INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

VOLUME 8, NUMBER 1, August 2019 ISSN 2165-3240

A PUBLICATION OF EASTERN WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY AND THE INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

WWW.IJIR.NET

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

VOLUME 8, NUMBER 1 August 2019

Chief Editor
Ahmad Tootoonchi
College of Business
Eastern Washington University
668 N. Riverpoint Blvd. Suite A
Spokane, Washington 99202-1677
Tel: 509-828-1224
tootoonchi@ewu.edu

Associate Editor
Suzanne Milton
EWU Libraries
Eastern Washington University
816 F. Street. 100 LIB
Cheney, Washington 99004-2423
Tel: 509-359-7887
smilton@ewu.edu

Published By:
Eastern Washington University and the International Academy of Business Disciplines

ISSN 2165-3240 WWW.IJIR.NET

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

OFFICERS AND EDITORIAL BOARD

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

VOLUME 8, NUMBER 1 August 2019

Selection process

The August 2019 issue of the *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (IJIR)* has been the result of a rigorous process in two stages:

- Stage 1: all papers that were submitted to the 2019 IABD conference went through blind reviews, and high quality papers were recommended for presentation at the conference.

- Stage 2: approximately ten percent of the articles which were presented at the conference and one invited manuscripts (originally reviewed by the Chief Editor) were selected for possible publication in *IJIR*, and the respective authors were contacted and asked to resubmit their papers for a second round of reviews. These manuscripts went through a rigorous blind-review process by the editorial board members. In the end, three articles were recommended for publication in the August 2019 issue of *IJIR*.

IJIR is listed in *Cabell's* Directory of peer-reviewed publications, and we, the Editorial team, are committed to maintaining high standards of quality in all manuscripts published in *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*.

Ahmad Tootoonchi, Chief Editor

Contents

VOLUME 8, NUMBER 1, August 2019

FACTORS AFFECTING OVER-THE-TOP SERVICES: AN EXPANDED TECHNOLOGY ACCEPTANCE MODEL

C. Christopher Lee, Central Connecticut State University
christopher.lee@ccsu.edu

Lee W. Lee, Central Connecticut State University
LeeL@ccsu.edu

Hyoun Sook Lim, Central Connecticut State University
hlim@ccsu.edu

ABSTRACT

We explored the factors that influence consumers to adopt over-the-top (OTT) services. The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) served as the main framework for this research. To develop our seven hypotheses, we used entertainment, cost (price value), and quality variables, in addition to the four TAM variables – perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, intention to use, and adoption of OTT services. We employed regression models to analyze the dataset, composed of a sample of 115 responses from public university students in the New England region. Our initial analysis showed no statistical significance for the overall model. Yet, when we limited our response group to only young adults between 18 to 24 years old, we found statistical significance with regard to price value, entertainment, and quality variables.

INTRODUCTION

For decades, the mainstream television (TV) business model has always been characterized by linearity and one-to-one relationships within the TV market. In recent years, however, the TV industry has gone through a fundamental transformation. Whereas deregulation and liberalization allowed new competitors to enter the production and distribution stage of the industry, digitization created a window of opportunities for innovative TV services and disruptive business models (Given, Curtis, & Mccutcheon, 2012). This allowed services companies like Netflix, Hulu, Amazon, and YouTube to enter this traditionally closed TV ecosystem. This value-added service was then termed Over-the-top (OTT) services. OTT TV aggregators now allow TV producers and broadcasters to go directly to consumers, bypassing traditional network gatekeepers and access providers (Venturini, 2011). Most of us have been using OTT services without realizing it. The advent of smartphones has revolutionized OTT services, namely voice and video services over wireless networks since these machines have multimedia and advanced communication functions. According to the most recent market study by E-marketer (2018), nearly 765 million people worldwide will use a subscription OTT video service at least once per month this year. This total will represent 10.2% of the global population and 32.1% of digital video viewers worldwide. E-marketer estimates the global subscription OTT market will grow by 24.0% this year thanks to increasing internet penetration, faster speeds, and a broader shift toward internet entertainment. (eMarketer, 2018).

The phrase “OTT” comes from World War I, when soldiers leaping out of trenches to charge the enemy directly were said to be *going over the top,* almost certainly to their doom. This term was then chosen by the tech industry as its preferred term for delivering video content to TV over the internet. With this technology, what service providers like Apple, Microsoft, Amazon and others literally mean is that they’re going over the top of traditional cable TV by using broadband internet, but their strategies and relative success span the entire rich history of the term, from excessive indulgence to raw power grab to insane gonzo suicide mission. (Patel, 2012). The emergence of OTT service with its benefits has impacted the way consumers are now watching TV. While some have stuck to the traditional cable TV, others are still searching for which OTT service is suitable. Cohen’s (2016) research shows adoption of the smartphone and internet-enabled mobile devices is increasing towards full penetration in the key demographic, but consumers are still holding on to the idea of the TV as being their primary viewing screen for most forms of content. Baccarne, Evens, and Schuurman (2013) further strengthen this report by concluding that as (low) price is the main factor for OTT TV success, it should also be considered that a (high) quality TV signal over the internet also includes the price value (cost), and limitations, of an (high-speed) internet connection. Research into the viewing habits of college students shows that this population has unprecedented control over their reception or avoidance of advertising messaging, resulting in control of when, where, and how they view TV programming (Damratoski, Field, Mizell, & Budden, 2011). Dickinson (2014) reports that binge-watching among consumers is becoming an epidemic, where OTT platforms are the main source of binge-watching. Binge-watching is where an individual watches two through six or more episodes of a show in a 24-hour period.

There is a noticeable change in how consumers are choosing to watch TV. Whether consumers are choosing alternative devices to watch TV, such as tablets, mobile devices, or computers, or are using OTT services like Netflix, Hulu, YouTube, and Amazon Prime, this movement is impacting traditional cable TV providers in a significant way. The decision regarding whether to select an OTT service or stick to cable TV is being influenced by numerous factors.

In this paper, we study what factors affect people to choose an OTT service over cable TV. Thus, our primary research question can be stated as follows: Can we develop a predictive analytics model to assess customers using OTT services? In addition to this key question, there are a number of sub-questions that will help guide us in this investigation, specifically: Can we develop models based on linear regression to analyze consumer behavior in choosing OTT services? Can we determine whether consumers are moving away from traditional TV watching habits and towards different services, products, or watching on-the-go?

Furthermore, following the prediction of growth in OTT subscriptions, it becomes crucial for network providers to understand the factors that influence adoption of such services. Previous studies have examined how people are watching TV and what factors are motivating them to change their TV-watching habits (e.g., Ganuza & Viecens, 2014; Livingstone, 2002). Past studies have traditionally used theories such as the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), the Information System Success Model, the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), and the Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT), with focus on the evolution of the dominant cable and on mobile devices. However, little is known about the application of just TAM in addition to price value (cost), entertainment, and quality variables to develop and predict models to assess customers using the OTT services. Literature from Banerjee, Rappoport, and Alleman (2014), Baumgartner (2018), and Fuduric, Malthouse, and Viswanathan (2018) provide insight to the extent that OTT has on cord-cutting and the direction of OTT growth in the future, but fail to explain the why behind these relationships. Research focusing on TAM and UTAUT provide the foundation of our hypotheses into the adoption of OTT, but past studies have not combined the variables perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, price value, quality, and entertainment to better understand the intention to use OTT. Our objective is to develop an OTT services predictive model, using the above-mentioned factors, to fill this gap in the literature.

The rest of our paper is organized as follows: in the next section, we present a review of the literature related to prior studies and theoretical underpinnings underlying our primary hypotheses. We then explain the methodology and data collection, followed by statistical results. We conclude the paper with a discussion of our findings, as well as implications, both practical and for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Technology Acceptance Model

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is a theoretical model developed from the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) model. The TAM study was selected with the intention of developing and validating new measurement scales for perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEOU), which were the two distinct variables hypothesized to be determinants of computer usage (Davis, 1989). Specifically, this model sought to answer questions such as the development of a new scale to measure PU and PEOU, as well as to ascertain whether PU is significantly related with usage and PEOU. The study determined a stronger, significant link between PU and information technology (IT) usage, than PEOU and the latter. This relationship was even more pronounced when examining the effect of the independent variables (PU and PEOU) on IT usage using regression analysis (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989). Another TAM-based project aimed to provide more insight into what factors make IT easier to use. With refined, validated measures it would allow business in the technology field to better identify which features to include in future designs, which will in turn enhance user experience and increase sales (Davis, 1989). These measurement scales for PU are: quality of work, control over work, work more quickly, critical to my job, increase productivity, job performance, accomplish more work, effectiveness, makes job easier, and usefulness. The measurement scales for PEOU are: ease of use, cumbersome, ease of learning, frustrating, controllable, rigid & inflexible, ease of remembering, mental effort, understandable, effort to be skillful. The developed scale was refined and even streamlined in a several step process.

Venkatesh and Davis (2000) attempted to extend the TAM model to TAM2 and concluded that both social influence processes and cognitive instrumental processes significantly influenced user acceptance. In a follow-up study, Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis (2003) brought together eight models, including TAM and the DIT among others to develop the unified model that integrated elements across the eight models through empirical validation. The goal of this unified model is to provide a useful tool for managers to assess the likelihood of success of new technology introduction and to help them understand the drivers of acceptance in order to proactively design interventions (i.e. training, marketing, etc.).

Employing TAM, Mathieson, Peacock, and Chin (2001) contended that usage was volitional and there were no barriers that would prevent users from using technology, if they chose to do so. They put forth arguments about the importance of adequate resources that can both facilitate as well as inhibit adoption of technology with the extended TAM model, taking into account perceived user resources.

Other approaches have tried to integrate different models to realize the best of both worlds. Zhou (2008) extended diffusion research of the classic DIT with TAM, and found that DIT was more related to the voluntary adoption while TAM was more appropriate for the forced adoption of technology. The role of perceived attributes as the most powerful predictors of innovation adoption is reconfirmed by this study.

Furthering critique, Burton-Jones and Hubona (2005) took aim at the two constructs of TAM, mainly PU and PEOU. The critical assumption of TAM is that these constructs fully mediate the influence of external variables on usage behavior. Through the study, authors have concluded that individual user differences had significant direct effects on both the frequency and volume of usage, therefore clarifying that TAM's belief constructs were accurate but incomplete predictors of user behavior.

Lastly, research conducted by Chan-Olmsted, and Shay (2016) was based, in great part, on TAM. This article concluded that using the TAM model provided some crucial insights, specifically that usefulness appears to be the dominant aspect of TAM for appliance-like media devices marketed for their ease of use and when targeted at cross-generational market segments. Chen and Mort (2007) also critique TAM in a similar vein to Chan-Olmsted and Shay (2016), by presenting a different approach to explain consumer adoption intentions. The main argument is that not only motivators but also inhibitors should be examined when trying to explain consumer adoption behavior. Their emergent model provides new direction in the study of the consumer-focused approach to technology adoption.

Hypothesis Development

The TAM uses two distinct but interrelated constructs – Perceived Usefulness (PU) and Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) – as the basis for predicting end-user acceptance of computer technology. Of the two TAM variables, studies have found PU to have the stronger influence (Davis, Baozzi, &

Warshaw, 1992; Heijden, 2003; Igbaria, Parasuraman, & Baroudi, 1996). In the current study, the definition of PU follows the classical definition of Davis (1989): ‘the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance’. This study also highlights the factor ‘capable of being used advantageously’. Burton-Jones and Hubona (2005) take aim at the belief constructs of TAM, mainly PEOU and PU. Also, the research by Chan-Olmsted and Shay (2016) concluded that using the TAM model provided some crucial insights, specifically the usefulness appeared to be the dominant aspect of TAM for appliance-like media devices marketed for their ease of use and targeted at cross-generational market segments. Of the two attributes developed by TAM scholars (Davis, 1989; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000), PEOU is highly correlated with the DIT-attributes, and thus has been usually integrated to PDAI construct (e.g. Jebeile & Reeve, 2003; Moore & Benbasat, 1991; Zhu & He, 2002). The other one, namely, PU (the extent to which a person believes that using the system will enhance job performance), remains a distinct attribute to explain employees’ forced acceptance of information systems implemented by organizations. Its performance remains fairly stable across various empirical tests (e.g. Davis, 1989; Davis et al., 1989; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). Therefore, we hypothesize that PEOU is positively related to PU in OTT services:

H1: Perceived ease of use is positively related to perceived usefulness in OTT services.

Research by Burton-Jones and Hubona (2005) also took aim at the belief constructs of TAM, mainly PEOU and PU, with the critical assumption of TAM that these constructs fully mediate the influence of external variables on usage behavior. The study shows that there is a significant direct effect on both the frequency and the volume of use of OTT services. Therefore, PU is significantly related to the Intention to Use OTT. Shin (2009a) interestingly found that PU and Perceived Enjoyment (PE) did not directly aff ect potential consumers’ intention to adopt IPTV, although the two factors appear to be moderate antecedents for the intention to use IPTV. Although past research has been valuable in explaining how such beliefs as PU and PEOU lead to system use, it has not explored extensively how and why these beliefs develop. In this regard, Zhang and Sun (2006) has called for more research on moderating eff ects that can explain limited explanatory power and inconsistencies across studies. These moderating eff ects will be important for convergence technologies as they become more and more multi-tasking systems, and future research might productively investigate possible moderating factors in such complex systems. Therefore, we hypothesize that PU is positively related to intention to use OTT services:

H2: Perceived usefulness is positively related to intention to use OTT services.

A field study by Moore and Benbasat (1996) determined that both one’s own attitude and the expectations of others influenced the degree to which one used technology after adoption. The most significant perceptions, consistent with results from diffusion of innovation, were ease of use, relative advantage and compatibility, therefore PEOU is significant related to intention to use OTT. Moore and Benbasat (1991) argue that relative advantage and compatibility are empirically indistinguishable in the adoption of new media, whereas observability could be divided into result demonstrability and visibility. They borrow the ‘Ease of Use’ attribute from Davis’ TAM (1989) to replace Rogers’ ‘complexity’ attribute, and this has become a dominant measure in information technology research. Zhu and He’s (2002) research on the diffusion of the internet among Chinese users demonstrated that favorable perceptions of four attributes (i.e. relative advantage, compatibility, PEOU and result demonstrability) could lead individuals to be continuous internet users. Therefore, we hypothesize that PEOU is positively related to intention to use OTT services:

H3: Perceived ease of use is positively related to intention to use OTT service.

Chen and Mort (2007) also critique TAM in a similar vein to Chan-Olmsted and Shay (2016), by presenting a different approach to explain consumer's adoption intentions. Their main argument is that not only motivators, but also inhibitors should be examined when trying to explain consumer adoption behavior. Additionally, Quazi and Talukder (2011) find that favorable attitude towards innovation is important for successful adoption. While education attainment develops favorable attitude towards adoption, this favorable perception does not translate into actual acceptance of innovation in the workplace. Therefore, intention to use OTT is significantly related to OTT adoption.

Banerjee and colleagues (2014) report on efforts to forecast the effect of consumer choices on the future of video cord-cutting and the adoption. The research was based on a comprehensive tracking survey of households in the United States, the paper presents evidence on the household ownership of OTT-enabling devices and subscription to OTT-enabling services and forecasts their effects on OTT. Ordered logit regressions were used to analyze and forecast future choices of devices and services, and to estimate switching probabilities for OTT substitution by different consumer profiles. This paper also recognized that millennials have the largest adoption rate. Baumgartner (2018) outlines the most current statistical findings regarding OTT use among various demographics with Millennials leading the adoption trend. This study also provides insight into future developments, including the finding that 24% of people currently without OTT service are looking to purchase one, and 76% of adults recognize that some broadcasting services are a must-have, opening a possibility for 'skinny' TV packages. From this, we hypothesize the following:

H4: Intention to use OTT service is positively related to OTT Adoption.

In this paper, the variable of 'cost' is viewed from the perspective of value for money. In other words, if the value is high, we expect intention to use to be high. Baccarne et al. (2013) noted that low monthly cost of OTT services is a key determinant for OTT success. The research was collected from 1,269 respondents of an open call online survey of people aged between 20 and 50 in the Flanders region of Belgium. When asked whether 'price' is an important dimension when it comes to TV over the internet in the future, the results showed statistical significance with over 90% of respondents saying 'price' is either 'very important' or 'important'. Building on this foundation, we hypothesize that cost has a positive relationship with the intention to use OTT services.

Further to this, Brown and Venkatesh (2005) tested cost in relation to the adoption of technology in households. Wejnert (2002) has examined direct and indirect costs of innovations and how often they inhibit adoption, especially when costs exceed an actor's resource potential. Perception of cost of adoption of innovations that are incongruent with local cultural values seems to be greater for individuals than for collective actors. Hence, innovations that conflict with existing cultural norms are adopted only by a relatively small percentage of individual actors in the pool of potential adopters. Fliegel and Kivlin (1966) state that differences among innovations are important variables in explaining the diffusion process. Innovations perceived as most rewarding and least risky are accepted most rapidly, as expected; high costs do not serve as a brake on adoption; direct contribution of the innovation to a major occupational interest enhances adoption, while complexity and the pervasiveness of consequences following from acceptance have no effect. In an article by Fontaine and Noam (2013), the authors state that Telcos and Cablecos still benefit from a privileged access to the TV set through their TV set-top-box, a competitive advantage which is about to be undermined by low cost solutions to connect the TV set, such as Chromecast from Google. Based on these findings, we hypothesize that:

H5: Price value is positively related to intention to use OTT services.

Barker (2017) noted in his literature review that there are many different meanings of TV Quality, whether it be textual conventions, large casts, sociocultural awareness, demographic makeup of the audience, or sense of artistry. Findings noted that networks deploy Quality TV as a branding strategy to validate its programs and legitimize pay cable as a home for original series. Aligning with this finding, we predict that Quality will have a positive relationship with Intention to Use OTT services. Xu, Benbasat, and Cenfetelli (2013) tested information quality in relation to integrating service quality with system and information quality. Shin's (2009b) study confirmed the impact of information quality and system quality on consumers' technology experience. The study specifically showed that the perceived quality of content and system were found to have a significant eff ect on users' PU and perceived enjoyment. According to Davis et al. (1992), intrinsic factors include perceived enjoyment, along with perceived content quality, and extrinsic factors include PU, possibly reinforced by perceived system quality. Lin and Lu (2000) further developed information quality as part of a determinant of system quality and argue that information quality variables are useful predictors of PEOU and PU. Cheong and Park (2005) applied perceived content quality to the acceptance model of mobile internet. Their factor analyses showed content quality as a valid predictor and concluded that it is a significant factor in the adoption of that technology. They also found positive causal relationships with perceived system quality and PU. Shin (2009a) demonstrated that employing perceived content quality and perceived system quality would be a worthwhile extension of the TAM, as both factors were found to be influential in predicting the behavioral intention to use IPTV. The results of SEM show that the perceived quality of content and system were found to have a more significant influence than any other variables in developing attitudes toward IPTV. The uniqueness of the technological features of IPTV derives more from the quality it off ers users, rather than from an escalation along the quantity dimension. Drawing from this, we predict the following:

H6: Quality is positively related to intention to use OTT services.

Park (2017) investigated the adoption rate of OTT across three different countries. They found that many consumers were increasing their use of OTT services driven by better affordability and a greater selection of content offerings, i.e. entertainment offerings. Baccarne and colleagues (2013) found that as "screen" access increases, available entertainment options also increase, which gives consumers more choices than traditional TV offerings. This in turn allows several OTT services to emerge. Banerjee et al. (2014) reported on efforts to forecast the effect of consumer choices on the future of OTT. The Uses and Gratifications (U&G) framework was used to reconcile the PU concept with specific tablet functions related to social media, e-commerce, entertainment, and productivity tasks in which mobile media consumers typically engage. Richter (2013) calls on Gartner survey on tablets, as it emerges that tablets are primarily used for entertainment purposes. Tablet users spent 50 percent of their screen time on entertainment activities such as gaming, reading, or listening to music. Moreover, tablets were predominantly used in the evening, i.e. at home, where they served as a living room companion during leisure time. Accordingly, we hypothesize that:

H7: Entertainment is positively related to intention to use OTT services.

METHODOLOGY

Based on the seven research hypotheses, we present Figure 1 to describe the overall research framework of this study below.

