificial roles beyond the call of one's job expectation.

Since OCBs are often an indicator of an employee's level of commitment and expressed value with her organisation, it makes sense that violation (i.e., betrayal) would considerably distort an employee's previously held positive regard and therefore lessen her desire to participate in OCBs. Employees that are in higher quality relationships with their manager may in fact experience more of the adverse (and emotional) impacts of violation than those maintaining negative or ambivalent valuations (if only in the short run) due to their higher levels of interpersonal attachment, expectations, and interaction (Robinson, 1996). Because psychological contracts involve a comparison of inputs and outputs, it may be assumed that individuals will lower OCBs after experiencing a violation in an effort to account for the imbalance ensued. Particularly with more dependent individuals (as is typically the case for subordinate employees), a threat, such as psychological contract violation, may prompt emotional or physical withdrawal from a relationship (the manager) since it may be the only feasible option one can take in order to restore some sense of balance (Holmes & Murray, 1996).

While it seems perplexing that relationally assured individuals would withdraw OCBs in order to secure the relationship, the action is still viewed as prosocial in nature since it is not a self-centered or retaliatory response (Rusbult et al., 1991). Instead, it may be that the perception of powerlessness in the relationship provokes withdrawal of OCBs as a medium for relieving feelings of temporary dissonance. Rusbult and van Lange (2003) use a rather amusing example of a relationship partner's refusal to cook the other partner's favourite meal after an argument as a means for restoring a sense of balance in the relationship. In a similar vein, individuals secure in their relationship with their manager may utilize similar techniques and withdraw OCBs after a psychological contract violation in an effort to safely restore balance. Such action demonstrates an implicit form of power, since OCBs have been recognised for decades as indicators of employee sacrifice and are thus held in high regard by organisational leaders (Katz, 1964; Smith et al. 1983; Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

Similarly, when an individual valuates their relationship with their manager as positive, it can be implied that this is due to an amalgam of prior positive experiences. Indeed, Gergen and Gergen (1983) assert that behaviours within relationships are *diachronic* (i.e., inherently contingent on the relationship's history), hence certain acceptable behaviours and ways of dealing with problems are virtually solidified. Therefore, although OCBs are likely to eventually resume (presumably after some sort of apology), individuals in positive relationships may withdraw OCBs as a means of restoring the current imbalance caused by psychological contract violation.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between manager-induced psychological contract violation and OCBs will be moderated by an employee's positive valuation of the relationship such that the relationship between M-I PCV and OCBs will be negative when employees hold positive valuations.

6.4.2 Do employees in positive relationships forgive after experiencing M-I PCVs?

As previously articulated in the preceding sections, several studies reveal that individuals are more willing to forgive as commitment to a relationship strengthens (e.g., McCullough et al., 1998; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; Fincham, 2000; Orth, 2004; Kidder, 2007). Commitment, in this sense, indicates concern for the interests of the partner and the relationship (Finkel et al. 2002, Rusbult et al. 1991, Van Lange et al. 1997b). Since betrayal represents a meaningful departure from the well-established expectations in a relationship (Finkel et al., 2002), strong psychological contract violations might closely resemble betrayal and equally necessitate the need for highly committed employees to forgive. Forgiveness, in such cases, might be a method to preserve the balance associated with high quality relationships (Aquino et al., 2001) or as a means to achieve certain goals within organisations (De Cremer, 2007). As a consequence of this commitment to the relationship, individuals are likely to engage in forgiveness as a means for restoration when the strength of a violation is high.

Although it is natural to want to retaliate when we are offended, Fincham (2000) says we are motivated by cognitive biases that allow certain individuals to be seen in a more positive light. He suggests, in doing so, we minimize others' faults and embellish their virtue. Comparably, McCullough et al. (2000) elaborate certain conditions under which this is particularly true and suggest individuals incur a greater motivation to preserve a relationship via forgiveness when the relationship consists of equally reciprocated resources, a long-term orientation, a merging of partner and self-interests, and a greater ease at interpreting a partner's injurious behaviour. De Cremer (2007) on the other hand, suggests approach-orientated individuals will self-regulate responses in order to achieve certain goals. Whatever the case, one can assume that when relationships with managers were previously appraised with a high degree of positivity, employees might have a strong desire to maintain this level of quality with such inherently influential organisational members. Since historical events within the relationship have served to construct the basis for such fervour, forgiveness seems a probable outcome of managerinduced psychological contract violation.

Some authors define forgiveness as "the internal act of relinquishing anger, resentment, and the desire to seek revenge against the offender" (Enright, 1991). This definition seems to coincide with positive reciprocity within high quality relationships since offended individuals potentially recognise prior investments in the relationship and therefore refrain from engaging in retaliatory acts. Indeed, forgiving others for their transgressions has been viewed as a means for relationship development (Mullet & Girard, 2000). When an individual affords forgiveness rather than revenge, the relationship between a victim and offender can be strengthened (Estrada-Hollenbeck,

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1996; De Cremer, 2007). This is because the offender recognises that a victim has relinquished their right to retaliate and instead has demonstrated a pro-relational act. Such decisions made by the victim are largely contingent on a belief that negative experiences are rare within the relationship and unlikely to occur in the future (Fincham, 2000).

Interdependence theory, as already stated, posits similar outcomes. Rusbult and van Lange (2003) suggest that when a close relationship partner betrays the other partner, forgiveness is the most plausible route to maintain the benefits of interdependence. A higher level of interdependence exists within close relationships when each party heavily relies on the other to provide resources which they could not necessarily obtain on their own. For example, interdependence between managers and employees might intensify when a manager relies on an employee for organisationally political information, and when an employee depends on his or her manager for idiosyncratic support. Naturally, a psychological contract violation within such a relationship could potentially jeopardize access to these mutually beneficial resources. As such, forgiveness might be a necessary condition for these higher order quid pro quo actions to resume.

Especially within secure relationships, Rusbult and van Lange (2003) argue that while individuals might withhold accommodating behaviour after betrayal (see Hypothesis 7), they might also be the same individuals who are more likely to forgive. This, they claim, is because close relationship partners are able to "see the bigger picture" and the mutual benefit that forgiveness would afford. In doing so, highly interdependent individuals recognise their partner's bad behaviour as inconsequential to the relationship on the whole, and, in many cases, find ways to excuse it. Therefore, though the proximal effect of betrayal might be initially painful, these individuals are able to transform their reactions into more relationally stabilizing actions. Indeed, their investment in the relationship and proclivity to sustain such beneficial resource, serves as a self-regulatory motive that encourages forgiveness. Though untested to date, this line of theoretical justification might also hold true for employees and managers characterized by similar relational dynamics.

Thus, it is predicted that relationships defined by positive valuations will promote interpersonal forgiveness after a manager-induced psychological contract violation, since these types of relationships are likely to have characteristics pertaining to the conditions elaborated above.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between manager-induced psychological contract violation and forgiveness will be moderated by an employee's positive valuation of the relationship such that the relationship between M-I PCV and forgiveness will be positive when employees hold positive valuations.

6.4.3 Do employees in positive relationships ruminate after experiencing M-I PCVs?

Portrayed as an unconstructive method for coping, intrusion of thought, or rumination, is characterized by excessive self-reflection (Morrow & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1990) and a repetitive focus on negative emotions (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1991, 2000) or transgressions (Caprara, 1986). The sections above elaborating the diachronic events that have led individuals to perceive their relationship with their manager as positive should provide ample evidence for why these employees are unlikely to ruminate about a violation. Restated, these individuals feel assured and secure, are treated consistently fair, and are appreciated by their managers as carrying valuable resource. Therefore, violation will

not be related to these individuals encountering serious difficulty, like intrusive thoughts, while coping.

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between manager-induced psychological contract violation and intrusive thoughts will be moderated by an employee's positive valuation of the relationship such that the relationship between M-I PCV and intrusive thoughts will be negative when employees hold positive valuations.

6.5 When things are bad: The Hopeless

Individuals defining their relationship with their manager as negative have done so because, when they examine the relationship on the whole, the negative experiences they have with their manager far outweigh the positive experiences, if any. Interpersonal resources exchanged between the individuals are likely to have depleted, and it is possible that the relationship has become dysfunctional. This continual downward spiral is concomitant with non-forgiveness (Burt & Knez, 1996), which yields outcomes such as animosity, hostility, anger, distrust, and conflict escalation (Aquino et al., 2003; Axelrod, 1984; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Luhmann, 1979).

Appropriately, I characterize these employees as 'hopeless' because they have reached the end of their tether with their managers. The reciprocally exchanged resources of trust, loyalty, commitment, and support that typically sustain relationships (Gouldner 1960, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), are likely to have been replaced with resentment, ill will, and thoughts of revenge. For example, Shore, Tetrick, Lynch & Barksdale (2006) argue that these types of impersonal relationships are defined by lower degrees of trust and investment and do not incorporate the long-term obligations created in stronger interpersonal relationships.

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Therefore, when faced with subsequent psychological contract violations from their managers, it seems clear that these employees are highly unlikely to either forgive or demonstrate organisational citizenship behaviours. Likewise, the consistent negative treatment from their managers only further reinforces their negative attitude. In line with the previous discussion on rumination, I also predict that these employees are unlikely to think about their manager's behaviour outside of work. They simply have lost the ability to care and feel there is nothing they can do to improve the relationship they have with their manager. Unlike ambivalent employees, with the interdependence between these individuals so low, it is unlikely that the actions of either party will carry substantial weight to improve or further deteriorate the relationship.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between manager-induced psychological contract violation and OCBs will be moderated by an employee's negative valuation of the relationship such that the relationship between M-I PCV and OCBs will be negative when employees hold negative valuations.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between manager-induced psychological contract violation and forgiveness will be moderated by an employee's negative valuation of the relationship such that the relationship between M-I PCV and forgiveness will be negative when employees hold negative valuations.

Hypothesis 12: The relationship between manager-induced psychological contract violation and intrusive thoughts will be moderated by an employee's negative valuation of the relationship such that the relationship between M-I PCV and intrusive thoughts will be negative when employees hold negative valuations.

Sample and Procedure

Participants included 38 auditors (20 females, 18 males) working at a large bank in North America. The 38 employees worked in groups that were supervised by one of 20 different managers, which were part of a larger department of 165 people. The 38 focal participants completed 357 daily surveys over the course of a 2-week period. Participants' ages ranged from 28 to 63 years old (M = 46.9, SD = 9.08). This sample size of focal participants compares favourably with other field studies collecting daily observations from employees (e.g., Alliger & Williams, 1993; Fuller et al., 2003; Scott & Judge, 2006).

I recruited participants via an organisational contact. The study was described to participants as an examination of day-to-day interactions with managers. I contacted interested employees, and also gave an on-site presentation to explain the diary study instructions and parameters. All data were collected online using electronic surveys. After viewing an informed consent, participants were first instructed to provide background information relevant to the study (e.g., personality, age, gender). Two weeks later, participants were asked to complete a daily survey for a 2-week period, workdays only (i.e., Mondays–Fridays). To facilitate response rates during the daily diary portion of the study, I sent email reminders to participants at 8:30 am three times per week. The email reminders contained the link to the online survey. Participants were instructed to complete the daily survey at or near the end of their workday. The daily survey contained the measures of relationship valuation, perceived psychological contract violation, intrusions of thought, OCBs, forgiveness and positive/negative affect. Measures within the daily survey were counterbalanced to avoid potential order

confounds. In exchange for participating, participants received a chance to win \$500⁷.

Thirty-eight employees originally volunteered for and ultimately participated in most of the study. Together, these employees completed 357 daily surveys across the 2-week period. I inspected timestamps collected in tandem with the daily surveys to assess whether participants adhered to the study instructions. This inspection revealed that all surveys were completed on workdays. This was largely because the survey was only open for 5 hours each evening and only on workdays (Monday – Friday). Twenty-three surveys from the analyses were not completed, leaving 357 daily surveys (M = 9.3 daily surveys per employee). Given that each employee could complete a maximum of 10 surveys each (for a total of 380 daily surveys), this corresponds to a daily survey response rate of 93.9%. The 357 daily surveys were completed between 4:30 pm and 9:30 pm. Finally, each employee was sent a specific link that would only work when accessed through his or her email. This ensured that the employee and not someone else completed the surveys.

6.6.1 Measures

Relationship valuation

Given my interest in understanding ambivalent relationship valuation and its susceptibility to change, I created a three-item measure to capture this potential. Individuals were asked to report the overall quality of the relationship with their manager on that day. Response options included good, bad, or both good and bad. Employees reported on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, their overall attitude toward the relationship on that day.

⁷ This \$500 reward was separate from the reward offered for participation in the longitudinal study.

Manager-Induced Psychological Contract Violation

To assess whether or not employees had experienced emotional harm associated with a manager's failure to meet their expectations, I slightly altered the global measure used to capture psychological contract violation (Rousseau, 1989; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). By replacing 'organisation' in the original items with 'manager' for this study, I was able to specifically identify managers as the agents responsible for employee emotional harm. Therefore example items included "Today, I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my manager" and "Today, I feel a great deal of anger toward my manager." Employees responded using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Average coefficient alpha for this scale over the 10 days of data collection was $\alpha = .92$.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Items used in the present study were selected from a pool created by a previous OCB scale (Lee & Allen, 2002). In order to reduce the length of the daily assessment I selected three items tapping behaviours that were clearly beneficial to the organisation. Employees were asked to indicate the extent to which they engaged in the behaviour on that day, using 5-point Likert scale ranging from never to a great deal. One item read "Today I took action to protect my organisation from potential problems." Average coefficient alpha for this scale over the 10 days of data collection was $\alpha = .81$.

Forgiveness

Forgiveness was captured using three items from Aquino, Tripp & Bies (2006) and one item from Conway & Briner (2005). Individuals were only required to answer items related to forgiveness if they had experienced a psychological contract violation on that day (i.e., when an event occurred between the manager and the employee that warranted forgiveness). Using a 5-point Likert scale, employees were asked to describe how

accurately the items reflected their reaction to the violation. Example items included "I forgave my manager" and "I let go of my hurt and pain." Response options ranged from not at all accurate to very accurate. Average coefficient alpha for this scale over the 10 days of data collection was $\alpha = .93$.

Intrusive Thoughts

Intrusive thoughts were captured using seven items from the Impact of Events Scale (Horowitz et al., 1979), adapted to specific events (e.g., McCullough et al., 2001) and here to the manager's behaviours. Items included "I thought about my manager's behaviour when I didn't mean to" and "I had trouble falling asleep or staying asleep because of pictures or thoughts about my manager's behaviour that came to my mind." One other study has adapted this scale in this way (Thau & Mitchell, 2010), and reported significant findings. Respondents indicated how often they experienced these thoughts over the past 24 hours using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from not at all to often. Average coefficient alpha for this scale over the 10 days of data collection was $\alpha = .88$.

Control Variables

As stated in the previous section, some controls were obtained two weeks prior to the 10-day data collection period. In addition to age, gender and tenure, I assessed state positive and state negative affect using items from the PANAS-X (Watson & Clark, 1994). In order to reduce problems of retrospective recall (Robinson & Clore, 2002), we collected "online" reports of affect each day by asking participants to indicate the extent to which they were experiencing each state "right now" using a scale 1 = very slightly or not at all to 5 = Extremely. Items comprising the positive affect scale included "calm," "at ease," "determined," and "alert." Items comprising the negative affect scale included "hostile," "angry," "hostile," "sad," and "downhearted."

Average coefficient alphas for these scales over the 10 days of data collection were $\alpha =$.89 for the positive affect scale and $\alpha = .76$ for the negative affect scale.

Due to the fact that individual personality has been known to impact forgiveness and ambivalence (Kidder, 2007; Exline et al., 2004; Thompson, Zana, & Griffin, 1995), I also controlled for employee core self-evaluations. The inter-item alpha for this measure was $\alpha = .79$.

6.6.2 Analyses

Given the multilevel nature of my data, I used hierarchical linear modelling (HLM; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) to test the relationships among participants' relationship valuation, manager-induced psychological contract violation, organisational citizenship behaviours, intrusive thoughts and forgiveness. HLM consists of a series of regression equations that take into account the nonindependence in the data that arises from having participants contribute multiple data points across time and from having participants cluster in groups. In the current study, the data comprises two levels because days are nested in employees. The first level, or Level 1, captures variance within employees and consists of the repeated, within-individual measures taken daily of employees' reports of relationship valuation, manager-induced psychological contract violation, positive and negative affective states, organisational citizenship behaviours, intrusive thoughts and forgiveness. The second level, or Level 2, captures variance between individuals within groups and consists of the measure of core self-evaluations (control).

