

Spring 2024

Building Trust Through Allyship: Moderating Roles of Motivation and Perspective

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**BUILDING TRUST THROUGH ALLYSHIP: MODERATING ROLES OF
MOTIVATION AND PERSPECTIVE**

by

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B.S. May 2021, Southern Utah University

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of
Old Dominion University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

PSYCHOLOGY

OLD DOMINION UNIVERSITY
May 2024

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ABSTRACT

BUILDING TRUST THROUGH ALLYSHIP: MODERATING ROLES OF MOTIVATION AND PERSPECTIVE

John M. Savage
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Previous research has indicated demographic differences between employees may influence relational development. To address this concern the current study examined the interpersonal influence that racial allyship has on trustworthiness. The first hypothesis was formed using social exchange theory to predict that allyship behaviors would increase perceptions of trustworthiness. Additionally, relational signaling theory was integrated to inform the second hypothesis, which predicted that self-interest motivations would attenuate the relationship between allyship and trustworthiness. To account for differences in perspective the third hypothesis predicted that race would moderate the conditional effect of self-interest motivation. Employees were recruited online to complete a questionnaire containing measures of the associated constructs. A final sample of 289 was analyzed in R via regression analysis. The findings support the positive impact allyship can have on trustworthiness. Specifically, allyship behaviors appear to positively influence the perceived trustworthiness of workplace allies. Although self-interest motivations are theoretically important to interpreting allyship behaviors, no support was found. Additionally, race was not found to have a conditional influence on self-interest motivation's moderating effect. Allyship behaviors likely provide valuable support to Black employees although aspects of the current research design limited the ability to make more meaningful inferences

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	v
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
INTRODUCTION	1
REVIEW AND THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT	6
INTERPERSONAL TRUST	6
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY	7
ALLYSHIP AS EXCHANGE BEHAVIORS	10
MOTIVATIONAL BOUNDARY CONDITION TO SET AND ALLYSHIP	16
TARGET PERCEPTIONS	21
RESEARCH QUESTION.....	24
METHOD	26
PARTICIPANTS	26
EXCLUSION CRITERIA	27
PROCEDURES.....	30
MEASURES	30
ANALYSIS.....	34
RESULTS	41
HYPOTHESIS TESTING	41
EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS	43
DISCUSSION	45
THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS.....	46
PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS	48
LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS.....	50
CONCLUSION.....	55
REFERENCES	56
APPENDIX A: POWER ANALYSIS.....	75
APPENDIX B: MEASURES.....	77

VITA.....	83
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LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations.....	29
2. Regression Results Using Trustworthiness as Criterion.....	42

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Allyship's Positive Influence on Perceived Trustworthiness.....	15
2. Self-interest Motivation's Moderating Effect.....	20
3. Race's Conditional Effect on the Moderator of Self-interest Motivation.....	23
4. Model of Exploratory Research Question.....	25
5. Examination of Linearity and Homoscedasticity via LOES Line and Plot of Standardized Residuals with Fitted Values.....	37
6. Examination of Normality via Q-Q Plot.....	40

INTRODUCTION

The formation and cultivation of trust play a critical role in healthy interpersonal relationships (Ball et al., 2009; Dirks & de Jong, 2022; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Hassan et al., 2012; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Schneider et al., 2011). The value of interpersonal trust has been highlighted by researchers in medicine (e.g., Chandra et al., 2018), sociology (e.g., Rempel et al., 1985), relational science (e.g., Schneider et al., 2011), and organizational behavior (Lewicki et al., 2006). Given the numerous relationship dynamics within organizations (e.g., leader-member, coworker-coworker), researchers have developed detailed models to test and highlight the value of trust (Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995.; Six, 2007). Unsurprisingly, effective working relationships, regardless of their type, necessitate the presence of trust (Colquitt et al., 2007; Ferris et al., 2009; Lind, 2001; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Trust in organizational leadership and fellow employees promotes task performance, citizenship behaviors, and risk-taking behaviors while significantly reducing counterproductive work behaviors (Colquitt et al., 2007).

To develop trust in another person or organization, one must first perceive that person or organization as trustworthy. Trustworthiness is the most proximal predictor of trust, and this relationship has been theoretically (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995) and empirically established (Colquitt et al., 2007). Perceptions of trustworthiness are largely driven by the exhibiting behaviors (Mayer et al., 1995; Levin et al., 2006). When the behaviors exhibited are positive, the behaviors are perceived as trustworthy and thus increase perceptions of trustworthiness. As important as trustworthiness may be, existing barriers can prevent perceptions of trustworthiness.

Trustworthiness can be difficult to increase as a multitude of factors must be considered. Understanding how and why trustworthiness develops among individuals provides insight into

employee relationships. Previous research has identified trustworthiness between organizational members can be largely dependent on one's ability to communicate openly (e.g., Korsgaard et al., 2002). Relatedly, providing employees with social support and displaying helping behaviors can further promote trustworthiness (de Jong et al., 2007; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015; Young & Perrewé, 2000). As the modern workforce changes, however, additional factors may interfere with the development of trustworthiness. Analyses of national organizational composition have indicated an increasingly heterogeneous workforce (e.g., Barak & Travis, 2013), and importantly, demographic differences have been found to undermine perceptions of trustworthiness (Williams, 2016). Additionally, demographic similarity has been found to strongly relate to perceptions of trustworthiness early in relationships (Levin et al., 2006) and cultural ethnicity has also been identified as affecting perceptions of trustworthiness in organizational settings (Jiang et al., 2011). Organizations, however, have made broad attempts to improve employee relations among a diverse workforce by implementing diversity initiatives.

An array of organizational diversity initiatives - identified as practices focused on improving experiences and outcomes for historically disadvantaged groups - have been implemented by many organizations (Bartels et al., 2013; Kwoh, 2012). Broadly, these initiatives seek to increase representation, promote inclusion, and bridge identifiable career gaps (Leslie, 2019). Despite promising commitments from government initiatives (e.g., the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission) and billions of dollars spent by private organizations (e.g., Jayne & Dipoye, 2004), these initiatives have been less productive than previously anticipated (Bezrukoua et al., 2016; Leslie, 2019). Recommendations for improving outcomes include pairing current initiatives (e.g., diversity training) with other diversity initiatives increasing awareness and promoting skill development (Bezrukova et al., 2016). The emerging

concept of allyship may yet address these needs as it entails not only the awareness of privilege but also knowing how to leverage that privilege for the benefit of disadvantaged group members (Erskine & Bilimoria, 2019).

Racial allyship has been identified as a potential mechanism for organizations to promote inclusion (Salter & Migliaccio, 2019). Allyship broadly entails learning about the experiences of disadvantaged groups, understanding the systems that reproduce inequities, and actively working to support disadvantaged group members to address the present inequities (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a; Wilson et al., 2021). Recent literature highlights the positive impact ally-related behaviors can have on marginalized employees' well-being (e.g., Perales, 2022) as well as organizational identity-safety, belonging, and organizational trust (e.g., Johnson & Pietri, 2022). Importantly, racial minorities value genuine allyship behaviors that are perceived as selfless compared to behaviors derived from self-serving motives (Chaney et al., 2023). Self-interest motivations are associated with ineffective forms of allyship (Collier-Spruel & Ryan, 2022). Recent literature has also positioned trustworthiness as important within the context of allyship (Chaney et al., 2023; Park et al., 2022), yet empirical work on trustworthiness and allyship remains scarce. Given the importance of trust for organizations and work relationships, investigating the role allyship plays in promoting trustworthiness is of central importance.

This paper investigates the impact of allyship on perceived trustworthiness and makes three primary contributions. First, allyship is integrated into broader theoretical frameworks by utilizing the most empirically validated conceptualization of trustworthiness (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & de Jong, 2022) to address an identifiable gap in the allyship literature. Specifically, researchers have increasingly identified trustworthiness as relevant or related to allyship (e.g., Chaney et al., 2023; Park et al., 2022), but a dearth of empirical evidence on the

link between allyship actions and perceived trustworthiness is noteworthy. The nascent nature of allyship research limits available inferences about interpersonal impact, but fortunately, trust research is ripe with theoretically sound and empirically tested models. Among perspectives within the trust literature, social exchange theory has taken hold as a broad perspective to explain increasing perceptions of trustworthiness (Dirks & de Jong, 2022). The current thesis integrates mechanisms of social exchange and allyship that increase perceptions of trustworthiness. Additionally, relational signaling theory is incorporated as a complementary perspective that provides valuable insight into ally motives. The synthesis of both theoretical frameworks provides a novel understanding of the mechanisms of allyship and its impact on perceived trustworthiness.

Second, this paper answers a recent call by Dirks and de Jong (2022) to broaden the examination of trust referents by including coworkers and associated boundary conditions. The influence leaders possess within interpersonal work relationships is widely recognized (e.g., Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994; van Dierendonck, 2011) while far less work has highlighted the value of coworker relationships (e.g., Basford & Offermann, 2012; Lau & Liden, 2008). Although organizational leaders possess formal authority, coworkers can also provide critical support (e.g., Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008) and advocacy (e.g., Kim et al., 2017) for fellow employees. The enactment of allyship serves as an example of what coworkers can do to support one another. The perceived motivation to enact allyship, however, likely constitutes a relevant boundary. Therefore, this thesis answers the call to study factors that contribute to perceived coworker trustworthiness by examining the impact and boundary condition of allyship (Dirks & de Jong, 2022).

Lastly, by integrating allyship into broader theory and expanding referents of trust, this thesis elevates the perspective of racial minorities. Organizational researchers (e.g., Dirks & de Jong, 2022) have called for greater attention in understanding the impact social challenges may have on trustworthiness. Allyship provides an avenue to explore how coworkers can address relevant social issues in the workplace. Workplace discrimination, for example, represents a social challenge disproportionately affecting employees within organizations (Hebl et al., 2020). Allyship behaviors serve not only as a force to address prejudice (e.g., Hildebrand et al., 2020) but may also increase perceptions of trustworthiness. Although allyship has the potential to improve the experiences of disadvantaged group members, previous research also indicated how self-labeled allies have the potential to do more harm than good (Droogendyk et al., 2016). Importantly, the overarching goal of allyship is to improve the experience and social status of disadvantaged group members (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a). The perspective of racial minority employees is therefore emphasized in the current study to better understand the impact social challenges have on trustworthiness and for greater alignment with goals of allyship.