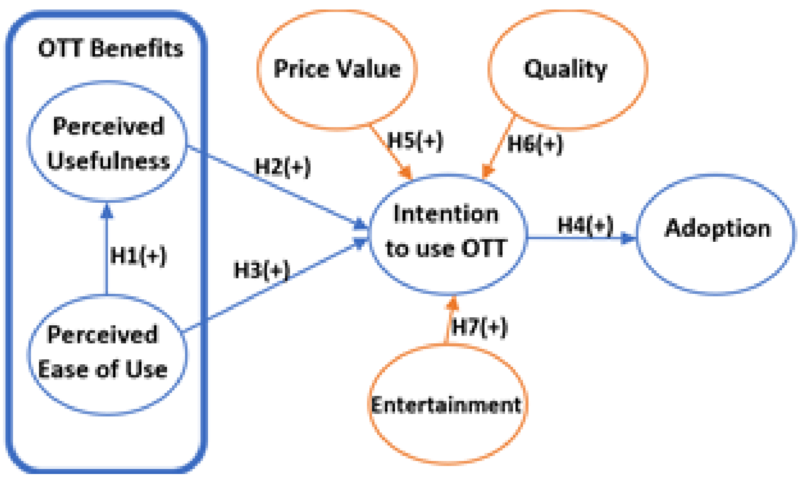

FIGURE 1. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

As shown in the research framework, we identify seven variables to test the proposed seven hypotheses. The variables are described in turn next.

Perceived Ease of Use

As the key construct in Davis (1989), Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) is correlated to an individual's intention to use a new technology. PEOU is the degree to which a person believes that a system will be easy to use. Bury and Li (2015) hypothesized that convenience has a significant relationship with consumers switching their traditional TV to OTT services. Adding to this, a comScore (2014) study show that most of the respondents prefer to watch TV online due to the convenience of viewing anytime and anywhere. To measure the PEOU construct, we modified four items from two prior studies (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012; Kim, Chun, & Song, 2009) as follows:

Q1. Learning how to use OTT services is easy for me.
Q2. My interaction with OTT services is clear and understandable.
Q3. I find OTT services easy to use.
Q4. It is easy for me to become skillful at using OTT services.

Perceived Usefulness

As the key construct in Davis (1989), Perceived Usefulness (PU) is correlated to Intention to Use a new technology. PU is the degree to which a person believes a system will enhance their performance. Banerjee et al.'s (2012) research hypothesized that consumers consider PU when deciding what device to use to watch their TV entertainment. To measure the PU construct, we drew on four items from Lee, Choi, Kim, & Hong (2007) as follows:

Q19. I find OTT services useful in my daily life
Q20. Using OTT services helps me watch movies/TV content more quickly.
Q21. Using OTT services improves my chances of watching movies/TV content that are interesting to me.
Q22. Using OTT services increases my productivity.

Intention to Use

The variable Intention to Use (IU) is a foundation in TAM (Davis, 1989; Davis et al., 1992). Numerous studies examining different independent variables have been conducted to understand what makes users want to use a new system. To measure the IU construct for the current investigation, we employed three items from Venkatesh et al. (2012) as follows:

Q12. I intend to continue using OTT services in the future.
Q13. I will always try to use OTT services in my daily life.
Q14. I plan to keep using OTT services frequently.

Adoption of OTT

Adoption of a new system is the primary purpose of this research endeavor. After attempting to understand IU of OTT, we want to determine if the IU then drives the adoption of OTT. To measure the OTT Adoption variable, we modified an item from Venkatesh et al. (2012) as follows:

Q36. Please choose your usage frequency for OTT services.
Q37. How often do you stream video via OTT services?
Q38. How often do you watch movies/TV content, using a PC/laptop?
Q39. How often do you watch movies/TV content, using a tablet?
Q40. How often do you watch movies/TV content, using a smartphone?

Price Value

When consumers weigh factors for deciding which new technologies or systems to use, monetary cost is considered. Venkatesh et al. (2012) employed cost value as an independent variable and considered price value from the perspective of cost compared to perceived value derived from a technology. To measure the price value construct, we adapted three items from Venkatesh et al. (2012) as follows:

Q5. OTT services are reasonably priced.
Q6. Using OTT services is a good value for the money.
Q7. At the current price, OTT services provide a good value.

Quality

Meola (2016) hypothesized that quality is an important consideration in the TV viewing device decision. Barker (2017) predicted that among Millennials, quality is positively correlated with choosing to switch from traditional TV services to OTT. To measure the quality construct, we sourced four items from Wixom & Todd (2005) as follows:

Q15. Overall, I would give OTT services a high rating in terms of quality.
Q16. In general, I would give OTT services high marks.
Q17. Overall, OTT services provide me with high-quality movies/TV content.
Q18. In general, I would give movies/TV content from OTT services high marks.

Entertainment

Dickinson (2014) reported that happiness had a significant relationship with Millennials switching from traditional TV services to OTT. Bruni and Stanca (2005) hypothesized that consumers consider happiness when deciding what device to use to watch their TV entertainment (Xu et al., 2013). To measure the entertainment construct, we modified four items from Kim and Niehm (2009) as follows:

Q8. I feel happy when I use OTT services.
Q9. I feel sociable when I use OTT services.
Q10. The OTT platform design is innovative.
Q11. OTT services are creative.

Research Models

To further study our model/theory, we ran various regression models. By doing this, we were able to pinpoint more clearly what factors and/or combination of factors impact the decision to switch from Cable/Satellite TV to OTT services, and what devices are used for TV entertainment. To explain the Intention to Use OTT services, we propose a general multivariate statistical model as follows:

$$Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \varepsilon$$

where Y_1 = Intention to Use
X_1 = Perceived Ease of Use
X_2 = Perceived Usefulness
X_3 = Price Value
X_4 = Quality
X_5 = Entertainment

In addition to the above, we employed two simple regression models to address particular hypotheses. To test Hypothesis 1, we proposed the following model:

$$X_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

where X_1 = Perceived Ease of Use
X_2 = Perceived Usefulness

To test Hypothesis 4, we developed the following model:

$$Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_1 + \varepsilon$$

where Y_1 = Intention to Use
Y_2 = Adoption of OTT

Data Collection & Sample

The data were collected from students attending a public university in the Northeastern region of the United States. Respondents were enrolled in either graduate or undergraduate programs in a variety of business courses, and were likely to have encountered or used a form of OTT services in their daily activities. The survey questionnaire consisted of 42 questions, comprising the individual items listed above. Responses to these questions ranged from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’ on the scale of 1-7. The remaining two questions pertained to demographical information. We gathered 117 completed survey questionnaires. After screening the data, two unusable responses were dropped, therefore the final data sample is 115.

The majority of the sample (49.6%) are female; 47.8% of the respondents are male, while the remaining 2.6% chose not indicate. As well, 83.5% of respondents belonged in the 18-24 years age group (1), followed by 25-34 years (2) at 11.3%, 35-44 years (1) at 1.7%, and finally 45-55 years (5) at 0.9%.

RESULTS

Table 1 below shows the descriptive statistics of seven constructs.

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONSTRUCTS

Construct	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
						Statistic	S.E.	Statistic	S.E.
Adopt OTT	115	6.00	28.00	17.8609	5.68452	-.007	.226	-.920	.447
Intention	115	1.00	26.33	5.7884	2.32762	5.836	.226	53.633	.447
PEOU	115	1.00	7.00	6.0674	1.32135	-1.834	.226	3.148	.447
PU	115	1.50	7.00	4.9746	1.01836	-.637	.226	.586	.447
Price Value	115	1.00	7.00	5.3261	1.15942	-.705	.226	.719	.447
Quality	115	2.00	7.00	5.5080	1.04992	-1.090	.226	1.684	.447
Entertainment	115	2.50	7.00	5.1188	.93678	-.244	.226	.177	.447
Experience	115	1.00	7.00	5.4152	1.23139	-.794	.226	.407	.447

PEOU=Perceived Ease of Use. PU=Perceived Usefulness.

Cronbach’s Alpha was utilized to measure the reliability of the proposed constructs. According to George and Mallery (2003), a reliability coefficient of 60% or higher is considered marginally acceptable, and a reliability coefficient of 70.0% or higher is considered acceptable. Based on the results of Cronbach’s Alpha, we concluded that our survey questions are reliable since all results have a reliability greater than 60.0%. The reliability analysis results are illustrated in Table 2.

TABLE 2. RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Scale	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Ease of Use	Q1 – Q4	.961
Price Value (Cost)	Q5 – Q7	.907
Entertainment	Q8 – Q11	.654
Intention to Use	Q12, Q13, Q14 dropped	.750
Quality	Q15 – Q18	.903
Perceived Usefulness	Q19 – Q22	.647
Experience	Q23 – Q26	.890
Adoption of traditional cable TV	Q27 – Q29	.689
Adoption of OTT	Q36 – Q38, Q40, Q39 dropped	.696

We performed a Pearson correlation analysis between variables (see Table 3). It shows that adoption to OTT service is significantly correlated with PU and PEOU ($p < .01$), and with quality, entertainment, price value and experience ($p < .05$). Adoption of traditional cable TV is significantly correlated at .05 level with PU and experience. Intention to Use is significantly correlated with PU, quality, entertainment, price value, PEOU, and experience ($p < .01$). PU is significantly correlated with quality, entertainment, price value, PEOU, and experience ($p < .01$). Quality is significantly correlated with entertainment, price value, PEOU, and experience ($p < .01$). Entertainment is significantly correlated with price value, PEOU, and experience ($p < .01$). Price value is significantly correlated with PEOU and experience ($p < .01$). PEOU is significantly correlated with experience ($p < .01$) and at 0.05 level with gender ($p< .05$).

TABLE 3. PEARSON CORRELATIONS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Adopt OTT		.087	.115	.212*	.260**	.363**	.353**	.164*	.221**	-.093	.051
2. Adopt TV			-.027	.196*	-.034	.116	-.102	-.088	-.205*	-.022	-.030
3. Intention				.376**	.471**	.400**	.414**	.420**	.243**	-.005	-.121
4. PU					.653**	.676**	.580**	.499**	.258**	-.125	-.075
5. Quality						.645**	.676**	.700**	.350**	-.134	.037
6. Entertainment							.596**	.518**	.220**	-.136	-.002
7. Price Value								.618**	.323**	-.022	.011
8. PEOU									.438**	-.157*	.121
9. Experience										-.093	.127
10. Gender											-.007
11. Young vs Old											

Note. N = 115, * $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed). Gender is a dummy variable being 0 for male and 1 for male respondents. Young Vs Old is a dummy variable being 0 for young students between that ages of 18-24 and 1 for older students from 25 years and over. PU=Perceived Usefulness. PEOU=Perceived Ease of Use.

To test the Hypothesis 1, we performed a regression analysis. The results indicated statistical significance in the model [Adjusted $R^2 = .242$; $F(1, 113) = 37.445$; $p < .01$], showing that PEOU is significantly related to PU ($\beta = .499$, $p < .01$; see Table 4).

TABLE 4. REGRESSION MODEL ON PERCEIVED USEFULNESS

Dependent Variable = Perceived Usefulness Adjusted $R^2 = .242$; $F(1,113) = 37.445^{**}$				
	B	SE	Beta	t
Constant	2.642	0.390		6.772^{**}
PEOU	.384	.063	.499	6.119^{**}

$^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$. PEOU = Perceived Ease of Use.

In order to test Hypotheses 2, 3, 5, 6, and 7, we ran a regression model on intention to use OTT, including PU, PEOU, price value, entertainment, and quality as independent variables. The overall model was statistically significant [Adjusted $R^2 = .222$; $F(5,109) = 7.497$; $p < .01$], but none of the independent variables were found to be significant (PEOU, $\beta = .131$, *n.s.*; price value, $\beta = .100$, *n.s.*; entertainment, $\beta = .105$, *n.s.*; quality, $\beta = .217$, *n.s.*; PU, $\beta = .040$, *n.s.*; see Table 5).

TABLE 5. REGRESSION MODEL ON INTENTION TO USE OTT

Dependent Variable = Intention to Use OTT Adjusted $R^2 = .222$; $F(5,109) = 7.497^{**}$				
	B	SE	Beta	t
Constant	-1.130	1.179		-.958
PEOU	.231	.212	.131	1.090
Price Value	.201	.245	.100	.819
Entertainment	.262	.306	.105	.857
Quality	.481	.315	.217	1.528
PU	.091	.281	.040	.325

$^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$. PEOU = Perceived Ease of Use. PU=Perceived Usefulness

Although we did not hypothesize the effect of demographics in the model, we found interesting results when considering only respondents in the 18 – 24 years age category. As shown in Table 6, the analysis indicated that price value ($\beta = .210$, $p < .05$), entertainment ($\beta = .237$, $p < .05$), and quality ($\beta = .388$, $p < .01$) were significantly related to Intention to Use OTT, whereas PEOU ($\beta = .031$, *n.s.*) and PU ($\beta = .074$, *n.s.*) were not significantly related to intention to use OTT.

TABLE 6. REGRESSION MODEL ON INTENTION TO USE OTT (AGE 18 - 24 YEARS OLD)

Dependent Variable = Intention to Use OTT Adjusted R^2 =.653; F (5,90) = 36.714**				
	B	SE	Beta	t
Constant	-0.342	0.468		-.731
PEOU	.031	.085	.031	.358
Price Value	.219	.099	.210	2.209*
Entertainment	.302	.122	.237	2.479*
Quality	.478	.126	.388	3.787**
PU	.094	0.118	.074	.802

$^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$. PEOU = Perceived Ease of Use. PU=Perceived Usefulness.

To test Hypothesis 4, we ran another regression model in which adoption of OTT is a dependent variable and the intention to use OTT is the only predictor. The analysis indicated that the simple regression model was not statistically significant [Adjusted R^2 = =.016; F (1,113) = 2.909; *n.s.*], and intention to use OTT was not significantly related to adoption of OTT (β = .158, *n.s.*).
We again ran the model, isolating respondents in the 18-24 years age group. The adjusted R^2 value increased to .206, and became statistically significant. The results also showed that, for those who are 18-24 years old, intention to use OTT was significantly related to adoption to OTT (β = .463, p < .05; see Table 7).

TABLE 7. REGRESSION MODEL ON ADOPTION OF OTT (AGE 18 - 24 YEARS OLD)

Dependent Variable = Adoption of OTT Adjusted R^2 =.206; F (1,94) = 25.585**				
	B	SE	Beta	t
Constant	6.164	2.397		2.572*
Intention to Use OTT	2.09	.413	.463	5.058**

$^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

DISCUSSION

This study found that Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) is statically significant to Perceived Usefulness (PU) in OTT service. Also, the Pearson Correlation analysis showed that PU is significantly correlated at .01 with PEOU. These results are consistent with those reported by Burton-Jones and Hubona (2005), which take aim at the belief constructs of TAM, mainly PEOU and PU. Moreover, the research by Chan-Olmsted and Shay (2016) concluded that using the TAM model did provide some crucial insights, specifically the usefulness appears to be the dominant aspect of TAM for appliance-like media devices marketed for their ease of use and targeted at cross-generational market segments. This shows that PEOU and PU are two potential benefits of OTT services. We can therefore conclude that Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Our findings revealed that both PU and PEOU are not significantly related to intention to use OTT services in the full regression model. Even running the model including only respondents between the ages of 18-24 years, we did not find the significant relationships between these two variables. These findings aligned with those of Shin (2009a), which stated that PU and perceived enjoyment did not directly affect potential consumers' intention to adopt IPTV. However, our results were not consistent with findings of Moore and Benbasat (1996), who determined that both individual attitude and the expectations of others influenced the degree to which an individual used technology after adoption, and hence PEOU is significant related to intention to use OTT. We conclude that Hypotheses 2 and 3 are not supported in this study.

Our results also showed that intention to use OTT services was not significantly related to adoption of OTT services in the full model including the entire sample. However, interestingly, when only young adults between ages of 18-24 were included in the analysis, intention to use OTT services became significantly related to the adoption of OTT services. Based on these findings, we can conclude that, among respondents in the 18 – 24 years age group, Hypothesis 4 is statistically supported.

Similarly, the results showed that price value, quality, and entertainment were not significantly related to intention to use OTT service in the full model. However, when only the young adults (18-24 years old) were included in the analysis, all of these variables were significantly related to Intention to Use OTT service. Based on these findings, we can conclude that, considering only respondents between 18-24 years old, Hypotheses 4, 6, and 7 are supported.

Managerial Implications

This study provides evidence that price value, quality, and entertainment offerings have significant impacts to consumers' intention to use OTT services. Therefore, we suggest managers should prioritize price value greater than cost, high quality and high entertainment offerings if managers try to increase their customer base. Results from this study can also show managers that OTT services are used more than traditional TV for young adults aged between 18-24 years. Our data can help managers target the appropriate demographics in their marketing efforts. Our findings would also suggest that companies in the industry of conventional TV services should invest less in traditional TV offerings and pursue new offerings in OTT services. For example, a traditional channel such as *Lifetime* should invest in online offerings and mobile phone offerings to deliver content. Managers who rely on traditional TV services for advertisements should shift their marketing dollars towards OTT services. Furthermore, our study findings signal the importance of recognizing different content delivery methods which can enhance marketing efforts, such as adopting ads from a large TV screen to a mobile form display size.

CONCLUSION

We recommend that future research on OTT services adoption should be expanded to a larger survey pool to increase the diversity of the demographics considered. As with any research endeavor, our study had several limitations. A primary constraint was the limited sample (n=115) sourced from a particular context (public university students in the American Northwest), which affects the generalizability of the results. Future investigations would benefit from an increased sample size that includes respondents from around the world—not just the United States. Moreover, although we used only seven variables including five predictors (PU, PEOU, entertainment, price value, quality), one moderator (intention to use), and one dependent variable (adoption of OTT), we believe adding more variables would have provided a deeper understanding of the complex relationships. Further work can be done by using additional methods of analyzing the data, for example, SEM analysis and logistic regression.

This research provides empirical support that OTT services are being adopted and taking viewership away from traditional TV offerings, especially among 18-24 years age group. Our study expands on previous research to reveal that entertainment, quality and price value are significantly and positively related to Intention to Use OTT services. We believe that our work can help companies that offer OTT services to obtain a deeper understanding of Millennials, and to more accurately determine the most crucial factors to consumers regarding the adoption of OTT services and platform viewing decisions.

REFERENCES

Baccarne, B., Evens, T., & Schuurman, D. (2013). The television struggle: An assessment of Over-the-Top television evolutions in a cable dominant market. *Communications & Strategies*, (*92*), 43–61.

Banerjee, A., Rappoport, P. N., & Alleman, J. (2014). Forecasting video cord-cutting: The bypass of traditional pay television. In J. Alleman, A. M. Patricia, & P. N. Rappoport (Eds.), *Demand for communications services-insights and perspectives* (pp. 59–82). New York, NY: Springer.

Barker, C. (2017). “Great shows, thanks to you”: From participatory culture to “Quality TV” in Amazon’s pilot season. *Television & New Media*, *18*(5), 441–458.

Baumgartner, J. (2018) Study: Younger viewers gravitating to OTT TV. *Multichannel News*. 4/16/2018, *39*(9), 30–30. 1/2p.

Brown, S. & Venkatesh, V. (2005). Model of adoption of technology in households: A baseline model test and extension incorporating household life cycle, *MIS Quarterly* (*29*)3, 399–426.

Bruni, L. & Stanca, L. (2008). Watching alone: Relational goods, television and happiness. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, *65*(3), 506–528.

Burton-Jones, A. & Hubona, G. (2005). Individual differences and usage behavior: Revisiting a technology acceptance model assumption. *Database for Advances in Information Systems, 36*(2), 58–77.

Bury, R. & Li, J. (2015). Is it live or is it time shifted, streamed or downloaded? Watching television in the era of multiple screens. *New Media & Society*, *17*(4), 592–610.

Chan-Olmsted, S. & Shay, R. (2016). Understanding tablet consumers: Exploring the factors that affect tablet and dual mobile device ownership. *Journal of Mass Communication Quarterly*, *93*(4), 857–883.

Chen, C. & Mort, G. S. (2007). Consumers' technology adoption behavior: An alternative model, *The Marketing Review*, *7*(4), 355–368.

Cheong, J. & Park, M., (2005). Mobile internet acceptance in Korea. *Internet Research*, *15*(2), 125–140.

Cohen, B. H. (2016). Cutting the Cord: Where are all the generation Y viewers going? *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation*, Drexel University.

comScore. (2014, January 15). comScore releases December 2013 U.S. search engine rankings. Retrieved October 25, 2018, from http://www.comscore.com/Insights/Press_Releases/2014/1/comScore_Releases_December_2013_US_Search_Engine_Rankings.

Damratoski, K. J., Field, A. R., Mizell, K. N., & Budden, M. C. (2011). An investigation into alternative television viewership habits of college students. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, *27*(1) 69–76.

Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived Usefulness, Perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technologies. *MIS Quarterly*, *13*(3), 319–39.

Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P. & Warshaw, P. R. (1989). User acceptance of computer technology: A comparison of two theoretical models. *Management Science*, *35*(8), 982–1003.

Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R., (1992). Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to use computers in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *22*(14), 1111–1132.

Dickinson, K. (2014). *Confessions of the millennial binge-viewer: An examination of the TV show binge-viewing phenomenon* (Order No. 1526238). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses A&I. (1658785534).

eMarketer (2018, July 18). eMarketer releases new worldwide OTT video service figures: Subscription over-the-top market will grow 24.0% this year due to increasing internet penetration. *eMarketer*. Retrieved October 25, 2018, from https://www.emarketer.com/content/emarketer-releases-new-worldwide-ott-figures?ecid=NL1001.

