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LEADER-TO-MEMBER TRUST MODEL:

ON THE PERVASIVENESS OF DOUBT IN

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A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to explore how effective leaders report trusting and doubting their members. Specifically, this investigation: (a) described how effective leaders reported making predictions of the *certainty* of members' role performances, and (b) cataloged the communication behaviors indicative of those predictions. Three research questions were proposed and answered by interviewing 40 working adults who had reputations for being effective leaders from diverse industries. A modified version of constant comparative analysis, a grounded theory approach, (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was used with NVivo 8 to analyze the interview data and answer the research questions. Analysis of interviews revealed there is a tension between a societal *Discourse* of leadership trust (i.e., good and effective leaders trust their members) and the *discourse* of leaders (i.e., what the leaders report actually saying and doing; Tracy & Rivera, 2010). The Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM) was introduced to describe how the sample of effective leaders reported coming to predictions about their members' role performances (i.e., trusting and doubting members) through six phases (i.e., selection, probation, escalation, confederation, jeopardy, and termination). The LMTM contributes to Leader-Member Exchange (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and leadership trust literature by illustrating how distrust permeates leaders' expectations of members' role performances. Implications for structuration theory are also included.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The 21st century is punctuated by hardships, created or perpetrated by organizational and leadership failures. Take for examples, the US intelligence and security failures on September 11th, 2001, Enron's accounting scandal and collapse in 2001, the inept local, state and federal responses to Hurricane Katrina in 2005, and the faulty engineering collaborations and delayed response to the sinking of BP's Deepwater Horizon oil rig in 2010. What do all these incidents have in common besides causing major hardships for individuals, families, organizations, businesses, and nations?: Organizational and leadership ineffectiveness.

Organizational effectiveness ought to be a chief concern of organizational leaders (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). "Leaders have been argued to play a key role in determining organizational effectiveness across all levels (e.g., individual, team, unit) that exist within organizations" (Burke et al., p. 606; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). System performance is a way in which leadership may be judged: Poor organizational performance presupposes poor leadership performance. "Effectiveness concerns judgments about a leader's impact on an organization's bottom line . . . and is the standard by which leaders should be judged" (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994, p. 493). Leaders who achieve organizational effectiveness are characterized by possessing integrity, credibility, and trust in their organizational relationships (Hogan et al., 1994; Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009).

Scholars (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Shamir & Lapidot, 2003; Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009) and workers

(Galford & Drapeau, 2003) regularly identify that effective leaders are able to garner the trust of members. While trust is defined in a number of ways, it is generally conceived to be a person's reliance upon another individual's word (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Rotter, 1967).

Perhaps it is no wonder why leadership and trust are popular constructs studied within interpersonal and organizational communication, psychology, and management (Bunker, Alban, & Lewicki, 2004, Hatzakis, 2009; Hubbell, & Chory-Assad, 2005; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). Research that seeks to understand how leaders communicate trust and how leaders could communicate trust with their organizational members can provide leaders with practical insight into their potential influence on an organization's outcomes and effectiveness. Workers describe high trust work environments as "fun," "supportive," "motivating," "productive," and "comfortable" (Hurley, 2006, p. 55).

Thus, it is apparent that both leadership and trust are important and beneficial to organizations. There has been an increase over the past twenty-five years in the scholarly interest of trust and distrust in organizations (Kramer, 1999). Trust and trustworthiness are valued commodities and are viewed as positive conditions that produce favorable results. Distrust and doubt are commonly believed to be negative and impede communication within organizations and the growth or strategic adaptation of organizations (Costigan, Iter, & Berman, 1998). However, if doubt is reframed as essentially the core of a questioning process, it stands to reason that growth and strategic adaptation can arise from the probing, interrogation, and mindfulness incited by doubt.

For example, the noted social psychologists, Weick and Sutcliffe (2007) recommend that leaders should raise doubts to increase information processing and member mindfulness.

Almost certainly, absolute trust is neither beneficial nor productive for leadership or organizational effectiveness. Blind obedience or trust of authority can be dangerous to a collective's resilience and individuals involved (Cialdini, 1984). Thus, the notion of *productive trust* will be investigated, so as not to assume trust is always beneficial and productive. This dissertation investigates a tension (Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies 1998), which will be discussed in further detail later, between trust and doubt within effective leadership communication by exploring what productive trust and productive doubt look (literally *sound*) like from leaders' perspectives, how trust and doubt can be held in tension through strategic leadership communication, and how leaders make sense of this tension through their communication.

CHAPTER 2

Leadership, Trust, and Doubt

Leadership

Leadership is enacted through communication (Fairhurst, 2011; Fairhurst & Sarr, 1996). In order to understand this claim it is important to understand how leadership can be thought of as functional or positional (Yukl, 2006). Functional leaders are organizational members who can influence other's work, attitudes, and ways of thinking. An example of a functional leader is an individual who is looked to by coworkers because the individual is influential and emerges as the center of task-competencies and relationship-networking. Positional leaders are organizational members whose authority is prescribed by the organization's predefined command structure or policy. An example of a positional leader is a supervisor who oversees a number of subordinates and evaluates their performance. A leader may be both a positional leader and a functional leader. Supervisors are de facto positional leaders, and perhaps the best supervisors are also functional leaders. Thus, the terms leader and supervisor, and the terms member and subordinate may overlap but they are not always interchangeable.

Leaders who can inspire members through strategic messaging are crucial to an organization's effectiveness (Rantz, 2002). Research and anecdotal experience confirm leadership communication matters. Leaders communicate purpose, direction, and goals (Pettigrew, 1979). Leaders' messages establish, sustain, create, and recreate the language that defines and shapes workplace culture (Keyton, 2006; Smircich, 1983; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Furthermore, leaders are managers of meaning: They help organizational

members interpret the meaning of organizational realities in ways that benefit the collective (Fairhurst, 2007; Fairhurst, 2011; Fairhurst & Sarr, 1996; Pettigrew).

Leadership is accomplished discursively through interaction processes between leaders and members (Fairhurst, 2007; Knights & Willmott, 1992). Functional leadership requires communication because a functional leader influences organizational members by motivating them and speaking on behalf of those they lead or represent. Leaders are at the center of what are referred to as "networks" of organizational members and knowledge within an organization (Contractor & Monge, 2002; Monge & Contractor, 2001, 2003; Monge & Eisenberg, 1987). Thus, the leaders' placement at the center of these networks constitutes their role as a functional leader. While it may be less obvious, positional leadership also requires communication because a positional leader has a set of expectations laid out by the organization's policy (i.e., a form of communication) that the assigned leader must execute.