REVIEW AND THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

INTERPERSONAL TRUST

Interpersonal trust displays a positive relationship with a host of outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). In addition to predicting critical workplace outcomes, interpersonal trust serves as an indicator of relationship quality (P. Blau, 2017; Holmes, 1981; Lewicki et al., 2006). Trust can be defined as a psychological state that develops over time based on personal experience with others (Rousseau et al., 1998). Although everyone possesses a propensity to trust (e.g., a general willingness to trust others), interpersonal trust is largely dependent on information about another person (Mayer et al., 1995). Critically, interpersonal trust requires the presence of at least two identifiable parties. The trustor makes the decision to trust, and the trustee is the one being trusted. Mayer et al. (1995) conceptualized trust in the organizational context as the willingness of a party (trustor) to be vulnerable to the actions of another party (trustee). This willingness relies on the expectation that the trustee will perform an important action for the trustor.

Trust depends on the extent to which an individual is viewed as trustworthy (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999). A trustor evaluates the characteristics and actions of a trustee to determine if that person can indeed be trusted. Specifically, trustworthiness includes perceptions about the ability, benevolence, and integrity of the trustee. Within organizations, an employee's ability is a set of domain-specific characteristics, competencies, expertise, and skills (Mayer et al., 1995). Ability is important in determining how likely an individual is to carry out a responsibility but does not provide information about how an employee's actions are intended to impact others. Benevolence fills this gap as it represents the

extent a trustee is perceived to act with genuine consideration for a trustor's welfare (Mayer et al., 1995). Coworkers high in benevolence exhibit behaviors signaling concern and consideration for another employee's well-being. Although a trustee may be capable and considerate, their values may be incongruent with those of the trustor. Integrity is the final component of trustworthiness and broadly represents the overlap in principles shared between a trustor and trustee. Integrity is informed by the consistency of a trustee's actions, how well a trustee's actions align with their words, and the strength of the trustee's sense of justice. Altogether, perceived trustworthiness depends upon the extent to which individuals are found to possess impressive abilities, act with consideration to others, and share common values (Mayer et al., 1995).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

The extent to which an individual may be viewed as trustworthy largely relies on perceiving the behaviors displayed. Those actions and their effects are often viewed through the lens of social exchange theory (e.g., Cho et al., 2021; Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009; Kim, 2019; Whitener et al., 1998). Social exchange theory is not a single conceptual framework but instead embodies a family of theoretical perspectives (Mitchell et al., 2012; Cropanzano et al., 2017). An example of the expansive social exchange literature can be found in three different research domains on interpersonal relationships (Mitchell et al., 2012). (1) Some theorists focus on resource exchange spurring relational development (e.g., Blau, 1964), (2) others detail how aspects of the relationship itself are exchanged (e.g., Foa & Foa, 1980), (3) while others emphasize contextual factors such as unique relationship qualities (e.g., Fiske, 1992). None of these perspectives are mutually exclusive (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2012) although integrating all

three perspectives can be difficult. Despite the variation in focus or emphasis, some common themes in social exchange have emerged (Mitchell et al., 2012; Crapanzano et al., 2017).

Broadly, social exchange involves at least two individuals who engage in a series of interdependent interactions that promote mutual obligations over time (Mitchell et al., 2012). Across the varied perspectives of social exchange theory, reciprocal obligation or the rule of reciprocity appears as a core element (Crapanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Mitchell et al., 2012). In essence, the rule of reciprocity states that a behavior, resource, or relational attribute provided to one individual will be returned in kind (Crapanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, providing a valued resource (e.g., organizational support) to a coworker is likely to be returned in favor (Pearson et al., 2005). Conversely, acts of incivility towards another employee would likely provoke additional incivility in response (Riggle et al., 2009).

In a general sense, social exchange consists of at least three components (Crapanzano et al., 2017). The first component is an initiating action from an actor directed toward a target. Initiating actions are typically classified as either positive (e.g., providing support) or negative (e.g., acts of incivility) in nature (Pearson et al., 2005). The second component is a response from that target in a reciprocal manner, where the initial positive or negative behavior is returned in kind. The third component is an impact on or a change in relationship standing based on the nature of exchanges over time. Over time, relationships develop into loyal, trusting, and mutual commitments (Crapanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Providing more frequent and consistent positive behaviors increases the predictability of future behaviors which gives actors a better reason to perceive trustworthiness (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lai et al., 2014; Molm et al., 2000; Whitener et al., 1998). Typically, a series of successful exchanges will form higher-quality relationships indicative of highly trustworthy perceptions (P. Blau, 2017; Holmes, 1981; Lewicki et al., 2006).

Researchers have identified broad efforts to increase interactions with reciprocal support as an example of a positive exchange behavior employees can enact (Lai et al., 2014). Information and experiences can be exchanged between actors by engaging in direct social interaction (Gallucci & Perugini, 2003) which helps to increase perceptions of trustworthiness (Lai et al., 2014; Whitener et al., 1998). Reciprocal support entails providing and receiving work-specific or emotional support from coworkers in an exchange relationship (Lai et al., 2014; Smith et al., 1983). By providing instrumental support increased perceptions of employee ability contribute to the evaluation of trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995; Whitener et al., 1998).

Individuals from different backgrounds can especially struggle with engaging in relevant supportive behaviors and therefore struggle to perceive one another as trustworthy. Differences between people can induce a higher level of uncertainty that subsequently makes it more difficult to expect what another individual might do in response (Whitener et al., 1998). This uncertainty has been highlighted by how employees with different ethnic backgrounds have struggled to engage in positive behaviors important for perceptions of trustworthiness (Jiang et al., 2011). Ethnicities, for example, embody unique cultures (e.g., Chua et al., 2012) which inform how people view and behave with one another (Whitener et al., 1998). Cultural differences highlight a challenge for coworkers to find ways to communicate adequately and support each other properly. Further, perceptions of trustworthiness are closely associated with demographic similarities early in relationships (Levin et al., 2006). If individuals do not engage in frequent and consistent communication demographic characteristics may continue to impede perceptions of trustworthiness (Jiang et al., 2011).

ALLYSHIP AS EXCHANGE BEHAVIORS

Developing perceptions of trustworthiness requires supportive actions to be exchanged between individuals. In the context of racial minority employees, allyship represents one source of such behaviors. Allyship behaviors acknowledge differences between people while attempting to work together towards a common cause (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a). The presence of allyship has a positive impact on both those who enact and those who are intended to receive the behaviors (Warren et al., 2021). A recent study found that men who supported women received the benefit of personal growth leading to increased family-life enrichment proportional to their level of investment for women (Warren et al., 2021). In the same study, women's perception of men's ally behaviors was positively linked to workplace vitality. Those who enact allyship are more likely to show commitment to organizational missions (Gates, et al., 2021). On the other hand, receiving allyship has been found to increase individual well-being (Fingerhut & Hardy, 2020; Perales, 2022), and organizational trust and comfort (Johnson & Pietri, 2022; Johnson et al., 2019).

Definition

Broadly, allyship consists of a set of processes directed towards ending social inequalities and systemic oppression (Eggler et al., 2023). Allyship may be informed by broader social issues, but on an interpersonal level, can provide needed individual support. More specifically, allyship involves behaviors enacted by a member of an advantaged group (e.g., White) to positively influence another from a disadvantaged group (e.g., Black). Allyship requires an ally who works to eliminate inequities in which they may benefit from themselves (Goodman, 2001; Rosenblum & Travis, 2006). Allies are commonly described as “a person who is a member of the ‘dominant’ or ‘majority’ group who works to end oppression in his or her personal and

professional life through support of, and as an advocate for, the oppressed population” (Washington & Evans, 1991). This definition provides important information about the groups present and individual actors involved in allyship.

The terms dominant or majority group reference people who are privileged to a greater extent by their social identity (Asta & Vacha-Haase, 2013). Common examples of privileged groups include whites, males, heterosexuals, and nondisabled persons (Case et al., 2014; M. Nkomo & Al Ariss, 2014; Schur et al., 2005; Shelby & Thompson, 2005). Although dominant and majority are common designations for people with these identities, the literature also uses terms such as privileged and advantaged (Louis et al., 2019; Wildman, 1995). If an advantaged person provides support to someone with an identity different from their own, they may be considered an ally. An ally’s actions are directed toward an oppressed population (Washington & Evans, 1991). A target is an individual whom the potential ally (advantaged member) is working to support. Literature also commonly refers to targets of allyship as disadvantaged, non-dominant, minority, unprivileged, or marginalized (Brown, 2015; Kamp & Hagedorn-Rasmussen, 2004; Louis et al., 2019; McCready, 2004; Nelson et al., 2001; Suen et al., 2020). Common examples of disadvantaged groups include people of color, females, members of the LGBTQ+ community, and disabled persons (Avery & McKay, 2006; Li et al., 2022; Webster et al., 2018). Allyship can occur between any of the associated advantaged and disadvantaged groups but with consideration of the issues raised in the trust literature (e.g., Chattopadhyay, 1999; Jiang et al., 2011), the present study focuses on racial allyship.

Core Components

Many of the behaviors associated with allyship are similar to positive actions outlined by social exchange theory but with a particular focus on increasing equity. The goal of contributing

to desired social change distinguishes allyship from simply acting in a non-prejudicial manner. For example, confronting a fellow employee who is acting prejudicially (e.g., Brooks & Edwards, 2009) is an example of behavior directed towards changing an oppressive force. This active and ongoing element of allyship has increasingly been incorporated as an essential component (Chrobot-Mason et al., 2020; Jolly et al., 2021; Pedretti & Iannini, 2020). Despite a single act of confrontation having a positive impact (e.g., the impact of confronters), allyship is enacted by those who commit to continuously uphold social justice orientations (Powless et al., 2022).

The wide range of actions outlined in the allyship literature can occur at the individual, interpersonal, or organizational level (Eggler et al., 2023). Individual actions are characterized by the cognitions and affect experienced within allyship. Largely based on ally development, these actions consist primarily of what is experienced by the ally. Personal actions include learning about the experiences of disadvantaged groups (e.g., Prasad et al., 2021), reflecting on individual bias and privilege (e.g., Reason et al., 2005), and identifying pressing issues facing the disadvantaged group (e.g., Sabat et al., 2013). Although prior research has outlined prerequisites to becoming an ally (e.g., Broido, 2000), more recent research highlighted how allyship is a process with affective and cognitive components existing alongside informed behaviors (Brown & Ostrove, 2013; Eggler et al., 2023).