Fliegel, F. C. & Kivlin J. E. (1966). Attributes of innovations as factors in diffusion. *American Journal of Sociology*, *72*(3), 235–48.

Fontaine, G., Noam, E. M. (2013). Cutting the cord: common trends across the Atlantic. *Communication & Strategies*, *92*(4), 1–13.

Fuduric, M., Malthouse, E., & Viswanathan, V. (2018). Keep it, shave it, cut it: A closer look into consumer's video viewing behavior. *Business Horizons*, *61*(1), 85–93.

Ganuza, J. J. & Viecens, M. F. (2014). Over-the-top (OTT) content: Implications and best response strategies of traditional telecom operators. Evidence from Latin America. *Digital Policy, Regulation, and Governance*, *16*(5), 59–69.

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2003). *Using SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Given, J., Curtis, R., & Mccutcheon, M. (2012). Online video in Australia. *International Journal of Digital Television*, *3*(2), 141–162.

Heijden, H., (2003). Factors influencing the usage of websites: The case of a generic portal in The Netherlands. *Information and Managemen*t, *40*(6), 541–549.
Igbaria, M., Parasuraman, S., & Baroudi, J. J., (1996). A motivational model of microcomputer usage. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *13*(1), 127–143.
Jebeile, S. & Reeve, R. (2003). The Diffusion of E-learning innovations in an Australia secondary college: Strategies and tactics for educational leaders. *The Innovation Journal*, *8*(4), 1–21.
Kim, H. & Niehm, L. S. (2009). The impact of website quality on information quality, value, and loyalty intentions in apparel retailing, *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *23*(3), 221–233.
Kim, Y, Chun, J., & Song, J. (2009). Investigating the role of attitude in technology acceptance from an attitude strength perspective. *International Journal of Information Management 29*(1), 67–77.
Lee, I., Choi, B., Kim, J., & Hong, S.-J. (2007). Culture-technology fit: Effects of cultural characteristics on the post-adoption beliefs of mobile internet users. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce 11*(4), 11–51.
Lin, J. & Lu, H., (2000). Towards an understanding of the behavioral intention to use a web site. *International Journal of Information Management*, *20*(3), 197–208.
Livingstone, S. (2002). *Young people and new media: Childhood and the changing media environment*. London, UK: Sage.
Mathieson, K., Peacock, E., & Chin, W. W. (2001). Extending the technology acceptance model: The influence of perceived user resources. *Database for Advances in Information Systems, 32*(3), 86–112.
Meola, A. (2016). Most people watch online TV shows on this one device. *Business Insider*. Retrieved October 30, 2017, from http://www.businessinsider.com/most-people-watch-online-tv-shows-on-this-one-device-2016-5.
Moore, G. C. & Benbasat, I. (1991). Development of an instrument to measure the perceptions of adopting an information technology innovation. *Information Systems Research, 2*(3), 192–222.
Moore, G. C. & Benbasat, I. (1996). Integrating diffusion of innovations and theory of reasoned action models to predict utilization of information technology by end-users. In K. Kautz, J. Pries-Heje (Eds.), *Diffusion and Adoption of Information Technology*, (pp. 132–146). London, UK: Chapman & Hall.
Park, E-A. (2017). Why the networks can't beat Netflix: Speculations on the US OTT services market. *Digital Policy, Regulation and Governance*, *19*(1), 21–39.
Patel, N. (2012, November 12). Over the top: the new war for TV is just beginning. *The Verge*. Retrieved October 15, 2018, from https://www.theverge.com/2012/11/12/3633984/future-of-tv-over-the-top.
Quazi, A. & Talukder, M. (2011). Demographic determinants of adoption of technological innovation. *The Journal of Computer Information Systems*, *52*(1), 34–42.
Richter, F. (2013, September). Tablets are used mainly for entertainment. *Gartner*. Retrieved October 1, 2018, from http://www.statista.com/chart/1482/activities-conducted-on-tablets/.
Shin, D. H. (2009a). An empirical investigation of a modified technology acceptance model of IPTV. *Behaviour & Information Technology*, *28*(4), 361–372.

Shin, D. H. (2009b). Understanding User acceptance of DMB in South Korea using the modified technology acceptance model. *International Journal of Human-computer Interaction, 25*(3), 173–198.
Venkatesh, V. & Davis, F. (2000). A theoretical extension of the technology acceptance model four longitudinal field studies. *Management Science*, *46*(2), 186–204.
Venkatesh, V., Morris, M., Davis, G., & Davis, F. (2003). User acceptance of information technology: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, *27*(3), 425–478.
Venkatesh, V., Thong, J. Y. L., & Xu, X. (2012). Consumer acceptance and use of information technology: Extending the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology. *MIS Quarterly*, *36*(1), 157–178.
Venturini, F. (2011). *The race to dominate the future of TV*, New York, NY: Accenture.
Wejnert, B. (2002). Integrating models of diffusion of innovations: A conceptual framework. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *28*(1), 297–326.
Wixom, B. & Todd, P. A. (2005). A theoretical integration of user satisfaction and technology acceptance. *Information Systems Research*, *16*(1), 85–102.
Xu, J., Benbasat, I., and Cenfetelli, R. T. (2013). Integrating service quality with system and information quality: An empirical test in the E-Service context. *MIS Quarterly 37*(3), 777–794.
Zhang, P. & Sun, H. (2006). The role of moderating factors in user technology acceptance. *International Journal of Human–Computer Studies, 64*(2), 53–78.
Zhou, Y. (2008). Voluntary adopters versus forced adopters: integrating the diffusion of innovation theory and the technology acceptance model. *News Media & Society*, *10*(3), 475–496.
Zhu, J. & He, Z. (2002). Perceived characteristics, perceived needs, and perceived popularity: Adoption and use of the internet in China. *Communication Research*, *29*(4), 466–95.

THE INFLUENCE OF PAST RELATIONSHIP TRUST VIOLATION ON THE RELATIONAL OUTCOMES OF CURRENT RELATIONSHIPS

H. Paul LeBlanc III, The University of Texas at San Antonio
paul.leblanc@utsa.edu

Jessica Garcia, The University of Texas at San Antonio
jessica.garcia@utsa.edu

ABSTRACT

Interpersonal relationships depend upon trust for maintenance and positive relational outcomes. But what is trust, and what happens when that trust is violated? This paper explores the effects of trust violation in previous relationships on perceptions and metaperceptions of the partner in current relationships. Utilizing an empirical phenomenological approach, the researcher interviewed adults regarding their life experiences of interpersonal trust, trust violation and "dark" perceptions of other's motivations. This paper offers a reflexive, and self-reflexive, response to the question "To what degree do my perceptions of the other affect relational outcomes?" This paper also offers possible explanations to how negative experiences of past relationships can and do influence behavior in current relationships which may be destructive or otherwise unhealthy to the relationship. It is proposed that "dark" perception occurs when an individual judges intent or motivations for the other's behaviors based upon their experiences with a third party. In determining the source of "dark" perception, scholars and practitioners may offer guidance for improvement on relational outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Interpersonal relationships depend upon trust for maintenance and positive relational outcomes. According to Held, trust has to do with situations of uncertainty and "that trust is most required exactly when we least know whether a person will or will not do an action" (1968, p. 157). An individual may trust his or her relational partner in a developing relationship precisely because he or she does not know the partner fully. But what if trust is violated? More to the point, what effect do violations of trust in previous relationships have on current relationships? The purpose of this study is to investigate individual experiences with interpersonal trust, trust violation and "dark" perceptions of other's motivations.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Defining Relational Trust

Trust is a necessary component of any ongoing human relationship by virtue of the fact that individuals cannot know with certainty the internal motivations of their relational partners. According to Ekiki (2013), individuals in relationships may have very different conceptions of trust based upon their motivations, and that trust may be viewed as something that is built over time or as an attribute. This “attribute” view of trust comports with the findings of Rempel, Holmes and Zanna (1985) who described trust as based on the perceptions of the relational partner’s motives. As well, Rempel and colleagues characterized trust as a developmental progression in the relationship.

According to Brunell, Pilkington and Webster (2007), intimate self-disclosure in a personal relationship is risky but contributes to relationship quality. As a risky behavior, intimate self-disclosure requires vulnerability and trust. The authors found that perceptions of risk in intimate self-disclosure were negatively related to relationship quality. Brunell and colleagues posited that when individuals perceive the relationship as risky, those individuals tend to reduce self-disclosure and thus harm the relationship. Even with the current generation who tends to self-document online (Hancock, Toma, & Fenner, 2008), information disclosure can be risky.

Trust may be a “meso” concept (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998) in that it crosses boundaries from dyadic relationships, to familial, organizational, societal, cultural and cross-cultural relationships. Indeed, Shapiro (1987) described how trust is embedded in societal expectations that go beyond personal relationships. In this sense, relational trust is learned from individual observations of external relationships. Rousseau and colleagues (1998) examined cross-discipline definitions of trust and concluded that “trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another” (1998, p. 395).

Trust Violation

As trust may involve a “willingness to be vulnerable” (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995), a violation of trust may lead to intent or actions to reduce vulnerability in the relationship where the trust was violated. According to Lemay and Clark (2008), one partner’s expression of vulnerability affects the other partner’s behavior. A violation of trust occurs when one partner deceives the other (Guerrero, Anderson, & Afifi, 2014). Trust violation may also be a consequence of abuse or physical violence (see Calton, Grossman, & Cattaneo, 2017; Giordano, Soto, Manning & Longmore, 2010; Wekerlea & Wolfeb, 1999), observation of abuse in relationship between others (see Carpenter & Stacks, 2009; Holmes, 2013; Howell, 2011), betrayal, or disappointment. For example, Ekiki (2013) described the “dark side” of trust violations stemming from betrayal or disappointment when a partner feels taken for granted.

Betrayal and disappointment in personal relationships may occur when one partner expects certain behaviors from the other but observes behaviors in the other that do not match that expectation. As such, perception of trust within a relationship may be highly dependent on the individual asked. A perception of a trust violation may be in the mind of one individual, as it is based on an expectation of the other's behavior (perception), or possibly on an expectation of the other's motive (metaperception).

An example of trust violation also can be seen in perceptions of deception. Deception, broadly defined, involves an action which is intended to alter the perceptions of the other from what the deceiver perceives them to be (see Miller, 1983). Miller, Mongeau, and Sleight posited that deceptive communication "has profound consequences for personal relationships" and that relational partners … "will probably assume veracity on their partners' parts unless presented with considerable conflicting evidence" (1986, p. 509). Planalp and Honeycutt (1985) demonstrated that an individual's perception is affected by events that increase their uncertainty. Deception or other unexpected trust-violating behavior from one relational partner might qualify as such an uncertainty increasing event.

As well, intrusive behavior may have profound negative consequences for personal relationships (Vinkers, Finkenauer, & Hawk, 2011). According to these authors, intrusive behavior occurs when an individual does not trust the relational partner due to perceptions of low self-disclosure. Discovery of intrusive behavior may also lead to feelings of betrayal of trust. Generally, lack of trust in a relational partner may be one-sided, and possibly lead to neglect or relational exiting (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986) unless a discovery of a violation of trust occurs. Such discoveries can negatively influence relational satisfaction and relational dynamics for both partners.

However, according to Giordano and colleagues (2010), the perception of characteristics affecting relational dynamics may differ significantly between relational partners. In their study, the authors discovered that self-reported perpetrators of physical violence perceived their partners as engaging in trust-violating behaviors such as cheating. Regardless, the authors found no significant differences between partners in perceptions of partner caring or intimate self-disclosure. Other studies do show higher rates of intimate partner physical and verbal violence based upon histories of adolescent abuse (Sunday, et al., 2011).

Perception of Trust Violation Motivation

As noted above, prior experiences of trust violations in previous or observed relationships may influence perceptions of trust in current relationships. This may be accomplished through the creation of uncertainty about vulnerability with others. According to Boucher (2015), causal uncertainty predicts relational uncertainty. Causal uncertainty may derive from past experiences or observations external to the current relationship. For individuals with high levels of causal uncertainty, perceptions about the quality of the individual's current relationship were negatively influenced, primarily based upon doubts about their relational partner's motivations toward the relationship. Females with moderate to high trust towards their partners report equal degrees of relational satisfaction when oriented towards uncertainty (Sorrentino, Holmes, Hanna, & Sharp, 1995).

Relatedly, McLaren, Haunani-Solomon, and Priem (2011) found that relational uncertainty and perceptions about the relational partner's motivations predicted negative relational dynamics. Robbins and Merrill (2014) found that violations of trust increased individual's perceptions of the relational partner's motivations, which in turn decreased relational closeness. These tendencies towards distrust of partner's motivations following the discovery of a trust violation may be moderated by age (Rusbult, et al., 1986).

Perceived motivations for trust violations stemming from deception in relationships also may influence relational dynamics. According to Metts (1989), individuals attempt to understand the motivations for their partners' deceptions in light of perceptions of relational quality. Metts found that when individuals perceive the relational quality to be high, or have high relative relational satisfaction, those individuals tend to perceive the partner's motivations to be related to the needs of the other. This finding comports with the findings of Miano, Fertuck, Roepke, and Dziobek (2017) who found that when individuals perceived tenderness in the relationship, they tend to protect the relationship by maintaining positive perceptions of the partner's motivations and trustworthiness.

Gibbs, Ellison, and Lai (2011) found that individuals use uncertainty reduction strategies to deal with concerns of personal security in dating relationships. The authors also found that the frequency of the use of uncertainty reduction strategies influences subsequent amount of self-disclosure. As trust is a relationship developmental process, degree of trust influences degree of self-disclosure. When partners talk about events that increase relational uncertainty and offer their partners reassurances, partners tend to become closer (Planalp & Honeycutt, 1985). Individuals, thus, might be motivated to reduce relational uncertainty and to increase accuracy of perception about the other, as well as metaperceptions about the other's internal motivations.

These studies, taken as a whole, suggest that individuals make assessments about their relational partner's motivations in order to assess relational quality. These assessments, in turn, influence communication in the relationship. According to LeBlanc (2018), when the metaperception of one relational partner about the other partner does not match the self-perception of the other partner, ineffective communication occurs. This ineffective communication can lead to a self-fulfilling feedback loop which exacerbates feelings of distrust in the relational partner (see Fischer, 1987). To investigate the implications of trust violations on relational outcomes, the following research questions are proposed:

RQ_1 To what degree do perceptions and metaperceptions of trust violations by the other relational partner affect relational trust?

RQ_2 To what degree do trust violations in previous relationships affect the perceptions and metaperceptions of the partner in current relationships?

METHOD

This study utilizes an empirical phenomenological approach which acknowledges the role of the researcher while seeking reflexive responses from research co-participants. According to Couture, Zaidi, and Maticka-Tyndale (2012), this approach is well-established in post-positivist research. The phenomenological method focuses on the lived experience of the individual (van Manen, 1990). It attempts to describe phenomena as it is presented to the individual consciousness at the pre-reflective state before the experience has been categorized by the individual co-researcher. The purpose of the method is to understand the meaning of the experience for the individual. Recently, this method was utilized by Freeman, Cassidy, and Hay-Smith (2017) to investigate couples' perceptions of relationship intimacy.

To construct a model of the experience of trust, we interviewed five adults (four females and one male) who are currently involved in intimate, personal relationships. We used a guided, semi-structured interview protocol (Creswell, 2007) to gather data (see Appendix). Each interview was audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. In order to protect the identity of the interviewees, names were scrubbed from the transcripts. Quotes of interviewees utilized in this paper are differentiated by assigned numbers placed in parentheses. To analyze the interview data, the tripartite phenomenological approach of description, reduction and interpretation as described by Lanigan (1988) was utilized in this study.

DESCRIPTION AND REDUCTION OF COMMON THEMES

A three-step process related to trust violation emerged from the interviews: Optimism, disappointment, and then caution. Trust violation may be a common experience, both from the perspective of someone whose trust has been violated by another, and from the perspective of someone who has violated the trust of another. Regarding the latter perspective, the possibility exists that the trust of the other was not violated even though the other perceives it to have been violated. It is this possibility that motivated the current research. Relationships are a universal human experience. The author and interviewees have each experienced perceived relational trust violations and their relational consequences. According to one interviewee,

> "I think it's extremely important to have trust because otherwise I don't think you can really have a relationship if you are not able to trust someone enough to communicate what it is that you need or how they make you feel, or if you're not happy." (4)

Trust may be an expectation of relationships by individuals hoping to move forward or toward greater levels of intimacy.

Optimism/Expectation

As described above and elsewhere, human beings need relationships, and relationships are built upon trust. When asked to describe a close relationship, one interviewee put it this way.

> "I am in a relationship with someone that I can trust, that I will offer support emotionally or financially... I think that's the foundation of a relationship and friendship because if I don't have that trust in the person, then they don't have anything to grow or won't have the routes to be able to move forward." (4)

Another interviewee described the degree of intimacy between herself and a friend as being a type of unity.

> "We were so close that it kind of felt like she was a part of me: like two halves, one whole. We were so close it was like a family member, but more. I knew everything about her; she knew everything about me, and there was very little division when we were with other people as to who was who sometimes, because where I ended she began. We were just incredibly close. She meant everything to me, I meant everything to her." (2)

Trust seems to be related to intimacy in communication, or the ability to share one's innermost thoughts without regard for personal safety. Additionally, trust involves faith in another's goodwill and commitment to the relationship (Tallman & Hsiao, 2004). As one interviewee put it:

> "When you find a partner, you expect that you can find details about your past, your history with them and that there's really not going to be any consequences by sharing those details." "To me, anyway, trust means that again, I can speak to you in confidence and that I don't have to worry about it getting spread beyond what we're talking about." "But trust, to me, in a serious personal relationship, would entail that I could tell you anything and I know it's not going to go any further." (3)

For two other interviewees:

> "There's never been a time where I felt like I couldn't disclose feelings to her or anything." (1)
>
> Trust is knowing "…that if I need something she'll be there, if she needs something I'll be there." (2)

Interviewees described their beliefs in the importance of trust as moving forward in the relationship, despite difficulties.

> "I think trust is incredibly important, but I also think that with trust, you need to be able to like…if something happens…and even if it's not super serious, like if they do something that like is either, maybe not breaking, but, bending your trust a little

bit…you need to still be there and be like ok well why? Because you'd want them to afford you the same courtesy. If something happened in your life and you just throw your hands up and you just can't and you like blow up at them…you don't want them to then be like oh well that's it, cut ties, let's go. Like you want them to still be like "what's going on like let's figure this out" like I'm not just going to run away because something bad has happened in your life." (2)

Thus, a kind of optimism drives the trust in the other person for the sake of continuing the relationship. As two interviewees described:

"I knew I could trust (my current boyfriend) in taking care of me and helping me get through (a very difficult time) and just helping me because of where our relationship already was. It was very solid." (1)

"My guardian let me come and stay with him and just stepped up and became involved and helped me … and I could trust him. I could trust to talk to him. I could trust that he'd take time. I trusted completely that he had my best interests at heart." (5)

It is this complete trust in another that allows relationships with that other to move forward. In this sense, trusting the other is a form of optimism. Trust requires hope that the other person will be present, able to help, and able to share most important aspects of one's life. Individuals who enter into relationship may expect that they will be able to trust the other person. This expectation of trust as an antecedent to relationship development thus can be seen as relational optimism.

Disappointment

Disappointment occurs when expectations are not met. In close, personal relationships, individuals may expect that their trust would not be violated by the other. Interviewees were asked to describe situations when their trust was violated by someone, up to that point, they considered close. Interviewees used different words to describe how a violation of trust felt:

"A violation of trust looks like just like it's disheartening, it's devastating: devastating depending on the situation. Yeah I did think it's just like our best to find, and I would think all hope is lost in this person or in the relationship because there's just no trust." (4)
Having my trust violated by the other person was "shocking" … and created "overwhelming sadness to the point where I feel incredibly depressed"… or "makes me feel unworthy in a way. Like it all folds back on me like what did I do that made them break that trust with me?" (2)

"I think just trying to go and talk to my mom about something and not being believed. It felt like betrayal…(like) my parent choosing (her) own needs over mine." "It's heartbreaking." (5)

> Having your trust violated by the other person is "like you’re swallowing rocks and they all hit your heart and your lungs and your intestines and it just goes down and it feels like man…and there’s no repairing the relationship." (3)

> A violation of trust looks like: "When someone completely disregards your personhood and doesn’t take into account your autonomy at all." "He violated a part of our bond by not disclosing that (information) sooner…I felt taken advantage of." (1)

These disappointing consequences of trust violations lead to a diminution in the optimism of the relationship.