Trust

The effectiveness of leadership communication is contingent upon trust (Campbell, 1991; Harris & Hogan, 1992; Lombardo, Ruderman, & McCauley, 1988). Trust is considered a god term (Burke, 1945) in that just the mention of the word brings about positive reactions and connotations. Furthermore, trust is talked about as though it is an incontestable good. Trust is revered as a valued commodity in the workplace and a desirable aspect of supervisor-subordinate and leader-member relationships (Adobor, 2005; Bartolome', 1993; Weinberg & McDermott, 2002; Youngs & King, 2002). Research further indicates leaders are creators of mutual trust between workers (Roberts, 1985; Roberts & Bradley, 1988). Typical remarks such as, "Trust your gut," "I trust your

judgment," "She's a family friend, you can trust her," indicate how taken-for-granted trust and trusting are in everyday talk as valued attributes of effective leaders' relationships (McGregor, 1967). Furthermore, leaders have the opportunity and are regularly given the responsibility to create, build, and shape trust between workers in their respective organizations. In fact, scholars (Scribner, Cockrell, Cockrell, & Valentine, 1999) claimed trust building by leaders is essential to individual and collective development. Research suggests the creation and formation of trust builds incrementally and accumulates over time (Larson, 1992; Child, 2001).

Trust conceptualized and defined. Conceptualizations of trust in the research literature are numerous and expansive. These conceptualizations can be largely categorized one of three ways: Trust has been studied as a trait (Rotter, 1954, 1967), an emergent state (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001; Coppola, Hiltz, & Rotter, 2004; Iacono, & Weisband, 1997; Jarvenpaa, Knoll, & Leidner, 1998, Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999), and as a process (Khodyakov, 2007; Marks et al.). *Trust as a trait* conceptualizes trust as an individual's characteristic. This characteristic is one that dictates the willingness of an individual to extend positive regard to nearly all other individuals and their intentions (Rotter). In other words, trust as a trait is an individual's propensity to trust another person. *Trust as an emergent state* conceptualizes trust as dynamic and varying depending upon the context of cognitive, motivational, and affective contingencies (Marks et al.). In other words, individuals possess and exhibit trust based upon mental, motivational, and emotional responses they have to different situations. Finally, *trust as a process* conceptualizes trust as an ongoing relational development. Studying trust as a process logically follows from a view of trust as a relational quality in

that it aligns with the assumptions that each new moment is contextualized by previous moments in a processual manner.

Many scholars have attempted to define trust. Burke et al. (2007) provided an exhaustive review of the trust literature as it relates to leadership; and, through this review defined trust by outlining the 30 definitions found in the literature. The authors argue three key themes are common to these many definitions: (a) assessments of others' character, reliability, and integrity (Burke et al.; Butler, 1991; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998), (b) positive expectations that interests will be protected and promoted when monitoring is not possible (Dirks, 2000; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Read, 1962), and (c) a willingness to risk being vulnerable (Butler, 1991; Mayer & Davis, 1999). Thus, for the purpose of this investigation and given the objectives of this investigation, trust was defined according to the Burke et al.'s (2007) three themes of trust: (a) assessments of others' character, reliability, and integrity, (b) expectancy, and (c) willingness to risk vulnerability.

Assessments. Assessments refer to an individual's evaluations of another individual's attributes or characteristics (Burke et al., 2007; Rotter, 1967; Rousseau et al., 1998). Individuals' assessments of others influence how they will interact and communicate with those individuals. More specifically, assessments may influence what individuals come to expect of others. Furthermore, assessments may influence to what degree individuals are willing to take risks with others. Rousseau et al. (1998) define trust as, "A psychological state comprising of the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another" (p. 395). From this definition of trust, assessments individuals make of others may influence their

psychological states, which in turn influences how individuals interact with others (i.e., how vulnerable they are with others and their expectations of others).

Expectancy. Many, if not most, definitions of trust presuppose that an essential aspect of trust involves the sense that another's future actions are predictable and correspond to expectations. For example, Rotter (1967) defines trust as, "An expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 714). Mutual trust exists when two people have complementary trust for one another, and when each person perceives that the other is aware of his/her intent (Deutsch, 1958). Reciprocal trust is the trust that results when a person observes the actions of another and that person reconsiders one's attitude and subsequent behavior (Serva, Fuller, & Mayer, 2005). Trust as an expectation reveals individuals can rely upon other individuals to do what they say they are going to do based upon past and present actions.

Another set of scholars take the idea of trust as an expectation a step further by defining trust as a relational component. Hall, Blass, Ferris, and Massengale (2004), and Lewicki and Bunker (1995) posit that trust implies a belief that an individual will not act in a self-serving manner. Williams (2001) and Gambetta (1998) said trust was based on individuals' expectations that others will behave in ways that are helpful or at least not harmful. McKnight et al. (1998) and Currall and Judge (1995) conclude that trust has two components. First, a trusting intention is when one person is willing to depend on the other person in a given a situation. Second, a trusting belief is when one person believes the other person is benevolent, competent, honest, or predictable. Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, and Werner (1998) define trust as an attitude held by one individual of

another. Whitener et al. also framed trust as having three facets. Two of the three facets regard expectancy: (a) Trust in another person reflects an expectation or belief that the other person will act benevolently; and (b) Trust involves some level of dependency on the other party so that outcomes of one individual are influenced by the actions of another. Thus, the aforementioned definitions reveal a relational aspect to trust: An individual can expect and depend upon another individual to not respond in a harmful fashion based upon past and present interactions.

Many others highlight expectancy in their definitions of trust. McKnight and others (Bowlby, 1982; Erikson, 1968; Lewis & Weingert, 1985; Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996; Rotter, 1967; Shapiro, 1987; Zucker, 1986) outline three types of trust: institution-based trust, personality-based trust, and cognitive-based trust. Institution-based trust reflects the security an individual feels about a situation based upon impersonal structures (McKnight et al.). Personality-based trust develops during childhood with caregivers resulting in a general tendency to trust or not to trust others (Bowlby; McKnight et al.; Shapiro; Zucker). Lastly, cognitively-based trust is when an individual relies on rapid cognitive cues or first impressions as opposed to personal interactions with others. Each of these three types of trust implies the importance of expectations. First, organizational structures provide guidelines as to what to expect regarding behavior and role performance (e.g., supervisors are expected to give performance appraisals to their subordinates). Second, individuals develop expectations to trust (or not to trust) others based upon their upbringing and relational histories with others. Third, and last, impromptu trust is dictated by the culmination of expectations met and not met in past and present experiences.

Willingness to risk vulnerability. Similar to the importance of expectations, most definitions of trust presuppose that a willingness to risk vulnerability is essential. For example, Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) define trust as the willingness of an individual to be vulnerable to the actions of another based on the expectation that the other person will perform a particular action important to the trustor (i.e., the person trusting), irrespective of the trustor's ability to monitor or control the trustee. Deustsch (1958), as well as Sheppard and Sherman (1998) defined trust as an individual taking a risk or investing in another person. From these scholars' perspectives, trust is evident only in situations where the potential for damage from unfulfilled trust is greater than the possible gain if trust is fulfilled. Furthermore, Sheppard and Sherman define trust as accepting the risk associated with the type and depth of the interdependence inherent in a given trusting relationship. Similarly, Johnson-George and Swap (1982) define trust as the willingness to take risks. Whitener et al. (1998) posit one of the three facets of trust involves a willingness to be vulnerable and risk that the other person may not fulfill the expectations held for him/her. Williams (2001), Mayer et al. (1995), and Zand (1972) define trust as one's willingness to rely on another's actions in a situation involving the risk of an individual possibly taking advantage of another individual. Rousseau et al., and Doney, Cannon, and Mullen (1998) define trust as a willingness to rely or depend upon another person. Similarly, McKnight, Cummings, and Chervany (1998) and Mayer et al. (1995) define trust as one person believing in and willing to depend on another person. Thus, trust is a risk one takes in relying upon another person to do what is expected for the person to do.