Allyship behaviors represent how an ally acts towards a target, other advantaged group members, or an institution. A staple of allyship includes working against systems of oppression in an informed manner (e.g., Brown & Ostrove, 2013), which manifests when allies advocate and confront prejudice. Advocacy includes public displays promoting equal rights and fair treatment for a social group one does not belong to. Advocacy is directed toward an organization while

confronting discrimination involves rebuking individuals who express explicit or subtle discriminatory language (e.g., microaggression) and behavior. Both actions provide resources to racial minorities indirectly, but many actions involve ally actions directed at targets.

Interpersonal forms of support are central to enacting allyship in the workplace (Collins, 2012; Fletcher & Marvell, 2022), encompassing several interpersonal behaviors worth highlighting.

Direct communication between racial allies and targets increases ally confidence in future engagements (Alimo, 2012). Importantly, engaging in dialogue provides an opportunity for allies to listen to targets (Akam et al., 2021) and learn about target experiences (Amponsah & Stephen, 2020; Arif et al., 2022). Allies can then use this information to find ways to support a target professionally and personally. Within organizational settings, offering mentorship and extending professional development resources have been highlighted as relevant ways to aid Black employees (Erskine & Bilimoria, 2019). Depending on an employee's role, however, providing relational support may be more realistic. Allies who focus on developing meaningful relationships can provide affirmation by lending emotional support (e.g., Domingue, 2015) and treating a target with respect (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a). The enactment of these interpersonal allyship behaviors presents an opportunity to provide valuable resources to racial and ethnic minorities who may otherwise encounter challenges in perceiving their coworkers as trustworthy (Lai et al., 2014). Fortunately, many of the most important allyship behaviors parallel positive behaviors outlined by social exchange research.

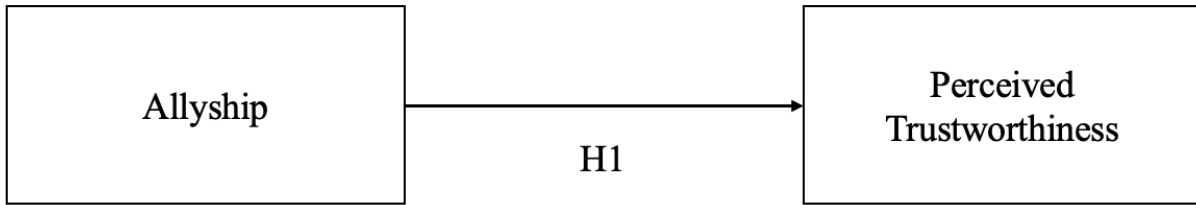
Allyship provides an opportunity to learn about and engage in social exchange with people who possess different cultural experiences. This exchange of information is valuable because cultural differences may otherwise serve as a relational barrier. This intercultural barrier indicates an inability to address high levels of uncertainty which requires cognitively addressing

cultural assumptions important to eventually building trust (Chua et al., 2012). Individuals informed about racial minority experiences are more likely to engage in interracial dialogue which promotes future engagement (Alimo, 2012). The cognitive involvement of allyship informs intentional behaviors conducive to the behavioral consistency highlighted (e.g., Whitener et al., 1998) as critical to evaluating trustworthy behavior (Six & Skinner, 2010). Allyship is an active and ongoing process entailing allies communicating directly with and listening to targets (Cantwell et al., 2019; Kam et al., 2022; Przybylo & Fahs, 2021). Frequent communication and reciprocal support allow for a more accurate assessment of behaviors and have been found to increase perceptions of trustworthiness among coworkers (Lai et al., 2014). Altogether, greater enactment of allyship should positively relate to increases in perceived trustworthiness (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 1: Allyship will positively predict perceived trustworthiness.

Figure 1

Allyship's Positive Influence on Perceived Trustworthiness



MOTIVATIONAL BOUNDARY CONDITION TO SET AND ALLYSHIP

Social exchange theory focuses on perceptions of behaviors, specifically whether those behaviors are negative or positive. Allyship behaviors are only predicted to increase trustworthiness when the behaviors themselves are perceived as positive. The motivation of the actor informs how the behavior is perceived, but social exchange theory is limited in this regard. Traditionally, social exchange theorists explain how individuals take a self-gain approach (e.g., maximizing gains) when engaged in exchanges (Blau, 2017). Although economic rationality has an intuitive appeal, this perspective does little to acknowledge important environmental contexts such as social and relational factors (Mitchell et al., 2012). Fortunately, contemporary researchers have highlighted actions (e.g., citizenship behaviors) motivated by a genuine interest in helping others (Korsgaard et al., 2010; Mitchell, 2010). An interpersonal perspective in social exchange argues for others' needs to be satisfied on occasion above oneself. Despite the broad applications of social exchange, a lack of specificity regarding positive and negative behaviors concerns researchers (Cropanzano et al., 2017).

One current limitation of social exchange theory is in determining hedonically positive and negative initiating actions for both parties involved (Cropanzano et al., 2017). For example, managers may find a behavior to be deviant while employees view the action as morally sound (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Labeling behaviors as deviant or counterproductive may neglect the perspective of the employee. Similarly, prosocial behaviors have been defined based on intentions (e.g., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), but this fails to capture how the behavior transpired (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Importantly, the motivation to help others may be limited to the perceptions of those enacting behaviors. Although someone may self-identify as an employee who means well, if their actions are directed at another, the receiver of those actions will

interpret those actions. Relational signaling theory provides a complementary theoretical perspective emphasizing the interpretation of other's behavior as it relates to trustworthiness.

In relational signaling, frames of reference facilitate the interpretation of behaviors and subsequent conclusions about trustworthiness. Like social exchange theory, behaviors benefiting an individual's well-being are labeled positive relational signals whereas negative relational signals diminish individual welfare (Six, 2007). Consider two people interacting, where person one's behavior is perceived by person two. If person one behaves such that person two perceives their action as beneficial, a positive relational signal has been received. A positive relational signal typically involves person one making a sacrifice which is perceived by person two as indicative of a stable normative frame. In contrast, if person one's behavior adversely impacts person two, this would indicate corrosion of person one's normative frame (Six, 2007). As noted by Wittek (1999) and Six (2007), the type of actions constituting relational signals and their sign (e.g., positive or negative) is determined by the beholder's perceptions.

Relational signaling provides a theory of interpersonal trust building focused on how employees learn about each other's trustworthiness given the existing obstacles within the organizational setting (Six, 2007). Two assumptions about human behavior are made: a) humans are guided by individual goals, and b) humans behave within social contexts. Goal-directed behavior indicates how goals are distinct in their importance and when behavior is in alignment with one's primary goal, a stable framework can be formed. Goals are context-dependent and different frames provide the basis for behavior. A frame is how an individual approaches a situation in pursuit of a goal. Generally, frames can be labeled as self-interested or other-directed (Six, 2007). Self-interested frames include a hedonic frame (e.g., short-term pleasures) and a gain frame (e.g., pursuing financial resources). The other-directed frame is known as normative,

and as the name implies, this indicates individuals' goals center around acting in accordance with others.

Motivation to Enact Allyship

Self-interest motivations have been found to be associated with ineffective allyship while other-oriented motivation is associated with more effective allyship (Collier-Spruel & Ryan, 2022). Literature on ally motivation has had similar themes. For example, Radke et al. (2020) theorized four motivations for advantaged group members to act in support of disadvantaged members. Advantaged group members' motives can be classified as acting for personal or moral concern with either an outgroup or ingroup focus. The authors argue actions can be considered in alignment with allyship when motivations are morally derived and outgroup-focused. Actions of this nature intend to upend the oppressive structures working against disadvantaged group members. Alternatively, individuals with motives prioritizing the advantaged group or personal needs may not be considered allies at all. Previous interpersonal trust research has indicated how potential trustee behaviors viewed as self-serving can be detrimental to judgments of trustworthiness (Six & Skinner, 2010).

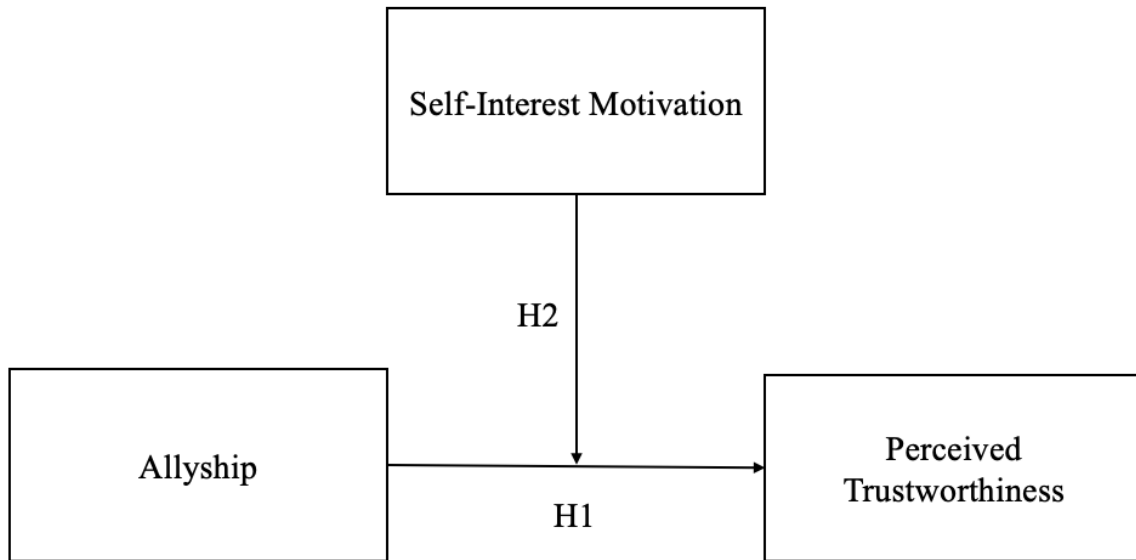
Additionally, organizational researchers have revealed how trustees who desire to improve the well-being of the trustor may be necessary to increase perceptions of trustworthiness (Lindenburg, 2000; Nooteboom, 2002; Six & Skinner, 2010). This aligns with previous research indicating effective allyship may depend upon perceived motivation to enact allyship behaviors (Derricks et al., 2023). Expressing egalitarian ideals may not matter if sincerity is not present such that perceived motivation for enacting behaviors may yet serve as a boundary condition for allyship (Derricks et al., 2023). From a relational signaling perspective, ally motivation is relevant as it indicates how the goals and normative frame of both the ally and target are aligned.