> "It hurts, and it causes you to question things about the other person and yourself." (1)

Such diminution in optimism about the relationship may subsequently lead to caution in trusting others. As one interviewee put it:

> "If you burn me that many times, I’m an idiot for allowing you to burn me and continue to burn me so, it feels really bad." We "took a family vacation, and (my brother) threw me off the dock. He was like “sink or swim," and I’m sure it was something (to) toughen me up, but I damn near drowned and ever since that experience I feel like he just violated me in so many ways." "Every time I was around him I feel like I was on pins and needles and I didn’t feel like I could fully trust him." (3)

Caution

Individuals who have their trust in another person violated become cautious in investing that trust again. As one interviewee put it:

> "I’m still cautiously hopeful but still thinking if things were going well." "You’ve got to be careful for that person either or be careful around that person." "This is someone that I’m just kind of got to watch out for me because there’s something not good there." "If you trust and then hopefully they’re trusting in you, so you need to be a little cautious with it." (4)

Another interviewer described it this way:

> "I have this phrase that I go by “second chances, third glances, but fourth time, there’s no romances.” Once trust is violated and once it’s broken, it’s hard to repair that. It’s hard to forgive; it’s hard to forget." (3)

Individuals may try to manage the relationship in which the trust violation occurred, depending on the nature of the violation.

> "I think because I had had that really devastating one happen in high school, I was able to better micromanage my reaction and my ability to process what had happened and be able to, not only later on still have a relationship with her and forgive her and now we're getting back to where we were, but I think I was able to have a better just frame of mind." (2)

It is possible that individuals will choose to temper their trust in a relationship with the other who violated the trust:

> "I just knew that through everything we had been through that really wasn't going to work out." "Trust is very important but elusive." (5), or

> "With friendships, I think that I'm a lot more careful about who I choose to trust immediately." (2)

However, it is also likely that individuals will take their experiences from a previous relationship and apply it to other relationships:

> "I think trust is incredibly important, but I also think that with trust, you need to be able to still be there and be like ok well why?" "If you're in a relationship with someone for 3-4 weeks and you want them to trust you completely…that's not enough time to build a solid foundation...It is very difficult to not want that immediate trust, but you need to make sure that you're both on the same page with what you want out of the relationship. Which is why like having open dialogue, always, is the most important thing for relationships." (2)

> "Outside of family, I'm just very skeptical. I believe people are fickle, and you can't trust people, so just take what people say as a grain of salt. I think for me maybe someone who hasn't had that trust broken so often in big ways maybe it would be different, but I think it's probably more negatively impacted my relationships with people." (1)

The application of caution when trusting others following trust violation involves metaperceptions about the others' internal motivations. Trying to assess the internal motivations of the other in the current "untrustworthy" relationship may influence the tendency to do so in subsequent relationships. The "cautious" application of "perceived" internal motivations from one relationship marked by trust violations to a subsequent relationship "darkens" the metaperceptions toward the other.

"Dark" Perception

"Dark" perception derives from caution which may be applied to subsequent relationships. Interviewees were specifically asked, "How might your previous experiences in relationships influence your current beliefs (regarding the importance of trust, see Appendix)? The most explicit responses to this question, which imply potential “dark” perception, included:

> "My past experience has single-handedly defined my ability to trust." "I would say for somebody who's like me, who's had their trust, you know, broken repeatedly, I think it's hard to really trust anybody a hundred percent." (5)
>
> "I believe my previous early relationship I was…made…aware exactly what was important to me and how I would do it." (4)
>
> My previous relational experiences have influenced me "probably more negatively than positively." When I asked for my Aunt's advice about a conflict I was having with my boyfriend, she said, "You got too defensive about something else, there might be something else going on there." (1)
>
> "I think that because I’ve had my trust broken so many times in past relationships, it’s very difficult for me to, not necessarily forget, but just move past like being cheated on or being broken up with because of something stupid or anything like that." (2)

Interviewees often reflected upon trust violations when they occurred in order to prevent the pain and disappointment from such events from reoccurring. One interviewer described it as such:

> "If you’re the one on the end of being burned, there’s always going to be something in your mind wondering, “why did they do that to me?” "I feel like our exchanges are becoming possibly abrasive, or uncomfortable…then that’s going to get me to pause." (3)

Another interviewer directly applied that reflection for future use:

> The divulgence of my personal experience by this other person "kind of broke me for a little while because I’ve had trust issues my entire life because my father left when I was 6 and I haven’t seen him since, so it’s very difficult for me to trust people. So, the fact that just got cut so easily on her end that I was like…should I just stop trusting people again? I had to reexamine a lot of my personal relationships after that." (2)

INTERPRETATION

Relationships rely on trust for maintenance and continued development. In fact, individuals might expect trust to be part of the relationship. Trust involves an optimistic view (hope and faith) or expectation toward this continued development. When trust is violated by one member of a relationship, this maintenance or continued development may be disrupted. More directly, such violations result in a disappointment of this optimism and a strategy by the person whose trust was violated to avoid future occurrences of this pain of disappointment.

However, because relationships with others fulfill basic human needs (see Maslow's Hierarchy), trust violations do not result in individuals hurt by such violations in continuing to seek relationships with others. Instead, individuals modify the overall optimism toward the relationship, and relational outcomes, with caution. This caution is likely applied within the relationship in which the trust violation occurred, if that relationship survives or continues. In many cases, the relationship is redefined as something different or "less than" what it was previously hoped to be.

That caution learned in a previous relationship may be applied to subsequent relationships. It is in this sense, that a previous relationship which involved a violation of trust influences the individual's perceptions and metaperceptions of the "other" in subsequent relationships. Therefore, it is proposed that "dark" perception occurs when an individual judges intent or motivations for the other's behaviors (in light of whether the other can be "trusted") based upon their experiences with a "previous" third party.

How I (the first author) came to the topic of this study began with an observation of a relationship between two people very close to me whose relationship was wounded by a perception of a violation of trust. The incident that led to the perception of violation occurred forty plus years ago when the two were children. One of the two (the accuser) felt the other (the accused) was responsible for not protecting her (the accuser) from a predator. They were both children. Thirty years after the event, the two were not speaking to each other. Both were in pain about what had happened to their relationship with each other.

From my perspective, the accused had done nothing wrong. She was not the predator. She was only a child. However, the accused had no way to effectively repair the relationship despite attempts to convince the other that she had not violated her trust. Shortly thereafter, I was accused of violating someone's trust. Despite my attempts to convince the other that I had not done so, the accuser persevered with the perception of trust violation. The relational rupture involved mediation and forensic documentary evidence supporting the claim that trust was not violated. Yet, the accuser persisted with the perception. At this time, the relational rupture seems permanent.

Consequent to these two relational events that I observed, it seemed to me that whether trust was violated or not is not the issue that leads to negative relational outcomes. Rather, it is a persistent perception of a violation of trust, true or not, which leads to negative relational outcomes. The question for me became to what degree is the other party responsible for negative relational outcomes by persisting with a false perception? Subsequently, is that persistence based upon the experiences the other person had in a previous relationship with a third party?

Not all is lost for current and future relationships affected by prior damaging relationships. Resolution is possible with cautious optimism, as one interviewee put it:

> "We were willing to both admit fault, but at the same time both admit like how hurt we both were, and that I think is what like saved our relationship at the end. We were both able to put a little bit of our pride aside." (2)

In this sense, trust in relationships may develop through a three-step process of optimism, disappointment, and caution when trust violations occur. Depending on the severity or frequency (or both) of the trust violation, these relationships could lead to a “dark” perception of the new other (person) in subsequent relationships. The constant in all five interviews includes a universality of experience in personal relationships regarding trust. For all interviewees, trust was paramount to the relationship before and after the trust violation event. The belief in a lack of trust in the other following the trust violation event resulted in a redefinition of the relationship.

DISCUSSION

This study describes how that individual perceptions of trust violation and individuals’ requisite metaperceptions of the motivations of their relational others may influence their subsequent relational trust in that other. Additionally, such trust violations may negatively impact the individual’s ability to trust others in subsequent relationships, even if the subsequent other has not committed any trust violations. Processing violations of trust influences individuals to be cautious in trusting others. Consequently, individuals might enter into new relationships with the tendency to question the motivations of their new relational partners. This tendency has been deemed “dark” perception, as that perception of the internal motivations of other person in the current relationship is negatively influenced by actions of a third party from a previous relationship.

These “findings” suggest that potential relationships exist between the elements of optimism/expectation, disappointment, and caution in long-term personal relationships. In particular, the degree of optimism/expectation in a new relationship may be directly related to the degree of disappointment felt by an individual following a trust violation event. For example, if the amount of trust invested in the new relationship was low, possibly due to a trust violation in a prior relationship thus implicating low optimism/low expectation, then the disappointment felt may also lower. However, if the investment is high, then the disappointment may also be high. The level of disappointment may also be modified by the severity of the trust violation. If the severity of the trust violation is high, the level of disappointment may also be high when the optimism/expectation is relatively low.

Subsequently, the degree of disappointment may be related to the degree of caution in that current relationship and subsequent relationships. For current relationships, increased caution may lead to a reduced level of optimism or lower expectations. For subsequent relationships, degree of disappointment in a prior relationship may lead to caution and therefore lower expectations in subsequent relationships.

Additionally, the degree of disappointment following a trust violation may induce an effect on subsequent relationships through an unintended “dark” perception. The individual may be cautious in a subsequent relationship even though the other person has not violated his or her trust. A series of trust violation events over the course of years and multiple relationships may also induce this “dark” perception. Such “dark” perception, thus influences the degree of optimism or level of expectations in subsequent relationships. Figure 1 below illustrates the potential relationships between optimism/expectation, disappointment, caution, and "dark" perception following trust violations in personal relationships.

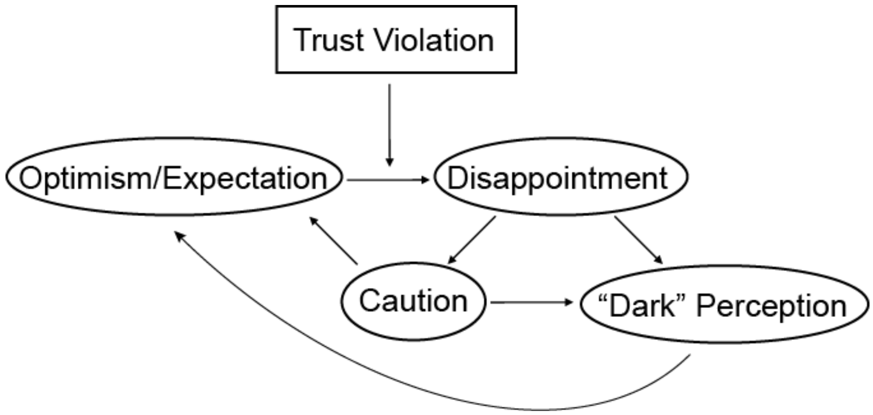

FIGURE 1. TRUST VIOLATION CONCEPT MAP

Finally, these potential relationships between these four concepts may be further modified by the age and/or experience of the individuals involved. To be sure, individuals with more experiences in relationships, have more opportunities to experience trust violations and their consequences. These experienced individuals may have developed more sophisticated ways to cope with such events compared to relatively relationally inexperienced individuals.

As described in the review of literature, previous research has shown that perceptions of risk in a relationship negatively influences relational quality (see Brunell, et al., 2007; Rempel, et al., 1985). In this sense, the first experience of intimate trust violation can have lasting effects on the relational outcomes of subsequent relationships, even if those relationships are not marked by trust violations. Thus, the creation of "dark" perception can negatively impact the outcomes of current relationships. In determining the source of "dark" perception, scholars and practitioners may offer guidance for improvement on relational outcomes.

Future studies might investigate from different methodological perspectives the nature of the relationships between these constructs. Additionally, future studies might look more closely at the relationship between "dark" perception and relational outcomes including relational quality and satisfaction.

REFERENCES

Boucher, E. M. (2015). Doubt begets doubt: Causal uncertainty as a predictor of relational uncertainty in romantic relationships. *Communication Reports, 28*(1), 12-23. doi:10.1080/08934215.2014.902487

Brunell, A. B., Pilkington, C. J., & Webster, G. D. (2007). Perceptions of risk in intimacy in dating couples: Conversation and relationship quality. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 26*(1), 92-118. doi:10.1521/jscp.2007.26.1.92

Calton, J. M., Grossmann, J. L., & Cattaneo, L. B. (2017). The subjective court experiences of Intimate Partner Violence victims: Does motherhood matter? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 32*(23), 3577-3600. doi:10.1177/0886260515600166

Carpenter, G. L., & Stacks, A. M. (2009). Developmental effects of exposure to intimate partner violence in early childhood: A review of the literature. *Children and Youth Services Review, 31*(8), 831-839. doi:10.1016/j.childyouth.2009.03.005

Couture, A. L., Zaidi, A. U., & Maticka-Tyndale, E. (2012). Reflexive accounts: An intersectional account to exploring the fluidity of insider/outsider status and the researcher's impact on culturally sensitive post-positivist qualitative research. *Qualitative Sociology Review, 8*(1), 86-105.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ekici, A. (2013). Temporal dynamics of trust in ongoing inter-organizational relationships. *Industrial Marketing Management, 42*(6), 932-949. doi:10.1016/j.indmarman.2013.03.008

Fischer, B. A. (1987). *Interpersonal communication: Pragmatics of human relationships.* New York: Random House.

Freeman, C., Cassidy, B., & Hay-Smith, E. J. C. (2017). Couple's experiences of relationship maintenance and intimacy in acute spinal cord injury rehabilitation: An interpretative phenomenological analysis. *Sexuality and Disability, 35*(4), 433-444. doi:10.1007/s11195-017-9496-6

Gibbs, J. L., Ellison, N. B., & Lai, C. H. (2011). First comes love, then comes Google: An investigation of uncertainty reduction strategies and self-disclosure in online dating. *Communication Research, 38*(1), 70-100. doi:10.1177/0093650210377091

Giordano, P. C., Soto, D. A., Manning, W. D., & Longmore, M. A. (2010). The characteristics of romantic relationships associated with teen dating violence. *Social Science Research, 39*, 863-874. doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2010.03.009

Guerrero, L. K., Anderson, P. A., & Afifi, W. A. (2014). *Close encounters: Communication in relationships* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.

Hancock, J., Toma, C., & Fenner, K. (2008). I know something you don't: The use of asymmetric personal information for interpersonal advantage. *Proceedings of the 2008 Association for Computing Machinery Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work* (pp. 413-416). New York: ACM. doi:10.1145/1460563.1460629

Held, V. (1968). On the meaning of trust. *Ethics, 78*(2), 156-159. doi:10.1086/291671

Holmes, M. R. (2013). The sleeper effect of intimate partner violence exposure: Long-term consequences on young children's aggressive behavior. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 54*(9), 986-995. doi:10.1111/jcpp.12071

Howell, K. H. (2011). Resilience and psychopathology in children exposed to family violence. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 16*(6), 562-569. doi:10.1016/j.avb.2011.09.001

Lanigan, R.L. (1988). *Phenomenology of communication.* Pittsburgh: Duquesne University.

LeBlanc, H. P., III. (2018). A theoretical model for the relationship between perceptions, metaperceptions, and relational outcomes. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal, 5*(9), 20-29.

Lemay Jr, E., P., & Clark, M. S. (2008). "You're just saying that:" Contingencies of self-worth, suspicion, and authenticity in the interpersonal affirmation process. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *44*(5), 1376-1382.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(3), 709-734. doi:10.2307/258792

McLaren, R. M., Haunani Solomon, D., & Priem, J. S. (2011). Explaining variation in contemporaneous responses to hurt in premarital romantic relationships: A Relational Turbulence Model perspective. *Communication Research, 38*(4), 543-564. doi:10.1177/0093650210377896

Metts, S. (1989). An exploratory investigation of deception in close relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *6*(2), 159-172. doi:10.1177/026540758900600202

Miano, A., Fertuck, E. A., Roepke, S., & Dziobek, I. (2017). Romantic relationship dysfunction in Borderline Personality Disorder-A naturalistic approach to trustworthiness perception. *Personality Disorders-Theory Research and Treatment, 8*(3), 281-286. doi:10.1037/per0000196

Miller, G. R. (1983). Telling it like it is and not telling it like it is: Some thoughts on deceptive communication. In J. Sisco (ed.), *The Jensen Lectures: Contemporary communication studies* (pp. 91-115). University of South Florida: Tampa.

Miller, G. R., Mongeau, P. A., & Sleight, C. (1986). Fudging with friends and lying to lovers - Deceptive communication in personal relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 3*(4), 495-512. doi:10.1177/0265407586034006

Planalp, S., & Honeycutt, J. M. (1985). Events that increase uncertainty in personal relationships. *Human Communication Research, 11*(4), 593-604.

Rempel, J. K., Holmes, J. G., & Zanna, M. P. (1985). Trust in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *49*(1), 95-112. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.49.1.95

Robbins, S. A., & Merrill, A. F. (2014). Understanding posttransgressional relationship closeness: The roles of perceived severity, rumination, and communication competence. *Communication Research Reports, 31*(1), 23-32. doi:10.1080/08824096.2013.843164

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 393-404. doi:10.5465/AMR.1998.926617

Rusbult, C. E., Johnson, D. J., & Morrow, G. D. (1986). Determinants and consequences of exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: Responses to dissatisfaction in adult romantic involvements. *Human Relations, 39*(1), 45-63. doi:10.1177/001872678603900103

Shapiro, S. P. (1987). The social-control of impersonal trust. *American Journal of Sociology, 93*(3), 623-658. doi:10.1086/228791

Sorrentino, R. M., Holmes, J. G., Hanna, S. E., & Sharp, A. (1995). Uncertainty orientation and trust in close relationships: Individual differences in cognitive styles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*(2), 314-327. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.68.2.314

Sunday, S., Kline, M., Labruna, V., Pelcovitz, D., Salzinger, S., & Kaplan, S. (2011). The role of adolescent physical abuse in adult intimate partner violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 26*(18), 3773-3789. doi:10.1177/0886260511403760

Tallman, I., & Hsiao, Y.L. (2004). Resources, cooperation, and problem solving in early marriage. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 67*(2), 172-188.

van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy.* New York: State University of New York.

Vinkers, C. D. W., Finkenauer, C., & Hawk, S. T. (2011). Why do close partners snoop? Predictors of intrusive behavior in newlywed couples. *Personal Relationships, 18*(1), 110-124. doi:10.1111/j.1475-6811.2010.01314.x

Wekerlea, C., & Wolfeb, D. A. (1999). Dating violence in mid-adolescence: Theory, significance, and emerging prevention initiatives. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *19*(4), 435-456. doi:10.1016/S0272-7358(98)00091-9

APPENDIX

Trust and violation in close relationships

Interview protocol:

1. a. Describe your experience of being in a close relationship.
   b. Can you visualize specific instances where trust was important?
2. a. What does a trust, in that relationship, look like?
   Describe an experience of trust which involved the other.
   b. How does that experience feel?
   Describe an experience in which you felt unable to trust the other person.
3. a. What does a violation of trust look like?
   Describe an experience when your trust in the other person was violated.
   b. How does having your trust violated by the other person feel?
   Describe an experience in which you felt distrustful toward the other.
4. a. What did trust in a previous relationship look like?
   Describe an experience when your trust in that other person was violated.
   b. How was that experience different/or the same/as the more recent experience?
   Describe an experience in which your current relationship seemed like/or different from/a previous relationship.
5. a. What is your belief regarding the importance of trust in close relationships?
   Describe an experience in which your belief was confirmed.
   b. How might your previous experiences in relationships influence your current beliefs?
   Describe an experience in which your belief may have been challenged in your current relationship.

STUDYING THE EXEMPLARY: PREDICTING EXEMPLARY PERFORMANCE OF PROFESSORS AS LEADERS UTILIZING THE CONCEPT OF AMERICAN EXCEPTIONALISM

Hamid Khan, Our Lady of the Lake University
akhan@ollusa.edu

ABSTRACT

This empirical study aimed at finding an answer to a question regarding university professors' leadership style: "is there a relationship between professors' Psychological Capital (Hope, Optimism, Resilience, Self-Efficacy-attitudinal) and Psychological Ownership (Territoriality, Ease of Belonging, Accountability, Self-Efficacy-behavioral, and Self-Identity)? Three theories of leadership styles were used as a basis in search of an answer to the aforementioned question: 1. Transformational Leadership, 2. Transactional Leadership, and 3. Passive Avoidant Leadership. Three research instruments were utilized in this investigation. Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership were the independent variables of interest, which were measured respectively by Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) and Psychological Ownership Questionnaire (POQ). The third instrument, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) measured the dependent variable or criterion variable of Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Passive Avoidant Leadership. Multiple regression technique was used to examine the relationships between the independent variables of interest (PsyCap and PsyGown) and the dependent variables of interest (Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Passive Avoidant Leadership), while controlling for demographic variables including Gender (dichotomous), Ethnicity (categorical), Education (categorical) and Age (continuous). The findings of the study revealed that both Psychological Capital (PsyCap) and Psychological Ownership (PsyGown) acted as predictors of Transformational Leadership.