In sum, Burke et al.'s work focused on organizational members' trust in leadership. However, this investigation—borrowing Burke et al.'s (2007) definitional themes of trust—focused on describing how leaders' (a) make assessments based upon their members' role performances, and then (b) come to expectations about their members' *future* performances, and finally (c) determine their willingness to take a risk with members. An organizational member's ability to perform a task affects the organization and the member's relationship with his/her leader (Bauer & Green, 1996; Deluga & Perry, 1994; Sias, 2009; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Thus, when leaders give members a task to perform leaders are risking the possibility that members may not do what is expected of them.

Detrimental trust. Research indicates leaders' communication contributes to organizational effectiveness and success (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Galford & Drapeau, 2003; Kaiser et al., 2008). Communicative behaviors that bring about organizational effectiveness and success include leaders' ability to establish trust, to demonstrate trust in others' abilities, to model expected behavior, and to develop a climate in which individuals feel they can share their opinions (Keyton, 2006; Kirby, King, & Paradise, 1992; Weinberg & McDermott, 2002; Youngs & King, 2002). However, along with an increase over the past fifteen years in the scholarly interest in trust, scholars have turned to focus on *distrust* in organizations (Kramer, 1999).

Conversely, research also indicates the trust a leader has for a member may not always be beneficial or productive. Trust may be taken advantage of by members in the sense that they feel as though they may not be held accountable to fulfill their role expectations. In such cases, trusting leaders may not even be aware of what is taking

place and continue to trust, thus, producing a "blind" trust. Blind trust can be dangerous to a collective's resilience and the individuals involved (Cialdini, 1984). For example, if a boss (i.e., positional leader) communicates to an employee that she trusts her with a task or responsibility by not monitoring the employee's work, the employee could interpret this lack of monitoring and minimize the gravity of the task's sufficient completion because of the reduced accountability. Furthermore, high levels of trust between leaders and members may encourage a kind of cognitive laziness in their role performance in which members and leaders cease or fail to challenge each other and regress into complacency (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2007; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005). Thus, leadership and organizational effectiveness may be *undermined* by excessive trust, yet, simultaneously effective leadership surely depends upon some degree of trust (Lewicki et al., 1998; Hogan et al., 1994). In order to more fully understand the concept of trust, it is essential to understand the concept of distrust, a synonym of doubt, and the relationship between the two concepts.

Doubt

It stands to reason that organizations may benefit when leaders communicate a degree of doubt to their members. From one perspective, doubt can be framed as a degree of trust (e.g., I trust you will *not* perform optimally). If trust is defined as one's expectations about another person (Rotter, 1967), then doubt can be viewed as an expectation of at least two different kinds. First, doubt may not simply be the absence of an expectation that someone can be relied upon; it is the presence of an expectation that an individual cannot be relied upon completely. This view is likely reflected in everyday talk where distrust refers to negative expectations (e.g., "I don't trust you," likely means

the speaker expects the hearer will do poorly in some future action). In other words, this perspective of trust and doubt invoke expectations about the *quality* of performances. Second, within this context, from another perspective, trust and doubt could describe leaders' *certainty* of performance predictions. On one end of this continuum trust is high, reflecting a leader's certainty in predicting a members' performance (i.e., trust). On the other end, doubt reflects a leader's uncertainty in their ability to predict a member's role performance (i.e., distrust).

Doubt is commonly believed to be negative and impede communication within organizations (Costigan et al., 1998). However, Weick and Sutcliffe (2007) and other scholars (e.g., Costigan et al.; Kirby, King, & Paradise, 1992; Langer, 1989; Lewicki et al., 1998) recommend that supervisors should raise doubts and challenge subordinates in order to increase information processing and mindfulness, and prompt growth or strategic organizational adaptation.

Raising doubt, challenging, and increasing information processing are each produced through feedback communication (Sias, 2009). So-called downward feedback is perhaps a defining feature of and unique to the supervisor-subordinate (i.e., leader-member) relationships. The supervisor-subordinate relationship is an instance of an institutionally-prescribed leader-member relationship. Downward feedback can take the form of performance appraisals, and sanctions (Edwards, 1981; Sias). Downward feedback fulfills the supervisor's responsibility to inform subordinates of duties, responsibilities, and how their performance is being evaluated. Furthermore, supervisors are responsible for members' "training and development and for monitoring, evaluating, disciplining, and rewarding" members (Sias, 2009, p. 27). Research indicates

subordinates are more likely to listen to and accept negative feedback from supervisors if the feedback is framed as constructive negative feedback (Leung, Su, & Morris, 2001). Furthermore, research revealed constructive negative feedback was positively associated with subordinates' trust in and satisfaction with their supervisors (Leung, Su, & Morris). Subordinates rely heavily upon the feedback of their supervisor in order to function appropriately and effectively within an organization. Consequently, it seems likely that, if supervisors' feedback involves raising doubts and subordinates rely heavily upon the feedback of their supervisors, then, doubt communicated by the supervisor to the subordinate—when internalized and enacted—is a communication sequence that benefits the functioning of effective organizations.

Productive doubt. Feedback can be seen as positive or negative by both supervisors (i.e., positional leaders) and subordinates (Yukl, 2006). Ashford (1993) found that while subordinates reported using the positive feedback they received from their supervisors to evaluate their current workplace performance, they found negative feedback from their supervisors, provided in a constructive and respectful manner, to be more useful in encouraging career advancement and growth. From the framework presented here, constructive negative feedback could be reframed as a form of *productive doubt* in that constructive negative feedback essentially serves to communicate a failure to meet expectations and functions similarly to a questioning process, which may bring about improvement and growth. For example, if a leader observed a member was not adequately meeting expectations in the workplace, the observation may cause the leader to doubt the member's future role performance (i.e., doubt the member *will* meet future role performance expectations compared to doubt the member *can* meet the future role

performance expectations). More than likely there is evidence the members are able to (i.e., *can*) meet future role performance expectations. If the leader communicated this doubt constructively to the member it would be considered negative feedback. By expressing this negative feedback (i.e., not performing role expectations adequately), the leader hopes to produce change in the member's performance (i.e., productive doubt—addressing the observations in the form of questioning the member will be able to meet future role expectations in order to keep the member accountable). Thus, it seems reasonable that leaders' communication of doubt in a constructive and effective manner can elicit mindfulness, growth, and change from members (Langer, 1989). However, this line of research needs to be further explored.