To test the hypothesized within-individual relationships (H1-H6), I used an autoregressive or lagged-response model concomitant with time-series research designs. The outcome variable at Level 1 was regressed on the lagged (response from the previously recorded observation) hypothesized predictors. To test the hypothesized

influence of lagged OCBs, psychological contract violation and forgiveness on the Level 1 variables and relationships (H1, H2 and H3), core self-evaluations were included at Level 2 as a control variable with current ambivalence as the outcome variable. Consistent with Dawson & Richter (2004), to test the three-way interaction between prior ambivalence, psychological contract violation and forgiveness, I entered each independent variable at level one, followed by the interactions of each independent variable at level one, followed by the interactions of each independent variable at level two, and then entered the interaction between all three independent variable at level three. The first set of analyses test whether the within-individual relationships between prior (lagged) and current ambivalence are stronger or weaker when individuals demonstrate OCBs, experience a psychological contract violation, or forgive their manager. The second set of analyses (H4 – H12) test whether the within-individuals valuate the relationship as positive, negative, or ambivalent. Significance tests were based on a one-tailed test since directionality of the hypotheses was predicted.

Following the recommendation of Hofmann, Griffin, and Gavin (2000), I centered all Level 1 predictors at participants' means. Individual-mean centering is preferred when testing within-individual relationships because it removes all between-individual variance from the Level 1 variables. By centering variables relative to each participant's mean, each participant's overall mean for a given variable, across the days of data collection, becomes zero; hence, the variance between individuals becomes zero. As a result, the within-individual relationships are not confounded by individual differences such as response tendencies. The Level 2 control variable (core self-evaluations) was grand-mean centered. As noted above, given that research has revealed age and gender differences in relationship valuations, such that women tend to be more empathic than men (Eisenberg, 2000) and older (more experienced) individuals tend to experience greater ambivalence (Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995), I controlled for employee age and gender when examining the direct and moderating effects in all three sets of analyses. Job type was controlled by design because employees and their managers all worked for the same company and in the same occupation (auditing).

6.6.3 Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations are shown in Table 5.1. Correlations are at the within-individual level and are calculated by standardizing the regression coefficient obtained in HLM analyses between one predictor and one criterion at Level 1. As shown in Table 6.1, at the within-individual level, positive valuations were significantly correlated with ambivalent valuations (r = -.31, p < .05), negative valuations (r = -.44, p < .05), OCBs (r = .13 p < .05) and intrusive thoughts (r = -.15, p < .05). In addition, ambivalent valuations were significantly correlated with negative valuations (r = .45, p < .05) and negative valuations were significantly related to intrusive thoughts (r = .14, p < .05).

| Variable | М | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|---|
| [1] Positive Valuation | 3.92 | .83 | - | _ | _ | _ | _ | _ |
| [2] Ambivalent Valuation | 2.45 | .87 | 31* | - | | | | |
| [3] Negative Valuation | 1.91 | .84 | 44* | .45* | - | | | |
| [4] OCBs | 3.07 | 1.09 | .13* | .03 | 02 | - | | |
| [5] Intrusive Thoughts | 1.25 | .45 | 15* | .07 | .14* | .05 | - | |
| [6] Forgiveness | 2.50 | 1.39 | 05 | .001 | .23 | .11 | .00 | - |
| | | | | | | | | |

Table 6. 1Descriptive statistics of and correlations among focal variables.

Notes: Means, standard deviations and correlations are based on within-individual (Level 1) scores (N = 318), (N = 88, for forgiveness), * p<.05.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that OCBs moderate the relationship between prior and current ambivalence. To test this hypothesis, I utilized HLM to discern the ambivalent employees' main and individual interaction effects of OCBs on current ambivalence. Three models were estimated for each of the three ambivalence appraisals. Table 6.2 reveals the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects; the second model examining prior ambivalence and OCBs direct effects; the third model demonstrating the within-level interaction effect (i.e., the full model).

| Variable | Coefficient | | | | |
|--|-------------|---------|---------|--|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 2.53** | 3.46** | 3.40** | | |
| Controls | | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 01 | 01 | 01 | | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .08 | .07 | .07 | | |
| Organisational Tenure γ_{30} | 02† | .01 | 02 | | |
| Core Self-Evaluations γ_{40} | .004 | 05 | 04 | | |
| Main Effects | | | | | |
| Prior Ambivalence γ_{50} | | 004 | .008 | | |
| OCBs γ_{60} | | .07 | .08 | | |
| Interaction Effect | | | | | |
| Prior Ambivalence X OCBs γ_{70} | | | .21† | | |
| Deviance | 335.17 | 279.24 | 278.00 | | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 55.93** | 1.24** | | |

| Table 6. 2 | | | | |
|--------------------|------------|---------|-------------|--|
| HLM Results | Predicting | Current | Ambivalence | |

As shown, the data in Table 6.2 revealed that the interaction between prior ambivalence and employee OCBs, utilizing a two-tailed test, was marginally significant ($\gamma_{60} = .21$, p = .08). However, given that the second-level main effect hypothesis is directional in nature, a one-tailed significance test is sufficient (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; e.g., Gabriel, Diefendorff, & Erickson, 2011; Ilies, Demotakis, & De Pater, 2010). Therefore, the directional finding suggested that OCBs positively moderated the relationship between prior ambivalence and current ambivalence. Further evidence to this is provided by the significant decrease in model deviance as a result of the inclusion of this interaction $(\chi^2(6) = 99.1, p < .00)$. Hence, Hypotheses 1 was supported. A plot of this interaction is shown in Fig. 6.3 and reveals that the positive within-individual relationship between prior and current ambivalence was stronger in groups of employees who participated in OCBs. Put differently, groups of ambivalent employees who demonstrated OCBs were especially likely to experience an increase in ambivalence on the next day if they participated in OCBs on the previous day.

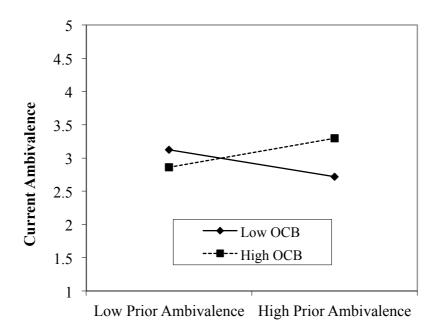


Figure 6. 3 The moderating effect of OCBs on the within-individual relationship between prior and current ambivalence

Hypothesis 2 predicted that manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) would moderate the relationship between prior and current ambivalence, and Hypothesis 3 suggested there is a three-way interaction between prior ambivalence, M-I PCV and forgiveness on current ambivalence. Since these two hypotheses involve elements of each other, they were combined in the analyses. Therefore, four models were estimated for each of the three ambivalence appraisals. Table 6.3 reveals the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects; the second model examining prior ambivalence, M-I PCV, and forgiveness direct effects; the third model demonstrating

the within-level interaction effects; while the fourth model specifically determined the effects of the three-way interaction of prior ambivalence and M-I PCV with forgiveness on the valuation of current ambivalence (i.e., the full model).

| Variable | Coefficient | | | |
|--|-------------|----------|---------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 2.94** | 5.21** | 5.29** | 5.63** |
| Controls | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 01 | 004 | 00 | .00 |
| Gender γ_{20} | 02 | .24 | 50* | 63* |
| Organisational Tenure γ_{30} | 02 | 012 | 02 | 01 |
| Core Self-Evaluations γ_{40} | .004 | 467** | 50** | 53** |
| Positive Affect γ_{50} | .00 | 01 | 04 | 06 |
| Negative Affect γ_{60} | .17 | .110 | .16 | .17 |
| Main Effects | | | | |
| Prior Ambivalence γ_{70} | | .02 | .03 | 03 |
| Manager-Induced PCV γ ₈₀ | | .13 | 13 | 08 |
| Forgiveness γ_{90} | | 183 | .04 | .00 |
| Interaction Effects | | | | |
| Prior Ambivalence X Forgiveness γ_{100} | | | 64** | 66** |
| Prior Ambivalence X M-I PCV γ_{110} | | | .63** | .77** |
| Forgiveness X M-I PCV γ_{120} | | | 11 | 353 |
| 3-Way Interaction Effect | | | | |
| Prior Ambivalence X M-I PCV X | | | | .434* |
| Forgiveness γ_{130} | | | | |
| Deviance | 325.47 | 80.65 | 71.52 | 71.26 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 244.82** | 9.13** | .26** |

Table 6. 3 HLM Results Predicting Current Ambivalence

 $N = 303 \pmod{1}$; $N = 77 \pmod{2}, 3 \& 4^8$. $\dagger p < .10 * p < .05$. $\ast p < .01$

As shown, the results indicated a significant interaction effect ($\gamma_{110} = .63 \ p < .01$) and a significant decrease in model deviance as a result of the inclusion of the violationambivalence interaction ($\chi^2(21) = 40.62, \ p < .00$). A plot of this interaction is shown in Fig. 6.4 (below) and reveals that the positive within-individual relationship between prior and current ambivalence was stronger in groups of employees who experienced a manager-induced psychological contract violation. Contradictory to my prediction,

⁸ The sample size drops when forgiveness is added to the model, because employees were only required to report forgiveness if they had experienced a psychological contract violation.

groups of ambivalent employees who experienced M-I PCV were especially likely to experience an increase in ambivalence on the next day.

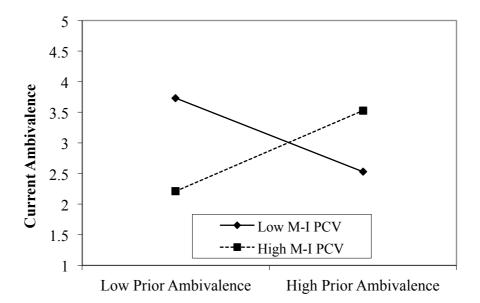
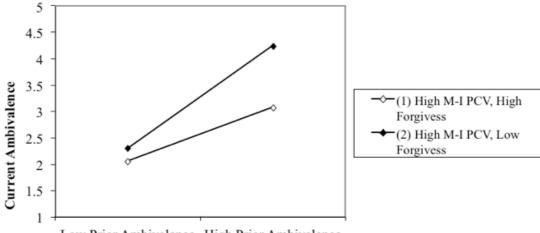


Figure 6. 4 The moderating effect of M-I PCV on the within-individual relationship between prior and current ambivalence

The results of the three-way interact reveal a significant interaction effect ($\gamma_{130} = .434 p$ < .05) and a significant decrease in model deviance as a result of the inclusion of the Ambivalence X MI-PCV X Forgiveness interaction ($\chi^2(21) = 40.77$, p < .00). To understand this interaction, a plot is shown in Fig. 6.5 (below) and reveals that ambivalent individuals who experienced a psychological contract violation and forgave their managers were less ambivalent the next day than those who did not.



Low Prior Ambivalence High Prior Ambivalence

Figure 6. 5 A three-way interaction of M-I PCV and forgiveness on the within-individual relationship between prior and current ambivalence

Hypotheses 4 - 12 tested the second half of the research model, and predicted that relationship valuation would have an impact on employee reactions to subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violations. More specifically, these hypotheses predict that relationship valuation will moderate employee OCBs, forgiveness, and intrusive thoughts, respectively. To test this set of hypotheses, I once again employed HLM to discern the main and individual interaction effects of valuation on these outcome relationships. Three models were estimated for each of the outcomes of M-I PCV. Table 6.4 reveals the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects; the second model examining M-I PCV and relationship valuation direct effects; the third model demonstrating the within-level interaction effect on OCBs (i.e., the full model).

Table 6.4

| Variable | Coefficient | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|--|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 1.44 | .877 | .731 | | |
| Controls | | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | 01 | .00 | .00 | | |
| Gender γ_{20} | 20 | 21 | 13 | | |
| Organisational Tenure γ_{30} | .01 | .02 | .01 | | |
| Core Self-Evaluations γ_{40} | .23 | .31 | .303 | | |
| Positive Affect γ_{50} | .23** | .21** | .23** | | |
| Negative Affect γ_{60} | .13 | .11 | .08 | | |
| Prior OCBs γ ₇₀ | 03 | 08 | 08 | | |
| Main Effects | | | | | |
| M-I PCV γ_{80} | | 18* | 15† | | |
| Positive Valuation γ_{90} | | .10 | .10 | | |
| Negative Valuation γ_{100} | | 01 | .03 | | |
| Ambivalent Valuation γ_{110} | | .06 | .04 | | |
| Interaction Effects | | | | | |
| Positive X M-I PCV γ_{120} | | | 34* | | |
| Negative X M-I PCV γ_{130} | | | 32* | | |
| Ambivalent X M-I PCV γ_{140} | | | .22† | | |
| Deviance | 270.15 | 265.08 | 260.9 | | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 5.07** | 4.18** | | |

HLM Results Predicting OCBs

 $N = 261 \pmod{1, 2}$; $N = 262 \pmod{3}$. $\ddagger p < .10 * p < .05$. ** p < .01

As shown, the results indicated that Hypotheses 4, 7, and 10 were supported. After subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violations, ambivalence is related to an increase in OCBs ($\gamma_{140} = .22 \ p < .05$, one-tailed test) while positive ($\gamma_{120} = -.34 \ p < .05$) and negative ($\gamma_{130} = -.32 \ p < .05$) valuations are related to decreased OCBs. Plots expressing these relationship interactions are shown in Fig. 6.6, Fig. 6.7, and Fig. 6.8 below.

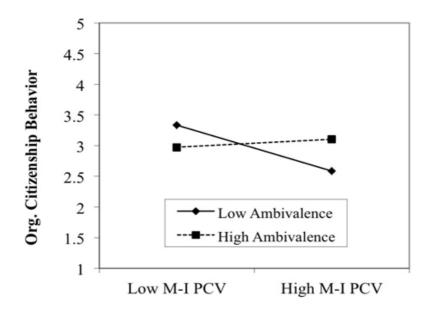


Figure 6. 6 The moderating effect of ambivalent valuations on the within-individual relationship between subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and OCBs.

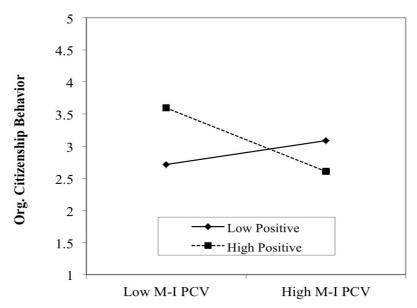


Figure 6. 7 The moderating effect of positive valuations on the within-individual relationship between subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and OCBs.

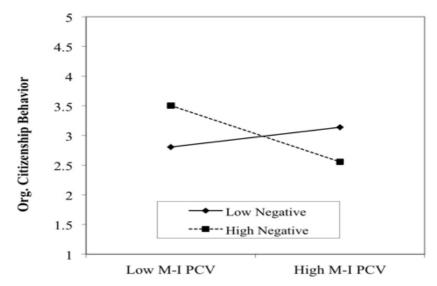


Figure 6. 8 The moderating effect of negative valuations on the within-individual relationship between subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and OCBs.