INTRODUCTION

Studying the Exemplary: "*Excellence is a better teacher than mediocrity. The lessons of the ordinary are everywhere. Truly profound and original insights are to be found only in studying the exemplary." – Bennis*

It has always been one of my goals to learn more about the traits of the world's great leaders in relation to "American Exceptionalism." In an attempt to achieve this goal, I decided to explore this concept among professors at institutions of higher education in America.

Exceptionalism is defined as the perception that a country, individual, leader, institution, movement, species, society, or even a time-period is "exceptional" (i.e., unusual or extraordinary) in some way. "American exceptionalism" refers to the special character of the United States as a uniquely free nation based on democratic ideals and personal liberty, which may contribute to development of unique behaviors and leadership styles among individual leaders. Hence, a common interpretation of exceptionalism is the condition or conviction of being different from the norm; it is also basis of exemplifying personal behavior or style, pertaining to a nation, or in individuals. French philosopher, Alexis de Tocqueville, is attributed to be the first to define American Exceptionalism as, "The position of the American is therefore quite exceptional…His passions, his wants, his education, and everything about him seem to … glance to heaven" (Alexis de Tocqueville, 1945, p. 20). Additionally, a research study on global leadership and organizational behavior (GLOBE) of American CEO's, leaders, and managers found that "In the United States, leaders are expected to show impeccable levels of integrity and performance orientation…" (House, Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, & de Luque, 2014, p. 348).

AMERICAN EXCEPTIONALISM

Luthans (2002), a professor of Organizational Behavior and Positive Organizational Behavior (POB), has contributed to the American passion for exceptionalism. He conducted research on emerging positive psychology for a span of five decades pioneering in the spirit of American Exceptionalism through his work on (POB) and its outcomes. His recent articles focused on the need for, and meaning of, a positive approach to organizational behavior, which has been instrumental for this research.

American Exceptionalism in the university settings expects that professors be excellent in all areas of academic requirement (e.g. teaching, research, and service). It needs a positive approach to the application of psychological capital as well as psychological ownership. For positive job performance outcomes, the tenets of effective organizational behavior should place emphasis on reinforcing personal leadership development to foster organization commitment.

Luthans, using empirical research, invented a paradigm of positive organizational behavior (POB) that strengthened the field of Organizational Behavior. Later, additional criteria for new positive organizational behavior (POB) in the form of Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership have germinated the field with empirical research and application. Such POB's, Luthans asserts, "are to identify unique, state-like psychological capacities that can not only be validly measured, but also be open to development and performance management." Four distinct facets of Hope, Optimism, Resiliency, and Self-efficacy (HORSE) are integrated into one construct called Psychological Capital. Psychological Ownership (Avey et al. 2009) is the other construct that is comprised of five facets: Territoriality, Ease of belonging, Accountability, Self-efficacy and Relational identity (TEASER).

Avolio and Gardner (2005) also have addressed the present and future leadership needs and have developed a model of leader-follower paradigm, which examined the process of leadership and followership with a keen eye on what they call a veritable relationship for sustained follower performance. This is a developmental process of leader and follower self-awareness and self-regulation, the authors assert. The influence of the leaders' and followers' personal histories and trigger-events are considered as antecedents of leadership and followership, as well as the reciprocal effects with an inclusive, ethical, caring and strength-based organizational climate. This may be interpreted as a type of leader-member exchange that keeps on growing and growing to a level of extreme symbiosis, yielding a very positive relationship that is a primary means of developing followers. They argue that such outcomes of leader–follower relationships include heightened levels of follower trust in the leader, in engagement, and in workplace well-being, producing veritable and sustainable performance on the part of the leader and follower alike.

Rowland & Higgs (2008) in an article published in Harvard Business Review asserted that it is better to influence leaders' "being," and not just their "doing." The authors presented evidence that leadership development is not about developing leaders, and "have found that leaders need to work on the quality of their inner game, or their capacity to tune into and regulate their emotional and mental states, before they can hope to develop their outer game, or what it is they need to actually do." Therefore, leadership-development should start by working on the inner game, which Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans & May (2004) also promote with Psychological Capital, and then use the outer game, which is the Psychological Ownership. In the Venn diagram, Goleman also uses the inner and outer concepts or states. Rowland & Higgs (2008) also lament that, "It's very hard for leaders to have courageous conversations about unhelpful reality until they can regulate their anxiety about appearing unpopular and until they've built their systemic capacity to view disturbance as transformational, not dysfunctional." This is what Lathan's et al. (2004) have professed with PsyCap and PsyGown as an alternative approach to leadership development. Rowland & Higgs (2008) argue that leaders can develop their transformational capabilities by using their Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership.

The process of screening professors to succeed as future leaders have been examined by Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans & May (2004) using empirical research of the effect of Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership on Transformational Leadership. This study focused on investigating whether or not American University Professors can benefit from this paradigm of predictive relationships on their path to achieving excellence in leadership.

What constitutes excellence in leadership? American Exceptionalism expects American university professors to demonstrate the attributes and capabilities of excellent leaders, because they are human capital who can give their universities a competitive edge. However, current literature lacks studies on connection between psychological capital and psychological ownership of university professors with American Exceptionalism.

Background and Emergence of Leadership Theories

The development of psychological capital and psychological ownership happened almost after 70 years of pioneering work of Chester Barnard who spoke about leadership and leader effectiveness and followership in his leadership acceptance theory of authority, Barnard (1938, 1976). The "acceptance theory of authority," asserted that the followers must accept leaders' authority. The acceptance was the key phrase in his seminal theory.

After his seminal contribution to the thought of "acceptance theory of authority," Barnard (1938, 1976) developed the concept of exceptionalism and leadership excellence. Barnard's (1938, 1976) acceptance theory of authority and leadership excellence had two primary foci—one on recruiting cooperation among the followers and the other managing that cooperation. For the former, he said, "Cooperation, not leadership, is the creative process;" and for continuously maintaining that cooperation from followers, he added, "but, leadership is the indispensable fulminator of its forces." (1976, The functions of the executive, p. 259).

Luthans and Avolio (2004), using leadership in the organizational context have refined Barnard's theory. Examining psychological capital and psychological ownership, indicates that these tow psychological construct complement each other and reinforce the 'acceptance theory of authority and leadership'. Barnard called the essential element of his theory as leader's ability to recruit cooperation from followers. In the first, if a professor has a very high score of psychological capital, he or she will be considered high on positive organizational behavior (cognition) or possessing motivational antecedents. In the second, if the professor has a very high score on psychological ownership (affective) then he or she will be considered most effective in the use of target ownership.

Subsequently, some researchers conducted several studies in relation to Barnard's theory. The list includes Katz and Kahn (1952) from the University of Michigan, and Fleishmann, Harris, and Burtt (1955) from Ohio State University. Then Managerial (Leadership) Grid emerged as a simplified two-dimensional graph of concern for production and concern for people. After this, the Situational Leadership Theory by Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977) emerged which discussed supportive behavior of leader according to the needs of the situation and the ability of the follower. In the meantime, Servant Leadership by Greenleaf (1970) popularized the concept that "leader is a servant." Around this time, another theory emerged as Leader Member Exchange Theory or LMX theory that used the strength and style of communication as a main focus of relationship between leader and follower (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975).

As time passed, Burns (1978) coined Transformational Leadership theory that "pooled interests of the leader and follower" in the pursuit of "higher" leader and follower goals achievement (Green, 2013). The culmination of a robust model called Full Range Model of Leadership (FRML) originated by Bass (1985, 1988, 1999), later developed by Bass and Avolio (1994, 1995, 1996, 1997, 2002), and then by Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) was finally complete in social science research of leaders and followers. This was studied in academic circles and has produced vast meta-analyses of researches leading to individual performance, task performance, leader effectiveness, follower job satisfaction, follower motivation and leader job performance. Then came the Big Five Personality Theory by McCrae and Costa (1987, 1990, 2010) which was based on openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (OCEAN) for effective leadership. Also, during that time, the leadership social science was popularized by Emotional Intelligence (EI) of Salovey and Mayer (1990), Goleman (1995), and Bar-On (1997).

Around the same time, a management development expert, Kirkpatrick's effective training paradigm (1996) with four components of behavioral outcomes from training (Reaction, Learning, Behavioral change, and Result in cognitive, affective and psychomotor development) became the springboard of leadership and executive development. Additionally, a study titled, "Effective

Management Development Program Evaluation and Review Technique," examined Purdue University’s Engineering/Management Program for 1995 (Khan, 1996, 2002). The purpose of the program was to offer leadership and management training to a population of ninety-eight engineering, R & D and technical managers from all over the world. From a quality assurance perspective, the study attempted to measure those changes that occurred in the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors of the participants, from a period of before to after the program, in four levels of outcomes: reaction, learning, behavior and results.
Further, continuance and application of this study by Khan (2008, 2015, 2018), on the effectiveness of a strategic leadership development program effectiveness concluded to show that, “Results indicated that management development programs for technical personnel can be effective if executive development training programs focus on improving strategy, productivity, leadership and global competition in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains by addressing their problem solving, leadership, decision making, managerial, and global competitiveness skills.”

At the turn of the century, and early into the twenty-first century, there came a global research on leadership, called Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) (2004, 2012) that used a massive study on leadership and management involving 17,370 middle managers from 951 organizations in 62 societies and cultural environment.

Leadership Development and Superior Performance: A New Paradigm

Recent research studies by Luthans, Avey, Avolio, and Peterson (2010) in connecting theory and research with psychological capital (PsyCap) and Psychological Ownership (PsyGown) of faculty members is an emerging core construct that is linked to positive outcomes at the individual and organizational level. Other authors (Rodriguez, Patel, Bright, Gregory, & Gowing (2002) suggested that the Society for Human Resource Development prescribe the use of competency model as a solution to promote the full range talent management process for the university professors. The creation and implementation of competency models for strategic talent management focuses on increasing university professors’ capability rather than on providing training (Sullivan, 2005). Whiddett and Hollyforde (2003) also have studied the university professors’ capabilities and suggest that competencies be used to create selection criteria, form the basis for reviewing performance, compensation, and reward decisions, as well as identify development needs (the gap between expected and actual).

Scott, Coates, and Anderson (2008) have proposed a model for academic leadership development (ALD) for increasing a professor’s capability indicating that academic leadership development must begin with identifying the gaps in one’s capability through a performance assessment process, and then addressing these gaps using a mixture of psychological development initiatives or approaches to leadership development.

Van Dyne, Pierce and Jussila (2011) have suggested a new paradigm of Leaders of Higher Education which has uncovered a gap between needs and capabilities. The CAO census of the chronicle of higher education shows that there is a looming crisis in top educational leadership.

However, alternatively, Luthans, Avolio, and Avey (2004) have used Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership and Transformational Leadership in predicting capabilities for future leadership development of faculty. (Luthans et al., 2004).

There are two models of leadership and conceptual foundations with valid instruments to measure the various constructs of leadership. This study proposes to use the most validated leadership measure known as Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire MLQ-5X. This instrument also addresses individual motivational antecedents that are contingent upon their transformational leadership style.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In today's highly competitive environment, Institution of higher education need to inspire professors to exercise exemplary leadership as teachers, researchers, and administrators. They must possess the skills to transform students into leaders via transformational leadership qualities, which is in line with American Exceptionalism.

Professors have the responsibility to be a role model as intellectual leaders of the free world and as free thinkers who can inspire others. The society has reposed such responsibilities on them. College and university professors have witnessed a marked change in the institutional climate. Competition has replaced collegiality. Faculty performance has become very stringent and monitored closely by internal and external stakeholders. A key ingredient for social transformation is promote faculty productivity and motivation to teach, research, and engage in university and community service, and ensure that this work is valued and appreciated. Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) asserted that there must be a connection between individual productivity of faculty and institutional characteristics that would allow such productivity to fulfill their full academic missions with eventual societal gain.

Greenleaf's concept of servant leadership, which started at Yale University as an altruistic framework of leadership, has been tested in the higher echelons at many Ivy League schools, yet it seems that universities and corporations in the US and other Western countries have not fully embraced this concept yet. Effective research, teaching and service outcomes that emanate in the universities due to servant leadership have not been reported in the highest echelons of faculty publications. They have not been utilized in organizational leadership of corporations that promote the transformational outcomes of servant leadership either, (Blokan & Goodboy, 2009, 2011).

Summarizing the above:

- The majority of leadership research relating to executives' leadership development has been in the context of business and corporations.
- While the university's role as a change agent for the society is of paramount importance, it is vital to understand the impact of university professors' leadership style has on producing students for the future leadership.

- American Professors' positive leadership and organizational behavior stem from (or are dependent on) their *PsyCap* and *PsyGown*.
- Scant research exists that has studied university professors and their self-reported leadership styles
- Several studies have examined the relationship of leadership styles and psychological capital
- Limited studies have explored the relationship of leadership styles and psychological ownership
- No literature was found that examined the constructs of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) *and* Psychological Ownership (PsyGown) (together) as predictors of leadership style of university professors

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to determine the effects of PsyCap and PsyGown on the criterion Transformational Leadership variable, while controlling for gender, ethnicity, education, and age. This research examines the relationship between professors' self-perception of their psychological capital and psychological ownership that impacts their leadership style for superior performance**.** This research identifies the relationship between professors' Psychological Capital (four scales from *Psychological Capital Questionnaire*) and Psychological Ownership (the five scales from the *Psychological Ownership Questionnaire*), and their impact on Transformational Leadership style (one of the three scales from *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*), when controlling for gender, ethnicity, education and age.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Focus on the exemplary performance: For leaders to get results they need three kinds of focus. *Inner focus* attunes us to our intuitions, guiding values, and better decisions. *Other focus* smooths our connections to the people in our lives, and *outer focus* lets us navigate the larger world" Goleman (2013). In Figure 1, The Venn diagram indicates the three intersecting constructs: inner psychological capital, outer psychological ownership, and the other – leadership style as the resultant behavior. The intersection is important for development of leadership with focus on excellence, which is the intended outcome (or American Exceptionalism).

As illustrated below, in fig. 1-6, the conceptual framework for this study was based on the Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership, which have been widely researched by Luthans, Avey, Avolio, and Peterson (2010); Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007) indicating that Psychological Capital play an important role in providing acceptance of authority for the transformational leadership.

FIGURE 1: GOLEMAN'S FOCUS MODEL

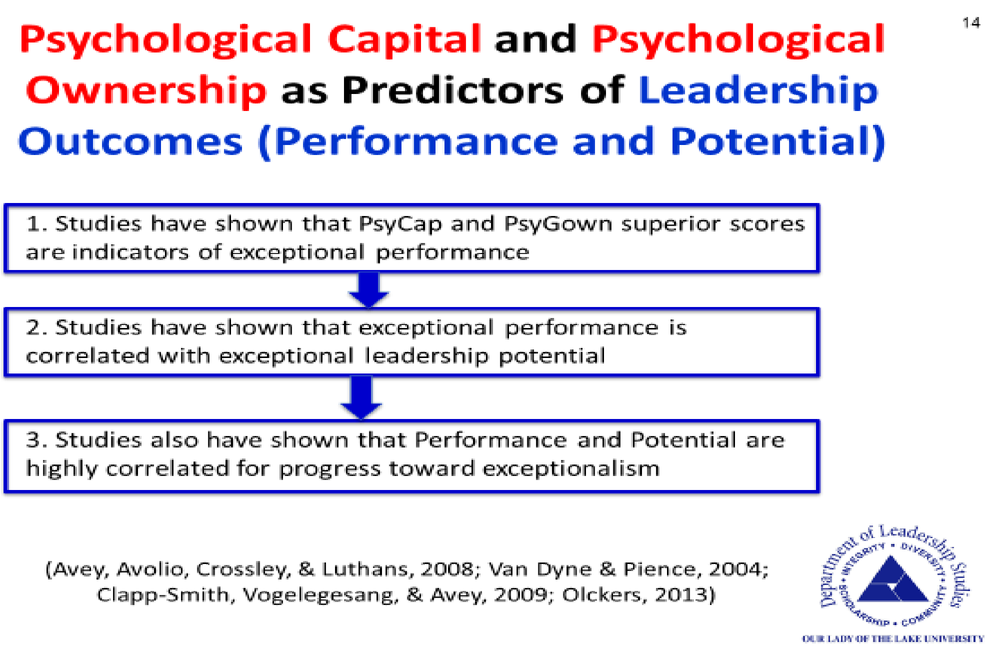

FIGURE 2: PERFORMANCE AND POTENTIAL

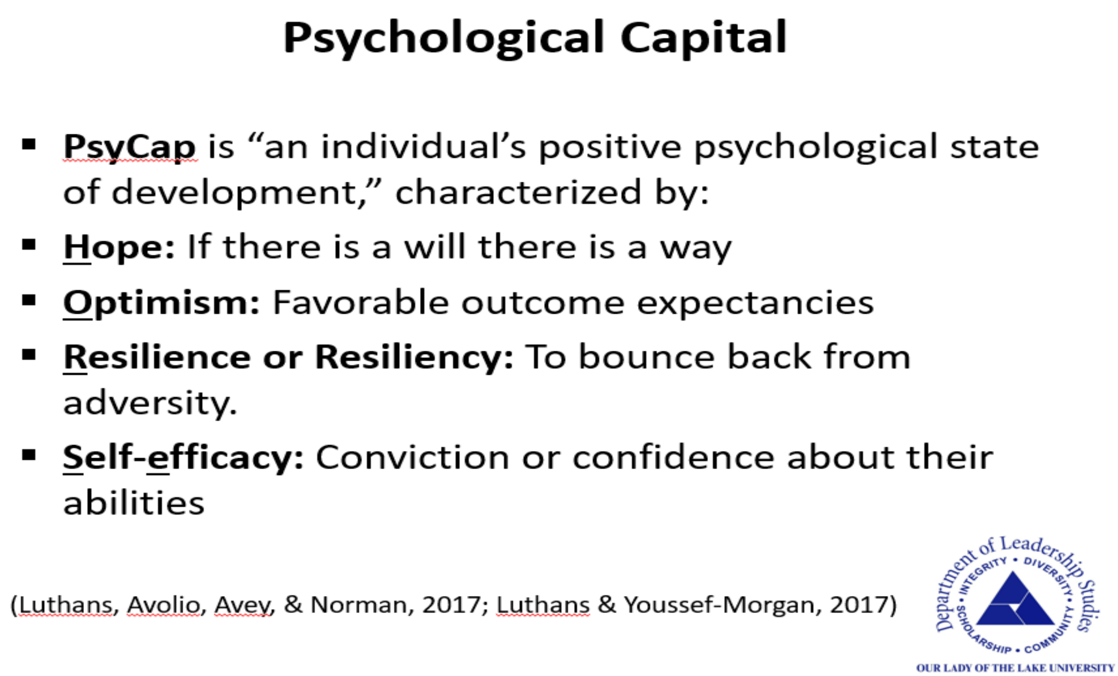

FIGURE 3: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL CONSTRUCT

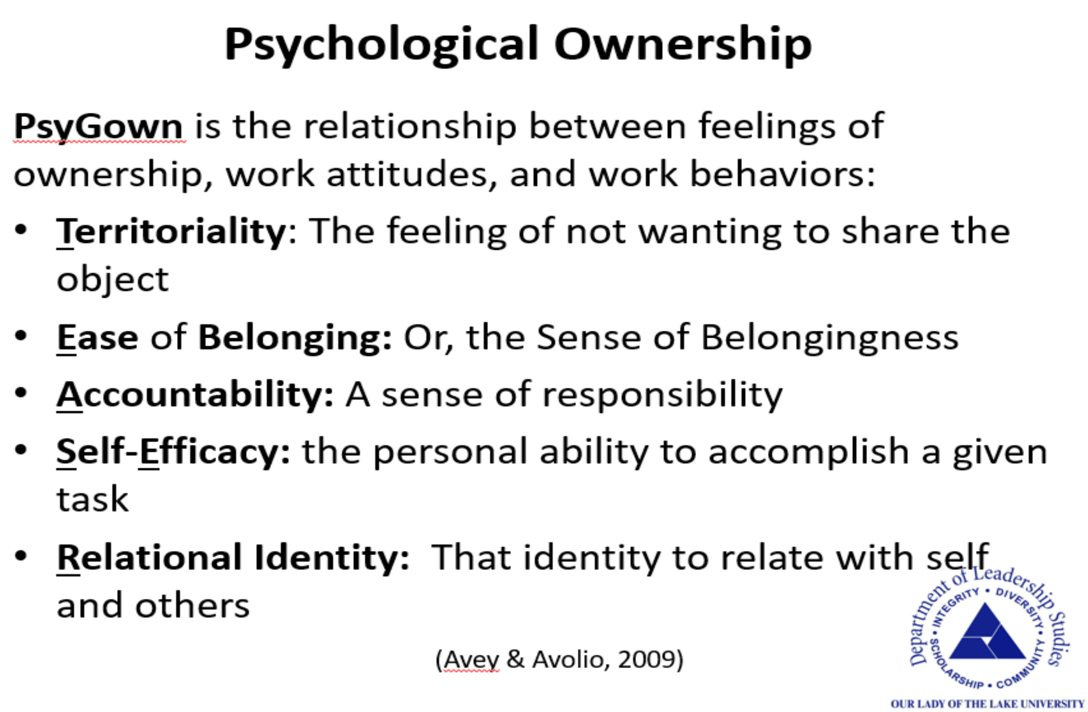

FIGURE 4: PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP CONSTRUCT

Research Question

RQ: Is there a relationship between Professors' **Psychological Capital** (Hope, Optimism, Resilience, Self-Efficacy-attitudinal) and **Psychological Ownership** (Territoriality, Ease of Belonging, Accountability, Self-Efficacy-behavioral, and Self-Identity) *and* **Transformational Leadership** when controlling for Gender, Ethnicity, Education, and Age?