Another mechanism leaders may employ to decide whether members can be trusted is through monitoring, which may be construed by members as doubting. Kramer (1999) reports organizations are more frequently using technology to surveil and monitor members when they are working on the job. Cialdini (1996) identified that organizational monitoring may paralyze members' intrinsic motivations. Furthermore, monitoring can produce negative repercussions, because members become fearful, possibly inhibiting their productivity. Lastly, monitoring organizational members may be interpreted as a form of managerial distrust, and thus produce resentment and resistance among members (Cialdini; Kramer). However, it is important to note that these conceptual papers on monitoring in the workplace do not account for the quality of the working relationship between leader and member in shaping interpretations of monitoring.

The co-existence of trust and doubt. The trust literature identifies two primary ways to conceptualize the relationship between trust and doubt (Lewicki et al., 1998). The first view maps trust onto a continuum, where one end of the spectrum represents high trust and the other end of the spectrum represents low trust, synonymous with distrust or doubt. However, in a second view, scholars (e.g., Brandenburger & Nalebuff, 1996; Lewicki et al.; Mancini, 1993; Priester & Petty, 1996) propose that trust can be mapped across two distinct continuums: high-to-low trust and high-to-low doubt, which can co-exist (i.e., simultaneous trust and doubt). These scholars explain that trust and doubt coexist and co-operate in "dynamic tension," which serves a key role in the formation of effective action coordination like decision-making, problem-solving, and overall interaction and collaboration among organizational members (Lewicki et al., p. 453). In an organization, the communication between leaders and their members that negotiates the dynamic tension between trust and doubt can serve to produce productive working relationships.

In order to illustrate how trust and doubt can be conceptualized as two different continua, Lewicki et al. (1998) present four alternative social realities for trust and doubt: (a) low trust-low doubt, (b) high trust-low doubt, (c) low trust-high doubt, and (d) high trust-high doubt. Low trust-low doubt reflects a limited interdependence between two individuals. High trust-low doubt reflects a greater interdependence between two individuals and a new initiative in which opportunities are proposed by both parties. Low trust-high doubt describes how individuals manage the interdependence between themselves while assuming the other individual's motives are not always auspicious. High trust-high doubt is characterized as follows, "trust but verify," "opportunities

pursued" with the downside of risk, and "vulnerabilities continually monitored" (Lewicki et al., p. 445). Of the four realities, these scholars believe the high trust-high doubt condition is the most prevalent condition characteristic of relationships between organizational members. The high trust-high doubt condition, where there is simultaneous trust and doubt is clearly illustrated in the following depiction by Dawes and Thaler (1988):

> In the rural areas around Ithaca it is common for farmers to put some fresh produce on a table by the road. There is a cash box on the table, and customers are expected to put money in the box in return for the vegetables they take. The box has just a small slit, so money can only be put in, not taken out. Also, the box is attached to the table, so no one can (easily) make off with the money. (p. 195)

As Lewicki et al. (1998) point out doubt is revealed in the small slit in the cash box, and the attachment of the box to the table; and, trust is revealed by leaving the vegetables and the cash box unguarded.

Trust and doubt on one continuum (i.e., when there is a high degree of trust there is a low degree of doubt), or trust and doubt as two different continuums (i.e., a high degree of trust and a high degree doubt can exist at the same time) both serve as valid explanations of the relationship between trust and doubt. The two views are highlighted to show how the relationship between trust and doubt is more complex than one might imagine.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen & Scandura, 1987) explains how leaders and members form unique relationships, and articulates how leaders and members come to negotiate roles and expectations over time. Miller (2009)

explains that LMX theory describes how, "Role negotiation is the interactive process through which individuals create and alter expectations about how a job is to be done" (p. 161). LMX theory is an extension of Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL; Dansereau et al.) and role theory (Graen, 1976; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1966). Initial LMX research focused on socialization processes (Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973; Johnson & Graen, 1973). The development of LMX theory progressed through four periods (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) from the early 1970s to the mid-1990s. In the first period, VDL research (Dansereau, et al., Graen & Cashman, 1975) verified that leaders developed differentiated relationships with their members. Early studies showed when members of the same organization were asked to report on the leaders of the organization, great variance was observed among members of the same leader. Research characterizes the members' results as representing extremes: in-group members who have high-quality exchanges with leaders, and out-group members who have low-quality exchanges with leaders. Members' communication with leaders who were deemed "in-group" enjoyed high degrees of mutual trust, obligation, and respect. Conversely, other members reported having "low-quality exchange" relationships with their leaders. Such members were referred to as "out-group." The communication with members who were deemed "out-group" was indicative of low degrees of obligation, trust, and respect (Zalesny & Graen, 1987). Research on differentiated dyadic leader-member relationships was obtained through longitudinal studies where leaders were asked to describe their relationships with their member(s). Over the years, research has continued to document and support the development of these differentiations across many organizational settings (Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994).

In the second period of its development, the VDL "nomenclature" shifted to LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 227). This occurred because the focus of the research shifted from the leader's linkage to specific members in either the "in-group" or the "out-group" to the relationship between leaders and members, as dyads, and how the relationship developed through variations of communication exchanges between the two parties and the outcomes of those exchanges (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). Written another way, the unit of analysis shifted from each person in the dyad to the unit of analysis being the dyad (i.e., both the leader and the member taken together; Burns & Otte, 1999).

Research in this second period focused on dyadic role-making processes (i.e., the driving forces which result in dyadic social structures between individuals within the hierarchy of an organization; Graen, 1976; Graen, Orris, Johnson, 1973; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Weick, 1969), communication frequency, interactive communication patterns (Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; Fairhurst, 1993), and leader-member value agreement (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). Concepts of role theory (Graen, 1976; Kahn et al., 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1966) are fundamental to LMX as they explicate the dyadic role-making process (Burns & Otte, 1999). Role theory explains how roles in the organization are defined, negotiated, and developed, as well as, the dynamics of the communication exchanges between the leader and the member (Graen; Kahn et al.; Katz & Kahn). Role theory emphasizes that these roles (i.e., leader and member) accentuate patterned behaviors. Katz and Kahn asserted that the (positional) leader's role is the most influential one in an organization because of his/her position of authority in the hierarchy. Leaders, in their roles of authority, communicate expectations defined in members'

employment contracts (Bisel, Messersmith, & Kelley, in press). Members, in turn, interpret these communication exchanges and may or may not modify the way in which they fulfill and operate in their respective roles. However, the possibility for role ambiguity does exist. Role ambiguity occurs when new members lack knowledge about their role expectations (Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973). How members respond to leaders' communication of expectations provides feedback to the leaders of how the roles are being negotiated and developed (Katz & Kahn).