Relational signaling theory posits that relational signals are informed by the frame an individual possesses (Six, 2007). Although the increased presence of allyship behaviors should increase perceived trustworthiness, perceived self-interest motivation could inhibit the effects of allyship (Derricks et al., 2023). If an ally is perceived as being self-interested, those allyship behaviors should not lead to the development of perceived trustworthiness (see Figure 2).

Hypothesis 2: Perceived motivation will moderate the relationship between allyship and perceived trustworthiness such that high self-interest motivation will reduce the strength of the relationship.

Figure 2

Self-Interest Motivation's Moderating Effect



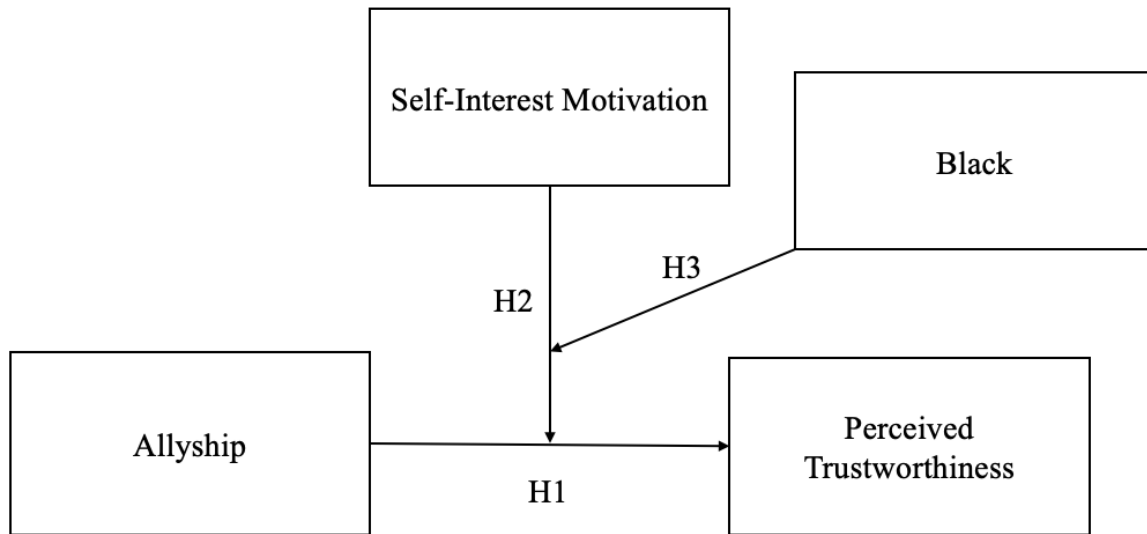
TARGET PERCEPTIONS

Variation in the perceptions between allies and targets is likely relevant to how self-interest motivation will impact the relationship between allyship and trustworthiness. Although allies may specify out-group-focused motivations, prior theorizing suggests a moralistic bias may occur (e.g., Paulhus & John, 1998) where individuals engage in self-favoring tendencies while evaluating their own motives. Additionally, the presence of inequalities between two people tends to result in self-enhancement (e.g., Loughnan et al., 2011) which may further indicate that allies possess an inherent range restriction in their self-assessment of motivation. Previous research suggests Black targets can perceive White allies as lacking genuine egalitarian beliefs even when White allies are insistent about their own egalitarian beliefs (Rosenblum et al., 2022). Recent empirical work indicated that the benefits of allyship may depend upon the perceptions of the allyship targets. For example, men's perceived allyship has been linked to women's feelings of inclusion explained through women's perception of allyship (Warren et al., 2021). An identical relationship was found for the link between men's perceptions and women's vitality, explained through women's perceptions. In both cases, the positive impact of allyship was dependent on how the allyship target perceived the behaviors exhibited. Within the same study, men's reported personal growth was unrelated to women's feelings of inclusion or vitality (Warren et al., 2021). This indicates that even when allies feel confident about the way they provide support, targets of allyship do not necessarily make the same assessment. Thus, the benefits from allyship were dependent upon how targets had perceived them. Pairing this insight with the apparent biases of allies indicates that the conditional effect of self-interest motivation may only be relevant to the targets of allyship (see Figure 3).

Hypothesis 3: Race will moderate the conditional effect of self-interest motivation such that perceptions of motivations will only impact the relationship between allyship and perceived trustworthiness for Black employees.

Figure 3

Race's Conditional Effect on the Moderator of Self-Interest Motivation



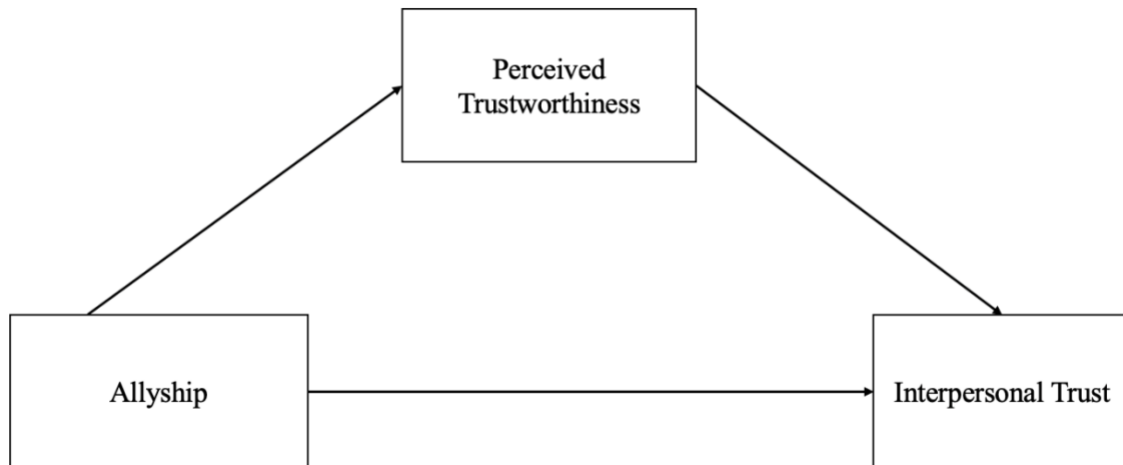
RESEARCH QUESTION

Despite the inferential limitations associated with cross-sectional and self-report data, exploratory research could add additional insights to a nascent allyship literature. Given the robust relationship between trustworthiness and trust (e.g., Colquitt, 2007), testing a novel model that includes allyship behaviors alongside these constructs would be of value to future researchers. Therefore, the current thesis will also examine if the relationship between allyship and interpersonal trust can be explained by perceived trustworthiness (see Figure 4).

Research Question: To what extent can the relationship between allyship and interpersonal trust be explained by perceived trustworthiness?

Figure 4

Model of Exploratory Research Question



METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

Participants were recruited for this research using the crowdsourcing website Mechanical Turk (MTurk) through the third-party platform CloudResearch which facilitated the MTurk data collection (Litman et al., 2017). MTurk allows businesses and researchers to quickly access a large number of workers who are paid to complete “Human Intelligence Tasks” (HITs).

Requesters (e.g., organization or researcher) post descriptions of HITs and the associated compensation providing options for online workers. MTurk samples provided more diverse and representative samples compared to traditional student and community samples (Goodman et al., 2013). A recent meta-analysis compared Mturk to non-MTurk samples and found no significant differences in scale means or variances (Keith et al., 2023). Previous research analyzing MTurk responses has indicated valid psychometric properties (e.g., Buhrmester et al., 2011) and accurate demographic reporting (Rand, 2011). Importantly, Mturk requestors can use filters to post HITs to sample from populations relevant to their research questions.

The current study posted one HIT for White (i.e., potential allies) working adults and another for Black (i.e., potential targets) working adults, to gain perspective about both parties involved in the allyship process. Black and White employees were sampled because a significant portion of racial allyship literature has studied Black and White individuals (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a; Rosenblum et al., 2022). To determine sufficient sample size a simulation was run using R to generate random data to test for the power of a three-way interaction (R Core Team, 2023). We paramatized a dual-moderated regression model using effect sizes found in the literature (e.g., Rosenblum et al., 2022) where possible, and where effect sizes were unknown medium

effects were assumed. The code for this simulation can be found at

https://osf.io/ksj2m/?view_only=6fabccae4d56435996562a13bb9fa7c8. Simulation results

indicated equal numbers of 150 respondents from each racial group for a total sample size of 300 respondents resulting in 80% power for detecting the proposed three-way interaction. We attempted to over-recruit by 20 percent to allow for participant attrition, which would have brought our sample total to 360. In the end, 323 participants were able to be obtained for the current study. MTurk workers accessed a HIT that contained a questionnaire linked through Qualtrics.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA

Before analysis, the collected data was examined to check for abnormalities that might otherwise reduce inferential value. Upon examining the raw data a few noteworthy concerns were raised about participant responses. These concerns included participants who did not have a relevant coworker, inconsistently identified themselves or did not complete the questionnaire. Additionally, some participants showed carelessness in their responses by failing both attention checks and finishing the survey in an unreasonable amount of time (both unrealistically fast and abnormally slow).

Specific responses that were highlighted include any participant who indicated “No” when asked if they had a coworker whose racial identity differed from their own. Considering that the research question in the current project pertains to allyship between races, having only coworkers that are alike renders their responses meaningless. Survey questions specifically asked about racial allyship behaviors. If an employee works in a racially homogenous environment, then there is no opportunity to enact racial allyship and therefore these responses hold no valuable insight. As a result, all seven of these respondents were excluded from future analysis.

Additionally, some participants did not consistently report their race at the beginning and end of the survey. For example, some participants indicated that they were Black at the beginning of the survey but indicated otherwise (e.g., Hispanic or Native American) at the end of the survey.

These social groups are broadly important but do not apply to the research focus. To address this issue, five participants who failed to report their demographic information consistently were excluded.