Additional support for the malleability of ambivalent valuations can be seen across the graphs in Figure 6.9 below. The moderators used in this study could be one explanation for the instability of ambivalence over the two-week period. Ambivalent valuations that are consistently low are likely to correspond with employees who maintain positive or negative relationships with their managers.

| | D2 | D3 | | DS | D6 | D7 |
|--------------|------------|---------------|---------------|-----------|--|--------|
| D8 | D9 | Dtt | D11 | DE | D13 | D14 |
| | ~ | me | ••••• | ****** | • | |
| D15 | D16 | D17 | D18 | D19 | D20 | D2 |
| | ••••• | **** | | | ************************************** | ~~~~~ |
| D22 | D23 | D24 | DZ | D26 | D27 | D28 |
| | | Succession of | ••••• | J~- | Server. | •••••• |
| | 000 | Dai | D22 0 5 50 | D38 | D34 | D35 |
| | | | | | | |
| | | C | Observations | | | |
| | - Lowess A | mbivalence b | y Obs | Ambivaler | nt Observatio | ns |
| Graphs by ID | | | | | | |

Figure 6. 9 Ambivalent Valuations Over a Two-Week Period

Table 6.5 (below) reveals the results of the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects; the second model examining M-I PCV and relationship valuation direct effects; the third model demonstrating the within-level interaction effect on forgiveness (i.e., the full model).

| Variable | | Coefficient | - |
|-------------------------------------|---------|-------------|---------|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 1.62 | 1.43 | .96 |
| Controls | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .03 | .02 | .03 |
| Gender γ_{20} | .42 | .17 | .32 |
| Organisational Tenure γ_{30} | .00 | .02 | .02 |
| Core Self-Evaluations γ_{40} | 02 | .04 | .24 |
| Positive Affect γ_{50} | 01 | .00 | 20 |
| Negative Affect γ_{60} | .29 | 08 | 10 |
| Positive Valuation γ_{70} | .02 | 18 | 16 |
| Negative Valuation γ_{80} | .34* | .60** | .30† |
| Main Effects | | | |
| M-I PCV γ_{90} | | 22 | 14 |
| Ambivalent Valuation γ_{100} | | 11 | .02 |
| Interaction Effects | | | |
| Positive X M-I PCV γ_{110} | | | .57** |
| Negative X M-I PCV γ_{120} | | | .10 |
| Ambivalent X M-I PCV γ_{130} | | .06 | 60** |
| Deviance | 120.13 | 112.08 | 111.68 |
| Decrease in deviance | | 8.05** | .40** |

Table 6. 5HLM Results Predicting Forgiveness

Notes: $N = 86 \pmod{1, 2, \& 3}$; $\dagger p < .10 * p < .05$. ** p < .01; * Due to smaller sample, interaction terms were each run separately. Deviance applies to ambivalence only (shaded region)

As shown, the results indicated that Hypotheses 5 and 8 were supported; however, Hypothesis 11 was not significant and not in the predicted direction. After subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violations, ambivalence is related to a decrease in forgiveness ($\gamma_{130} = -.60 \ p < .01$) while positive valuations are related to an increase in forgiveness ($\gamma_{110} = .57 \ p < .01$) Plots expressing these relationship interactions are shown in Fig. 6.10 and Fig. 6.11 below.

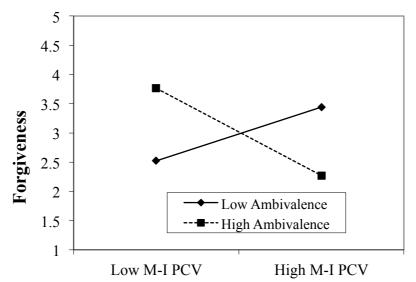


Figure 6. 10 The moderating effect of ambivalent valuations on the within-individual relationship between subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and forgiveness.

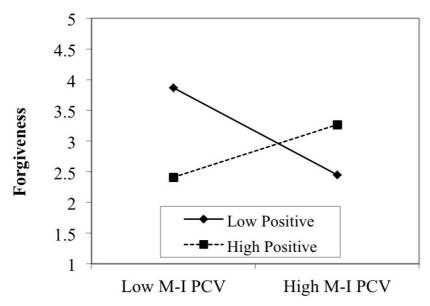


Figure 6. 11 The moderating effect of positive valuations on the within-individual relationship between subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and forgiveness.

Table 6.6 (seen on the next page) depicts the results of the first model, examining the controlled variables' effects; the second model examining M-I PCV and relationship valuation direct effects; the third model demonstrating the within-level interaction effect on intrusive thoughts (i.e., the full model).

| Variable | Coefficient | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|--|
| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | |
| Intercept γ_{00} | 1.04* | 1.30** | .98* | |
| Controls | | | | |
| Age γ_{10} | .00 | .00 | .00 | |
| Gender γ_{20} | .07 | .07 | .09 | |
| Organisational Tenure γ_{30} | .00 | .00 | .00 | |
| Core Self-Evaluations γ_{40} | .00 | .00 | .02 | |
| Positive Affect γ_{50} | 06 | 07† | 06 | |
| Negative Affect γ_{60} | .25** | .18* | .16* | |
| Main Effects | | | | |
| M-I PCV γ_{80} | | .05 | .06 | |
| Positive Valuation γ_{90} | | 04 | 07 | |
| Negative Valuation γ_{100} | | .00 | .02 | |
| Ambivalent Valuation γ_{110} | | .04 | .02 | |
| Interaction Effects | | | | |
| Positive X M-I PCV γ_{120} | | | 18* | |
| Negative X M-I PCV γ_{130} | | | 04 | |
| Ambivalent X M-I PCV γ_{140} | | | .22** | |
| Deviance | 96.59 | 75.92 | 65.15 | |
| Decrease in deviance | | 19.77** | 10.77** | |

Table 6. 6HLM Results Predicting Intrusive Thoughts

 $N = 271 \pmod{1, 2 \& 3}; \ddagger p < .10 * p < .05. ** p < .01$

As shown, the results indicated that Hypotheses 6 and 9 were supported; however, Hypothesis 12, though in the predicted direction, was not significant. Therefore, after subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violations, ambivalence is related to an increase in intrusive thoughts ($\gamma_{140} = .22 \ p < .01$) while positive valuations are related to a decrease in intrusive thoughts ($\gamma_{120} = -.18 \ p < .05$). Plots expressing these relationship interactions are shown in Fig. 5.12 and Fig. 5.13, below.

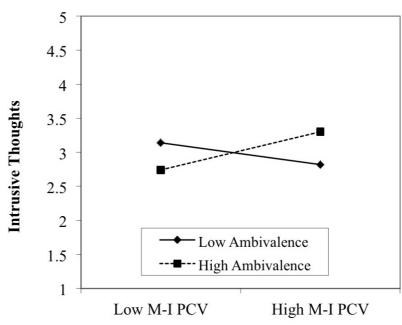


Figure 6. 12The moderating effect of ambivalent valuations on the within-individual relationship between subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and intrusive thoughts.

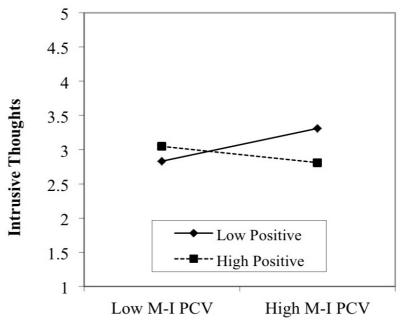


Figure 6. 13 The moderating effect of positive valuations on the within-individual relationship between subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) and intrusive thoughts.

Altogether, the results of this study suggest that relational ambivalence was not stable from one observation to the next. OCBs and manager-induced psychological contract violations (M-I PCV) were found to heighten the intensity of relational ambivalence, however M-I PCVs contributed more to this relationship. Forgiveness, on the other hand, lessened the intensity of relational ambivalence for employees who had experienced an M-I PCV. On reactions to M-I PCV under the second wave of observations, employees in positive relationships with their manager decreased OCBs, increased forgiveness, and did not experience intrusive thoughts. Employees in ambivalent relationships increased OCBs, decreased forgiveness, and experienced intrusive thoughts. Finally, employees in negative relationships only decreased their OCBs. The implications for these findings are discussed in greater detail below.

6.7 Discussion

To date, the bulk of research on relationships with managers or leaders has focused on key characteristics (e.g., support, loyalty, trust) that make relationships of the high quality or low quality sort (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Eisenberger et al., 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Despite a popular interest in understanding more about these relationships, little is known about the concept of ambivalence within work relationships or how it impacts employee behaviour and self-regulation on a day-to-day basis. To address this void, I took a multilevel approach and examined the influence of relational ambivalence, comprised of an employee's simultaneous favourable and unfavourable attitude toward his/her manager, and observed its impact on reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations.

To derive this process model, I integrated cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) with Rusbult and van Lange's (2003) interdependence theory. My results revealed that, at the within-individual level, ambivalent employees who experienced a managerinduced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV) or demonstrated OCBs increased the intensity of ambivalence on subsequent days. This, however, was less true for ambivalent employees who forgave their managers for violating their psychological contract. In other words, by forgiving their managers, these employees felt less ambivalent about their managers than those who did not. Moreover, the results showed that reactions to subsequent manager-induced psychological contract violations are largely contingent on the relationship's valuation. As such, future displays of OCBs and forgiveness might be contingent on beliefs about the future of the relationship (i.e., assured, hopeful, hopeless), as might also employee ability to self-regulate without the disruption of intrusive thoughts. Overall then, my results support the integration of these two perspectives and suggest that employees who express an ambivalent attitude toward their manager on a given day will have difficulty forgiving their manager when they have been wronged and will be more likely to ruminate about their manager's bad behaviour. Research to date has not captured this type of relational valuation and certainly not on a daily basis.

My results seem to reveal the complex ways in which relationships with managers are formulated and how different events can impact ambivalent valuations on a daily basis. One unexpected finding was that violation intensified employee feelings of ambivalence rather than shift the relationship into a more negative appraisal. This finding seems to reinforce the assertion that ambivalent employees are, indeed, hopeful. Whether it is due to their holistic understanding of the relationship (Ashforth & Rodgers, 2010) or the instrumental or psychological resources (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Oaten, Wiliams, Jones, & Zadro, 2008) that manager relationships satisfy, ambivalent employees appear to be reluctant to reclassify their relationships as negative. In fact, ambivalent employees were willing to demonstrate OCBs despite the apparent dissonance it brought to the individual and continued to display OCBs even after experiencing subsequent violations. This prosocial response to violation seems to directly mimic aspects of interdependence theory, where individuals try to make the best out of a bad situation (Rusbult & van Lange, 2003).

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On the other hand, unlike those employees that valuate their relationship with their manager as positive (i.e., assured), ambivalent individuals may not have the luxury of withdrawing OCBs. Close relationship literature suggests that one way couples restore balance after a disagreement is by withholding accommodating behaviour. Since ambivalent relationships are already balanced by positive and negative experiences, withdrawing OCBs after experiencing a subsequent negative event (i.e., violation) may only serve to aggravate the relationship, which might lead to its demise – an unwelcome fate for ambivalent employees.

The finding that ambivalent individuals report intrusive thoughts after their manager's poor treatment also seems to suggest the level of investment ambivalent employees have in the relationship. Whether they are ruminating about how to make the relationship better, or why their manager has treated them so poorly (again), ambivalent employees think about their manager's action whether they want to or not. Accordingly, the results suggest that violation did not impact employee intrusive thoughts for those maintaining positive or negative valuations. This is most likely because employees who valuate their relationship as positive are more likely to excuse their manager's bad behaviour or recognise that their manager will somehow make it up to them (Rousseau, 1995). Conversely, employees holding a negative valuation do not ruminate about a manager-induced psychological contract violation because it is consistent with their negative appraisal. As mentioned before, even consistent negative treatment.

6.7.1 Limitations

Some limitations within my study should be noted. First, the within-individual relationships among the study variables were based on employee-reported responses,

raising the possibility that the within-individual relationships are inflated by common source variance. Given their perceptual nature, however, these variables are perhaps best assessed via self-report, as perceptions of the relationship, perceptions of intrusive thoughts, and feelings of violation are rather subjective assessments not easily observed by others. In addition, because I centered the daily measures relative to participants' means, I avoided several sources of common-method variance, such as response tendencies and trait affectivity. Indeed, state and trait affectivity were modelled as a control variables in my analyses. However, centering does not remove all sources of common method variance, such as implicit theories of how measures interrelate, concurrence of measures, and common scale formats (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Thus, my results should be interpreted with this issue in mind.

Other limitations center on my choice of measures. Given the demanding nature of the diary design, some of the daily measures (relationship valuation, OCBs, PA, NA) were truncated for practical purposes. Despite this, those measures demonstrated acceptable reliabilities although some assumptions were made about the importance placed on psychological contract violations. Also, the original intent of this research was to explore all possible reactions to psychological contract violation (e.g., revenge, avoidance, reconciliation) and not just forgiveness. These measures, however, were limited by the study's design. Since employees were only asked to respond to reaction items if they had experienced psychological contract violation, the sample size for these items was fairly small. Thus, study reliabilities for these variables were considerably low and below the acceptable cutoff. I made all possible efforts, including an on-site instructional visit, to attenuate these limitations.

6.7.2 Future Research

Relationship research using the daily diary method is enlightening. As seen in this chapter, daily events impact employee attitudes toward the relationship and their subsequent behaviour. For this reason, I suggest future research continue to make use of this technique. In saying that, however, I strongly encourage future researchers employing this method to think seriously about the construction of the survey itself. The constructs of interests should be of likely occurrence and measured every day. Such consideration will improve scale validity and study outcomes.

In addition, diary studies should continue to be used in conjunction with other methods in order to reinforce the validity of results. For example, the predictions for OCBs in this chapter were purposely in stark contrast to those from the longitudinal investigation in Chapter 5. Researchers interested in this type of research should take into account the temporal nature of their proposed constructs and generate hypotheses accordingly when considering these methodologies.

Future research might also want to address other potential outcomes of managerinduced psychological contract violations. As this study is one of the first to make salient the actions of the manager in violating the psychological contract, it would be interesting to uncover other potential interpersonal and organisational outcomes related to this idea. Outcomes such as turnover intent, in-role performance, creativity, or job satisfaction would be worth investigating, and, in particular, how relationship valuations moderate these outcomes. These results are also likely to depend on whether employees believe managers embody the organisations to which they belong.

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Finally, as with the previous two chapters, future research should also contemplate potential moderators and mediators to these relationships. For example, it might be important to determine whether the outcomes of studies exploring prosocial behaviour are contingent on the nature or strength of manager violations. Certainly, violations of greater intensity might not be met with accommodation or forgiveness even in the closest of relationship. Finally, just as the aims of this chapter were to expand upon Morrison & Robinson's (1997) original process model, so to might future research expand upon the results presented here.

6.7.3 Conclusion

Combined, these results suggest that managers may have a great deal of influence on the ways in which employees behave and cope within organisations. As seen, ambivalent individuals do appear to remain hopeful about the relationship they have with their manager, which has pertinent implications for organisational practices. For one, it means, for many individuals (especially in my sample), managers can make mistakes from time to time without experiencing catastrophic emotional losses. If ambivalent attitudes are prevalent throughout organisations, as this research seems to indicate, managers may (at least temporarily) have more opportunities to salvage relationships with employees they have formerly wronged. This research also provides valuable insight into the minds of employees who are sceptical about the relationship they have with their manager.

Taken together, my findings contribute to the emerging literature on leaders as managers of employee organisational behaviour by examining the direct impact manager behaviour has on key outcomes. To date, researchers have primarily explored psychological contracts as they relate to the broader organisation and have not exposed this concept at the individual-level with specific organisational agents. Though such perceptions are important to consider, given the interpersonal nature of relationships, I believe it is also important to examine how these phenomena play out at more tenable levels. Toward that end, this study is the first (of which I am aware), to consider how ambivalent employees are affected by negative treatment from their managers and to do so with a method that captured a 2-week snapshot of the ebb and flow of ambivalence and behaviour.

Having explored the antecedents and consequences of relational ambivalence through both longitudinal and experienced sampling methodologies, Chapter 7 will now conclude this thesis by summarising the key study results and discussing the broader implications for this stream of research.

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Where Does Relational Ambivalence Fit within Other Relational Frameworks?

- 7.3 Summary of Key Findings
 - 7.3.1 The antecedents of relational ambivalence

7.3.2 The consequences of relational ambivalence

7.3.3 The stability of relational ambivalence and employee reactions to managerinduced psychological contract violations

7.4 Contributions to the employee-organisation relationship literature

7.3.1 Relational ambivalence in employee-manager relationships7.3.2 Manager-induced psychological contract violations

- 7.5 Limitations of this research
- 7.6 Implications for practice

7.6.1 The antecedents and outcomes of relational ambivalence: Practical implications7.6.2 The role of the manager in psychological contract violations: Practical implications

7.7 Future Research

7.7.1 The inclusion of relational ambivalence in employment relationship research

7.7.2 The dimensionality and method for capturing relational ambivalence 7.7.3 Other perspectives on relational ambivalence

7.8 Conclusion

Chapter 7 - Discussion

7.1 Introduction

The previous three chapters of this thesis have presented the results pertaining to the role of relational ambivalence in employee-manager relationships through two separate research methodologies. The present chapter will begin with a discussion regarding where relational ambivalence is situated amongst other well-known relationship quality constructs. It will then summarize the key findings of the results of this thesis before describing the specific contributions of this thesis to the employee-manager relationship literature. The limitations of the research and the practical implications of the findings will then be discussed. Finally, directions for future research will be outlined.