Continuing with the second period of the development of LMX, specifically the role socialization process, Graen (1976) extended Katz and Kahn's (1966) ideas of how roles are negotiated in order to develop and apply them to LMX. Graen demonstrated how organizational members accomplish their roles through work tasks. Graen presented the three-phase socialization process, which included: (a) role-taking, (b) role-making, and (c) role-routinization. In the first phase, role-taking, leaders communicate to members their role expectations and, according to the LMX model, members are not able to influence the process at this point. In the second phase, role-making, both leaders and members contribute to the defining, developing, and negotiating of members' roles. Members have more of an influence in role-making process, as compared to the role-taking, due to how they choose to respond to leaders' communicated expectations. Communication exchanges between leaders and members in the role-making stage redefine how roles and expectations are fulfilled. Lastly, in the third phase, role-routinization, the communication exchanges regarding the expectations of the members' roles become routine in terms of how members accomplish their work. If role ambiguity were present initially, hopefully throughout the role socialization process this role

ambiguity would decrease. Roles are continually maintained by the communication patterns that are established between leaders and members (Graen). Thus, role theory (Katz & Kahn) extended by Graen to the three-phase role socialization process, provided the fundamental basis of the LMX model as it is still described today.

Further, the second stage of LMX research (Graen; Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986; Kim & Organ, 1982) explored the antecedents to and the determinants of LMX, and characteristics (i.e., mutual trust, respect, obligation) of the differentiated relationships between leaders and members (Crouch, & Yetton, 1988; Liden & Graen, 1980). Additionally, research investigated leader-member exchange and the following outcome variables: performance (Graen et al., 1982; Scandura & Graen, 1984), turnover (Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Vecchio, Griffeth, & Horn, 1986), job satisfaction (Graen et al., Turban, Jones, & Rozelle, 1990), organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990), performance appraisal (Mitchell, 1983); job climate (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989); organizational citizenship behavior (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993; Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1992), empowerment (Keller & Dansereau, 1995), procedural and distributive justice, and career progress (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen & Wakabayashi, 1993). Taken together, LMX research demonstrated that communication exchanges between leaders and members influence the negotiation and development of the respective roles and the relationship between leader and member.

Subsequently, in the third period of LMX development, researchers announced the advent of the Leadership Making Model (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1992) by identifying how high-quality relationships in leader-member dyads bring about positive outcomes for organizations. This continued LMX research focused on

"more effective leadership process through development of effective leadership relationships" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 229). Studies were conducted to determine if leaders with training could develop high quality exchanges with all members if they attempted to do so (Graen et al., 1982; Scandura & Graen, 1984; Graen et al., 1986). Results of these studies showed drastic improvements in members' job performance especially for those members who accepted the offer from the leader to develop a high-quality exchange relationship. In these studies, the focus was the relationship development between leaders and members over time, more so than the outcomes of members' performances (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1993).

In the Leadership Making Model, the focus of the leader-member relationship shifted from describing how leaders *discriminate* what members they work with to the process of prescribing methods of *developing* the leader-member relationship. The model prescribes a life-cycle process of the leader-member exchange relationship. The beginning of the model is the "stranger" phase. In this phase, interactions between leaders and members are formal. Then, the leader extends an "offer" to the member to develop an improved or more high-quality exchange working relationship. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) posit that LMX is based on three dimensions—respect, trust, and obligation—and that an offer will neither be made nor accepted unless each is perceived to be present by the member. Graen and Uhl-Bien frame these dimensions as such, "(1) Mutual respect for the capabilities of the other, (2) the anticipation of deepening reciprocal trust with the other; and (3) the expectation that interacting obligation will grow over time as career-oriented social exchanges blossom into a partnership" (p. 237). If the member accepts the offer, then the relationship moves to the second phase, the

"acquaintance" stage. In the acquaintance stage, the leader-member relationship is characterized by increased social exchanges (some of which are not contractually obligatory), and information and resource sharing (both work and personal). These social exchanges are limited though, because the acquaintance phase is still considered a testing stage (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 230).

According to the Leadership Making Model, as leader-member exchanges are exposed to more time, the relationship grows into the "mature partnership" exchange phase. Exchanges between leaders and members are highly developed and both leaders and members feel they can depend upon one another. In the mature partnership stage, trust, influence, and respect are at their highest levels. Each dyad progresses differently through the stages and some dyads may never develop beyond the "stranger" stage. According to the LMX literature, dyads that do not progress from the "stranger" phase are categorized as low-quality LMX relationships (Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) compare these exchange relationships to the Transactional Leadership Model (Bass, 1985) in that the member complies with leaders' directives because there is a sense of formal obligation due to the roles to which each has previously committed, as defined by the hierarchy. Other dyads may advance to the "acquaintance" stage where there is a higher degree of trust and respect between leaders and members than in the "stranger" phase, but trust and respect remain limited. Leader-member exchange relationships that progress over time to the "mature partnership" stage are characterized by the member fulfilling obligations because he/she wants to and not just because formal duties are outlined by the member's contractual obligations. In such

a relational context, the leader can rely upon the member and vice versa. The high level of respect and trust present in the "mature partnership" stage of LMX motivates and empowers both leader and member to, "expand beyond the formalized work contract and formalized roles: to grow out of their prescribed jobs and develop a partnership based on mutual reciprocal influence" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 232). This progression and development reflects a transformational leadership style (Burns, 1978).

And, finally, in the fourth period of LMX research development, the view of dyads shifted from independent dyadic relationships to a system of interdependent dyadic relationships (Graen & Scandura, 1987); and, thus, a systems-level perspective was adopted (Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1993). Graen and Uhl-Bien believe that the LMX model is both transactional and transformational as it describes the leader-member relationship. Transactional leaders are able to get members to comply with their requests via material exchanges; however, this process usually lacks members' enthusiasm and commitment to the requested task objective (Yukl, 2006). Whereas, transformational leaders not only have the trust and respect of their members, members are usually motivated to perform tasks above and beyond what they are initially asked to do (i.e., social exchanges; Yukl). Leader-member exchanges begin with material exchanges (i.e., compensation for adhering to and fulfilling the employment contract; Bass, 1990). Social exchanges are psychological (i.e., the giving and receiving of trust, respect, and support). Effective leaders use a combination of both leadership styles (Yukl). Development of leader-member relationships begins with material exchanges and limited transactions, information, and resources. Then, over time, these dyads may advance through social

exchanges when the relationship between leader and member is transformed from strangers to a mature partnership (Graen & Uhl-Bien).

Limitations of LMX. Although LMX research helps to explain how leader and member roles are negotiated and developed, as well as how communication exchanges between leaders and members instigate and modify organizational variables (e.g., turnover, job satisfaction, empowerment, and production), the theory has limitations. These limitations invite and make room for a deeper appreciation for the function leader-trust plays in leader-member relational development. The primary limitations of LMX that are related to this investigation—conceptualization, LMX relationships, and LMX measurement—are discussed below.

First, the LMX model attempts to explain how leaders develop relationships with members through material and social exchanges that produce either high- or low-quality exchanges, and thus in-group and out-group members. For example, one basic tenet of the LMX model promotes building trust, respect, and obligation between leader-member dyads in order to develop a high-quality leader-member exchange. However, the model takes an unproblematic view of trust as settled or merely present and absent, while not recognizing how trust and doubt may be co-present, even in later stages of relational development. Furthermore, some scholars (e.g., Burns & Otte, 1999; Lagace, 1990; Northouse, 2010; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser 1999) stress the LMX model could more clearly explain communication behaviors between leaders and members as leaders and members navigate their roles through their material and social exchanges with one another.