FIGURE 5: RESEARCH QUESTION

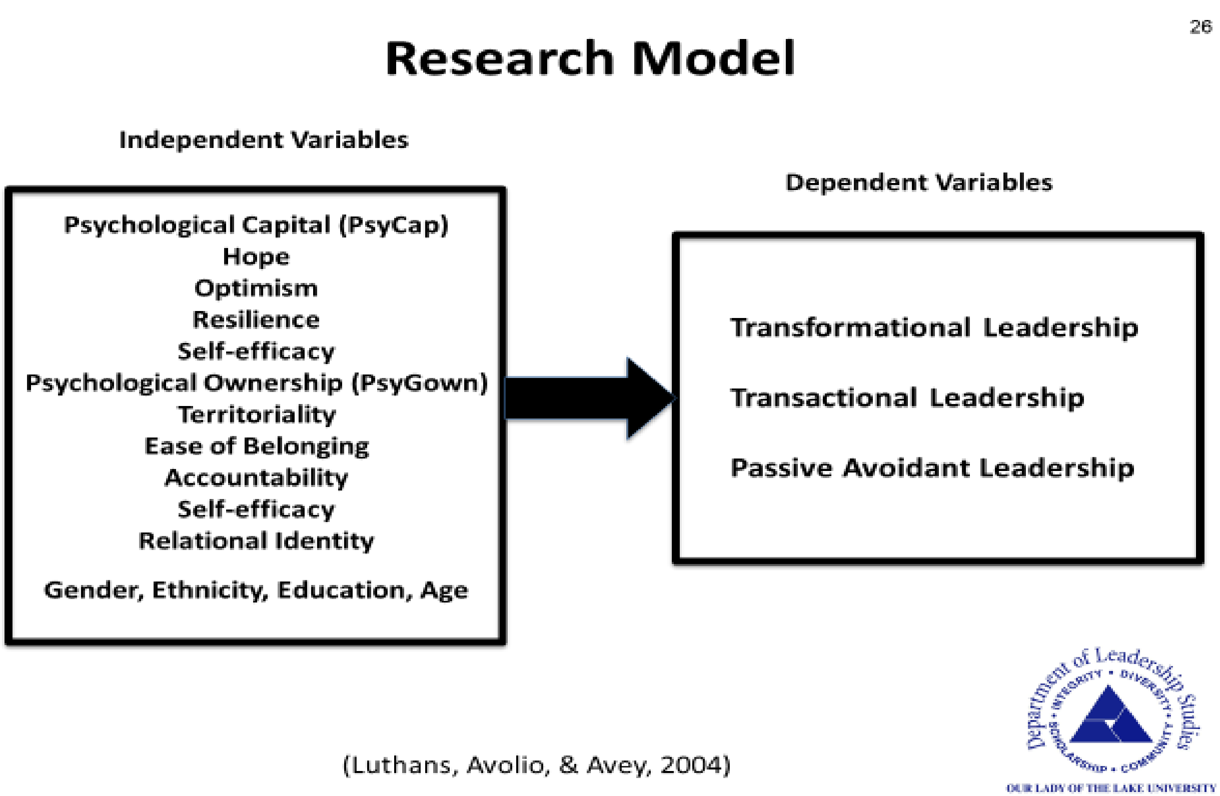

FIGURE 6: RESEARCH MODEL

LITERATURE REVIEW

Transformational Leadership

Burns first introduced the concept of transformational leadership in 1978 that focused on the ways that leaders emerged from being ordinary "transactional" leaders to become major social change players who truly empowered their followers. This period was followed by Bass who refined and further operationalized the concepts of leadership styles, followed by Avolio (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1985). Later studies of transformational leadership focused on the outcomes perspectives of followers (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009, 2011).

Transactional Leaders articulate the use of contingent reward, or management-by-exception-active as appropriate in achieving the group's goal or continue to survive without a long-term. Literature on university professors' transformational and transactional leadership behaviors are rare; but studies are replete with organizational leadership studies dealing with transformational and transactional leadership.

According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to a higher level of motivation, performance, and morality (p. 20). Transformational leaders have been described in prior literature as highly interactive, passionate, empowering, visionary, and creative (Hackman & Johnson, 2004). Bass (1985) and Avolio later, expanded Burn's theory by conceptualizing transformational leadership behaviors into four categories: individualized consideration (IC), Idealized Influence-Attributed (II-A), Idealized Influence-Behavioral (II-B), Inspirational Motivation (IM) and Intellectual Stimulation (IS).

Between the period 1985 and 1990, hasty revisions occurred as new refinements were envisioned and added to the continuum of leadership behaviors. (Hater and Bass, 1988; Bass, 1999; Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino, 1991). By 1991, a final and comprehensive nine-component theoretical model matured.

Idealized Influence

Bass (1999) described idealized influence as the transformational leader's ability to clearly articulate a vision to followers and the ability to motivate followers to join the vision (p. 19). As a result, followers place a high degree of trust in the leader (Bass, 1985). Yukl (2006) stated that idealized influence behaviors arouse strong follower emotions and identification with the leader. This idealized influence may be used to inspire charisma in the leader which may bring about unintended outcomes as has been seen in history. So, charisma has been substituted by idealized influence to protect the follower from unintended outcomes of charisma as history has shown.

Intellectual Stimulation

Avolio et al. (1999) described intellectual stimulation as getting followers to question the tried and true methods of solving problems by encouraging them to improve upon those methods. Intellectual stimulation encourages followers to challenge leader decisions and group processes, thus encouraging innovative thinking (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Brown and Posner (2001) advocated intellectual stimulation as a component of organizational learning and change by appealing to follower needs for achievement and growth in ways that the follower finds attractive. Brown and Posner (2001) found that the intellectual stimulation component of transformational leadership plays a healthy and beneficial role in organizational learning because leaders place value in learning for both themselves and their followers.

Individualized Consideration

Avolio, Bass & Jung (1999) found that through the process of transformational leadership, the leader takes on the role of mentor by assigning responsibilities to followers as opportunities for growth and development through a process of self-actualization. Corrigan and Garman (1999) found that individualized consideration positively affects and facilitates team-building efforts. Yukl (2006) described individualized consideration behaviors as support, encouragement, and coaching to followers. The relationship used for mentoring and coaching is based on followers' individual development needs with the outcome being the evolvement of followers into leaders (Bass & Steidlmeir, 1999; Bass, 2000). Barnett, McCormick & Conners (2001) have also explained that individualized consideration is occurring when leaders develop interpersonal relationships with followers and that it is these interactions that allow the leader to personalize leadership and establish goals for each individual follower.

Inspirational Motivation

Bass (1999) described inspirational motivation as providing followers with challenges and meaning for engaging in shared goals. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) took it further by identifying inspirational motivation as the leader's ability to communicate his or her vision in a way that inspires followers to take action in an effort to fulfill the leader's vision. Inspirational motivation enables leaders to remain focused on the vision of the group despite any obstacles that may arise (Kent, Crotts, & Aziz, 2001). Yukl (2006) described inspirational motivation behaviors as communicating an appealing vision, using symbols to focus subordinate effort, and modeling appropriate behaviors. Some researchers have related inspirational motivation to concepts of ethics, claiming that when leaders show concern for organizational vision and follower motivation, they are more inclined to make ethical decisions (Banjerji & Krishnan, 2000).

Full Range Leadership Model

The *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ—5X short) and its measurement thereof, uses a broad range of leadership types from passive leaders, to leaders who give contingent rewards to followers, to leaders who transform their followers into becoming exceptional leaders themselves. The MLQ has 45 questions (this study used 36 questions) that identifies the characteristics of three major styles (Transformational, Transactional, and Passive Avoidant) of leadership and helps individuals discover how consciously they measure up in their own eyes and in the eyes of those with whom they work or associate as peers or supervisors. Success in leadership effectiveness can be measured through a retesting program by the publishers of MLQ to track changes in leadership style as a management development framework for after the training monitoring. The MLQ testing program using a Trainer's Guide provides a solid base for leadership training. As a follow-up to previous studies in leadership and establishment of a better understanding of Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership as predictors of leadership styles this investigation uses the Full Range Leadership Model as shown below at Fig. 7.

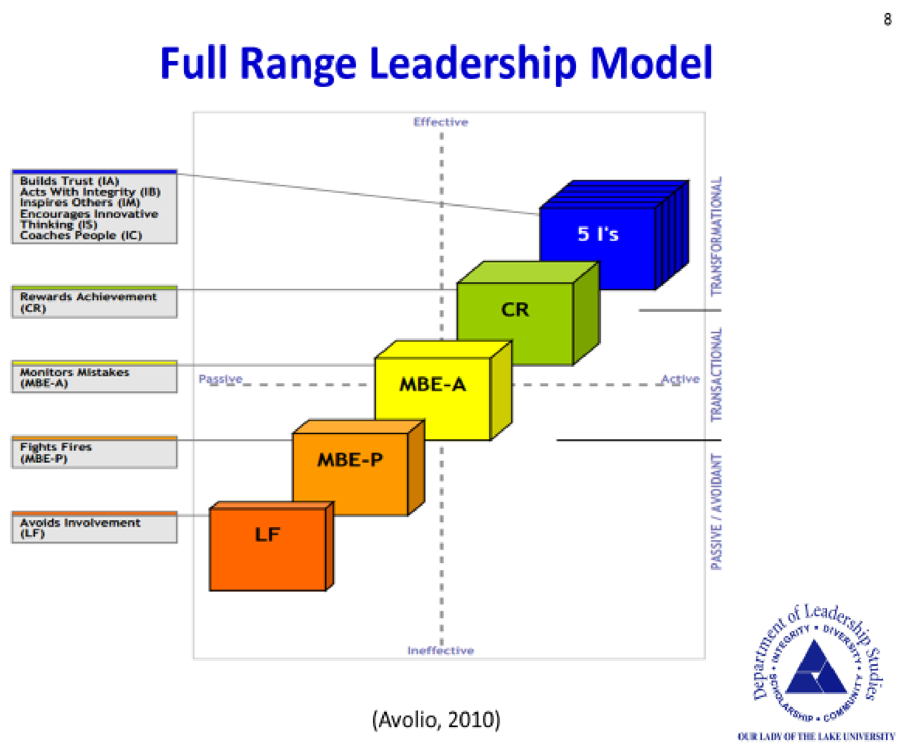

FIGURE 7: FULL RANGE LEADERSHIP MODEL

In order to implement the above concept, and remain viable and competitive, universities have continually invested in their faculty and staff hoping that such investments will contribute to the development of faculty members to meet the high standards of American Exceptionalism. Some of universities have used management development for professorial success by bringing forth training and development programs as a way of development of young faculty. Further, by leveraging resources and drawing upon the expertise, some universities have been able to offer excellent professional development opportunities to their faculty called Academic Leadership Program (ALP). Such leadership development programs were aimed at engaging in competitive strategies. However, demonstration of exceptional ability and academic promise through psychological capital (PsyCap) and psychological ownership (PsyGown) are necessary as predictors of transformational leadership behavior in academia.

Psychological Capital

The Psychological Capital (PsyCap) of an individual is determined by the scores from the *Psychological Capital Questionnaire* (PCQ; Luthans, et al., 2007a), which draws from widely-recognized measures for each of the dimensions that make up PsyCap: (1) Hope (Snyder et al., 1996); (2) Optimism (Scheier and Carver, 1985); (3) Resiliency (Wagnild and Young, 1993); and (4) Self-Efficacy (Parker, 1998). These are the cognitive states of mind— also referenced as cognitive HORSE. The PCQ has demonstrated high reliability and construct validity in earlier studies (Luthans et al., 2007a, 2008b, and 2007c). The 24-item PCQ has six items for each subscale of hope, optimism, resiliency and self-efficacy. Responses are scored on a 6-point scale with anchors of 1= *strongly disagree* and 6 = *strongly agree*. Reversed items were recoded according to the instructions in PCQ (Luthans et al., 2007a). To reflect the state-like quality of PsyCap, the questions are framed to ask the participants how they felt “right now.” Moreover, questions were adapted to make the target context specific to the workplace. The internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) for the overall PsyCap scale was $\alpha = .78$. Skewness was .03 and kurtosis .28.

Luthans et al. (2007b) argued that all the four factors of PsyCap form a higher order construct that is a better predictor of performance and satisfaction than its individual parts. We assume that the PsyCap dimensions together will identify university professors who believe in their professional abilities and skills, who are goal oriented and confident, with a strong willingness to cope with changes during their formative years. Due to the intense and inherent competitiveness in academic environment, we expect that PsyCap will assist in identifying university professors who demonstrate quality performance in the three dimensions of their career: teaching, research and service.

Lately, some studies have also found that high score on Psychological Capital is related to Leadership Outcomes (employee performance and job satisfaction). Additionally, some studies have found that a high score on Psychological Ownership is also related to Leadership Outcomes. In the university setting, much of the work that professors do encompasses aspects of Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership.

According to Luthans et al. (2000) psychological capital is defined as the positive and developmental state of an individual as characterized by high hope, optimism, resiliency, and self-efficacy (The HORSE effect).

Hope is an aspect of positive psychology development by Snyder et al. (2000), which they defined as ‘a positive motivational state that is based on interactively derived sense of successful agency, pathways. Hope includes the will and the way.

Optimism was defined by Seligman (1990), as a cognitive process that involves favorable outcome expectancies which are linked to positive organizational outcomes such as work motivation, performance, morale and satisfaction. Luthans and Avolio (2003) reported that optimistic leaders had positive effect on organizational outcomes.

Resiliency is an aspect of psychological capital and positive organizational behavior which was originally promoted by (Masten, 2001) and which is defined by the ability to bounce back from adversity. This particular aspect of psychological capital has been promoted by Youssef and Luthans (2005).

Self-efficacy is another aspect of psychological capital and is a positive organizational behavior criterion (Luthans, 2002) the construct that originated from Bandura (1997). ‘Self-efficacy refers to an individual's conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context’ (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998).

Psychological Ownership

The Psychological Ownership developed by Avey and Avolio (2007) as a construct that assesses two theoretically derived, unique forms of psychological ownership-- Preventative and Promotive. Preventative psychological ownership is characterized as territoriality. That is, when individuals feel ownership over something they may tend to be territorial about it. This may include the feeling of not wanting to share the object (such as resource use or information) and feeling as though, in general, they should be the one to determine what happens to or with the object. The second and ideal form of psychological ownership is Promotive in nature, which is comprised of four distinct yet related dimensions. They are sense of belongingness, accountability, self-efficacy, and relational identity.

Psychological Ownership has five facets commonly referred to as TEASER, which did much to spur the HORSE for affective and effective behavior. Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans (2009) assert that the ownership concept of the target subject is either preventive or promotive. Territoriality is considered as the preventive psychological behavior, whereas the other four elements are considered promotive. Psychological Ownership constructs deviate from Psychological Capital construct in the sense that, whereas the psychological capital is primary source of motivation for the leader, the psychological ownership construct is the primary source of implementation for the leader. So, the psychological ownership construct may be considered as a process, whereas psychological capital is considered as an asset. One cannot live without the other. It's like a horse-teaser effect found in leading and motivating the followers.

Current literature supports that transformational leadership is more effective than other leadership styles. Therefore, the logical conclusion seems to be that university professors should be transformational to leave a great impact on student learning and development. Meta-analyses have shown that transformational leadership is positively related to student learning and satisfaction. Yet there is paucity of research in Professors' competitiveness and effectiveness, and there is a gap between performance and potential. Luthans' Positive Organizational Behavior and Avolio's affective nature of Psychological Ownership have demonstrated effective leadership and outcomes (performance and satisfaction).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study can deliver benefits to the academic community in a way that professors will be able to contribute to their professions according to their predictable leadership style. Such determination of professors' leadership style has the potential to reinforce approaches to effective teaching, research and service. This can also provide a distinctive professional development needs analysis and intervention strategy at an early stage by using their PsyCap and PsyGown.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following graphs and Fig. 8 through 23, show the questionnaire developed, the results of all distributions, and the tests of hypotheses using Independent Variable (IV), Dependent Variable (DV), and Control Variable (CV). To make the graphs readable, mean, standard deviation, medium, and mode have been shown alongside the graphs. The skewness has also been reported alongside.

Demographic Questionnaire

- Professor's Gender (dichotomous: Male / Female)
- Professor's Ethnicity (categorical: Asian, African American, Hispanic, White and Other)
- Professor's Education (categorical: Doctorate, Master, Bachelor, Associate, and Community College)
- Professor's Age (continuous)

Department of Leadership Studies
INTEGRITY • DIVERSITY • COMMUNITY • SCHOLARSHIP
OUR LADY OF THE LAKE UNIVERSITY