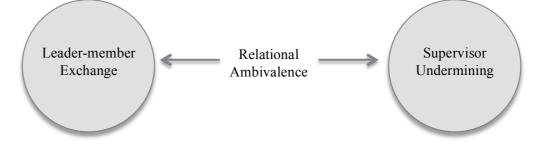


Figure 7. 1 Model Situating Relational Ambivalence Between Positive and Negative Relationship Constructs

One of the major overarching questions for this thesis was whether or not previously established relationship quality constructs represent all of what there is to understand regarding employee relationships with managers. This level of questioning motivated a closer examination of employee-manager relationships and eventually uncovered the concept of relational ambivalence. As Figure 7.1 illustrates, this thesis suggests relational ambivalence represents relationships with managers that are located, perhaps on a continuum, between positive and negative relationship valuations. It represents

exchanges with managers that have been both positive and negative on the whole, and gives meaning to relationships that were formerly difficult for employees to define. Up until now, relationships comprised of such exchanges have largely been overlooked. Indeed, the majority of relationship quality research has had a primary focus on those of the positive (e.g., leader-member exchange, perceived supervisor support) or negative (e.g., supervisor undermining, abusive supervision) type. Consequently, this thesis has fulfilled a considerable gap in the literature by examining and testing employee-manager relationships in a way that broadens our understanding of this important process within organisations.

Relational ambivalence is different from other relational frameworks, because it accounts for the competing strengths of positive and negative attitudes that often emerge within relationships. In doing so, relational ambivalence encapsulates employee-manager relationships that are neither definitively good nor definitively bad, but primarily both. Ambivalence has never been applied to relationships with managers. Rather, other organisational scholars have examined ambivalence toward the organisation (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004), ambivalence toward organisational change (Oreg & Sverdlik, 2011), ambivalence toward loyalty in mentor-protégé relationships (Oglensky, 2008), and the effects of ambivalence toward work-life on employee commitment (Pratt & Rosa, 2003). Given the dearth of organisational research incorporating ambivalence, this thesis utilized close-relationship and attitude literatures to more fully understand the relevance of ambivalence in employee-manager relationships.

While relational ambivalence clearly differs from other well-established relational frameworks, ironically, it also seems to exist *within* these frameworks. Indeed, the

dimensions that comprise our current assessments of relationship quality with managers might generate perceptions of relational ambivalence. Perceived supervisor support (PSS), for example, exists when employees believe that supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). As such, relational ambivalence might emerge through employee assessments of PSS when employees believe that their supervisors are supportive upon occasion but not necessarily all the time. Likewise, interactional justice (Bies, 1986) represents the quality of interpersonal treatment received when authority figures carry out procedures. Supervisors, who are inconsistent in their social sensitivity, respect, and genuine concern during these times, might also engender relational ambivalence amongst their employees. Finally, as discussed throughout this thesis, relationships that are comprised of both high and low quality leader-member exchanges (Graen & Uhl Bien, 1995) are likely to be characterized by relational ambivalence. It seems therefore that relational ambivalence can be conceptually located between high quality and negative relationship valuations.

What also seems to be true is that the antecedents and outcomes of relational ambivalence differ from those of other forms of relationship quality. While positive relationships are the consequence of mostly favourable interactions, negative relationships tend to be comprised of instances of neglect, undermining, or even abuse. Although an amalgamation of these favourable and unfavourable relationship conditions heightens relational ambivalence, as seen in this thesis, it seems individual and socialcognitive perspectives also contribute to the ways in which employees valuate the relationship. Likewise, the outcomes of relational ambivalence seem to differ from positive and negative relationship valuations. These evidences are elaborated further in the following sections where the results of this thesis are revisited. The results further distinguish relational ambivalence from the relational frameworks discussed above.

7.3 Summary of Key Findings

Chapter 4 tested a number of hypotheses concerning the antecedents of relational ambivalence from historical, individual and social-cognitive perspectives. Chapter 5 then examined the outcomes of relational ambivalence at the interpersonal and organisational level. Finally, Chapter 6 tested the stability of relational ambivalence on a daily basis and examined its moderating influence on employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations. The findings of these three chapters will be reiterated as the basis for discussing the contributions to the literature.

7.3.1 The antecedents of relational ambivalence

The purposes of Chapter 4 were to establish the relational ambivalence construct, to explore the antecedent conditions that contributed to relational ambivalence, and to see how these antecedent conditions differed from positive and negative relationship valuations. Figure 7.2 illustrates the significant findings associated with the antecedents of relational ambivalence.

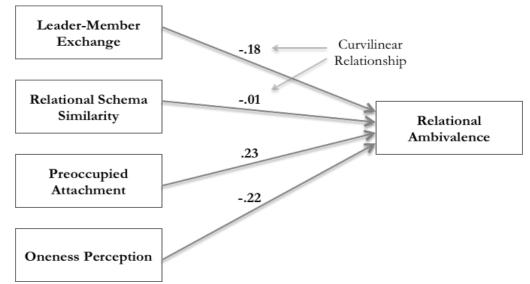


Figure 7. 2 Summary of antecedents to relational ambivalence

Chapter 4 demonstrated that various perspectives contribute to the ways in which employees valuate the relationship they have with their managers. The historical perspective, which was captured through LMX and relational schema similarity, was found to be the strongest predictor of employee perceptions of the relationship's valuation. This finding demonstrated upon two occasions that the method used to capture relationship valuations for this thesis converged with other pre-established relationship quality scales. In other words, the independent measures of positive and negative relationship valuations were significantly related to LMX and supervisor undermining, respectively. With the assurance that the new measure was appropriately capturing relationship valuation, relational ambivalence was calculated using the procedures outlined by Thompson et al. (1995). As predicted, both LMX and relational schema similarity had a curvilinear relationship with relational ambivalence. This meant that the midpoint of these scales was best represented by relational ambivalence. The provided graph depicting the inverted-U (as shown in Chapter 4) revealed that relational ambivalence is comprised of both positive and negative relational exchanges. Therefore, as relationships move from positive to negative (or vice versa) the apex of the inverted-U denotes the strongest state of relational ambivalence.

The individual perspective also contributed to relational ambivalence. Here, preoccupied adult attachment style functioning was seen to have a direct and positive relationship with relational ambivalence. The inconsistent treatment that these individuals received as infants reflects the perceptions of the inconsistent treatment they receive as adult employees. Finally, the social-cognitive perspective indicated that employees draw comparisons regarding the level of belongingness provided through their managers and use these to assess the relationship's overall valuation. As

predicted, employee perceptions of oneness (i.e., increased levels of felt belonging) produced a negative relationship with relational ambivalence.

In sum, the findings of Chapter 4 indicate that historical, individual and social-cognitive employee perspectives are each relevant to the ways in which relationship valuations with managers are determined. The greater significance stemming from the historical perspective, not surprisingly, seems to indicate that it is the day-to-day interactions with managers that contribute most to the relationship's valuation. Indeed, the curvilinear relationship that LMX and relational schema similarity had with relational ambivalence seems to reflect this result, since relational ambivalence primarily evolves from the experience of both positive and negative interactions. Therefore, it seems appropriate to qualify the midpoint on existing relationship quality scales as relational ambivalence. Accordingly, while relational ambivalence has been theoretically present throughout other studies examining relationship quality with managers, Chapter 4 has acknowledged its existence and empirically tested its antecedent conditions.

7.3.2 The consequences of relational ambivalence

Chapter 5 examined the impact that relational ambivalence with managers had on key interpersonal and organisational outcomes. Specifically, it examined the impact of relational ambivalence on cognition-based trust, affect-based trust, and relational identification as interpersonal outcomes; and its impact on turnover intent, organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the manager (OCBIs), organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the organisation (OCBOs), and in-role behaviour (IRB) as organisational outcomes. In addition the moderating impact of job control on the behavioural-based organisational outcomes was examined. The key findings of Chapter 5 are presented in the diagram below (Figure 7.3).

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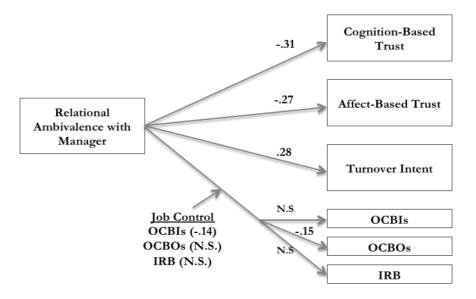


Figure 7. 3 Summary of significant study one findings for consequences of relational ambivalence with managers

As predicted, relational ambivalence was shown to have a direct relationship with several of the interpersonal and organisational outcomes within this study. Specifically, relational ambivalence was found to have a direct negative relationship with both cognition-based and affect-based trust. This result provided further support to the assertion made in Chapter 4, which maintained that relationship valuations are comprised of both cognitive and emotional components. Therefore, in assessing the overall quality of the relationship, employees seem to utilize attributes about their managers that might be based on job competency or genuine concern.

In terms of the organisational outcomes, in comparison to positive and negative relationship valuations, relational ambivalence was shown to be the strongest predictor of employee turnover intent. Likewise, employees who expressed ambivalent attitudes toward their managers withdrew organisational citizenship behaviours directed toward the organisation (OCBOs). Interestingly, when relationally ambivalent employees were offered more control over their jobs, they withdrew organisational citizenship behaviour directed toward their manager (OCBIs). This passive form of retaliation seemed to make the target of relational ambivalence clear, and the added autonomy granted

through the increase in job control made it easier for relationally ambivalent employees to restore balance to the relationship. This result compares with Lavelle et al.'s (2007; 2009) finding that relationships between study variables are more consistent when items refer to 'target similar' individuals.

In sum, the findings of Chapter 5 give rise to the importance of accounting for relational ambivalence within employee-manager relationships. Indeed, its negative relationship with the study's interpersonal and organisational outcomes suggests relational ambivalence provides a unique perspective to relationship quality research that contrasts starkly with those of higher quality and lower quality relationships.

7.3.3 The stability of relational ambivalence and employee reactions to managerinduced psychological contract violations

After examining the antecedents and consequences of relational ambivalence over a sixmonth period, Chapter 6 explored the more proximal outcomes of relational ambivalence through a daily diary study investigation. Specifically, Chapter 6 explored the stability of relational ambivalence over time, as well as the extent to which employee relationship valuations of their manager influenced their responses to manager-induced psychological contract violations. Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), manager-induced psychological contract violation (M-I PCV), and forgiveness were first explored as moderating variable using lagged regression. Then,

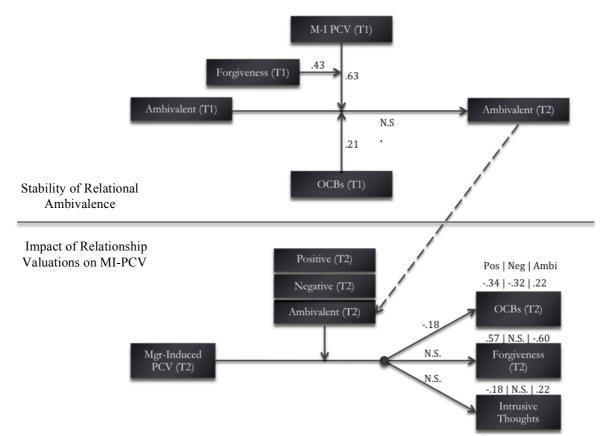


Figure 7. 4 Summary of the significant findings for the daily diary study investigation⁹

OCBs, forgiveness, and intrusive thoughts were examined as outcomes to M-I PCVs. An illustration of the key findings of Chapter 6 is provided in Figure 7.4 above.

These findings indicate that relational ambivalence is not stable over time. Indeed, from one observation to the next, relational ambivalence was found to have an insignificant relationship. Certain moderators do seem to intensify relational ambivalence, however. Specifically, organisational citizenship behaviours and manager-induced psychological contract violations were found to significantly intensify relational ambivalence. Forgiveness, although it did not completely relieve relational ambivalence, lessened its intensity after employees experienced an M-I PCV (i.e., the

⁹ Note: The top of the half of this model from Chapter 6 utilized lag regression techniques to test the stability of one observation of relational ambivalence to the next. T1 and T2 represent waves of observations and not specific periods of time. The dotted arrow from the upper half to the lower half of the model signifies that both of these observations are of the same variable at the same point in time (i.e., the two models are not necessarily connected in any causal way).

three-way interaction). In other words, the decision to forgiven after a M-I PCV lessened the intensity of ambivalence, whereas the decision not to forgive after a M-I PCV heightened the intensity of ambivalence.

Furthermore, employee reactions to M-I PCVs were largely influenced by the way in which employees valuated their relationship with their manager. Those in positive relationships lowered their OCBs, responded with forgiveness, and did not have intrusive thoughts regarding their manager's violation, while those in ambivalent relationships increased their OCBs, did not respond with forgiveness, and experienced intrusive thoughts regarding their manager's violation. The only significant finding regarding negative relationships was that employees lowered their OCBs after experiencing violation.

In sum, the empirical results for Chapter 6 complement the predictions regarding the instability of relational ambivalence. Additionally, this chapter provided significant outcomes for the relational ambivalence construct using a different methodological approach to Chapters 4 and 5. Together, the findings of Chapters 4, 5, and 6 reinforce the necessity for the inclusion of relational ambivalence in relationship quality research. The next section will discuss this assertion in greater detail as the contributions of this thesis are presented.

7.4 Contributions to the employee-manager relationship literature

There are two major contributions of this thesis to employee-organisation relationship theory. First, this thesis introduced the role of relational ambivalence in employeemanager relationships. In doing so, it has shed new light on the ways in which we think about relationships in organisations through recognizing that not all relationships with managers are either good or bad, but are possibly both. Second, this thesis tested the direct role of the manager in violating employee psychological contracts. By identifying the organisational agent involved, this thesis was able to help us understand the impact that managers have on employee behaviour and coping when they violate the psychological contracts they have with their employees. These two major contributions to the literature are accompanied by several additional contributions, which will be discussed in the next two sections.

7.4.1 Relational ambivalence in employee-manager relationships

Ambivalence is thought to exist in nearly all types of relationships (Coser, 1966), yet its existence within employee-manager relationships has never been recognised. Indeed, studies examining relationships with managers have primarily theorized about those of the high quality or low quality sort and have ignored ambivalent relationships altogether. This thesis has provided one of the first attempts to include the concept of ambivalence within employee-manager relationships. In doing so, it has added to our understanding of the employee-organisation relationship by utilizing theories developed by close relationship and attitude scholars (e.g., Kaplan, 1972; Thompson et al., 1995; Fincham & Linfield, 1997). It has demonstrated that relational ambivalence is a distinct relationship valuation that carries unique interpersonal and organisational outcomes.

Specifically, this thesis has demonstrated that, in order to gain a complete understanding of employee-manager relationships, relationship quality needs to be captured through more rigorous methods. Although there is no doubt regarding the utility of previous relationship quality research, relational ambivalence cannot be realized without accounting for the strength and intensity of both positive and negative relationship attitudes. This thesis revealed that one way to achieve this is by independently assessing the positive and negative characteristics of the relationship and then calculating ambivalence using the prescribed methods offered by other ambivalence scholars (e.g.,

Kaplan, 1972; Thompson et al., 1995; Larsen, in press). Accordingly, this thesis demonstrated that the independent assessment of positive and negative relationship valuations converged with preexisting positive (e.g., LMX) and negative (e.g., supervisor undermining) relationship scales, respectively. Therefore, the relational ambivalence calculation, which was significantly related to the midpoint of LMX and relational schema similarity, was generated with a strong degree of confidence.

This thesis also revealed how various perspectives (i.e., historical, individual, and social-cognitive) contributed to employee attitudes toward relationships with managers. It appears the historical perspective, which is comprised of employee exchange perceptions, contributed most to attitude formation. Consequently, irrespective of employee individual differences in attachment and social comparison processes regarding felt belonging, employees are most likely to assess the relationship according to the various interactions they have had with their managers. Therefore, it is likely that relationship valuations are strengthened through consistent positive exchanges, weakened by consistent negative exchanges, and made ambivalent by a combination of both positive and negative exchanges.