Second, regarding LMX relationships, Yukl (2006) argues LMX relationships do not evolve as consistently as the model implies. The LMX theory presents a static, smooth, and stable progression of the leader-member exchange relationships; however, research evidences that LMX relationships evolve through inconsistent progressions and regressions, and do not account for relational dissolution (Yukl). Third, regarding the measurement of LMX, Yukl asserts the majority of LMX research relies too much on questionnaire studies. Questionnaires may not allow for participant responses to be as comprehensive and in-depth as qualitative approaches to studying communication exchanges between leaders and members. Furthermore, questionnaires limit researchers' opportunities to probe participant responses in order to obtain more elaborate responses and to clarify initial responses. Taken together, more needs to be learned about the presence of trust and doubt in leader-member relationships as they evolve; and, how the roles of leaders and members facilitate and influence their communication as it relates to trusting and doubting. Thus, I asked:

RQ1: In what ways, do leaders report coming to expect members' role performance (i.e., trusting and doubting members)?

RQ2: What communication behaviors (i.e., asking questions, listening, delegating, monitoring, evaluating, etc.) are characteristic of leaders' expectations of members' role performance?

Structuration Theory

Giddens's (1979) concept of structuration provides a framework for understanding how leader-member communication shapes and is shaped by organizing. In order to better understand the relationships among the concepts of leadership, trust,

and communication, the following paragraphs explain structuration because understanding structuration aids in the understanding of these concepts and their relationships with one another. According to organizational communication scholars' applications of structuration theory (Bisel, 2009, 2010; Bisel, Ford, & Keyton, 2007; Harter, Berquist, Titsworth, Novak, & Brokaw, 2005; Kirby & Krone, 2002; Mumby, 2005; Poole, Seibold, & McPhee, 1985; Tracy, 2000), an organization can be thought of as a structure that is constituted by members' talk or agency. Here *structure* refers to those factors and forces that influence what organizational members say or interpret (e.g., an organization chart or employee handbook), while *agency* refers to each individual's free will, creativity, and innovativeness in the moment of communicating (e.g., water-cooler talk; see Boden, 1994). Giddens's theory reminds scholars that deterministic theories can ignore individual's free will and often ignore that structures come into being through individuals' agency (i.e., constitute; McPhee & Zaug, 2000; Putnam & Nicotera, 2010; Taylor & Van Every, 2000).

From an organizational communication application of structuration theory, the structure of the organization can be thought of as the *Discourse* of the organization, or the *ways of talking* as laid out by the organization's policies and cultural practices (Alvesson & Karreman, 2000; Bisel & Barge, 2011; Fairhurst & Putnam, 2004). These policies and cultural practices form what Giddens (1979) called rules and resources for individual's action. Agency, in these cases, refers to the action of organizational members. The action of organizational members is accomplished through *discourse*, or the actual *talking* of organizational members (Giddens; e.g., Kirby & Krone, 2002). Through agency (i.e., talk) members enact and reinforce or challenge the rules and resources that come to be

the structure of an organization (see Kirby & Krone). Rules are practices, or recipes for action, that indicate how organizational members should conduct themselves and communicate. Resources represent organizational materials and organizational member characteristics that can be used to influence and control the actions of others (Bisel, Ford, & Keyton, 2007). Rules and resources are structures that shape and are shaped by enactments (i.e., *discourse*) of the collective's *Discourse* (Alvesson & Karreman, 2000; Bisel & Barge, 2011; Fairhurst & Putnam, 2004). An organization's *Discourse* (i.e., rules and resources) influences the *discourse* (i.e., organizational members' agency, free will) which in turn influences and alters the organization's *Discourse* in a merry-go-round fashion (Bisel, 2009; Poole & McPhee, 1983).

Time in structuration. It is important to note that Giddens (1979) sees the mutual influence of structure and agency evolving over time (Putnam & Nicotera, 2009). Specifically, structure implies the instrumental dynamics of the *past* (e.g., habits, routines); whereas, his notion of agency implies individuals' ability to make choices in opposition to structure in the *present* (Bisel, 2009). Thus, structure enables and constrains action between organizational members; and, rules and resources are created and reinforced by organizational members *when* they act (Boden, 1994; Fairhurst & Putnam, 2004; Kramer, 2010). These explanations become important as we consider trust's *future* orientation and its role in leader-member relationships.

The structuration of trust in leader-member communication. As leaders and members function within an organization fulfilling their job responsibilities, they engage in *discourse* (i.e., talking or enacting their agency, taking action). The talk, or *discourse*, of organizational members can in turn, over time, influence and become the origin of the

collective's *Discourse* (i.e., ways of talking). Structuration theory explains that agency and structure are mutually constitutive in the sense that the structure prescribes, enables, and constrains organizational members' agency, and as members enact their agency, their actions confirm or alter the organization's structure. For example, an organization may have a certain policy about sick leave (i.e., *Discourse*) causing organizational members to interpret sick leave practices within the context of the sick leave policy and this structure may, in fact, influence sick leave practices. However, over time organizational members may employ their agency (i.e., *discourse*) regarding their dislike for the sick leave policy by requesting sick leave differently than what the sick leave policy permits. Over time, through the *discourse* (i.e., talking) of organizational members the sick leave policy (i.e., *Discourse*) may be altered and changed (e.g., Kirby & Krone, 2002). Thus, structure and agency are mutually constitutive of one another, presenting a duality of structure (Giddens, 1979). In this sense, a duality of structure exists because *Discourse* (i.e., ways of talking) and *discourse* (i.e., talking) co-exist and co-define one another.

Leaders and members function in this duality of structure. Hierarchy is definitive of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, a relationship which represents institutional attempts at codifying leader-member relationships (Bisel, Messersmith, & Kelley, in press). This hierarchical structure prescribes and influences communication between leaders and members and supplies rules and resources for communicating. The *Discourse* (e.g., policy, hierarchy, employment contract) of an organization structures the responsibilities, and thus the expectations, of those in both leader and member roles. Leaders' and members' everyday talk within an organization, or *discourse*, is influenced by and influences the organization's *Discourse* (i.e., the policy, the ways of talking).

How leaders communicate to their members will influence how members respond to their leaders. The reactions and responses of members will shape and be shaped by how leaders communicate with their members.