Three participants were excluded who did not complete the entire survey and the incomplete measures did not provide enough information for analysis. Three participants who did complete the survey were excluded because they failed both attention checks, which showed that they were not paying attention to the survey questions. Additionally, 16 participants who finished too fast or took too long to complete the survey were excluded. Considering that there are 50 total questions in this survey, the 12 participants who completed the survey in under 150 seconds took less than three seconds per question to complete the survey. Alternatively, participants who finished the survey in over an hour took seven times longer than the average (8.5 minutes) participant. These 4 participants were excluded due to the unreasonable amount of time taken to complete a relatively short survey. After all exclusions were made, the sample totaled 289 individuals who were currently employed and consisted of 146 Black and 143 White employees. The average age of the employees was 39.70 (SD = 10.22) and as shown in Table 1 153 of them identified as women.

Table 1*Sample Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Women	1.53	0.52							
2. Black	0.49	0.50	-.10 [-.22, .01]						
3. Relational Length	5.34	4.77	-.06 [-.17, .06]	-.08 [-.19, .04]					
4. Propensity to Trust	3.55	0.95	-.05 [-.17, .06]	.15* [.03, .26]	.10 [-.02, .21]				
5. Allyship	3.59	0.74	.02 [-.09, .14]	.19** [.07, .30]	.16** [.04, .27]	.34** [.23, .43]			
6. Self-interest Motivation	2.98	1.03	.04 [-.07, .16]	-.04 [-.15, .08]	-.01 [-.12, .11]	-.04 [-.15, .08]	-.05 [-.16, .07]		
7. Perceived Trustworthiness	4.00	0.54	-.07 [-.18, .05]	.14* [.02, .25]	.21** [.10, .32]	.33** [.22, .43]	.68** [.61, .74]	-.09 [-.20, .03]	
8. Interpersonal Trust	4.01	0.73	-.12* [-.23, -.00]	.22** [.11, .33]	.26** [.15, .36]	.29** [.18, .40]	.63** [.56, .69]	-.17** [-.28, -.06]	.75** [.70, .80]

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$

PROCEDURES

First, informed consent was presented to participants. Participants who agreed to continue were then provided with the definitions for the terms social identity, allyship, ally, and target. Then participants were asked to read a prompt that primed the work context and asked them to think about a coworker whose racial identity was different from their own. Participants were asked to indicate if they indeed worked with someone with a different racial identity than themselves. For example, White participants responded to the question “Do you work with (e.g., on your team) at least one employee that identifies as Black?” This was followed by an open response to the prompt “Consider your relationship with one coworker who identifies as Black with an open response. Then briefly describe how you are connected and what your relationship is like.” Participants were then directed to answer a series of questions all contained within the same Qualtrics questionnaire. The survey items were sorted by blocks that correspond to research variables. In order of presentation, these were trust, ally perceptions, self-interest motivation, trustworthiness, propensity to trust, length of the relationship, and demographics such as age, gender, and race. Lastly, participants were presented with a random sequencing of digits in Qualtrics and were asked to submit for compensation via MTurk. This study was expected to take between 10-15 minutes for participants to complete and participants' average time was 8.5 minutes. In alignment with recently reported Mturk worker hourly earnings (e.g., Moss et al., 2020), participants were compensated \$10 per hour, equating to \$2.50 per survey.

MEASURES

Allyship

The presence of allyship was measured using the Perceptions of Ally Characteristic Scale (Brown & Ostrove, 2013b). This ten-item allyship scale is comprised of the dimensions of

informed action and affirmation. Where six items captured informed action (“My coworker proposes possible actions to address potentially racist situations affecting me”) and four items pertain to affirmation (e.g., “My coworker creates a feeling of connection with me”). Two versions were distributed as the wording of these items varied only slightly depending on the respondent. For example, compared to the informed action sample item above, White employees reported on their own actions (e.g., “I propose possible actions to address potentially racist situations affecting my coworker”). Each item was rated from 1 (*not at all characteristic*) to 5 (*very characteristic*). The original development of the measure and the unique contribution of the dimensions of ally characteristics were informed by qualitative findings paired with an exploratory factor analysis that was supported via confirmatory factor analysis. The current measure revealed high reliability ($\alpha = 0.84$), which is in alignment with previous studies (Brown & Ostrove, 2013b). Importantly, two versions with only slightly altered language were distributed depending on the respondent.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness was measured using the Organizational Trust Instrument (Schoorman et al., 1996; Mayer & Davis, 1999). The three dimensions (i.e., ability, benevolence, integrity) of trustworthiness conceptualization by Mayer et al. (1995) were all directly measured. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). The scale totaled 15 items, where five items pertained to ability (e.g., “My coworker is very capable of performing their job”), six for benevolence (e.g., “My coworker will go out of their way to help me”), and four applied to integrity (e.g., “My coworker has a strong sense of justice”). Previous organizational research utilizing this scale includes the examination of relationships such as supervisor-employee (e.g., Zapata et al., 2013), management-employee (e.g., Mayer & Davis,

1999), and coworker-coworker (e.g., Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009) workplace samples. Previous research has also highlighted discriminant validity between this measure and the proposed measure of trust (Gillespie, 2003). The current study found the overall measure of trustworthiness to possess high reliability ($\alpha = 0.93$).

Self-interest Motivations

Perceived motivations were evaluated using items from a measure developed by Collier-Spruel and Ryan (2022). Two items from this measure record self-oriented motivations (e.g., “My coworker wants to look good”). Both Self-oriented ($r = 0.53$) items were rated from 1 (Highly Unlikely) to 5 (Highly Likely). The correlation between the two items indicates that the measure possesses rather low reliability. Some researchers (e.g., Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007) however, have argued that measures with relatively low reliability can still be of value. For example, the nascent nature of the allyship literature indicates a need for further exploration of relevant constructs. Few motivational measures were available in the broader diversity research and the measures that have been developed largely pertain to responding without prejudice (e.g., Plant & Devine, 1998). The current study required a test of motivational factors in greater alignment with allyship. Importantly, the original use of this measure was assessed using an online (Mturk) work sample and researchers sought to address the impact of perceived motivations on effective and ineffective allyship (Collier-Spruel & Ryan, 2022).

Trust

Interpersonal trust among coworkers was measured using the Behavioral Trust Inventory (BTI; Gillespie, 2003). This measure of trust consisted of 10 items that recorded a willingness to be vulnerable by engaging in trusting behavior. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*Not at all willing*) to 5 (*Completely willing*). Five items captured the dimension of

reliance (e.g., “Rely on your coworkers for work-related judgments”) and five items captured the dimension of disclosure (e.g., “Share your personal feelings with your coworker”). This measure originally was constructed through a series of empirically rigorous steps on multiple workplace leader-member and peer samples with exploratory factor analysis to identify the two factors and a confirmatory factor analysis to indicate model fit (Gillespie, 2003). Together these analyses provided support for the content, convergent, divergent, and predictive validity. Importantly, reliance and disclosure were distinguished from the construct of trustworthiness (Gillespie, 2003). Noteworthy reviews of the trust literature have highlighted BTI as a highly reliable and valid measure of trust that aligns with the Mayer et al. (1995) conceptualization of trust (Dirks & de Jong, 2022; McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011; Schoorman et al., 2007). Overall, the BTI displayed high reliability ($\alpha = 0.90$) in alignment with previous research (Gillespie, 2003).

Covariates

Propensity to Trust

Propensity to trust has been identified to influence the trust evaluation process both conceptually (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995) and meta-analytically (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007). The propensity to trust represents a general or dispositional tendency to trust others (Mayer et al., 1995). Therefore, the propensity to trust operates at the trait level and exists before the collection of information about the trustee. With that said, a propensity to trust could enhance the level of trust given the information about the trustee if a trustor has a general tendency to trust others (Mayer et al., 1995). Therefore, the propensity to trust was recorded using Frazier et al. (2013)’s empirically validated scale. Frazier et al. (2013) conceptually derived from propensity to trust from Mayer et al. (1995) model of trust and through a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses propensity to trust was found to be unidimensional represented with four items.

The four items used were found to possess high reliability ($\alpha = 0.88$). Each of the four items (e.g., “I usually trust people until they give me a reason not to trust them.”) were assessed from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*), where high values indicated a high level of dispositional trust.

Length of relationship

Length of relationship has been identified as influencing levels of trust and trustworthiness (Ferrin et al., 2006; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Williams, 2016). Therefore, participants were asked to indicate the length of time they have known their referent indicated by years and months.

ANALYSIS

Data Preparation

Data was prepared in Excel before major analyses were run in R (v4.2.0; R Core Team 2022). All length of relationship responses were converted from open responses (e.g., “4 years and 10 months”) to numerical (e.g., “4.833”) and all items that possessed negative wording (e.g., “My coworker’s actions and behaviors are not very consistent”) were reverse coded. Subsequently, scale-level variables were created from the mean of the items for each scale. From these newly formed variables, all predictors were then mean-centered to reduce non-essential multicollinearity and increase the interpretative value (Darlington & Hayes, 2017). By mean centering, each regression coefficient can be interpreted with the other predictors being at average. To further increase the interpretability of the regression analysis, race was coded as 0 (White) and 1 (Black).

Outliers and Assumptions

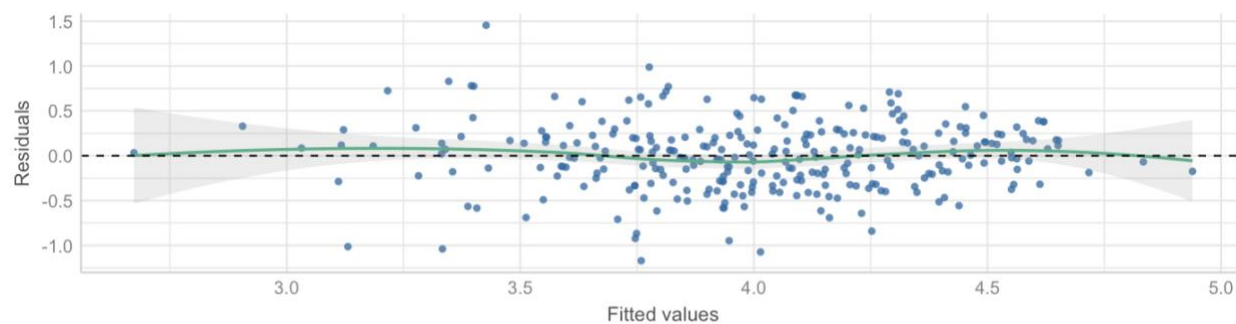
Analyses were conducted via multiple regression as outlined by Darlington and Hayes (2017). As such, before primary analysis could begin the outliers and the assumptions of regression were checked to ensure adequate preparation. R Statistical Software (v4.2.0; R Core Team 2022) was utilized to examine the data for potential outliers. Outliers have the potential to impact the significance of relationships and should be identified to ensure the quality of results. A box plot of the dependent variable trustworthiness indicated that two potential outliers existed. Given the nature of the data, however, multivariate outliers were used as a follow-up before any decisions were made on potential exclusion. Using the `check_outliers` function the entire regression model is examined for multivariate outliers. Specifically, a global measure of influence was assigned to each data point and then compared to the cut-off score. This cutoff is a Cook's D of 0.9, which is the standard used for measuring multivariate outliers in regression (Darlington & Hayes, 2017). The result of this check is that no value crossed the 0.9 threshold and therefore no outliers were detected.