Another important reason for the inclusion of relational ambivalence in employeemanager relationships emerges from its distinct relationship with the interpersonal and organisational outcomes employed throughout this thesis. Indeed, the findings portrayed in Chapters 5 and 6 demonstrate a significant contribution both theoretically and empirically to this literature. For example, the assertion that relational ambivalence is an unstable relationship valuation was confirmed by two results. One, that relational ambivalence is strongly linked to turnover intent, and two, that prior ambivalence did not predict future ambivalence. These findings suggest that relational ambivalence is an uncomfortable state for employees, which increases employees' desire to exit the organisation. Furthermore, this thesis was able to reveal that, in comparison to positive and negative relationship valuations, relational ambivalence leads to an increase in intrusive thoughts after employees experience a manager-induced psychological contract violation. Consequently, employees in ambivalent relationships seem to be thinking about and stressing about the relationship frequently - a result that, no doubt, aligns with their higher desire to leave the organisation.

The inclusion of OCBs in the two separate studies revealed entirely different results. The empirical results provided through the proximal investigation of relational ambivalence on OCBs revealed that on a daily basis, relationally ambivalent employees increased their OCBs even after experiencing M-I PCVs. However, the more distal investigation revealed that relational ambivalence resulted in lowered OCBs over time. These findings reinforce the assertions made in Chapter 6 that relationally ambivalent employees are initially hopeful, have a holistic understanding of the relationship, and have a strong desire to experience a greater number of positive interactions with their managers. By initially increasing OCBs, relationally ambivalent employees are, in a sense, creating a buffer for the potential to experience negative interactions with their managers. They take initiative and demonstrate behaviours that they think will solidify the relationship and, in doing so, hope to reduce the state of ambivalence which they find intolerable. The fact that OCBs were discovered to depreciate over more distal periods (Chapter 5) seems to suggest that ambivalence will eventually take its toll on employees, and, if they do not exit the organisation, employees will find ways to balance the relationship by lowering OCBs.

The combined results stemming from the daily diary and longitudinal investigations also seem to consistently reflect Carver & Scheier's (1998) dual processing theory discussed earlier in Chapter 2. Dual processing theory would suggest that when employees develop specific goals, they are likely to be able to, at least temporarily, ignore the dissonance that is related to conscious and subconscious feedback. Therefore, whether it is an employee's desire to improve their relationship with their manager in order to advance in the organisation or to benefit in some social-cognitive way, Carver & Scheirer (1998) might suggest these types of goals allow employees to operate short-term, relationship edifying behaviours (i.e., OCBs) to achieve such an end. In doing so, they suggest dissonant information can initially be ignored but will eventually require some attention when longer-term repeated patterns of dissonance exist. As seen with the effect on OCBs through the current investigations, OCBs can be sustained in the short-term but eventually dissipate when negative feedback loops generated from bottom-level processes eventually reach cognition. Such instances require goal reconstruction, which might be one of the many reasons ambivalent employees were more likely to ruminate after managers violated their expectations.

The results of this thesis might also have important implications for the ways in which researchers capture employee behaviour. For example, in study one, managers reported on employee OCBs (Time 1 / Time 2); however, in study two (the daily diary), OCBs were directly provided through employee self-reports. Although, this will be discussed in the limitations section, the results associated with these employee and manager reports have important theoretical implications. The most obvious is that relationally ambivalent employees, through their self-reports, believe they are contributing more to the organisation than perhaps managers realize. Though qualitative data were not collected, my personal conversations with employees throughout this organisation seem

to confirm this assertion. What is known by managers regarding the extra role behaviours employees demonstrate might not be as accurate as the personal accounts provided by employees. For example, several employees mentioned that they do a considerable amount of work from home during nonworking hours and that during working hours they rarely take a lunch break. When I mentioned this to one of the managers, his response was that clearly these employees are not working hard enough during working hours. This misalignment in employee and manager perceptions provides a clearer explanation for the conflicting results in both studies and carries important implications for organisational citizenship behaviour research to consider.

Finally, this thesis demonstrated congruencies across studies for the interpersonal consequences of relational ambivalence. Not only do relationally ambivalent individuals not trust their managers, they also find it increasingly difficult to forgive their managers after experiencing a manager-induced psychological contract violation. Again, this point reinforces the distinctiveness of relational ambivalence from positive and negative relationship valuations. These findings suggest that inconsistencies in positive and negative interactions with managers limit the emotional attachment employees can have with their managers. Since managers often serve as representatives of the organisation (Liden, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2004), such inconsistencies, as seen, also limit employee performance and citizenship behaviour directed toward the organisation. Indeed, when offered increased control over their jobs, relationally ambivalent employees lowered their OCBIs in an effort to achieve a greater sense of balance.

In light of the findings of these studies, employee-organisation relationship (EOR) theorists should acknowledge that relationships with managers are sometimes comprised of ambivalence, and that recognizing this can provide valuable new insights

into these types of exchange relationships. By examining the positive and negative aspects of the relationship independently, researchers are able to gain a broader understanding of how exchange relationships with managers are determined as well as the implications that relationship valuations carry toward interpersonal and organisational outcomes. In addition, the inclusion of relational ambivalence provides a theoretically more comprehensive depiction of relationships with managers and offers an outcome possibility for antecedent conditions that would otherwise be unrecognised.

7.4.2 Manager-induced psychological contract violations

There were several reasons for including a study on psychological contract violations in this thesis. First, the vast majority of psychological contract studies have been crosssectional and very few have examined the psychological contract on a daily basis (Conway & Briner, 2005). In addition, studies examining employee prosocial behaviour in response to psychological contract violations are limited, and there have been no studies that examine the direct role of managers in violating psychological contract research is completely new. Since ambivalence is known to heighten individual sensitivity to attitude confirming cues (Katz et al., 1977; Nordgren et al., 2006; Mukulincer et al., 2010), this thesis assumed that events with managers would be highly salient for relationally ambivalent employees. Accordingly, negative events like psychological contract violations to psychological contract theory by producing a study that addressed the above limitations and assertions.

The findings of Chapter 6 confirm that managers can serve as principal organisational agents regarding the perceived [under]fulfilment of promises within employee psychological contracts. Indeed, by examining employee psychological contracts

specifically with managers, the study was able to gauge and make predictions regarding the ways in which employees would react to psychological contract violations. Specifically, the strong interpersonal component allowed for hypotheses to be constructed using interdisciplinary research (e.g., close relationship literature, interdependence theory, cognitive dissonance theory, etc.). This integration of theories provided the study's first contribution by exploring psychological contract theory from a new perspective.

The second contribution emerged with the discovery that manager-induced psychological contract violations (M-I PCVs) intensified employee relational ambivalence. M-I PCVs were originally predicted to be a negative event strong enough to shift the relationship from ambivalence to negative. Given that the intensity of ambivalence is heightened when higher levels of positive and negative interactions characterize the relationship, M-I PCVs constituted an event strong enough to equivocally match (but not exceed) the positive interactions found within the relationships for employees at this particular organisation. In other words, employees who were already slightly ambivalent about the relationship felt more ambivalent after the violation because high positive interactions were then met with a high negative interaction. This scenario might be better understood using the examples below

Example 1:

An employee with a relatively high degree of positive interactions and a relatively low level of negative interactions with their manager rates the independent measures of positive and negative relationship valuations with a 4 and 2, respectively. This allows for a relational ambivalence calculation equal to 1 using the following formula:

(Positive + Negative)/2 - |Positive - Negative| = Relational Ambivalence(4+2)/2 - |4-2| = 1 (low ambivalence score)

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Example 2:

The same employee experiences a manager-induced psychological contract violation, which brings their independent assessment of the negative relationship valuation to 4. Therefore the relational ambivalence calculation is now equal to 4 using the same formula:

$$(4+4)/2 - |4-4| = 4$$
 (high ambivalence score)

This result suggests that the strength and intensity of relational ambivalence is impacted by manager-induced psychological contract violations.

Psychological contract theory will also benefit from the understanding that different relationship valuations bring about unique employee reactions to psychological contract Employees in positive relationships are more likely to forgive their violations. managers but will also find ways of balancing the violation by withdrawing OCBs. Such behaviour is consistent with ideas put forth by interdependence theory (Rusbult & van Lange, 2003) which suggests individuals in high quality relationships will forgive their partners but are likely to withdraw accommodating behaviours after experiencing bad behaviour from their relationship partner. As expected, employees in negative relationships withdrew accommodating behaviours and had little interest in expressing forgiveness. For these employees, the violation is consistent with their perception of the relationship. Relationally ambivalent employees, on the other hand, increased OCBs under conditions of M-I PCV and did not employ forgiveness as a coping technique. This finding seems to reflect the inconsistency of interpersonal closeness since employee forgiveness is a more likely consequence of close relationships (McCullough et al., 2000).

Finally, relationally ambivalent employees are the most likely group to ruminate about their manager's violation. More so than individuals in positive or negative relationships, relationally ambivalent employees are forced to make sense of their manager's inconsistent treatment. One reason for this is related to the goal reconstruction that might be required when top-level processes do not coincide with bottom-level feedback (Carver & Scheier, 1998). This sense making process might materialize as rumination for two reasons: 1) employees are attempting to understand the actual state of the relationship and how it compares with where the employee wants the relationship to be, and 2) employees are considering the consequences that might arise when relationships with managers are poor. Either way, rumination seems to occur when actual experiences do not coincide with the standard to which experiences are compared. Therefore, ruminating over negative events has been found to limit forgiveness capabilities, since the event is likely to prime the negative component of ambivalence (Kachadourian, Fincham, & Davila, 2005). Consequently, ruminating over a manager-induced psychological contract violation is likely to limit organisational performance, because it impairs employee coping ability (Thau & Mitchell, 2011). This particular result is important for psychological contract theorists to recognise, because it suggests there are residual effects of violation that go beyond the employee's immediate behavioural response.

Overall, Chapter 6 was able to demonstrate the explicit role that managers play in managing employee psychological contracts. It was also able to imply causality regarding the intensity of ambivalent relationships by employing a lagged regression technique made available through the study's design (Kenny, 1975; Leary, 1995; Rogosa, 1980; West, Biesanz, & Pitts, 2000). This methodology, which is becoming increasingly popular in psychological contract research (e.g., Conway & Briner, 2002; Tomprou, Nikolaou, Nezlek, & Rousseau, 2011), provided several instances over the course of two weeks where managers had violated employee psychological contracts.

Finally, the moderating influence of the relationship was tested in order to understand employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations. The significant moderating influence of the relationship strongly reinforced the necessity for the consideration of relational ambivalence in this type of research. Altogether, a scale validation and two separate methodological approaches have demonstrated the crucial role of relational ambivalence within employee-manager research.

7.5 Limitations of this research

Although the studies in this thesis have made attempts to curtail the possibility for limitations or weaknesses in interpretation, very few studies are completely flawless. The main limitations for this thesis, therefore, are: 1) the lack of a full-scale validation for the relational ambivalence construct, 2) the small sample size in the Time 1 / Time 2 investigation, 3) the use of self-report questionnaires, and 4) the uniformity of the study participants.

As relational ambivalence was introduced as a new construct to this area of research, it might have been deemed more appropriate to develop a full-scale validation study prior to initiating the full research project. The original objectives of this thesis did involve such a task; however, it was initiated through the use of an entirely different relational ambivalence measure. Four subject matter experts created 21 Likert-type items that were thought to be content valid with respect to the relational ambivalence construct. After pilot testing the items, it was deemed an inappropriate method for capturing relational ambivalence, because the items were double-barrelled and difficult to answer and interpret. Upon discovering more appropriate means for calculating ambivalence scores (e.g., Kaplan, 1972; Thompson et al., 1995), the relational ambivalence Likert scale was abandoned. It was soon realized that other studies were using the methods employed in this thesis (e.g., Fincham & Linfield, 1997; Mikulincer et al., 2010) to

calculate ambivalence scores. Modelling LMX and PSS, items were created that reflected characteristics which employees use to assess relationship quality and independently assessed the positive and negative components of each. Given that other studies were already employing this methodology, it was decided that a full study validation was unnecessary. Consequently, the pilot study provided sufficient evidence for the measures reliability.

The smaller sample size in the Time 1 / Time 2 study investigation (N = 111 / N=121) is another slight limitation. Although there is no standard rule with research regarding dyads, Kenny, Kashy, and Bolger (1998) suggest that there should be enough power, at least 80%, to test for consequential nonindependence. Though they argue 35 dyads is a substantial amount, the acceptable cutoff from other research of this type seems to be somewhere around N=100 (e.g., Gooty & Yammarino, 2011). Therefore, although the sample size for both Time 1 and Time 2 seems to meet these criteria, the number of participants who participated in both studies and for whom I was able to obtain full performance information from managers was slightly below this (N=96). Although the lower sample size suggests the results should be interpreted with caution, the studies were able to demonstrate significant findings regarding their respective hypotheses. Additionally, moderating hypotheses were significant, so the sample is unlikely to be a serious problem (Evans, 1985).

Another limitation of quantitative research is the use of self-report questionnaires. Spector (1994) suggests these can lead to common method variance and contamination effects as employees respond to items with potential biases (e.g., social desirability, negative affectivity, etc.). Such biases can distort the authenticity of the research especially when employees are asked to respond to sensitive items such as psychological contract violations. Various methods were employed to combat these biases. For example, affectivity and personality were used as controls in both studies, and the research promised complete anonymity to combat social desirability. Also, hierarchical linear modelling was used to partial out within-individual effects. Although the daily diary investigation might help to combat common method variance, it may also be limited by internal validity as the result of participant testing familiarity fatigue. Employees participating in all ten waves of the daily diary could possibly become exhausted by the repetition of the questionnaire. This could cause individuals to lose interest in the questionnaire or perhaps limit their ability to answer items as accurately as possible.

Finally, although the research questions for these studies required samples consisting of individuals who were currently employed, the generalizability of the results of these studies is limited by the use of employees from one organisation. Consequently, the question of whether or not these results can be replicated in other organisations is an avenue for future research. Given the micro-level nature of these data, however, it is unlikely that this issue will considerably limit external validity.

7.6 Implications for practice

In addition to the contributions to employee-organisation relationship theory described earlier, some practical implications can be drawn from the findings of this thesis. What seems to be consistently clear throughout this research is that the relationship between managers and employees carries important implications for organisations. While this information is by no means new, this research has provided a new perspective on employee-manager relationships that, when recognised, could influence the way in which managers think about and develop relationships with employees. This thesis highlights two key areas that organisations might benefit from knowing more about: 1) the antecedents and outcomes of relational ambivalence, and 2) the role of the manager in psychological contract violations.

7.6.1 The antecedents and outcomes of relational ambivalence: Practical implications

Managers have been well informed about the benefits of creating strong relationships with employees. Indeed, the number of published articles and books highlighting the importance of the relational component of management are ever increasing¹⁰. This thesis revealed that relational ambivalence has an influential role on both followership and leadership. As such, employees will benefit from understanding why they might feel ambivalent about their relationship with their managers, and managers will benefit from understanding why their employees might feel ambivalent.

From a followership perspective, it is advantageous for employees to grasp the theory of relational ambivalence. Since relational ambivalence often contributes to an uncomfortable, dissonant state for employees, it is important for employees to recognise how ambivalent attitudes toward managers develop. Adult attachment style functioning, for example, influences employee perceptions of relationships with managers. By acknowledging this, employees might be able to reframe the distorted perception of the relationship that their predisposed attachment styles afford. Furthermore, employees who are aware that relational ambivalence is also a consequence of positive and negative exchanges with managers are likely to benefit from the advantages of a more holistic understanding of the relationship. Consequently, these employees will be more likely to reduce the cognitive dissonance that relational ambivalence creates by either changing their attitude or by discussing these issues with

¹⁰ A Google Scholar © search containing the keywords 'employee-manager', 'LMX' and 'abusive supervision', revealed over 3,000 books and articles have been published on these topics since 2010.

their managers. Understanding how attitudes develop from the individual and exchange perspectives, therefore, might improve employee-manager relationships altogether.

From a leadership perspective, knowledge of relational ambivalence might offer managers more flexibility in the ways they develop and maintain relationships with employees. Managers who formerly believed relationships with their employees were uniformly positive or negative might benefit from the knowledge that relationally ambivalent employees are reluctant to give up on the relationship. Indeed, Bassili (1996) discovered that ambivalent attitudes are highly malleable. Consequently, by altering their behaviour to be more consistent, managers might be able to shift employee perceptions of the relationship from an ambivalent state. Managers are likely to pursue such action more fervently when they are informed of the detrimental interpersonal and organisational consequences that relational ambivalence creates. Altering managerial behaviour in the short-term is imperative, since the long-term effects of relational ambivalence seem to be disadvantageous for organisations (e.g., high turnover intent and lowered OCBs). The ability to inform managers of this short window of opportunity to salvage relationships with their employees is invaluable.