Trust and doubt. Trust and doubt exist in interpersonal relationships; thus, trust and doubt exist in leader-member relationships (Hubbell, & Chory-Assad, 2005; Rotter, 1967; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007; Sias). According to structuration theory, both trust and doubt resemble structures that guide action (i.e., agency) and the *discourse* (i.e., talking) of organizational members. In other words, trust can be viewed as a specific kind of structure (i.e., *Discourse*; e.g., policy, practice, expectation) of an organization's leaders and members. Trust may also be viewed as leaders' and members' agency (i.e., *discourse*; free will to respond to past practice) which then influences (however slightly) the *Discourse* of an organization and the leader-member relationship. Similarly, doubt can be viewed as a form or degree of trust, and takes on a different form of expectancy. Doubt can be viewed as a specific kind of structure (i.e., *Discourse*; e.g., policy, practice, expectation) of an organization's leaders and members. However, doubt may also be viewed as leaders' and members' agency (i.e., *discourse*; free will to respond to past practice) which holds the potential to influence the *Discourse* and the leader-member relationship. This structurational dynamic will likely have an influence on the perpetuation and communication of trust and doubt between leader and member. This, in turn, produces what was previously referred to as a dynamic tension between trust and doubt. What remains unknown is how this dynamic tension is effectively managed through the communication between leaders and members in order to facilitate the opportunity for there to be organizational effectiveness (Lewicki et al., 1998).

Consider an example of this tension between trust *and* doubt within effective leadership communication: A leader could communicate (implicitly or explicitly) an expectation to a member that the member will perform an assigned task competently, while simultaneously communicate an expectation that the member needs to be monitored in his/her performance to ensure competent task completion. Such a communication tactic may enhance leadership effectiveness in that it could avoid the disadvantages of the extremes of blind trust and debilitating doubt. For example, suppose a leader delegates an important project to a member. Close to the deadline, the leader asks probing questions about the progress and content of the project. In this example the leader communicates an expectation that he trusts the member to perform the task successfully by delegating the important project. While within the same timeframe the leader also communicates an uncertain expectation about the member's performance (i.e., *doubt*) by monitoring and questioning his progress. However, again, these are speculative examples but empirical illustrations are needed for further theory building. Thus, I asked:

RQ3: How do leaders' expectations about their members' future role performance relate to the duality of structure present in organizing?

CHAPTER 3

Method

Participants

In order to answer the research questions, a purposive sample was collected. Specifically, forty (19 females, 21 males) leaders were strategically identified by the researcher, or referred by the researcher's faculty advisor to be interviewed; inclusion criteria are discussed below. Average age of participants was 48.65 years old (*SD* = 11.58). Participants resided in one of four Midwestern cities. Participants worked in various industries, including: banking, business, clergy, education, food, human resources, insurance, law enforcement, legal, medical, military, non-profit, public safety, natural gas, production, restaurant, retail sales, real estate, and transportation.

In order to qualify for inclusion in the sample, participants had to (a) supervise at least two others within their respective organizations, and (b) have a reputation for being an effective leader, as attested to by two individuals aside from the researcher. Such selection criteria increased the likelihood that participants were both positional as well as functional leaders (Yukl, 2009). Given the selection criteria, it is not surprising, that a majority of participants (70%) reported having won at least one award for their leadership. Furthermore, a majority of participants (80%) reported having completed leadership education or training. Thus, collecting this sample of leaders' comments about their own leadership is warranted in that it is likely these participants' insights contain descriptions of effective leadership behaviors. *Table 1* provides participant demographic information (i.e., sex, work industry, leadership role, time in leadership role, training

experience, award winning standing, and number of individuals who report or reported to the leaders).

Design and Procedures

In keeping with excellent qualitative research practices advocated by Tracy (2010), this interview-based study proceeded in two stages, moving back and forth between data collection and analysis, which allowed the researcher to test contingent readings of the data by constantly checking for disconfirming examples. In the first stage, 10 participants were interviewed with an initial protocol designed to elicit these leaders' experiences with trusting and doubting their members (see *Appendix B*; Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). Questions were crafted in such a way as to ensure fair presuppositions (see discussion by Dillon, 1990). A reflexive, iterative process was employed to assess the effectiveness of the first-stage interview protocol as to how comprehensively and meaningfully research questions were being addressed. This initial analysis guided a revision of the interview protocol between the pilot and full studies (compare *Appendix B* and *Appendix C*; Baxter & Babbie, 2003; Keyton, 2006; Kvale, 1996; Lindlof & Taylor, 2011). One major difference between the two interview protocols is that in the revised protocol the participants were asked to provide definitions of trust and doubt before they responded to questions regarding how they communicate trust and doubt to their members. Also, three experienced interviewers were consulted to assess the projected effectiveness of the revised interview protocol, which was employed for the remaining 30 interviews. Their insights were incorporated into the revised, second-stage interview protocol. All interviews were semi-structured in that the protocol suggested primary and follow-up questions for the interview process, but the interviewer was free to follow

disconfirming examples and ask for elaborations (Baxter & Babbie; Keyton; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The interviewer asked planned (e.g., If so, could you please provide an example?) and unplanned (e.g., What do you mean by X?) follow-up questions to the main interview questions. Interview questions were presented in a logical order, first obtaining demographic information from each participant about his/her role in his/her organization, and then gradually introducing the participants to the concepts of interest (i.e., trust and doubt), in order to address the research questions. In other words, the researcher did not impose a conceptual definition of trust or doubt on participants, but asked participants to define these concepts in their own words (see *Appendices*), and therefore employed an interpretive approach to the study of organizational communication (see Putnam & Pacanowsky, 1983; cf. Chaffee, 1991).

Recordings and Transcriptions

A digital audio-recording device captured each interview and a number was assigned to each audio file and recorded on a document that was kept separate from the audio files so that the data provided by the participants could not be traced back to them. Interview audio files were transcribed by a professional transcriptionist, who had more than 20 years of experience with legal and medical transcribing. Transcriptions contained words, utterances, and noted pauses exceeding two seconds. The interview data accounted for approximately 1,864 minutes (31 hours) of interview time, and resulted in 908 double-spaced pages of transcripts.

Constant Comparative Analysis

NVivo8, a qualitative data analysis (QDAS) software that aids in the organization and analysis of textual data, was used as a platform for analyzing transcripts. A modified

version of constant comparative analysis, a grounded theory approach, (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was used to answer the research questions. The analysis proceeded in four steps. Because of the large amount of collected data, the researcher first began by open-coding the eighteenth through the twenty-fourth interviews. Open-coding involves segmenting the data in order to summarize and account for the data provided (Charmaz). These interviews were selected for open-coding because they represented the midpoint in data collection, and it was evident to the researcher that patterns in the leaders' responses were emerging. Second, the researcher engaged in a process of focused-coding of a sample of twenty-five transcripts. During focused-coding, the researcher compared and contrasted open codes in order to categorize them. A category is a set of coded excerpts, examples, and themes from the data which are similar. This process involved a constant comparison of codes to codes and categories to categories. Concurrently, the researcher sought out opposite, negative, or better examples (see Bisel & Barge, 2011). The constant comparative analysis continued until new categories could not be located in the data and the existing categories remained stable, achieving theoretical saturation (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Third, the fifteen remaining transcripts were used to locate disconfirming examples of categories. This process aided in the reduction and consolidation of twelve categories—created during focused-coding—to a final number of six categories present in the completed model (i.e., phases of trust and doubt presented in the results section). Fourth, in a process similar to axial-coding (Charmaz, 2001; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) the interrelationships among trust and doubt experiences were determined for each interviewee and complied in order to catalog the interrelationships among categories suggested by interviewees. Axial-coding

involves evaluating the data as a coherent whole in relation to the formed categories (Charmaz, 2006). Interrelationships are indicated in the final model (see *Table 2* and *Figure 1*).