FIGURE 8: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

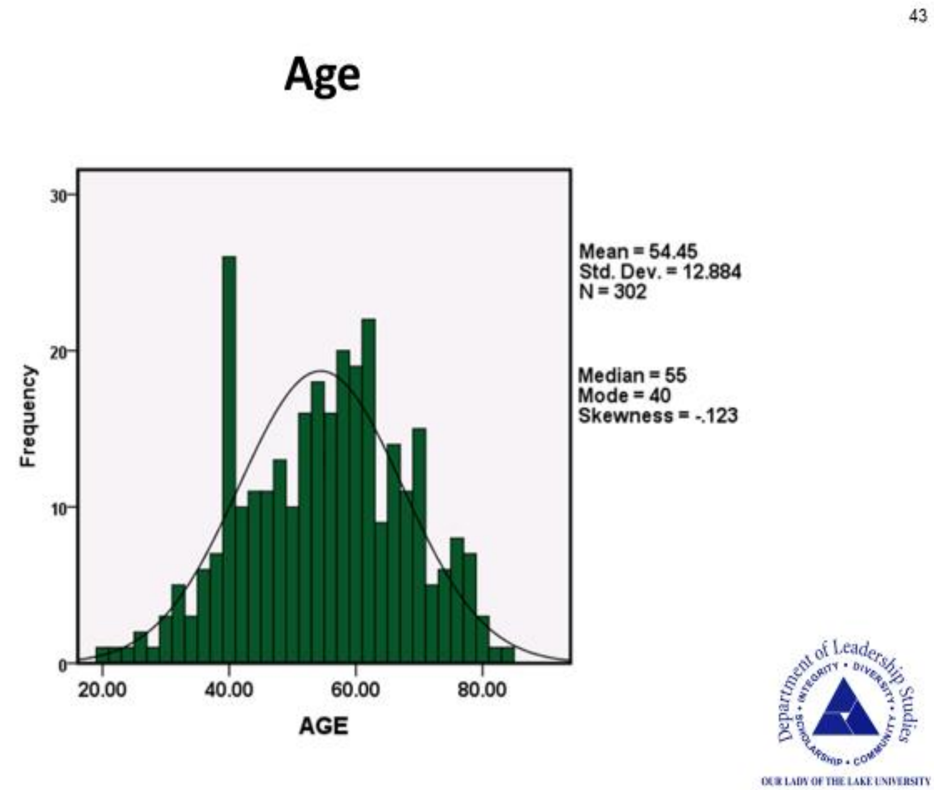

FIGURE 9: DEMOGRAPHICS: AGE

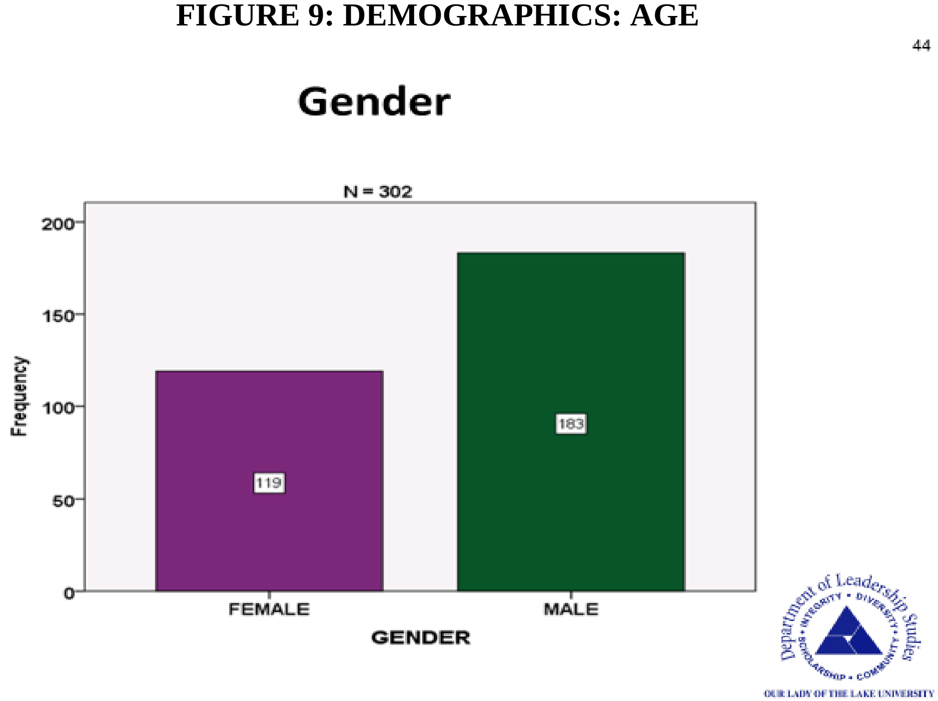

FIGURE 10: DEMOGRAPHICS: GENDER

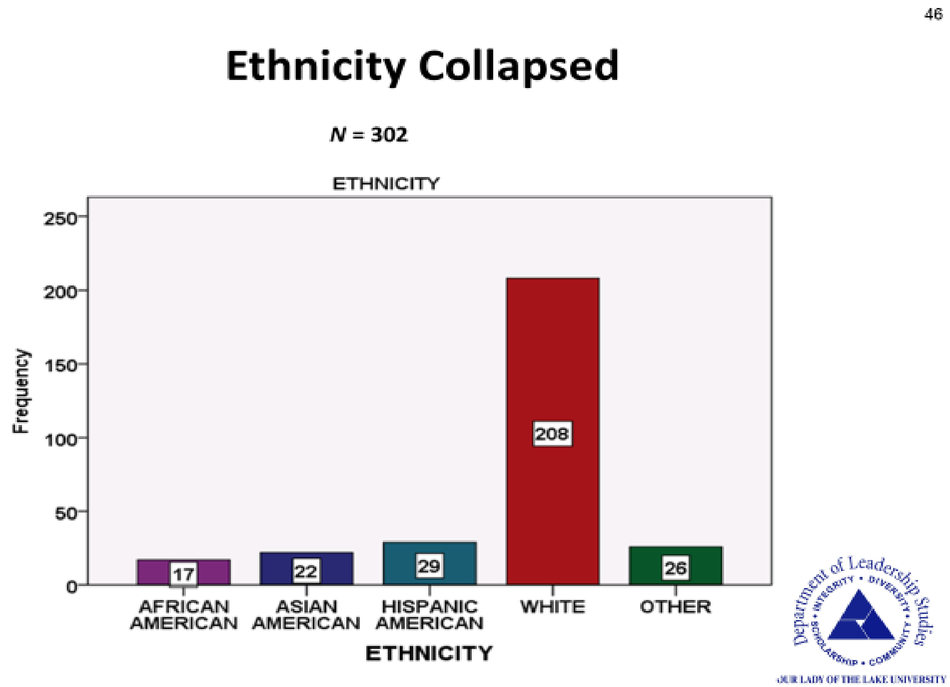

FIGURE 11: DEMOGRAPHICS: ETHNICITY

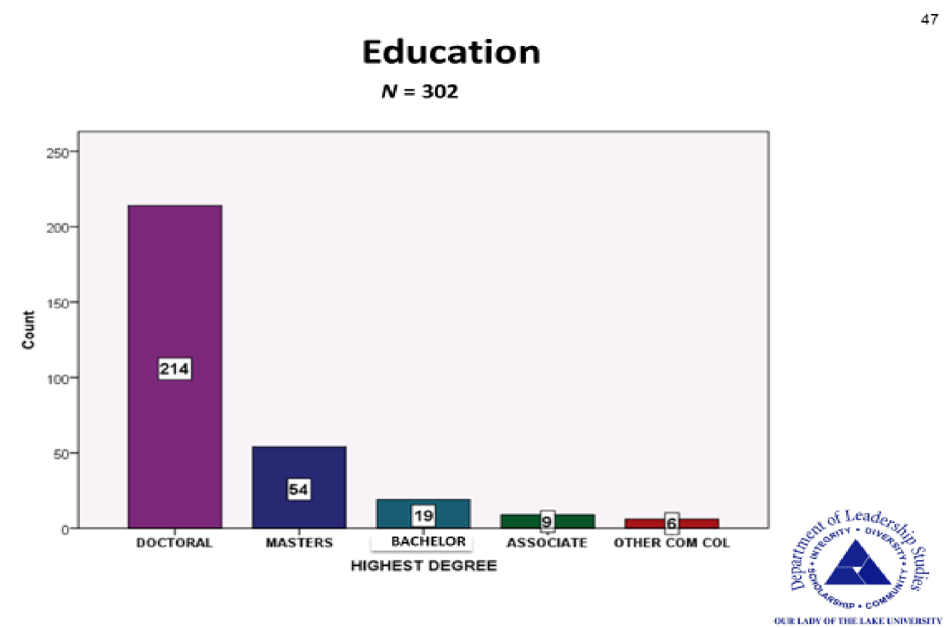

FIGURE 12: DEMOGRAPHICS: EDUCATION

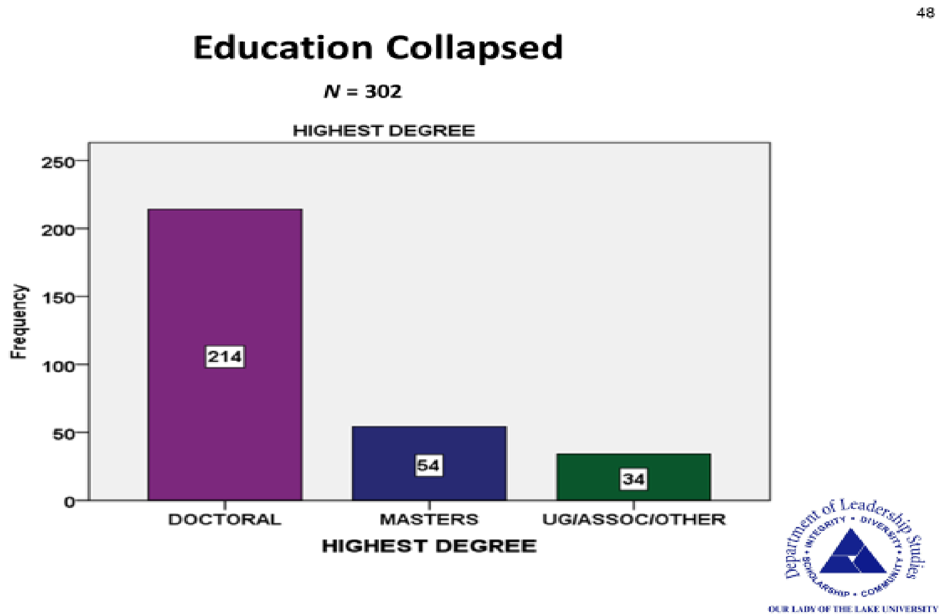

FIGURE 13: DEMOGRAPHICS: EDUCATION COLLAPSED

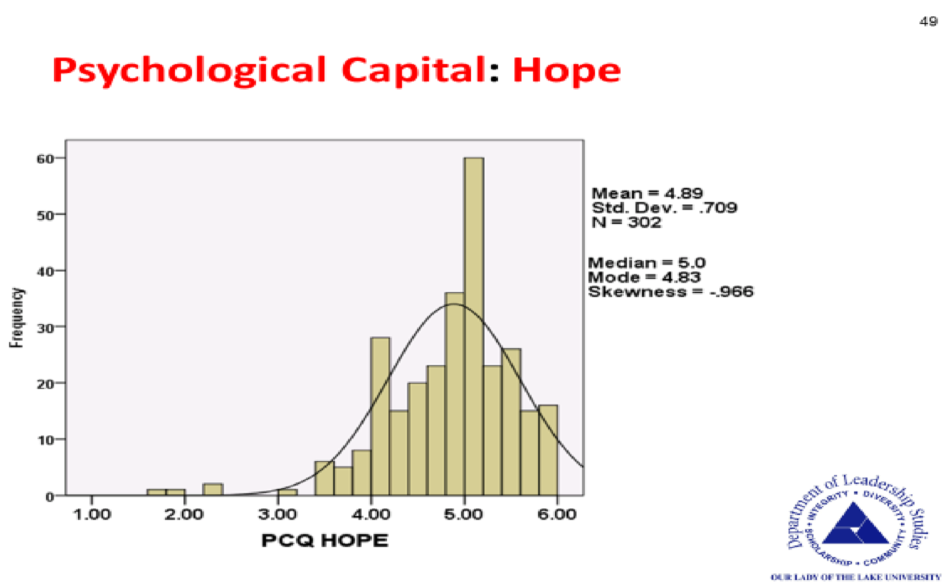

FIGURE 14: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL: HOPE

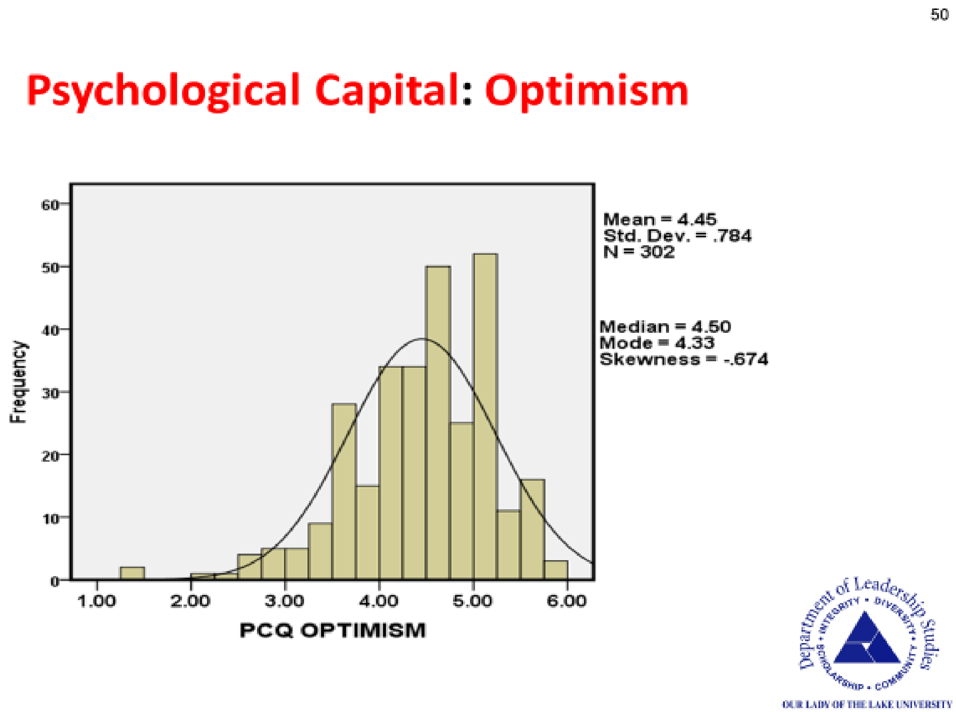

FIGURE 15: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL: OPTIMISM

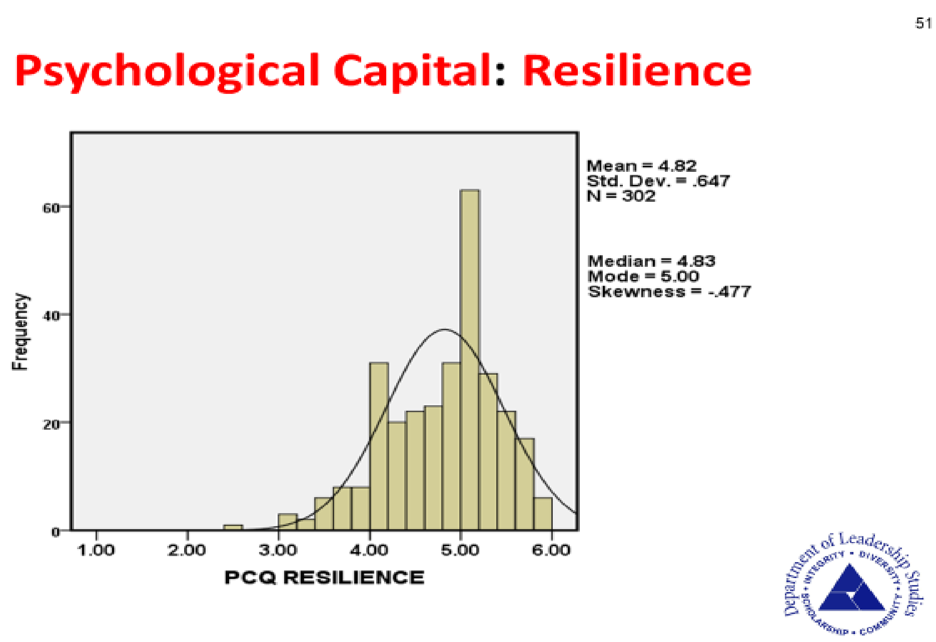

FIGURE 16: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL: RESILIENCE

52

Psychological Capital: Efficacy

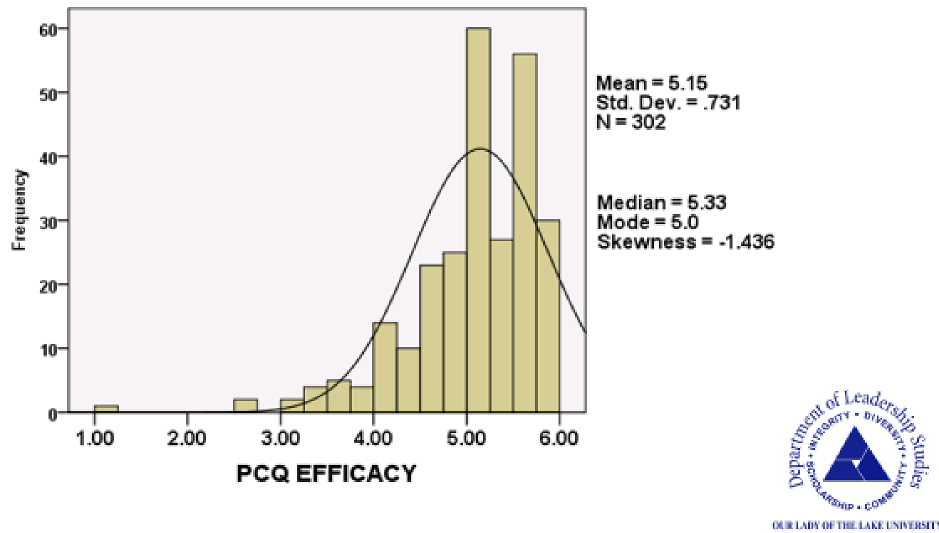

FIGURE 17: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL: EFFICACY

53

Psychological Ownership: Territoriality

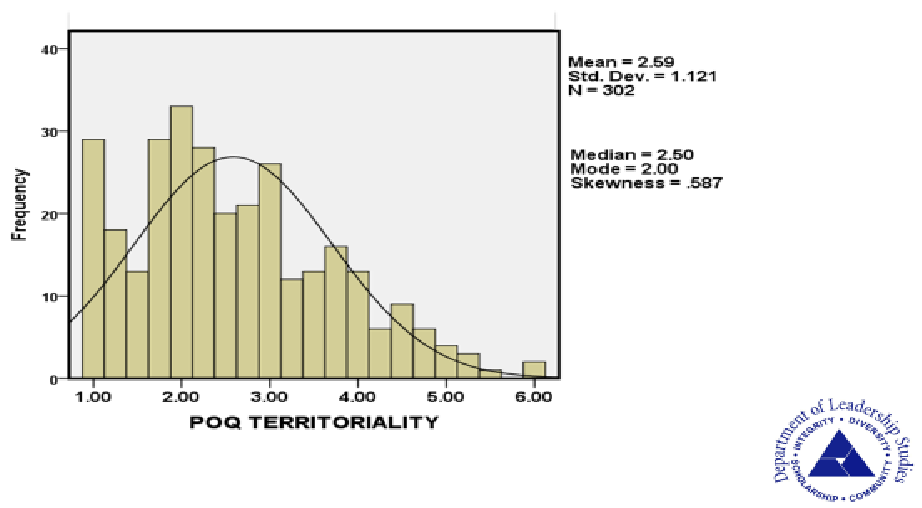

FIGURE 18: PSYGOWN: TERRITORIALITY

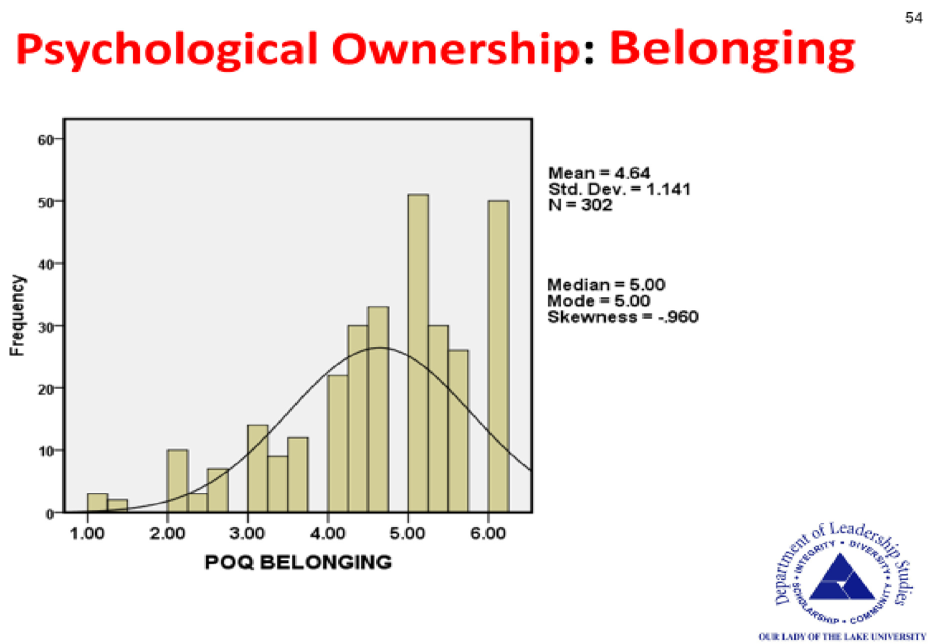

FIGURE 19: PSYGOWN: BELONGING

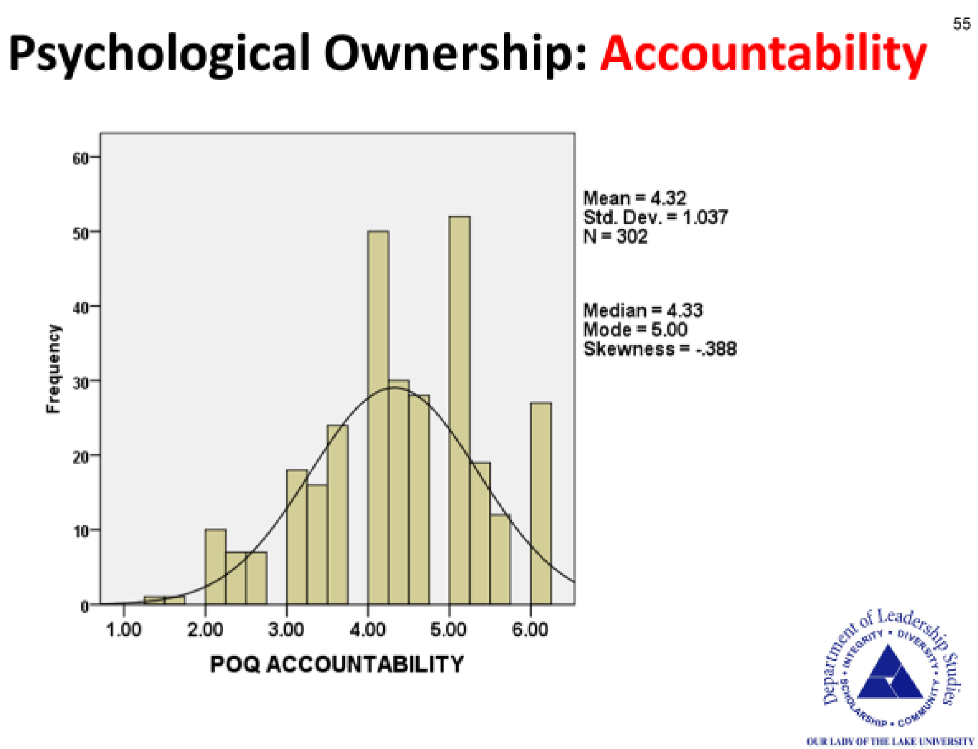

FIGURE 20: PSYGOWN- ACCOUNTABILITY

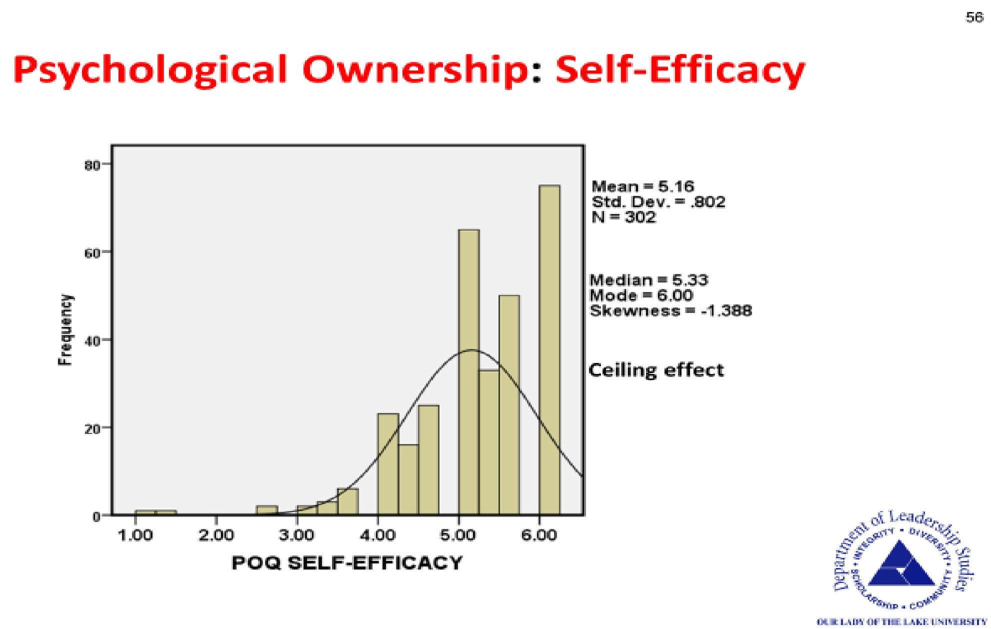

FIGURE 21: PSYGOWN: SELF-EFFICACY

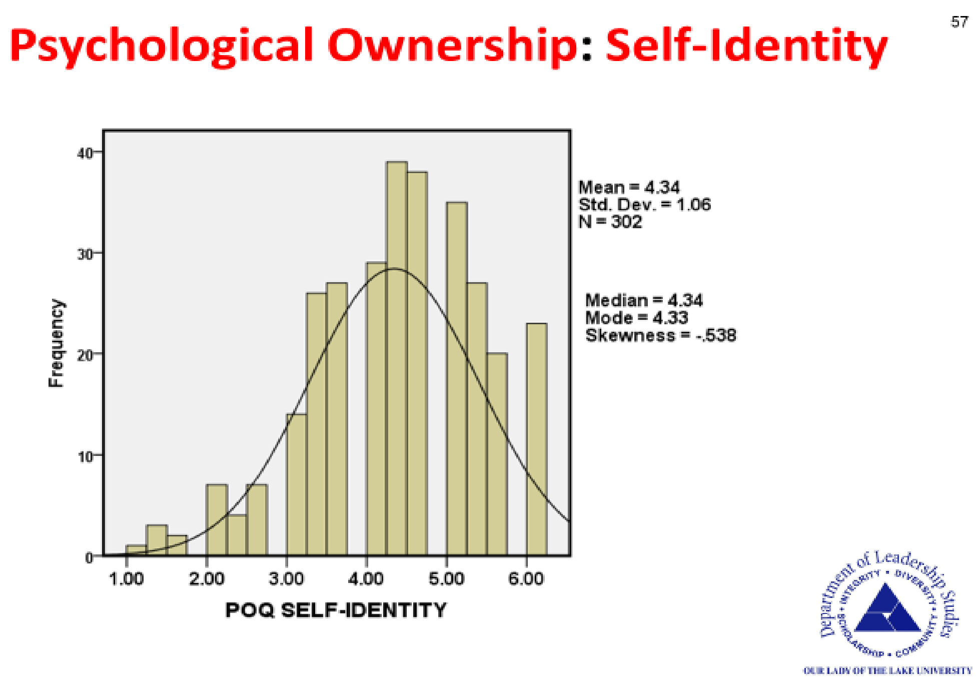

FIGURE 22: PSYGOWN: SELF-IDENTITY

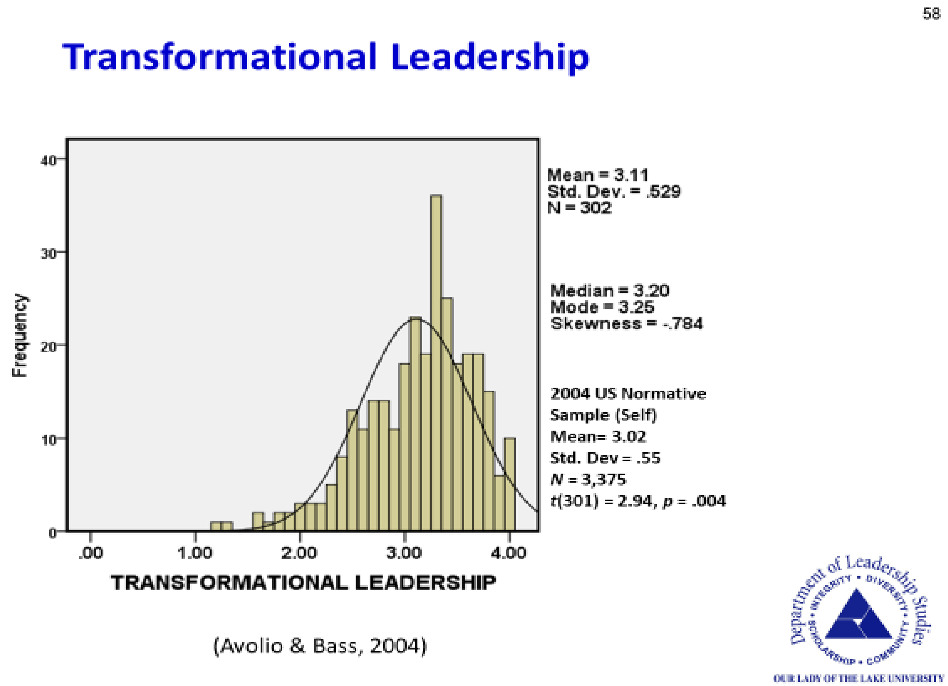

FIGURE 23: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

To enunciate the predictors of Transformational Leadership for superior performance the graph at Fig. 24 shows the final bivariate correlation table. Transformational Leadership, as shown in the matrix, is moderately and positively correlated with Transactional Leadership ($r = .393$, $p < .001$). Transformational Leadership is moderately but negatively correlated with Passive Avoidant Leadership ($r = -.360$, $p < .001$).

As Figure 25 indicates, POQ Self-Efficacy accounted for 31.4% of the variance explained-- The higher the POQ Self-Efficacy the higher the rating of Transformational Leadership showing ($R^2 = .314$, $\beta = .561$, $p < .05$).

62

Bivariate Correlations

N = 302	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. AGE	1												
2. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP		1											
3. TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP		.393**	1										
4. PASSIVE AVOIDANT LEADERSHIP		-.360**		1									
5. PCQ EFFICACY		.464**		-.409**	1								
6. PCQ HOPE		.483**		-.380**	.620**	1							
7. PCQ RESILIENCE		.496**		-.434**	.555**	.602**	1						
8. PCQ OPTIMISM	.122*	.505**		-.409**	.480**	.603**	.566**	1					
9. POQ TERRITORIALITY		-.160**	.276**	.309**	-.256**	-.172**	-.289**	-.345**	1				
10. POQ SELF-EFFICACY		.561**		-.461**	.614**	.675**	.557**	.624**	-.210**	1			
11. POQ ACCOUNTABILITY		.379**	.284**	-.238**	.365**	.385**	.306**	.305**		.373**	1		
12. POQ BELONGING		.338**		-.231**	.315**	.494**	.278**	.583**	-.300**	.506**	.371**	1	
13. POQ SELF-IDENTITY		.366**	.149**	-.196**	.306**	.332**	.159**	.422**	-.217**	.399**	.362**	.724**	1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Inter-correlations of IVs

Inter-correlations of DVs

Correlations between IVs and DVs

FIGURE 24: BIVARIATE CORRELATIONS

69

Model Summary – Null Hypothesis 1 ($H_0 1$)

Transformational Leadership

Model	R	R Square	R Square Change	Beta	r_p	df1	df2	Sig
1	.561[a]	.314				1	300	$p = .000$
2	.603[b]	.363	.049	.267	.268	1	299	$p = .000$
3	.628[c]	.394	.030	.191	.219	1	298	$p = .000$
4	. 638[d]	.407	.013	.128	.146	1	297	$p = .012$

a. Predictors: POQ Self-Efficacy

b. Predictors: POQ Self-Efficacy, PCQ Resilience

c. Predictors: POQ Self-Efficacy, PCQ Resilience, POQ Self-identity

d. Predictors: POQ Self-Efficacy, PCQ Resilience, POQ Self-identity, POQ Accountability

Reject the Null Hypothesis

Department of Leadership Studies
INTEGRITY • DIVERSITY • COMMUNITY • SCHOLARSHIP
OUR LADY OF THE LAKE UNIVERSITY

FIGURE 25: RESULT OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS

PCQ resilience accounted for 4.9% of the variance explained, The higher the PCQ Resilience, the higher the rating of Transformational Leadership ($\Delta R^2 = .049$, $\beta = .267$, $r_p = .268$, $p < .05$). POQ Self-Identity accounted for an additional 3.0% of the variance explained.

The higher the POQ Self-Identity, the higher the rating of Transformational Leadership (TL) indicated by ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\beta = .191$, $r_p = .219$, $p < .05$), and partial correlation of Self-Identity with TL is .219.

Also, the regression shows that POQ-Accountability accounted for 1.3% of the variance explained. The higher the POQ Accountability, the higher the rating of Transformational Leadership. ($\Delta R^2 = .013$, $\beta = .128$, $r_p = .146$, $p < .05$), partial correlation of POQ-A with TL is .146.

In summary, 40.7% of all variances in Transformational Leadership were explained by predictors POQ Self-Efficacy, PCQ resilience, POQ Self-Identity, POQ Accountability.

CONCLUSSION

We had started out with a research question, “Is there a relationship between Professors’ Psychological Capital (Hope, Optimism, Resilience, Self-Efficacy-attitudinal) and Psychological Ownership (Territoriality, Ease of Belonging, Accountability, Self-Efficacy-behavioral, and Self-Identity) *and* Transformational Leadership, when controlling for Gender, Ethnicity, Education, and Age?”

This empirical research has investigated the effects of psychological capital and psychological ownership on leadership style. The statistical analysis of the results revealed that PsyCap and PsyGown do, in fact, predict leadership style as concluded below.

In summary, psychological capital and psychological ownership as predictors seize upon 40.7% of all variances in Transformational Leadership. These variances were explained by three predictor elements: PsyGown’s facet of POQ Self-Efficacy, POQ Self-Identity, and POQ Accountability; and one facet of PsyCap’s PCQ resilience.

Psychological Capital and Psychological Ownership, when taken together, were able to predict the transformational leadership style of professors to a considerable degree (40.7% of all variances). These have been explained statistically above while using the discerning and predictive abilities of multiple regression analysis.

REFERENCES

Avey J., Reichart R., Luthans, F. & Mhatre, K. (2011). Meta-Analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes,behaviors, and performance. *Human Resource Development Quarterly 22*(2), 127-152.

Avey, J., Avolio, B., Crossley, C. & Luthans, F., (2009) Psychological ownership: Theoretical extensions, measurement, and relation to work outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior 30*, 173–191.

Avey, J., Luthans, F. & Jensen, S. (2009). Psychological capital: A positive resource for combating employee stress and turnover. *Human Resource Management 48*(5), 677-693.

Avey, J.B.; Luthans, F.; and Youssef, C. M., (2009). The additive value of positive psychological capital in predicting work attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Management 36*(2), 430-452.

Avey, J., Wernsing, T., & Luthans, F. (2008). Can positive employees help positive organizational change? Impact of psychological capital and emotions on relevant attitudes and behaviors. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 44*(1), 48–70.

Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72*(4), 441-462.

Avolio, B.J. and Gardner, W.L. (2005) Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 315-338. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.001
Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *15*(6), 801-823.
Avolio, B., Waldman, D. and Yammarino, F. (1991), "Leading in the 1990s: The Four I′s of Transformational Leadership", *Journal of European Industrial Training*, *15*(4), 9-16.
Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York, NY, US: W H Freeman/Times Books/ Henry Holt & Co.
Banerji, P. & Krishnan, V. R. (2000). Ethical Preferences of Transformational Leaders. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal 21*(8):405-413.
Barnard, C I. (1938). *Functions of the executive*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
Barnard, C I. (1976). *Functions of the executive (*38th ed.). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
Barnett, K., McCormick, J., & Conners, R. (2001). Transformational leadership in schools—Panacea, placebo, or problem? *Journal of Educational Administration, 39*(1), 24-46.
Bar-on, R. (1997). The Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.
Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). *Psicothema*, *18,* supl.,13-25.
Bass B. M. (2000) The Future of Leadership in Learning Organizations, *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies.* https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190000700302 (accessed Aug 2, 2019)
Bass B. M., & Avolio, B. (1993). *Improving Organizational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership,* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*(2), 181-217.