7.6.2 The role of the manager in psychological contract violations: Practical implications

The daily diary study provided additional support for the pivotal role that managers play in shaping organisational wellbeing. First, it demonstrated that managers could be held solely responsible for psychological contract violations. Second, it revealed how the quality of relationships with managers influenced the ways in which employees responded to such maltreatment. The implications for these results are fairly straightforward for managers.

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Managers should realize that they can be and typically are responsible for representing the organisation (Liden, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2004). As agents communicating and carrying out the objectives from the top, direct line managers might be the most appropriate for employees to blame when something goes awry. As such, whether it be intentional or not, the impact of a psychological contract violation can be detrimental to the employee-manager relationship and to the organisation. Therefore, astute managers might find ways of filtering negative information from the organisation to employees. In doing so, managers might be able to secure the relationships they have with their employees by maintaining consistency and avoiding perceptions of broken promises. When exchange relationships mature between managers and employees, it might become easier to communicate negative information and also lessen the possibility for manager-induced violations.

Indeed, the relationships employees have with their managers influence their sensemaking processes when they experience a manager-induced psychological contract violation. Thus, if employees are using the relationship to understand how to react to violations, it makes sense that managers would hope to develop high quality relationships with the majority of their staff. Again, managers will benefit from the understanding that most employees are willing to give the relationship a second chance when violation occurs. Insofar as violation presents a discrepancy in the reciprocal exchange relationship between managers and employees, it also provides a critical incident whereby employees can demonstrate their level of dedication to the relationship. For example, it was interesting to note that employees maintaining positive relationships with managers appear to be loyal and forgiving, and employees maintaining ambivalent relationships appear to be accommodating. Knowledge of these results should enable managers to feel more secure in their relationships with their employees, since mistakes (even as strong as psychological contract violations) are not always detrimental.

7.7 Future Research

The current research provided the first attempt to understand relational ambivalence in employee-manager relationships. As such, there is still much to uncover and much to correct in terms of establishing this stream of research. Specifically, future studies should address the following: 1) the inclusion of relational ambivalence in employment relationship research, 2) the dimensionality and method for capturing relational ambivalence, and 3) the other perspective on relational ambivalence (e.g., manager or co-worker relational ambivalence).

7.7.1 The inclusion of relational ambivalence in employment relationship research

As has already been mentioned, this thesis strongly suggests that the inclusion of relational ambivalence in employee-manager relationship research contributes to a more holistic understanding of the relationship. Through its inclusion in the present research, some antecedents and outcomes associated with relational ambivalence have been identified; however, there is still much to discover regarding other potential variables relevant to this new relationship perspective. Indeed, future studies of relational ambivalence should continue to incorporate: variables that contribute to its development, other potential outcomes of relational ambivalence, and moderators / mediators to either of the above.

Since historical, individual and social cognitive employee perspectives were shown to influence relational ambivalence in this thesis, it would be worth exploring other variables within these perspectives that contribute to relational ambivalence. For instance, ambivalent attitudes are very often the consequence of value conflicts (e.g., Craig & Martinez, 2005a, 2005b). Consequently, it would be interesting to explore whether employee value conflicts with managers also contribute to relational ambivalence. Further, other researchers have shown that ambivalent attitudes are the result of certain personality traits. For example, Thompson and Zanna (1995) discovered that low need for cognition contributes to ambivalent attitudes. Exploring other potential antecedents to relational ambivalence from the individual perspective, therefore, might be worthwhile. Finally, the salience of competing positive and negative features of an attitudinal object has been shown to heighten ambivalence (Newby-Clark et al., 2002). Therefore, it might be interesting to explore, from an exchange perspective, whether relational ambivalence is more of a consequence of heightened employee familiarity with manager strengths and weaknesses.

Other potential consequences of relational ambivalence should also be explored. As seen throughout this thesis, ambivalence is often experienced as unpleasant (Newby-Clark et al., 2002; van Harreveld et al., 2009). However, at the same time, people holding ambivalent attitudes tend to process information more systematically (Maio, Bell, & Esses, 1996), and, rather than react to issues automatically, they often demonstrate more control and reflection (Cunningham, Johnson, Gatenby, Gore, & Banaji, 2003). Given that the results of this thesis seem to directly align with these findings, it might be worth exploring in more detail the potential benefits of relational ambivalence to organisations. For example, since employees maintaining ambivalent attitudes toward managers seem to be the most informed regarding the favourable and unfavourable aspects of their managers, their role within organisational life might be advantageous to such areas as conflict resolution, decision-making, or even group cohesion. Given their ability to recognise unusual relationships between concepts (Fong, 2006), individuals maintaining ambivalent attitudes might be one of the best

sources for creative problem solving within relationships. Conversely, questions involving whether or not relational ambivalence has a contagion effect, or whether relational ambivalence impacts group cohesion might need to be addressed. Hodson, Maio, & Esses (2001) found that ambivalent individuals are more likely to agree with group consensus. Therefore, despite their holistic perspective of the relationship, employees holding ambivalent attitudes toward their managers might conform to group attitudes.

The role of the manager in representing the organisation should also be further elaborated in this research. While there is some evidence that suggests supportive relationships with managers are the crux of supportive organisations (Eisenberger, Aselage, Sucharski, & Jones, 2004; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995), it might be useful to understand whether or not relational ambivalence leads to organisational ambivalence (e.g., Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). Since managers themselves are individuals that maintain their own cognitions and motives, a closer examination of whether employees recognise this human element of their managers would be relevant to this research. Only recently have organisational studies begun to explore the symmetry between organisations and the agents who represent them (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2010).

Furthermore, it would be worth exploring potential moderators and mediators to the antecedents and outcomes of relational ambivalence. Though individual disposition might in itself contribute to relational ambivalence (e.g., Thompson & Zanna (1995), its effect as a moderator might useful for organisations to understand. For example, it might be interesting for future research to consider how emotional intelligence, psychological hardiness, tolerance for ambiguity, or neuroticism influence ambivalent

attitudes toward managers. Further, culture (e.g., organisational or national) or the job context itself (e.g., white collar, blue collar, service, charity, etc.) might influence relational ambivalence. For instance, future research might need to address whether relational ambivalence exist in organisations where relationships with managers are not instrumental to employee success. Organisations with low employee-manager task interdependence, such as those in virtual teams, might not require the same level of calculated maintenance.

Finally, future research would also want to address the idea that relational ambivalence can be strengthened and intensified. It would be important, for example, to identify the stage at which relational ambivalence is no longer tolerable for employees. Though the current research identified higher probabilities for turnover intent associated with relational ambivalence, it would be interesting to pinpoint the moment when employees give up on the relationship (e.g., tolerance threshold) and increase their desire to exit the organisation. Perhaps an investigation that extended beyond the two-week period offered by this thesis would be able to uncover such information. Additionally, the strength of relational ambivalence might serve as an indicator of employee behavioural outcomes. For instance, there might be a direct relationship between employee motives to help the organisation when relational ambivalence is low or to seek revenge on the organisation when relational ambivalence is high.

7.7.2 The dimensionality and method for capturing relational ambivalence

Future work might want to refine the items specifically targeting relational ambivalence. Whether a full-scale validation is necessary for this construct is justifiably debatable; however, it might be worth fine-tuning the dimensions that comprise relational ambivalence. As this thesis demonstrated, employees considered both cognitive and affective components of their relationship with their manager. Therefore, it might be worth investigating whether these separate components impact relational ambivalence altogether, or whether they have unique relationships with other possible outcome variables. For example, it might be that competency-based ambivalence with managers has no relationship with affect-based outcomes (e.g., affect-based trust), or that affect-based ambivalence has no relationship with competency-based outcomes (e.g., cognition-based trust). Whether or not it is possible that employees fully trust their managers regarding their general well-being and remain ambivalent about their manager's ability to appropriately do their job, is a question that future relational ambivalence research should address.

Additionally, the methods used to capture relational ambivalence should be addressed in future research. This thesis demonstrated that it is imperative to assess both favourable and unfavourable aspects of the relationship in order to generate relational ambivalence scores; however, some ambivalence scholars have assessed this construct using Likert scales (e.g., Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). This method is only useful if ambivalence scores are high or low, because the issue regarding the midpoint (i.e., ambivalent about ambivalence?) is confusing. On the other hand, Locke & Braun (2009) suggest that ambivalence formulas (like the one used in this thesis) "presume a dynamic interplay between positive and negative attitudes that people themselves may not actually experience" (p. 103). They recommend using hierarchical linear modelling to test the moderating impact of positive and negative attitudes separately on balanced attitudes. While the most popular formula was used for this thesis, it seems future research should consider whether employees are actually experiencing relational ambivalence. Follow-up interviews and more qualitative data would be one potential method for clarifying this issue.

7.7.3 Other perspectives on relational ambivalence

Finally, future research should consider whether or not managers or co-workers are ambivalent about the relationships they have with employees. For example, it would be interesting to see whether managers are emotionally connected to their employees but ambivalent about their employees' level of job competency. Such ambivalence with employees, might impact employee performance appraisal ratings, employee opportunities for promotion, manager willingness to interdependently work on tasks with employees, or even manager felt support. It would also be interesting to examine the impact of discrepancies in employee-manager ratings of the relationship's quality. For example, what would the implications be for an employee who is ambivalent about the relationship and a manager who thinks the relationship is good? Is the manager naïve, or is the employee neurotic? Accounting for relational ambivalence from the manager's perspective might answer these questions and potentially increase our understanding of the dynamics at play within the employment relationship. Such efforts might add clarity to the theoretical and practical implications for this type of research.

In sum, this thesis has suggested a number of avenues for future research. The suggested themes would help clarify the role of relational ambivalence in employeemanager relationships and expand the framework through which this concept is currently understood.

7.8 Conclusion

This thesis has taken a step forward in advancing the way in which we think about employee-manager relationships in organisations. In doing so, it carried forward a concept already recognised by close-relationship scholars in order to give meaning to employee-manager relationships that were previously difficult to define. Namely, the relational ambivalence construct was developed in order to account for employees who held simultaneous positive and negative attitudes toward their managers. By including this new relationship valuation, the thesis demonstrated that the antecedents and consequences for relational ambivalence were different from the more often researched positive or negative relationship valuations. The second aim of this thesis was to explore how the quality of relationships with managers influenced employee reactions to manager-induced psychological contract violations.

By including relational ambivalence in employee-manager relationship research, this thesis has shed new light on the way in which relationships with managers function. It has contributed to the theoretical understanding of exchange relationships by giving meaning to the midpoint on commonly used relationship quality scales. In doing so, it has explored quantitative differences in the antecedents and outcomes of other relationship types and captured these differences using two separate methodologies. This thesis has demonstrated that relational ambivalence is an uncomfortable state for employees, and that it has detrimental long-term effects on the employee-manager relationship and the organisation. It has theorized that relational ambivalence can be minimized in the short-term, and that managers who recognise this might salvage relationships before the relationship turns negative.

At the same time, this thesis has contributed to the understanding of the role of the manager in psychological contract research. It has pointed out that the manager can be held responsible for violations of the psychological contract, and that the relationship employees have with managers can impact how employees react to these violations. Indeed, positive, negative and ambivalent relationship valuations revealed significantly different employee reactions after employees had experienced a manager-induced

psychological contract violation. By introducing relational ambivalence to this literature, new and exciting paths for employee-organisation relationship scholars have been charted.

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Appendix A The Pilot

| ISF | THE LONDON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND |
|-----|---------------------------------------|
| LJL | POLITICAL SCIENCE |

Informed Consent

Your Answers are Confidential.

No one other than the researchers affiliated with this project will have access to your data.

Under no circumstances will anyone else at the University or your organization have access to your data. Any report prepared for your organization will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a participant or small group of participants. All information from the surveys will be kept securely by the researchers.

This is voluntary.

You may choose not to participate in this study. If you do decide to participate, you are free to drop out of the study at any time. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with your organization or the London School of Economics.

When completing the survey, please give your most honest and candid responses. Some questions on the survey may require you to recall events that may be upsetting or stressful to you.

The survey should take no longer than 10 minutes to complete.

Questions?

If you have any questions about the study and its content, you may contact Kyle Ingram (k.e.ingram@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7067 or Professor Jacqueline Coyle-Shapiro (j.a.coyle-shapiro@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7035.

Completing the Survey implies consent.

Thank you for your help with this important study

Work Related Attitudes Direct Manager – Employee Relationships

SECTION ONE (of TWO) - Basic Information

Before proceeding to the questionnaire, we would like to collect a few details about you (e.g. age, gender, etc). We sincerely appreciate your honest feedback.

Please indicate your gender.

🔵 Male

Female

Please indicate your age.

\$

Please indicate your highest level of education.

\$

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Work Related Attitudes

Direct Manager – Employee Relationships

SECTION TWO - Your Manager

In this section, we would like to understand more about the dynamics involved in the relationship you have with your manager.

Remember, your answers are strictly confidential, so please take your time to answer as honestly and accurately as possible.

Think about the following aspects involved in your relationship with your manager, and rate how positively you regard this aspect.

For example, for the first item, if your communication with your manager has some positive aspects, please rate how positive you think these aspects are.

| | Not at All | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Much |
|------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| communication | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| support | \bigcirc |
| treatment | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| competence | \bigcirc |
| affect (degree of liking) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| inclusion | \bigcirc |
| honesty | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| trust | \bigcirc |
| loyalty | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Think about the following <u>unfavorable</u> aspects involved in your relationship with your manager, and rate how <u>negatively</u> you regard this aspect.

For example, for the first item, if your communication with your manager has some negative aspects, please rate how negative you think these aspects are.

| | Not at All | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Much |
|------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| communication | \bigcirc |
| support | \bigcirc |
| treatment | \bigcirc |
| competence | \bigcirc |
| affect (degree of liking) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| inclusion | \bigcirc |
| honesty | \bigcirc |
| trust | \bigcirc |
| loyalty | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |

How often has your manager intentionally...

| | Never | Once or Twice | About Once a Week | Several Times a Week | Almost Every Day | Every Day |
|--|------------|---------------|----------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|------------|
| hurt your feelings? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| put you down when you questioned work procedures? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| undermined your effort to be successful on the job? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| let you know they did not like you or something about you? | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| talked bad about you behind your back? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| insulted you? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| belittled you or your ideas? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| spread rumors about you? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| made you feel incompetent? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| delayed work to make you look bad or slow you down? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| | Never | Once or Twice | About Once a Week | Several Times a Week | Almost Every Day | Every Day |
| talked down to you? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| gave you the silent treatment? | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| did not defend you when people spoke poorly of you? | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

| ſ |] | | Answe | er choice | | | |
|---|----------------------|------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| Sometimes I feel supported by my manager and sometimes I do not. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I feel ambivalent (conflicted feelings) toward my manager. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I feel both secure and anxious about my relationship with my manager. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| The positive interactions I have with my manager occur as regularly as the negative interactions. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I feel both encouraged and frustrated by my manager's level of competence. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Depending on the situation, my manager might or might not be loyal to me. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| Sometimes I think it would be great to be friends with my manager, while at times, I am glad we are not. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | Strongly | Disagree | Somewhat | Undecided | | Agree | |
| My manager has a "Jekyll and Hyde" personality. | Disagree | \bigcirc | Disagree | 0 | Agree | \bigcirc | Agree |
| My manager is very good with some aspects of his/her job and poor with others. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| My manager's communications with me fluctuate between rude and friendly. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I am torn between liking and disliking my manager. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| With respect to our working relationship, I find myself both attracted to and consciously distant from my manager. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| My manager's interactions with me can be both genuine and fake. | \bigcirc | |
|---|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|--|
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| Please indicate your level of a | gr | eement to | the followir | ng items ab | out your m | anager. | | |
|---|----|----------------------|--------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I usually know where I stand with my manager. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| My manager has enough confidence in me that he/she would defend and justify my decisions if I was not present to do so. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| My working relationship with my manager is effective. | | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| I can count on my manager to "bail me out" even at his/her expense when I really need it. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| My manager recognizes my potential. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| My manager understands my problems and needs. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Regardless of how much power my manager has built into his/her position, he/she would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Not at All 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 How convinced are you of your attitude toward manager? Image: Converting the second | Please answe | Please answer the following questions as accurately as possible. | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------------------|--|--------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----------------|--|--|
| are you of your atitude toward manager? How certain are you of your | | | Not at All 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | Extremely 9 | | |
| you of your | are you of your attitude toward | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | |
| your manager? | you of your feelings toward | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | | |

Appendix B Time 1 / Time 2: Antecedents and Consequences

Distribution between the two identical questionnaires: 6 months



THE LONDON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND POLITICAL SCIENCE

History

Your Answers are Confidential.