The four major assumptions of regression were examined using the base R functions `plot`, `check_model`, and `check_heteroscedasticity` from the *performance* package (Lüdtke et al., 2021), and the `durbinWatsonTest` function from the *car* package (Fox & Weisberg, 2019). The primary assumption of regression states that the relationship between the predictors and criterion is linear. This assumption was examined using the plotting of unstandardized predicted values and residuals along with the LOES Line. This was confirmed as shown in Figure 5, with visuals provided from both `check_model` and `plot` that indicated a relatively smooth horizontal line. The assumption of homoscedasticity addresses that the residuals from regression are evenly dispersed across the regressors. Put another way, this ensures that residuals cannot be significantly predicted by the independent variables in the model. Homoscedasticity was tested with fitted

values being plotted on the X-axis and residuals on the Y-axis. The visual representation provided by the `check_model` function indicated an uneven dispersion of variance. Such that residuals were spread further apart at low levels of the fitted values and then increasingly grouped as the fitted values increased. The visual results revealed a potential violation of heteroscedasticity as shown in Figure 5. With a degree of uncertainty as to whether heteroscedasticity was present a direct test was run via the Breusch-Pagan test using the `check_heteroscedasticity` function (Lüdecke et al., 2021). This test confirmed heteroscedasticity with a significant result ($p < .001$).

Figure 5

Examination of Linearity and Homoscedasticity via LOES Line and Plot of Standardized Residuals with Fitted Values



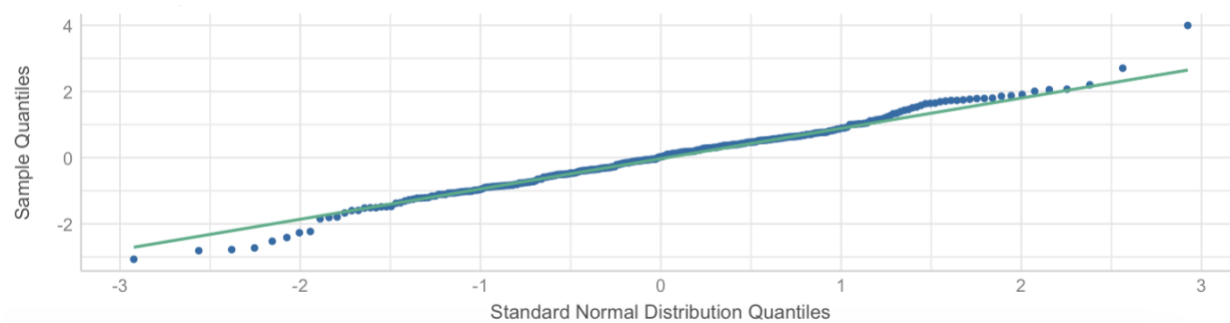
Darlington and Hayes (2017) outlined that although heteroscedasticity is a concern, it will not bias any regression coefficient. Rather than biasing regression coefficients itself, the impact of heteroscedasticity is exerted on the regression coefficient's standard errors. Different manifestations of heteroscedasticity tend to have different effects on the standard errors. In the current case, ordinary heteroscedasticity is present, which tends to produce standard errors that are abnormally small. The standard error helps to determine confidence intervals, but if the standard errors are too small, then the type 1 error becomes inflated. To address the heteroscedasticity a Weighted Least Squares (WLS) regression was conducted using the `lm` function from the R package `stats` (R Core Team, 2022). WLS regression is a recommended approach to address heteroscedasticity that provides more statistical power than an Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression (Rosopa et al., 2013). Utilizing weighted least square regression allows for the scales to remain in their original form. Maintaining the original scale form is a benefit that potential alternatives such as log transformation and rescaling do not provide. The weights for the current regression were determined based on error variance, such that observations with lower error variance were given more weight than those with high error variances.

The normality assumption is another secondary assumption to which regression is robust. Normality examines if the residuals are distributed normally at each conditional value. To address this assumption a Q-Q plot as shown in Figure 6 provided a visual aid that compares quantiles of error variance (on the y-axis) to a normal distribution (on the x-axis). The sample error is plotted and groupings along the plotted normal distribution line provide evidence of normality. The resultant Q-Q plots indicated a clear grouping of the data along the expected line, providing evidence for or normally distributed data. Fourth and finally, the Durbin_Watson

function was used to test the independence of residuals. Independence ensures that residuals are not correlated across sample participants. To test independence, autocorrelation statistics such as the Durbin-Watson can be used. As outlined by Flatt and Jacobs (2019), a Durbin-Watson test records the residual differences across time and the corresponding coefficient produces a value between 0 and 4. Values below 1.6 indicate a violation whereas values above provide evidence of independence. Ideally, one would find a coefficient close to 2. The results from the current sample indicated a value of 1.917, supporting the assumption of independence (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019).

Figure 6

Examination of Normality via Q-Q Plot



RESULTS

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

R Statistical Software (v4.2.0; R Core Team 2022) was used to conduct all major analyses. The results from the WLS regression analysis provide insight into how well the proposed model of variables predicted trustworthiness. The full model included the control variables of propensity to trust and length of relationship, the predictor of allyship perceptions, and the interactions of allyship and self-interest motivations as well the three-way interaction of allyship, self-interest motivation, and race significantly predicted perceived trustworthiness $F(9, 279) = 32.3, p < .001, R^2 = .510, R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .495$. This result indicates that roughly half of the variance in trustworthiness can be explained by the full model. It should be noted that the standard error increased from 0.3889 (OLS) to 1.279 (WLS) and the R squared increased from .4736 (OLS) to .5103 (WLS) between regression approaches. As shown in Table 2, the intercept ($b = 4.00, t(279) = 122.35, p < .001$) was found to be significantly different from zero and represents the average trustworthiness rating for the sample. Both covariates, length of relationship ($\beta = 0.109, t(279) = 2.52, p = .0124$) and propensity to trust ($\beta = 0.088, t(279) = 1.97, p = .050$) were found to be significant.

Table 2*Regression Results Using Trustworthiness as the Criterion*

Predictor	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>sr</i> ² 95% CI [LL, UL]	Fit
(Intercept)	4.00**	[3.93, 4.06]			
Relational Length	0.01*	[0.00, 0.02]	.01	[-.01, .03]	
Propensity to Trust	0.05*	[0.00, 0.10]	.01	[-.01, .02]	
Allyship	0.49**	[0.40, 0.57]	.22	[.15, .29]	
Self-interest Motivation	-0.02	[-0.09, 0.04]	.00	[-.00, .01]	
Black	-0.00	[-0.10, 0.09]	.00	[-.00, .00]	
Allyship * Self-interest Motivation	-0.01	[-0.09, 0.08]	.00	[-.00, .00]	
Allyship * Black	-0.01	[-0.14, 0.12]	.00	[-.00, .00]	
Self-interest Motivation * Black	-0.01	[-0.10, 0.08]	.00	[-.00, .00]	
Allyship * Self-interest Motivation * Black	0.06	[-0.06, 0.18]	.00	[-.00, .01]	
					<i>R</i> ² = .510** 95% CI[.42,.56]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the semi-partial correlation is also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *sr*² represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.

* indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that allyship behaviors would positively predict perceived trustworthiness. Evidence was found to support hypothesis 1 as allyship ($\beta = 0.660$, $t(279) = 11.168$, $p < .001$) was a significant predictor of trustworthiness. Hypothesis 2 predicted that self-interest motivation would buffer the positive impact that allyship has on trustworthiness. The interactive effect of self-interest motivation ($\beta = -0.008$, $t(279) = -0.12$, $p = .905$) was found to be non-significant therefore lending no support to Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 predicted that the impact of self-interest motivation would be conditional on the race of the employee. The conditional effect of Race ($\beta = 0.063$, $t(279) = 0.98$, $p = .324$) was also found to be non-significant, resulting in no support for hypothesis 3.

EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS

Given the robust relationship between trustworthiness and trust (e.g., Colquitt, 2007), the relationship between allyship and interpersonal trust explained via trustworthiness was examined using mediation analysis. The steps outlined by Baron & Kenny (1986) were used to conduct the mediation analysis. First, interpersonal trust was regressed onto allyship to determine the direct allyship has on interpersonal trust. Second, trustworthiness was regressed onto allyship to derive the first indirect value. Third, interpersonal trust was regressed onto allyship and trustworthiness to derive the final direct and indirect effect. To determine the significance of all the effects, 10000 bootstrap simulations were run to produce 95 percent confidence intervals. The Average Casual Mediation Effect (ACME) or indirect effect ($\beta = 0.406$, $[0.326, 0.49]$, $p < .001$) was found to be significant. Additionally, the Average Direct Effect (ADE) or direct effect ($\beta = 0.218$, $[0.100, 0.34]$, $p < .001$) was found to be significant. The total effect ($\beta = 0.624$, $[0.522, 0.72]$, $p < .001$) was also found to be significant. Lastly, the proposed mediation ($\beta = 0.650$, $[0.511, 0.82]$, $p < .001$) was found to be significant. Although a causal inference cannot be made,

the model indicates cursory support that allyship's relationship to interpersonal trust is partially explained by perceived trustworthiness.

DISCUSSION

This study examined the interpersonal influence allyship has on trustworthiness. The results indicated coworkers who exhibited more allyship behaviors, such as taking action to address prejudice and actively working to make personal connections, were viewed as more trustworthy. These effects remained even when controlling for employee propensity to trust and the length of the relationship between the potential ally and associated target.