Bass, B. M. (1999). Current developments in transformational leadership: Research and applications. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal, 3*(1), 5-21.
Bass, B. M. (2000). The Future of leadership in learning organizations *Journal of Leadership Studies, 7*(3), 18-40.
Bennis, W. (2009). *On becoming a leader*. Philadelphia, PA: Perseus Books.
Blackburn, R. T., & Lawrence, J. H. (1995). Faculty at work: Motivation, expectation, satisfaction. Baltimore, MD, US: Johns Hopkins University Press.
Bolkan, S., Goodboy, A. K (2009). Transformational leadership in the classroom: Fostering student learning, student participation, and teacher credibility. *Journal of Instructional Psychology 36*(4), 296-306.
Bolkan, S., Goodboy A. K. (2011) Transformational leadership in the classroom: The development and validation of the student intellectual stimulation scale. *Communication Reports (23)*2, 91-105.
Brown, L. M., and Posner, B. Z. (2001). Exploring the relationship between learning and leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal 22*(6), 274-80.
Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership.* Harper Collins: Harper Perennial Political Classics.
Corrigan, P.W. & Garman, A.N. (1999). Transformational and transactional leadership skills for mental health teams. Community Mental Health Journal *35*(4): 301-312.

Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, *13*(1), 46-78.

Fleishman, E. A., Harris, E. F., and Burtt, H. E. (1955). *Leadership and supervision in industry: An evaluation of a supervisory training program,* Columbus: Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York, NY, England: Bantam Books, Inc.

Goleman, D. (2013). *Focus: The hidden driver of excellence*. New York: Harper.

Green, M. (2013). *Graduate leadership.* North Charleston, SC.: Create Space Publishing

Greenleaf, R. (1970) *Robert K. Greenleaf: A life of servant leadership. The Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership*. Oakland, CA: Berrett Koehler Publishers..

Hackman, M. Z., & Johnson, C. E. (2004). *Leadership: A communication perspective*. Long Grove, Ill: Waveland Press.

Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(4), 695-702. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.73.4.695

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

House R. J., Dorfman P. W., Javidan M., Hanges, P. J. & Sully de Luque, M. F. (2014). *Strategic leadership across cultures: The GLOBE Study of CEO leadership behavior and effectiveness in 24 countries.* doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781506374581

Javidan, M., House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Sully de Luque, M. (2006). Conceptualizing and measuring cultures and their consequences: A comparative review of GLOBE's and Hofstede's approaches. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *37*(6), 897-914. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400234

Katz, R. and Kahn, D. (1952). *Leadership Practices in Relation to Productivity and Morale.* University of Michigan Press.

Kent, T. W., Crotts, J. C., Azziz, A. (2001). Four Factors of Transformational Leadership Behavior *Leadership & Organization Development Journal 22*(5):221-229

Khan, A. H. (1996). Effective management development program evaluation and review technique: A study of Purdue university's engineering/management program, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, MI.

Khan, A. H. (2002). Effectiveness of a Strategic Management Development Program, *Applied H.R.M. Research 7*(2), 49-52.

Khan, A. H. (2008). Evaluating the effectiveness of an international executive development program for developing global managers, *International Academy of Business Disciplines* and Asociación Europea de Dirección y Economía de Empresa. Congreso Nacional *(22),* 33-43. (Dialnet). Salamanca, Spain. ISBN 978-84-7356-556-1.

Khan, A. H. (2015). Predicting the learning effectiveness in a business ethics class by experimental measure. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research 4*(1), 27-37.

Khan, A. H. (2018). American Exceptionalism: psychological capital and psychological ownership as predictors of university professors' leadership styles. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, MI

Kirkpatrick, D. (1996). Kirkpatrick's 4 level training evaluation model: Analyzing learning effectiveness. Mindtools: https://educationaltechnology.net/kirkpatrick-model-four-levels-learning-evaluation/

Luthans, F. (2002). Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *The Academy of Management Executive, 16*(1), 57-72.
Luthans, F. & Avolio, B.J. (2003) Authentic Leadership: A Positive Developmental Approach. In: Cameron, K.S., Dutton, J.E. and Quinn, R.E., Eds., *Positive Organizational Scholarship* (pp. 241-261). San Francisco, CA: Barrett-Koehler.
Luthans, F. and Youssef-Morgan, C. M. (2017). Psychological capital: An evidence-based positive approach, *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 4,* 339-366.
Luthans, F. & Youssef, C. M. (2004). Human, social, and now positive psychological capital management: Investing in people for competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics, 33*(2), 143–160.
Luthans, F., Avey, J., Avolio, B., and Peterson, S. (2010). The development and resulting performance impact of positive psychological capital. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*. *(21)*1, 41- 67.
Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive psychological capital: measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology, (60)*3, 541-572.
Masten, A. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience process in development. *American Psychologist, (56)*3, 227-38.
McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*(1), 81-90. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.52.1.81 (accessed August 2, 2019)
McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (2008). The five-factor theory of personality. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 159-181). New York, NY, US: The Guilford Press.
Parker, S. K. (1998). Enhancing role breadth self-efficacy: The roles of job enrichment and other organizational interventions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(6), 835-852.
Rodriguez, D., Patel, R., Bright, A., Gregory, D., & Gowing, M. K. (2002). Developing competency models to promote integrated human-resource practices. *Human Resource Management, 41*(3), 309-324.
Rowland, D. & Higgs, M. (2008). Change and its leadership change leadership that works: The role of positive psychology. *Organizations and People*, *15*(2), 12-20.
Salovey, P., Mayer J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, *9*(3), 185-211. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG
Scheier, M. F., & Carver, C. S. (1985). Optimism, coping, and health: Assessment and implications of generalized outcome expectancies. *Health Psychology, 4*(3), 219-247.
Scott, G., Coates, H., & Anderson, M. (2008). Learning leaders in times of change. *The Carrick Institute for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education.* Retrieved May 15, 2015 from http://www.acer.edu.au/documents/UWSACER_CarrickLeadershipReport.pdf
Seligman, M. E. P. (1990). *Learned optimism.* New York: Knopf.
Snyder C. R., Sympson S. C., Ybasco F. C., Borders T. F., Babyak M. A., Higgins R. L. (1996). Development and validation of the state Hope Scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*(2):321-35.
Stajkovic, A., Luthans, F. (1998). Self-Efficacy and work-related performance: A meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin 124*(2):240-261

Sullivan, J. (2005). *World-Class talent development*: *How learning organizations align talent development with organizational objectives.* Chelmsford, MA: Kronos Incorporated.

Tocqueville, A. ., & Reeve, H. (2002). *Democracy in America*. Union, NJ: Lawbook Exchange.

Van Dyne, L. and Pierce, J. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: Three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior 25*(4):439-459.

Van Dyne, L., Pierce, J. L., and Jussila, L. (2011). *Psychological ownership and the organizational context: Theory, research evidence, and application.* Northampton, Massachusetts: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Wagnild G.M., Young H.M. (1993). Development and psychometric evaluation of the Resilience Scale. *Journal of Nursing Measurement*, *1*(2),165-78.

Whiddett, S. & Hollyforde, S. (2003). *A practical guide to competencies-- Contexts, issues and prospects.* London: CIPD

Youssef, C. M. and Luthans, F., *Positive organizational behavior in the workplace: The impact of hope*, *optimism, and resilience*. Management Department Faculty Publications. 36. http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/managementfacpub/36

Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in organizations* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

INTERNATIONAL
JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

VOLUME 8, NUMBER 1 August 2019

Published By:
Eastern Washington University and the International Academy of Business Disciplines

ISSN 2165-3240 WWW.IJIR.NET

Printed in the USA by Eastern Washington University