No one other than the researchers affiliated with this project will have access to your data.

Under no circumstances will anyone else at the University or your organization have access to your data. Any report prepared for your organization will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a participant or small group of participants. All information from the surveys will be kept securely by the researchers.

This is voluntary.

You may choose not to participate in this study. If you do decide to participate, you are free to drop out of the study at any time. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with your organization or the London School of

When completing the survey, please give your most honest and candid responses. Some questions on the survey may require you to recall events that may be upsetting or stressful to you.

Questions?

If you have any questions about the study and its content, you may contact Kyle Ingram (k.e. ingram@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7067 or Professor Jacqueline Coyle-Shapiro (j.a. coyle-shapiro@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7035.

Completing the Survey implies consent.

Thank you for your help with this important study

Work Related Attitudes Direct Manager – Employee Relationships

Basic Information

Before proceeding to the full questionnaire, we would like to collect a few details about you (e.g. age, gender, etc). We sincerely appreciate your honest feedback.

Remember, your responses will be kept completely confidential. No one other than the researcher will have access to these data.

Please indicate your gender.

MaleFemale

Please indicate your age.

Please indicate your highest level of education.

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| Strong | \bigcirc |
|--------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Conceited | \bigcirc |
| Intelligent | \bigcirc |
| Energetic | \bigcirc |
| Masculine | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Manipulative | \bigcirc |
| Male | \bigcirc |
| Selfish | \bigcirc |

Work Related Attitudes Direct Manager – Employee Relationships

SECTION TWO - About You

In the next section we would like to understand a little about the type of person you are and how you interact with others.

Remember, your answers are strictly confidential, so please take your time to answer as honestly and accurately as possible.

| Please rate the extent to | which | you ag | ree or disa | igree with t | he following | statements | : | |
|---|-------|----------------|-------------|----------------------|--------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| | | ongly agree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I am confident I get the success I deserve in life. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Sometimes I feel depressed. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| When I try, I generally succeed. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc |
| Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I complete tasks successfully. | - | 0 | \bigcirc | \circ | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Overall, I am satisfied with myself. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I am filled with doubts about my abilities. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| | | ongly agree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I determine what will happen in my life. | | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I do not feel in control of my success in my career. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| I am capable of coping with most of my problems | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Please rate the extent to | w | hich you ag | ree or disag | gree with the | e following : | statements: | | |
|---|---|----------------------|--------------|----------------------|---------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I find others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Sometimes people do not want to get close to me because I want too much to be close to them. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others do not value me as much as I value them. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I often want to get closer to others than they want to get to me. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| My desire to merge (get close) sometimes scares people away. | | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| People are never there when you need them. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I know that others will be there when I need them. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I find it difficult to trust others completely. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc |
| I am nervous when anyone gets too close. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I want emotionally close relationships but I find it difficult to trust others completely. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I do not often worry about someone getting too close to me. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I do not often worry about other people letting me down. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I find it relatively easy to get close to others. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

Work Related Attitudes Direct Manager – Employee Relationships

SECTION THREE - Your Manager

In this section, we would like to understand more about the dynamics involved in the relationship you have with your manager, \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}.

Remember, your answers are strictly confidential, so please take your time to answer as honestly and accurately as possible.

Think about the following aspects involved in your relationship with $q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}, and rate how positive$ itively you regard this aspect.

For example, for the first item, if your communication with q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices has some positive aspects, please rate how positive you think these aspects are.

| | Not at All | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Much |
|------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| communication | \bigcirc |
| support | \bigcirc |
| treatment | \bigcirc |
| competence | \bigcirc |
| affect (degree of liking) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| inclusion | \bigcirc |
| honesty | \bigcirc |
| trust | \bigcirc |
| loyalty | \bigcirc |

Think about the following <u>unfavorable</u> aspects involved in your relationship with q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices, and rate how <u>negatively</u> you regard this aspect.

For example, for the first item, if your communication with $q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} has some negative aspects, please rate how negative you think these aspects are.$

| | Not at All | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Very Much |
|------------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| communication | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc |
| support | \bigcirc |
| treatment | \bigcirc |
| competence | \bigcirc |
| affect (degree of liking) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| inclusion | \bigcirc |
| honesty | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | Θ |
| trust | \bigcirc |
| loyalty | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| | | | | | | | |

| | Not at All | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Extremely 10 |
|---------------|---------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------------|
| Understanding | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Dynamic | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Educated | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Knowledgeable | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Pushy | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Selfish | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Helpful | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Strong | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Energetic | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Intelligent | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Manipulative | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

| Conceited | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
|--------------|---|---------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------------|
| | | Not at All | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | Extremely 10 |
| Hard-working | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Motivated | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Dedicated | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Domineering | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Male | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Clever | - | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sincere | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Masculine | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| Loud | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

| Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding the relationship you have with \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|----------------------|------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree | | | | | |
| We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | |
| I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work and know that (s)he will want to listen | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | | | | | |
| We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | |
| If I shared my problems with this person, I know (s)he would respond constructively and caringly. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | | | | | |
| I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | |
| This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication. | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | | | | | |
| Given this person's track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | |
| I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | | | | | |
| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree | | | | | |
| Most people, even those who aren't close friends of this individual, trust and respect him/her as a coworker. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | |
| Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider him/her to be trustworthy | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | |
| If people knew more about this individual and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor his/her performance more clocely | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | |

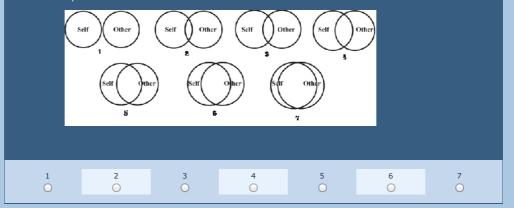
Please indicate your level of agreement to the following items about your manager, \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}

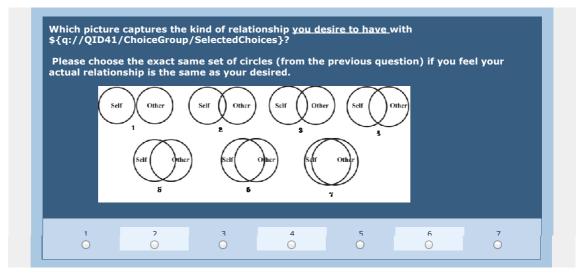
| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|--|----------------------|------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| I usually know where I stand with \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} has enough confidence in me that he/she would defend and justify my decisions if I was not present to do so. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| My working relationship with \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} is effective. | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \circ | \bigcirc | 0 |
| I can count on \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} to "bail me out" even at his/her expense when I really need it. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} recognizes my potential. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| understands my problems and needs. Regardless of how much power \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} has built into his/her position, he/she would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Please rate the extent to which you ag | gre | ee or disa | gree with | the follow | ing statem | ents: | | |
|--|-----|----------------------|------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| When someone criticizes \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}, it feels like a personal insult. | | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| When I talk about \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they.' | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| <pre>\${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}'s successes are my successes.</pre> | | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| When someone praises \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}, it feels like a personal compliment. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I feel a sense of 'ownership' for \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}. | | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

Please indicate which picture below best represents the relationship you have with $q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices} at this moment.$

The more closely you feel you relate to \${q://QID41/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}, the more the circles should overlap.





Work Related Attitudes Direct Manager – Employee Relationships

SECTION FOUR - Your Organization

In this section, we would like to ask you about your attitudes as they relate to your job and Bank of Montreal (BMO) as a whole. Remember, <u>your answers are strictly confidential</u>, so please take your time to answer as honestly and accurately as possible.

| Please respond to the foll | ٥v | ving items regar | ding your job: | | | |
|--|----|------------------|----------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| | | Very Little | Rather Little | Somewhat | Rather Much | Very Much |
| If you look at your job as a whole: how many decisions does it allow you to make? | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Can you determine how you do your work? | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Can you plan and arrange your work on your own (e.g. calculate material/tools you need)? | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| How much can you participate in decisions of your superior (e.g. the superior asks you for your opinion and asks for suggestions)? | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|----------------------|------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in the next year. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I often think about quitting. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave BMO. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| There's not too much to be gained by sticking with BMO indefinitely. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |



Thank you for your participation. Please feel free to email me with any questions or comments you may have. Kyle Ingram <u>k.e.ingram@lse.ac.uk</u>

Appendix C Example Manager Performance Report

Default Question Block

Your Answers are Confidential.

No one other than the researchers affiliated with this project will have access to your data.

Under no circumstances will anyone else at the University or your organization have access to your data. Any report prepared for your organization will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a participant or small group of participants. All information from the surveys will be kept securely by the researchers.

This is voluntary.

You may choose not to participate in this study. If you do decide to participate, you are free to drop out of the study at any time. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with your organization or the London School of Economics.

When completing the survey, please give your most honest and candid responses. Some questions on the survey may require you to recall events that may be upsetting or stressful to you.

Questions?

If you have any questions about the study and its content, you may contact Kyle Ingram (k.e.ingram@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7067 or Professor Jacqueline Coyle-Shapiro (j.a.coyle-shapiro@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7035.

Completing the Survey implies consent.

Thank you for your help with this important study

Work Related Attitudes Direct Manager – Employee Relationships

The Manager's Perspective

We would like you to think about and rate each of your direct reports with respect to the following items.

Each section will begin by indicating the employee's name, and then the items will follow.

Your responses will be held in strict confidence, and will not be shared with anyone other than the researcher.

The Following Items are Specifically about:

Spencer Bibby

The Following Items are Specifically about:

Spencer Bibby

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|----------------------|------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| Sometimes I feel supported by this employee and sometimes I do not. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I feel both secure and anxious about my relationship with this employee. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc |
| With respect to our working | | | | | | | |

| both attracted to and consciously distant from this employee. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
|---|----------------------|------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| I am torn between liking and disliking this employee. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| This employee's communications with me fluctuate between rude and friendly. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc |
| I feel both encouraged and frustrated by this employee's level of competence. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| This employee is very good with some aspects of his/her job and poor with others. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| | | | | | | | |
| The positive interactions I have with this employee occur as regularly as the negative interactions. | 0 | \circ | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \circ |
| have with this employee occur as regularly as the | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | O Somewhat Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | O Somewhat Agree | Agree | O Strongly Agree |
| have with this employee occur as regularly as the | Strongly | 0 | Somewhat | Neither Agree nor | Somewhat | O Agree | |
| have with this employee occur as regularly as the negative interactions. Sometimes I think it would be great to be friends with this employee while at | Strongly | 0 | Somewhat Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Somewhat | Agree | |

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|----------------------|------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| Helps others who have been absent. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Helps others who have heavy work loads. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Assists me with my work (when not asked). | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Attendance at work is above the norm. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Gives advance notice when unable to come to work. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Takes undeserved work breaks. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Adequately completes assigned duties. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Peforms tasks that are expected of him/her. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding the relationship you have with this employee.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|----------------------|----------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work and know that (s)he will want to listen | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| If I shared my problems with this person, I know (s)he would respond constructively and caringly. | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |

Once again, thank you for taking the time to help us with this important study. We understand, as a manager at this bank, your time is a limited resource, so please accept our sincere appreciation for your participation.

Kind Regards,

Kyle Ingram k.e.ingram@lse.ac.uk Appendix D Daily Diary Questionnaire



THE LONDON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND POLITICAL SCIENCE

Diary

Your Answers are Confidential.

No one other than the researchers affiliated with this project will have access to your data.

Under no circumstances will anyone else at the University or your organization have access to your data. Any report prepared for your organization will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a participant or small group of participants. All information from the surveys will be kept securely by the researchers.

This is voluntary.

You may choose not to participate in this study. If you do decide to participate, you are free to drop out of the study at any time. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with your organization or the London School of Economics.

When completing the survey, please give your most honest and candid responses. Some questions on the survey may require you to recall events that may be upsetting or stressful to you.

Questions?

If you have any questions about the study and its content, you may contact Kyle Ingram (k.e.ingram@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7067 or Professor Jacqueline Coyle-Shapiro (j.a.coyleshapiro@lse.ac.uk) at +44 (0)20 7955 7035.

Completing the Survey implies consent.

Thank you for your help with this important study

Work Related Attitudes Manager – Employee Relationships

Introduction to the Daily Diary

First, thank you for volunteering to participate in this diary study. Before initiating the daily assessment (in just a few moments), we would like to ask you to respond to a few preliminary items that we believe might relate to the ways in which relationships with managers develop, maintain and evolve.

Please answer these questions as honestly as possible.

| | | ch you ugi | | | | statements: | | |
|---|---|----------------------|------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|
| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I am confident I get the success I deserve in life. | | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| Sometimes I feel depressed. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| When I try, I generally succeed. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| T annual sha haalla ayaa af ulu | _ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I complete tasks successfully. | _ | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Overall, I am satisfied with myself. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I am filled with doubts about my abilities. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Undecided | Somewhat Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I determine what will happen in my life. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| I do not feel in control of my success in my career. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I am capable of coping with most of my problems | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Work Related Attitudes Manager – Employee Relationships

anager Employee Relationshipe

DAILY DIARY STUDY

- DAY ONE -

Please answer the following questions as honestly and accurately as possible.

As you reflect on the events and interactions you've had with your managers **today**, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements:

| | Disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree | |
|---|----------|------------|-------------------------------|-------|----------------|--|
| I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| So far my manager has done an excellent job of fulfilling his/her promises to me. | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| My manager has broken many of his/her promises to me even though I have upheld my side of the deal. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | | | | | | |
| All of the promises made by my manger during recruitment have been kept thus far. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| I feel that my manager has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired. | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | |

PSYCH CONTRACT BREACH

Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Today:

| <u>100ay</u> . | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|------------|-------------------------------|------------|----------------|
| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my manager. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I feel betrayed by my manager. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I feel a great deal of anger toward my manager. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I feel that my manager has violated the contract between us. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

<u>**Today**</u>, the overall quality of my relationship with my manager was:

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|-------------------|----------------------|------------|-------------------------------|------------|----------------|
| good | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| bad | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| both good and bad | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |

PC VIOLATION RELATIONSHIP QUALITY

How accurately do the following statements describe your reaction to your manager's failure to meet your expectations <u>today</u>?

| If your manager did not fail to meet your expectations today, please select 'does not apply' from the last column. | | | | | | | |
|--|--|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | | Not at all Accurate | Slightly Accurate | Somewhat Accurate | Accurate | Very Accurate | Does not apply |
| Put less effort in than I should have. | | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I did something to make them get what they deserves. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I let go of the resentment I felt toward them. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| I gave them back a new start, a renewed relationship. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I made an effort to be more friendly and concerned. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I let go of the negative feelings I had against them. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I tried to hurt them. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I got even with them. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| I let go of my hurt and pain. | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| I tried to make amends. | | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| | | Not at all Accurate | Slightly Accurate | Somewhat Accurate | Accurate | Very Accurate | Does not apply |
| Carried on as normal and did not react to my manager's behavior. | | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

| I forgave my manager. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
|--|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Ignored my manager and avoided him/her for the rest of the day | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 |
| Gossiped about my manager. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 |
| Approached my manager to discuss what had happened, to try to reach a compromise or a better solution. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

The following items do not necessarily pertain to your manager.