The results also indicated self-interest motivation did not change the relationship between allyship and trustworthiness. This suggests that the information about an ally's intentions for enacting their allyship behaviors may be less important than the allyship behaviors themselves. Contrary to previous theorizing (e.g., Six, 2007) intentions may not be as central in determining if allyship behavior should be labeled as positive (e.g., trustworthy). This study also found that race did not influence how self-interest motivations would change the relationship between allyship and trustworthiness. The moderation of self-interest motivation was predicted to vary based on the race of the employee, but the results indicate self-interest motivations were interpreted similarly by both Black and White employees. This suggests perceptions of self-interest motivation were therefore not dependent upon race. Put differently, this suggests perceptions of self-interest motivation did not vary between the potential allies or targets. Lastly, perceived trustworthiness partially explained the relationship between allyship behaviors and interpersonal trust. This suggests interpersonal trust may increase when more allyship behaviors are exhibited, but for allyship to have this effect, an ally may need to be viewed as trustworthy first.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the current study contribute to both an understanding of allyship behaviors and the intentions behind those behaviors. Although the exhibition of various supportive behaviors (e.g., emotional support) has been identified for their positive impact on trustworthiness, the current study focused on behaviors that are valued by racial minority individuals (Brown & Ostrove, 2013c; Lai et al., 2014). Recent allyship research (e.g., Chaney et al., 2023; Park et al., 2022) has highlighted how trustworthiness is relevant or related to allyship but empirical evidence linking specific allyship actions to perceived trustworthiness remains absent in the broader literature. To address this dearth of research, social exchange theory and relational signaling theory were applied to explain how allyship behaviors could increase perceived trustworthiness. Ally-related behaviors have been found to improve feelings of workplace inclusion and belongingness (e.g., Perales, 2022) as well as organizational identity-safety and organizational trust (e.g., Johnson & Pietri, 2022) for marginalized employees. When employees provide support to one another, the perceptions of an employee's ability have been found to increase, which positively contributes to the evaluation of trustworthiness (Mayer et al., 1995; Whitener et al., 1998). Within the social exchange theory literature, reciprocal support has been identified as an employee action that increases perceptions of trustworthiness (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Lai et al., 2014). These supportive behaviors include actions such as work-specific and emotional support (Lai et al., 2014; Smith et al., 1983). Allyship behaviors align with the emotional support component of reciprocal support. The supportive behaviors exhibited from allyship appear to send a positive signal toward targeted employees that ultimately promotes positive perceptions (e.g., trustworthiness) of other organizational members (Mitchell

et al., 2012). Allyship can therefore be added to the repository of interpersonal behaviors that are likely to increase trustworthiness.

Contrary to the second hypothesis, self-interest motivation was not found to change the relationship between allyship behaviors and trustworthiness. The findings therefore do not align with the theoretical prediction of relational signaling theory because the self-serving intentions of the trustee (e.g., ally) did not impede perceived trustworthiness (Six, 2007). Previous empirical research has indicated how motivations could indeed enhance or inhibit the perceptions of an ally. Specifically, previous research has indicated how ally motivations matter for how behaviors (e.g., using accurate and respectful language) are interpreted, which in turn influences how comfortable targets feel about their identity (Derricks et al., 2023). The presence of self-interest motivations has also been attributed to ineffective forms of allyship (Collier-Spruel & Ryan, 2022). In contrast, the findings appear to support the notion that the behaviors exhibited may matter regardless of the motivations behind enacting those behaviors. The importance of intentions, as outlined by relational signaling theory (e.g., Six, 2007), may not be as central in determining if a behavior should be labeled as positive (e.g., trustworthy). Indicating how regardless of the intentions, a positive relational change occurs when a supportive behavior is exhibited. These findings appear to be in greater alignment with previous social exchange theorizing which has focused on how individuals seek to maximize and gain resources (Blau, 2017; Blau, 1964). This perspective would argue if a positive behavior (e.g., support) is being provided, an employee would be receiving a resource, which increases positive perceptions (e.g., trustworthiness) of the other employee who provided support.

Contrary to the third hypothesis, race was not found to moderate the conditional impact of self-interest motivations. This indicates self-interest motivations were interpreted similarly

between White and Black employees. The current findings contradict previous research examining attempts by White allies to express egalitarian beliefs and how these misaligned with the interpretation of Black targets (Rosenblum et al., 2022). The current findings, however, provide evidence that both White allies and Black targets view intentions behind allyship behaviors in a similar manner.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The finding that allyship positively predicted trustworthiness suggests organizations should focus on guiding employees on how to better enact allyship. The promotion of allyship could include the integration of allyship behaviors into existing diversity and inclusion training. Diversity initiatives have been less productive than previously anticipated, and much of this can be attributed to a lack of focus on behavioral changes (Bezroukova et al., 2016; Leslie, 2019). Diversity training entails the process of informing employees about the experiences of disadvantaged individuals and promoting awareness by educating employees about associated biases (Leslie, 2019). A common goal among diversity training initiatives is addressing employee biases to prevent future discrimination (Leslie, 2019). Specific recommendations for increasing training effectiveness include pairing training with another diversity initiative (e.g., allyship) to promote behavioral skill development (Bezroukova et al., 2016). Although current diversity and inclusion training may change employees' attitudes or provide them with general knowledge about experiences, neither may necessarily result in effective behaviors being exhibited. The lack of behavioral focus from existing diversity and inclusion training provides an opportunity to improve training because allyship emphasizes the exhibition of behaviors (Brown & Ostrove, 2013c). The inclusion of allyship into diversity training may help to improve not only employee knowledge about the experiences of racial minority employees but may also help to

equip employees with relevant support behaviors (Collier-Spruel & Ryan, 2022). Allyship entails going further than simply acknowledging biases and includes treating other organizational members with respect and directly confronting instigators of prejudice (Brown & Ostrove, 2013c). Preventing discrimination by preemptively addressing biases may be ideal (e.g., Leslie, 2019) but unfortunately, discrimination is still a reality for many employees (Hebl et al., 2020). Allyship is particularly relevant to confrontations of racism as a White confronter is more likely to convince bystanders to reduce their own bias than a Black confronter (Gulker et al., 2013). The incorporation of allyship into diversity training can equip employees with relevant behaviors, such as confronting instigators of racism, ultimately helping organizations achieve the original goal of diversity training initiatives.

The current findings provide implications for how coworkers can specifically support one another. Although the importance of supervisors should not be understated, coworkers can provide valuable feedback (e.g., Eva et al., 2019) and support (e.g., Charoensukmongkol et al., 2016) when supervisors are unavailable. Allyship behaviors provide specific tools coworkers can utilize to increase perceptions of trustworthiness and strengthen interpersonal relationships. Specifically, this support can be directed toward coworkers with diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds who have otherwise been found to be less likely to develop trusting relationships with other organizational members (Jiang et al., 2011). Not only can the incorporation of allyship into diversity training improve behavioral outcomes but allyship training may also help to improve coworkers' relationships. In addition to advocacy and confronting behaviors, allyship includes relevant support behaviors that should be emphasized by practitioners. These include efforts to create personal connections, taking a genuine interest in their coworker's well-being, and maintaining respectful behavior (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a). This study, therefore, provides

insight for practitioners working to improve organizational relationships amongst diverse coworkers.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The current thesis presents four significant limitations to be addressed with future research. The first limitation of this study is measurement equivalence between White and Black employees. Specifically, White employees self-reported their allyship behaviors, evaluated their own motivations, and made a judgment about the extent to which their Black coworkers viewed them as trustworthy. In contrast, Black employees other-reported on the allyship behaviors of a White coworker, evaluated the motivations of their White coworker, and indicated the extent to which they perceived this White coworker to be trustworthy. Thus, the wording of the survey items for White employees differed from what Black employees were asked, which may have resulted in one set of constructs being measured for White employees and a different set of constructs being recorded for Black employees.

Previous research has indicated that other-reports tend to be more highly related to one another than self-reports are related to other-reports (Atkins & Wood, 2002). This difference highlights the importance of self-reporting representing one predictor and other-reporting representing another predictor. The allyship behaviors assessed for White employees were therefore possibly tapping into a different psychological construct than the construct being assessed by Black employees. Similarly, the self-report responses on the motivations of White employees may contain socially desirable responses about their own motivations. Overall, a lack of measurement equivalence would indicate how different constructs are being measured. Examples of distinctions made within organizational research include the difference between enacted incivility compared to experienced incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Hülshager et

al., 2021). In both cases a deviant behavior is being measured, however, the focus or perspective of the behaviors changes the construct. Put simply, the perception of allyship is different from self-reported allyship.

One approach to address measurement equivalence includes directly testing for its presence using a statistical methodology (e.g., multiple-group confirmatory factor analysis). Measurement equivalence occurs when individuals are measured to possess the same level of a latent trait and, despite being sampled from different subpopulations, share the same observed score (Drasgow, 1984; Somaraju et al., 2022). Measurement nonequivalence is therefore present when respondents from different subpopulations present different observed scores. Measurement nonequivalence can indicate the difference in how the measure itself was interpreted by the two subpopulations. Demographic differences can result in measurement nonequivalence for various reasons including differing societal values (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994) and differences in frames of reference (Heine et al., 2002). Researchers have recently recommended the statistical method utilized for testing measurement nonequivalence should match the specific goals of the study (Somaraju et al., 2022).

Another approach to address measurement inequivalence could take place via the recruitment and analysis of workplace dyads. Workplace dyads consist of pairs of employees with organizational ties (Gooty & Yammarino, 2011). Broadly research on workplace dyads focuses on the congruence or incongruence of perspectives within the dyad (Liden et al., 2016). The extent and manner in which these perspectives are congruent can predict a relational outcome (Liden et al., 2016). For example, these hypotheses can include two predictors that evaluate the same construct (e.g., allyship) and reveal how the congruence of these two perspectives (e.g., ally and target) may influence an outcome (e.g., perceived trustworthiness).

The flexibility provided by statistical methodology such as response surface analysis using polynomial regression allows these differences in perceptions to be accounted for and tested (Edwards, 2007; Edwards & Parry, 1993). Altogether, future racial allyship would benefit from dyadic research given the unique insight that can be provided from different perspectives.