Please indicate the extent to which you engaged in the following behaviors **today**:

| | Never | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | A great deal |
|--|------------|------------|------------|------------|--------------|
| Today I helped others who have been absent. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Today I willingly gave my time to help others who have work-related problems. | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Today I showed genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Today I assisted others with their duties. | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Today I kept up with developments in BMO. | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 |
| Today I expressed loyalty (verbally or non verbally) toward BMO. | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| Today I took action to protect BMO from potential problems. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

OCB's

| | Very slightly or not at all | A little | Moderately | Quite a bit | Extremely |
|-----------|--------------------------------|------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| xious | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| termined | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| wnhearted | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| ert | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| gry | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc |
| stile | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| rvous | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc |
| entive | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| m | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| ease | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |
| t | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc |
| essed | \bigcirc | \bigcirc | 0 | \bigcirc | \bigcirc |

Thank you for completing your diary entry for today. Please feel free to email me with any questions you may have throughout this process. Kyle Ingram <u>k.e.ingram@lse.ac.uk</u>

Days 2-10 started with the following items, which measured intrusive thoughts

| Ple | | DIARY STUD AY TWO - ng questions as hone | | | |
|---|---------------------------|--|-----------------------|---|---|
| The following statements reft hroughout today. <u>Please che</u> <u>ast 24 hours</u> . If they did not | eck each item, indicating | g how frequently the | se comments were true | sterday evening or for you during the Often | |
| i thought about my nanager's behavior when i didn't mean to. | | | O | O | 1 |
| i had trouble falling asleep or staying asleep, because of pictures or choughts about my nanager's behavior that came to mind. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| had waves of strong eelings about my manager's behavior. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| i had dreams about my manager's behavior. | 0 | \bigcirc | 0 | 0 | |
| Pictures about my manager's behavior popped into my head. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| Other things kept making | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| ne think about my nanager's behavior. | | | | | |

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Appendix E Research Executive Summary



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The Department of Management Employment Relations and Organizational Behaviour Group

Proposal for Research on Manager Relationship Quality: Antecedents and Consequences

Prepared for: The Bank (Name Replaced for Privacy)

Prepared by: Kyle Ingram, PhD Candidate and Professor Jacqueline Coyle-Shapiro London School of Economics and Social Science Houghton Street London WC2A 2AE England

Executive Summary and Project Objectives:

Thank you for the opportunity to present this bank with a proposal to conduct research on supervisor relationship quality. The research team and the London School of Economics (LSE) are grateful for your time and consideration. The objectives of the proposed study are to identify ways that your bank can improve the quality of the relationship managers have with their subordinates and to understand how subordinates respond when supervisors fail to meet subordinate expectations. Substantial research exists on the relationships employees have with their organization, however this research has had limited success in identifying key organisational agents responsible for such construction. The proposed research focuses on identifying factors that contribute to enhancing the quality of the relationship subordinates have with their manager, and further, how relationship quality contributes to key interpersonal and organisational outcomes.

Specifically, the research will aim to:

- Develop a comprehensive understanding of the bank's workers through the relationships they have with their managers.
- Examine changes in the quality of employee-manager relationships over time
- Assess worker preferences for congruencies between themselves and their managers with respect to values, identity and belongingness.
- Assess worker individual differences relevant to relationship construction.
- Examine the extent to which the employee-manager relationship has an impact on organisational outcomes
- Examine the ways in which employees respond to instances whereby managers break the promises they have with their subordinates (inadvertently or not).
- Develop actionable recommendations for maintaining or restoring manager relationship quality when difficulties arise.

The following document is a proposed research plan; however the plan is flexible in nature. The researchers plan to work closely with the bank to ensure that it is adapted to maximize the benefit of the research to the organisation. For additional background on manager relationship quality and reactions to broken promises, please refer to Appendices 1, 2, & 3 and for a list of proposed hypotheses, please refer to Appendix 4.

Benefits to the bank:

We greatly appreciate the potential opportunity to conduct our research with an organisation as strong and diverse as your bank. We hope to bring as many benefits to the organisation as we can from the research and will work closely with the bank stakeholders to make sure that any information we can provide will set in motion actionable agendas for improving the quality of the relationship workers have with their supervisors.

Effective management of issues related to supervisor relationship quality can have multiple benefits to organisations including:

Talent Retention:

The primary benefit to developing successful relationships at work is talent retention. By identifying practices that allow employees to benefit from understanding the role and relationship they have with their supervisor, the research can help your bank identify ways that they can retain talented professionals, even when organisations cannot always fulfil their employee expectations.

Firm Value:

In addition, your bank's participation in the research can help to demonstrate the company's commitment to relationship quality issues. This can have an impact on both internal and external stakeholders.

Worker Satisfaction and Productivity:

Research suggests that individuals who experience higher quality relationships with their supervisors experience higher job satisfaction, feel more supported by their organisation, and can be more productive workers. In addition, recent literature on supervisor relationship quality identifies important consequences for organisations (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). These include:

- Job Performance
- Job Satisfaction
- Organisational Commitment
- Role Clarity
- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Methodology:

The proposed research will include two types of research methods:

Quantitative Surveys:

The first two stages in the data collection process will involve a quantitative survey. This will be conducted online so that the response will be high since employees can flexibly participate.

Ideally, we would like to collect information upon at least 2-3 points in time. This enables the researchers to understand what contributes to or detracts from the quality of the relationship supervisors have with their employees. It also permits benchmarking and monitoring of changes over time and by implication an evaluation of any intervention that is conducted in the intervening time periods. Importantly, we understand that the research participants are busy individuals who will only be able to allot a limited amount of time to this research effort. In the development of the survey instrument, I have balanced the research needs with realistic expectations regarding the time participants will have available to respond to the survey.

In addition to questions that are specific to your bank's initiatives, we propose that primarily pre-existing scales be used to measure the core theoretical constructs for this research assignment. These measures have been validated by prior research which means that these findings will be viewed as more reliable. These constructs and measures are as follows:

Manager Relationship Valuation:

In order to measure the quality of the relationship employees have with their manager, I have created a scale that mimics other research exploring ambivalent attitudes. This practice is common in organisational research. The measure enables us to assess both the positive and negative experiences subordinates have with their managers. Such ambivalent attitudes have never been explored with work relationships despite the fact that many relationships are perceived in this way. Further, this concept will demonstrate the important linkage between manager relationship quality and organisational and interpersonal outcomes.

We believe there are three primary factors that influence supervisor relationship quality. Detailed below, these are the historical perspective, the individual perspective, and the socio cognitive perspective.

Historical perspective:

The historical component accounts for the employee's original attitude formation and focuses on how the individual comes to understand the employment relationship. The questions we recommend for this construct will include measures of exchange related patterns.

Individual perspective:

The final component will identify specific individual differences which are hypothesized to influence how subordinates evaluate the relationships they have with their manager. Research in this area indicates that certain individual characteristics influence the extent to which we are satisfied in the relationships we have. We recommend examining adult attachment style functioning, here.

Social cognitive perspective:

In order to account for the context, we recommend the assessment of identity needs. Here, congruencies between an individual's identity and their manager's identity are thought to enhance perceptions of manager relationship quality.

Confidentiality:

We strongly recommend that research participants be promised anonymity and confidentiality. This is essential to eliminate response bias among those respondents who may fear that their research participation will somehow impact their employment. Particularly with a topic as personal and sensitive as relationship quality, respondents must be insured against any negative consequence related to their participation. Quantitative results will be reported in aggregate and it will not be possible to identify respondents' responses.

Sampling:

The development of a sampling plan will be an important task in this research initiative. The researchers will work closely with the bank in the development of this plan, with consideration given to issues including representativeness, sample size, likelihood of response, bias and accessibility. Importantly, the research hopes to achieve a sample that is large enough and representative enough that the research results can be useful to the organisation as a whole.

Results and Reporting:

The results of the research will be provided to the bank in 3 stages. First, as each phase of data collection is completed (i.e., 2-3 distributions of the quantitative survey and diary study) the analysis of the data will be presented to BMO in order to allow for an opportunity to make modifications to the next phase of the research project. As the completion of all phases of the research a full report will be provided to the organisation. In addition, the researchers will provide presentations and consultation regarding the research results to individuals, departments or divisions as desired.

The analysis of the data will include a variety of techniques based primarily on the method of data collection. The quantitative data from both two studies will be analyzed using a range of statistical techniques, but will be based on hierarchical linear modelling in order to attempt to substantiate the theoretical construct introduced by this research. An outline of these models can be found in Appendices 2 and 3.

The research team will provide the bank with more precise details on the analytical methods to be used once the data collection instruments are finalized.

Conclusion:

We greatly appreciate the opportunity to conduct research at your bank. We believe that the research can provide the organisation with substantial benefit as well as make

a significant contribution to the literature on this important issue. For any questions related to this proposal, please feel free to contact Kyle Ingram at <u>K.E.Ingram@lse.ac.uk</u> or +44 779 1234 019.

Appendix 1: Background on Supervisor Relationship Quality

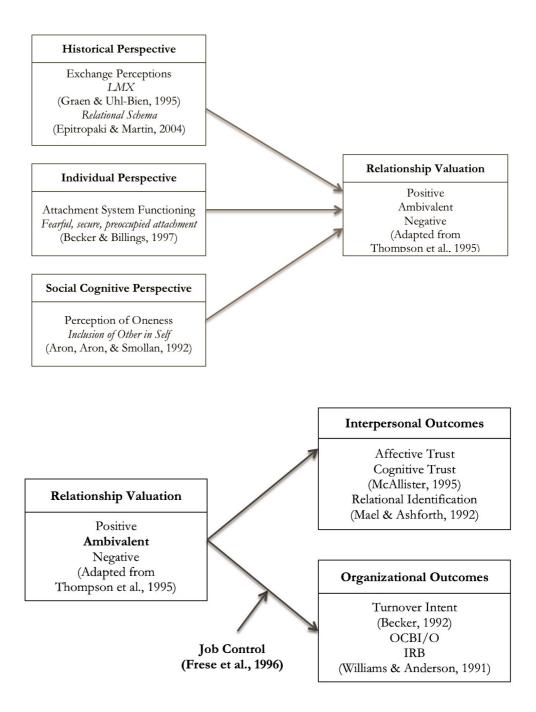
Rather than traditional approaches that focus on supervisor favouritism based on ingroup and out-group preferences, a focus on supervisor relationship quality as an attitude allows us to embrace the multiple cognitive perspectives and experiences employees encounter with their supervisors on a daily basis. Further, it does not rest on the assumption that employees must encounter trust, mutual respect, and commitment in order to classify their employment relationship as positive. Theories of attitudes are based on the idea that multiple interactions with others add value and clarity to the way in which we feel toward that individual. In essence, attitudes are an outward display of emotions, so understanding employee attitudes toward supervisors can generate any number of benefits. Such benefits can be direct, in the sense that an individual transfers attitude into working behaviour (e.g. creativity, in-role performance), or they can be affective in nature in the sense that attitude creates a mood or enhances trust.

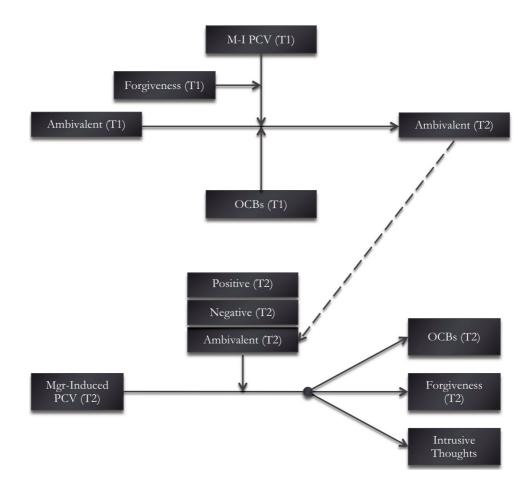
Importantly, supervisor relationship quality outcomes can be bi-directional, or, in other words, can lead to benefits both at the organisational and interpersonal level. For example, perceptions of interpersonal closeness with one's supervisor signals to an employee that he/she is respected and valued by the organisation (Tyler & Lind, 1999) which creates a strong inclination to contribute back. On the contrary, supervisors who neglect or even abuse the relationship they have with their subordinates has been shown to lead to higher risks for stress (Biron, Brun & Ivers, 2008) and can lead to certain retaliatory behaviours (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Therefore we propose that the research look at both organisational and interpersonal outcomes that employees might demonstrate as a result of their attitude. In doing so, we enable a more comprehensive picture of the dynamics involved.

Closely tied to relationship quality research are ideas related to instances when supervisors fail to meet employee expectations. While for some this may have detrimental effects, there is reason to believe that certain affective and cognitive factors may influence how employees respond in such situations. We suggest that although employees may initially react negatively to such instances (e.g. become upset or angry), most will concentrate on the relationship's history and other relational needs in deciding how to initiate future interactions. Close relationship literature indicates that, due to their reliance on the other for specific outcomes, the more dependent individual is required to employ such sense making efforts before reacting (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003). We believe the same will be true for employees who are subordinates within these relationships.

In this research, we will attempt to link the idea of manager relationship quality between its development and maintenance under negative conditions. Specifically the research will define supervisor relationship quality using the constructs outlined in Appendix 2

Appendix 2: Research Models Exploring Antecedents and Consequences of Relationship Valuation





| | Appendix 4: Selected Research Hypotheses |
|--------------|--|
| Hypothesis 1 | There will be a curvilinear relationship between the quality of exchange relationships and ambivalence |
| Hypothesis 2 | Adult attachment style functioning will influence employee ratings of relationship quality with managers |
| Hypothesis 3 | Employee perceptions of interpersonal interconnectedness between themselves and their manager will influence their attitude toward the relationship they have with their manager |
| Hypothesis 4 | Ambivalence will be negatively related to interpersonal outcomes such as trust and relational identification |
| Hypothesis 5 | The long-term impact of ambivalence will be detrimental to the organisation. |
| Hypothesis 6 | Ambivalence is malleable and a short-term phenomenon. |
| Hypothesis 7 | Ambivalence will negatively impact employee coping mechanisms. |
| Hypothesis 8 | Ambivalent individuals maintain a sense of hope. |
| Hypothesis 9 | The affective element of Supervisor relationship quality (SRQ) will influence the way in which employees respond to instances where supervisors fail to meet their expectations. |

Appendix 5: References

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Appendix F Participant Letter



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The Department of Management Employment Relations and Organisational Behaviour Group

Dear Participant,

I am Kyle Ingram, a Ph.D. candidate in Employment Relations and Organisational Behaviour at the London School of Economics and Political Science, and I am conducting a research project that explores leader-subordinate relationships in organisations. The research is designed to help participating companies, but at the same time advance knowledge in the field of organisational behaviour. This research is not for consulting purposes, and students and faculty do not receive additional compensation for conducting this research.

Professor Jacqueline Coyle-Shapiro is collaborating with me on this project. We are asking you to complete a survey that asks questions about yourself, your immediate manager, and your employing organisation. Whilst participation is completely voluntary, you should know that the information you provide will be held in strict confidence and no one at your organisation will ever see your completed individual responses. Information obtained from this survey will absolutely NOT be included in any personnel files or have any impact on your job. Your answers are completely confidential. Completion of the questionnaire should take about 30-40 minutes on average.

The purpose of our research is to conduct an analysis of leader-subordinate relationships and the manner in which historical, individual, and situational differences impact its quality. Knowledge gained through this study can be used to provide empirical evidence of the benefits of these relationships and offer a framework for understanding effective leadership and teamwork. The aggregated results of the analysis of the data collection will be shared with your organisation so that it can also benefit from this research. So, although there will be no direct benefits to you for participating in the research, potential, indirect benefits include helping your organisation to understand its leadership capabilities – especially in responding to your needs. Should any academic publications result from this research, neither your organisation nor any of its employees will be identified.

Our university is committed to ensuring that all research conducted by its students and faculty meets the highest ethical standard. By completing this on-line survey, you are agreeing to participate in this research.

Your participation is vital to the success of our project and we look forward to working with you.

Sincerely, Kyle Ingram Doctoral Candidate | London School of Economics | <u>k.e.ingram@lse.ac.uk</u> Appendix G Reminder Letter (Study 1)



Dear Research Participant,

We are approaching the end of the first phase of my study with your department. As Mr. VP mentioned in an email earlier this week, the significance and interpretability of this study will largely be impacted by the number of individuals who complete the questionnaire. I am excited to report that we have collected 99 responses so far; however, it is important, for a multitude of reasons, to exceed 100. Therefore, before many of you leave on holiday next week, Mr. VP and I have decided to extend the questionnaire deadline until the end of the working day on Wednesday (June 30), so we can more plausibly reach this goal.

As a reminder, **you may pick up where you left off** if you have already started responding to the items. Several individuals are halfway (or more) through the questionnaire, so it would be really great to have your responses recorded. I sincerely appreciate your participation and look forward to exploring and sharing the results.

Yours,

Kyle Ingram

Follow this link to the Survey: \${I://SurveyLink?d=Take the Survey}

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser: \${I://SurveyURL}

Follow this link to opt out of future emails: \${I://OptOutLink}