Another clear limitation of the current study was recruiting only Black employees rather than recruiting racial minorities (e.g., Latino, Asian American, Native American) more broadly. Only Black employees were sampled in the current study given that many studies regarding racial minority experiences (e.g., Rosenblum et al., 2022) and racial allyship (e.g., Derricks et al., 2023) only examined Black individuals. Importantly, however, the growing diversity within organizations is not solely attributed to increased representations of Black employees instead this includes an array of racial minorities (Barak & Travis, 2013). These trends highlight how racial allyship likely generalizes to organizations when other racial minorities are employed. Additionally, broadening the sampling process to include more racial minorities is relevant because the allyship measurement utilized was developed with a diverse racial sample (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a). The racial identities included Asian, Pacific Islander, Native American, Hispanic/Latino, and biracial in addition to Black individuals (Brown & Ostrove, 2013a). This indicates that the racial allyship behaviors identified were found to be valued by a broad encompassing of racial minorities. Although the behaviors recorded apply to enacting allyship towards a Black employee, these behaviors also likely apply to other racial minority employees. Only recruiting Black employees, therefore, limited the generalizability of the current study. Future racial allyship research would benefit from recruiting a broader range of racial minority participants to increase generalizability and insight about support for racial minority employees.

A third limitation of the current study is the cross-sectional methodology. Although cross-sectional methodology is common within the organizational sciences, this methodological approach limits the ability to address important research questions such as the cause and effect of two constructs (Taris et al., 2021). The findings from the mediation analysis indicated that allyship behaviors were related to interpersonal trust through the partial mediation of trustworthiness. Unfortunately, the cross-sectional design did not permit the establishment of temporal precedence necessary for causal claims. Longitudinal methodology, however, enables the testing of causal models through the assessment of participants at a minimum of two different time points (Darlington & Hayes, 2017). This approach permits the predictor (e.g., allyship behaviors), mediator (e.g., trustworthiness), and outcome (e.g., interpersonal trust) variables to be measured sequentially, each at different time points. A longitudinal approach can therefore provide a structure that allows for more meaningful testing of theoretical models (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995) that are not obtainable through a cross-sectional approach. Altogether, future allyship research would benefit from an injection of longitudinal research to better understand the links between associated behaviors (e.g., emotional support) and individual outcomes (e.g., trust).

A fourth limitation of the current study was the reliability of the self-interest motivation measured used. Measure reliability presents a critical problem for all researchers (Revelle & Condon, 2019). Internal consistency entails how related items are to one another, where higher relatedness among items conveys higher levels of internal consistency (Padilla, 2019). High levels of reliability are desirable for a number of reasons, including reliability's impact on the correlation between constructs (Furr, 2017). The influence reliability has on observed correlations only compounds when accounting for interactive effects because the reliabilities for each construct are multiplied together (Aguinis & Gottfredson, 2010). Unfortunately, the two-

item measure of self-interest motivation possessed a low level of reliability ($R = .54$) which falls below the typical .70 cutoff (Loewenthal & Lewis, 2018). Unfortunately, the low reliability likely attenuated the interactive effect self-interest motivation had on the relationship between allyship and trustworthiness. Although some researchers argue that low reliability measures are acceptable in new areas of research (Ponterotto & Ruckdeschel, 2007), it remains likely that any true effect would be masked by the lack of reliability observed here. Future research would benefit from assessing self-interest motivation using a more reliable measure by making changes such as using more items (Furr, 2017).

CONCLUSION

The findings support the positive impact allyship can have on trustworthiness. Specifically, allyship behaviors appear to positively influence the perceived trustworthiness of workplace allies. Although self-interest motivations are theoretically important to interpreting allyship behaviors, no support was found in this study. Additionally, race was not found to have a conditional influence on self-interest motivation's moderating effect. Allyship behaviors likely provide valuable support to Black employees although aspects of the current research design limited the ability to make more meaningful inferences. Future allyship research would benefit from longitudinal methodology and a focus on workplace dyads.

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APPENDIX A

POWER ANALYSIS

```
#####Mikey Thesis Power Analysis#####

#online help @ https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/faux/vignettes/rnorm\_multi.html

#install.packages("ggplot2")

library(ggplot2)
library(dplyr)
library(tidyr)
library(faux)

n <- 300
significant <- numeric(10000)

for (l in 1:10000) {

  dat <- rnorm_multi(n = n,
    mu = c(0, 0),
    sd = c(1, 1),
    r = c(.55), #Rosenblum 2022 White internal motivation to allyship, and Collier & Ryan
    varnames = c("allyship", "motivation"),
    empirical = TRUE) #if specifying observed relationships use empirical = True

  dat$rownumber <- 1:nrow(dat)

  dat$race <- ifelse(dat$rownumber < n/2, 0, 1)

  cor(dat$allyship, dat$motivation)

#regressed onto an outcome
```

```
dat$trust <- .41*dat$allyship + .46*dat$motivation - .3*dat$race + 0*dat$allyship*dat$motivation +
0*dat$allyship*dat$race + 0*dat$motivation*dat$race + .3*dat$allyship*dat$motivation*dat$race + rnorm(n,0,1)
```

#allyship effect based on Mitra 2020

#motivation effect standardized from Rosenblum et al., 2022, .61 treated as average effect then moderated by race

#race effect estimated from Stolle et al., 2008

```
cor(dat$trust, dat$motivation)
```

```
dat$allyship_cent <- dat$allyship - mean(dat$allyship)
```

```
dat$motivation_cent <- dat$motivation - mean(dat$motivation)
```

```
dat$ally_mot_int <- dat$allyship_cent*dat$motivation_cent
```

```
dat$ally_race_int <- dat$allyship_cent*dat$race
```

```
dat$mot_race_int <- dat$motivation_cent*dat$race
```

```
dat$ally_mot_race_int <- dat$allyship_cent*dat$motivation_cent*dat$race
```

```
test <- lm(trust ~ allyship_cent + motivation_cent + race + ally_mot_int + ally_race_int + mot_race_int +
ally_mot_race_int,dat)
```

```
summary(test)
```

```
significant[1] <- coef(summary(test))[8,4]}
```

```
powertest <- data.frame(significant)
```

```
powertest$flag <- 0
```

```
for (i in 1:nrow(powertest)) {
```

```
  ifelse(powertest$significant[i] < .05, powertest$flag[i] <- 1, powertest$flag[i] <- 0)}
```

```
power <- mean(powertest$flag)
```

```
power
```

APPENDIX B

MEASURES

ALLY CHARACTERISTICS SCALE

Please rate the extent to which the statement describes your coworker who is not a member of your racial group from 1 (Not at all Characteristic) to 5 (Very Characteristic).

1. My coworker proposes possible actions to address potentially prejudice situations affecting.
2. My coworker acknowledges differences between us.
3. My coworker understands their own social identity.
4. My coworker is knowledgeable about communities other than their own (e.g., LGBTQIA+, racial communities).
5. My coworker is active in communities other than their own (e.g., LGBTQIA+, racial communities).
6. My coworker takes action to address bias among their own social identity group.
7. My coworker creates feelings of connection with me.
8. My coworker is interested in what happens to me.
9. My coworker is respectful towards me.
10. My coworker is nonjudgmental towards me.

ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST INSTRUMENT

Think about your coworker and then indicate the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Ability

1. My coworker is very capable of performing their job.
2. My coworker is known to be successful at the things they try to do.
3. My coworker has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done.
4. I feel very confident about my coworker's skills.
5. My coworker has specialized capabilities that can increase their performance.
6. My coworker is well qualified.

Benevolence

7. My coworker is very concerned about my welfare.
8. My needs and desires are very important to my coworker.
9. My coworker would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
10. My coworker really looks out for what is important to me.
11. My coworker will go out of their way to help me.

Integrity

12. My coworker has a strong sense of justice.
13. I never have to wonder whether my coworker will stick to their word.
14. My coworker tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.
15. My coworker's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.
16. I like my coworker's values.
17. Sound principles seem to guide my coworker's behavior.

BEHAVIORAL TRUST INVENTORY

Based on the statements provided below please indicate how willing you are to engage with your coworker from 1 (Not at all Willing) to 5 (Completely Willing).

Reliance

1. Rely on your coworker's work-related judgments?
2. Rely on your coworker's task-related skills and abilities?
3. Depend on your coworker to handle an important issue on your behalf?
4. Rely on your coworker to represent your work accurately to others?
5. Depend on your coworker to back you up in difficult situations?

Disclosure

6. Share your personal feelings with your coworker.
7. Confide in your coworker about personal issues that are affecting your work.
8. Discuss how you honestly feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustration.
9. Discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage you.
10. Share your personal beliefs with your coworker.

SELF-INTEREST MOTIVATION ITEMS

Please rate the extent to which the statement explains your coworkers actions when interacting with you from 1 (Highly Unlikely) to 5 (Highly Likely).

1. My coworker wants to look good.
2. My coworker wants to show off.

PROPENSITY TO TRUST SCALE

Please rate your agreement with the following statements from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

1. I usually trust people until they give me a reason not to trust them.
2. Trusting another person is not difficult for me.
3. My typical approach is to trust new acquaintances until they prove I should not trust them.
4. My tendency to trust others is high.

LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP QUESTION

Please indicate how long you have known your coworker. Year(s) followed by month(s).

VITA

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PUBLICATION

Koenig, B. L., **Savage, J. M.**, Leukel, P. J., Coles, L. M., Daugaard, A. G., Ashworth, A., Brorby, G., & Batres, C. (2023). Calibrated functional projection of sexual interest: A speed-dating cosmetics experiment. Accepted for publication in *The Journal of the Evolutionary Studies Consortium*, 13, *Sp. Iss.* (1), 1-15.

SELECT PRESENTATIONS

Savage, J. M., Olenick, J., Slaughter, C., & Lokke J. (2023, April). An Independent Replication and Exploration of the Within-Person Efficacy Effect [poster]. Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology Annual Conference, Boston, MA, United States.

Savage, J. M., Olenick, J., & Neal, Z. P. (2022, April). A Computational Model of Organizational Segregation Patterns [poster]. Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology Annual Conference, Seattle, WA, United States.

LEADERSHIP ROLES

Industrial-Organizational Professional Student Association (Vice President)

Coordinate and contribute to association meetings with the president and treasurer to facilitate information on upcoming events such as guest speakers, service projects, and academic conferences (Fall 2023- Present).

Presidential Ambassador (Vice President of Communications)

Serving as Vice President of Communications increased involvement in providing guidance towards organizational objectives, the training of other ambassadors, and a focus on improving communication between ambassadors and the advisors (Fall 2017- Spring 2021).

CONSULTING WORK

Ford Motor Company

Conducted literature review and created professional document overview project. Introduced project studying the impact of allyship in the workplace to Senior Specialist of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion. Compiled all relevant measures for questionnaire and created Qualtrics survey for distribution to Ford employees (Summer 2022- Present).