CHAPTER 4

Results and Interpretations

Participants' Definitions of Trust and Doubt

Leaders provided definitions and conceptualizations of trust and doubt. Surprisingly, participants found the task of defining trust and doubt challenging. When attempting to define the trust and doubt participants described examples of how trust and doubt was experienced and/or observed in various contexts.

Trust was defined as being honest (e.g., 12, 13, 15, 22, 34, number represents interview) and having integrity (e.g., 15, 26). A female leader, former city attorney and associate district judge, reported trust was exhibited and demonstrated by individuals having "a moral and ethical compass" (11). Other leaders reported trust as individuals following through with what they say they are going to do, persons of their word (e.g., 27, 28, 31, 40). A female business owner, reported trust is when, "You know what they're saying is true, and that what their actions show that what they have told you match what they say" (17). Furthermore, some leaders acknowledged trust implies allowing individuals to do what you have asked them to do and not having to micro-manage (e.g., 14, 19, 21, 23). Trust is "something to be earned," and can be gained and lost in the same day (12). A female executive director of a non-profit revealed "trust is core in the relationship" between the staff members (10).

Doubt was defined as "disbelief in something that could be" (35). Doubt was also defined as "not completely trusting" (28), losing trust (38), "a lack of trust" (14), and "lack of information" (17). Furthermore, a female business owner reported there is doubt when, "There's not enough information to make a clear decision" (17). A male co-owner

of a media production company reported doubt is created when an individual is "making commitments and communicating that [the individual] will do and accomplish things that [the individual] consistently don't" (37). A male bank branch president reported suspicion, or something out of the ordinary, creates doubt (31). Relatedly, a female insurance agent and business owner defined doubt as "skepticism," and just not sure you're on the right track (40). Lastly, a male retail business owner and manager reported doubt resulted when he told an employee what was expected and the employee did not fulfill the expectation (30). These initial definitions and conceptualizations of trust and doubt provided by the participants evolved throughout the course of the interview process as leaders were questioned further about how they communicate they trust and doubt to their members. Leaders' responses regarding their perceptions of trust and doubt and how they influence and shape communication with members formed the Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM).

Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM)

Six phases emerged from leaders' responses regarding how they perceive their communication of trust and doubt with members. A phase resembles the stage, level, or "degree" (23) of trust and doubt that is present at different times during leader-member relationship development and represent different experiences in the workplace context. Furthermore, these phases are defined and characterized by the communication strategies used by leaders as they communicate trust and doubt with their members. The six phases that emerged include: (a) selection, (b) probation, (c) escalation, (d) confederation, (e) jeopardy, and (f) termination. The initial phase (i.e., selection) and final phase (i.e., termination) were consistent across every interview, a number of the interviews included

all six phases, and a few interviews addressed only three of the phases, including the first phase (i.e., selection) and the final phase (i.e., termination). Together these phases constitute the Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM). The LMTM explains how leaders come to predict members' role performance. According to the leaders interviewed, members progress, remain, or regress through these phases, which are always partially defined by the interrelationships between trust and doubt communicated implicitly or explicitly in each phase by the leader to the member. *Figure 1* outlines all possible movements within the model reported by participants. *Table 2* summarizes the defining features of each phase and the communication behaviors associated with each. The following paragraphs report the defining features of each phase, explicates how trust and doubt are embedded in each, and the communication behaviors indicative of each phase.

Selection. In the selection phase, trust is granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's evaluation of the member's movement through a vetting process. The selection phase reflects both the process through which members are selected and the time period immediately following members being selected (i.e., hired) before they enter the probation phase. In this phase, trust is provisional, and contingent upon the member's continued performance. The vetting process relies upon two forms of evidence to mitigate doubt in the member's projected role performance: self- (e.g., interview, testing, credentials, resume) and other-supplied (e.g., word-of-mouth, references, reputation, social networks) support of trustworthiness. The selection phase always precedes the probation phase (see *Figure 1*).

Trust and doubt. Some leaders claimed they have complete trust initially and that trust is either maintained or diminishes, while others constructed trust as neutral at the outset of their relationship with members. Analysis of the leaders' responses revealed that having complete trust initially referred to either the time the leader met the potential member at the beginning of the selection process (i.e., interview process), or immediately after the individual was selected to be a new member. However, analysis of the interviews also revealed disparities between the participants' initial descriptions of trust and doubt and what they report actually doing to communicate trust and doubt to members.

A male transportation business owner said, "My philosophy of leadership is very simple, and this can apply to any business. We deal on the honor system and we trust everybody; everybody starts at a hundred percent" (26). Another leader, a male restaurant owner, reported, "Trust is something that I give people until they give me reason not to trust them" (18). A male physician and medical director reported, "I'm going to believe in an individual until I have objective evidence, until I have the hard facts that discredit them" (33). Furthermore, a male bank branch president, stated, "You hire somebody because you have a belief. You have a belief that – that they have the abilities to do the job, and they give you a resume. . . they tell you've [the applicant has] done it before. So, yeah, you do have an *expectation*" (21, emphasis added). This trust, or expectation, comes from the evidence provided by the member's past role performance as reported by a resume, the member, and member's references supporting the member's qualifications to fulfill the role, and by the member's reputation within social networks.

On the other hand, some leaders communicated that trust begins from a neutral state, ". . . it's neutral at the beginning, . . . because I don't know them. Trust builds" (39). Some leaders communicate their trust in a new member by taking a "risk" (4) because the leader does not yet have enough member-supplied or other-supplied evidence of the member's trustworthiness to mitigate doubt in predictions about the member's role performance. For example, a female retail district manager stated:

> I try to go into it thinking it's an – it's a natural trust. If there's a little bit of doubt, and there has been, and we – instead of doubt we call it "risks," um, because, again, you know, we have such intense interviews that I truly say I don't want to hire someone not for it to work out. So, we say when we're gonna hire 'em and they might be that risk that we take and hope for the best because you put so much time and effort into 'em, but I still don't want to doubt 'em unless they make me doubt 'em. (4)

Leaders' risk-taking during the vetting process illustrates how both trust and doubt can be present in the selection phase. A vetting process entails attempting to decrease doubt in the leader's expectations of the member's role performance. Doubt is present because leaders do not know members yet because leaders have not yet had enough personal evidence to warrant predictability in the members' role performance.

Simultaneously, however, some degree of trust is present within the selection phase because there is some evidence (self- or other-provided) that the member can be relied upon to fulfill the role he/she is being selected to perform. During the selection process, doubt decreases and trust is garnered as evidence, either self- (i.e., actual face-to-face interview, resume) or other-supplied (i.e., references, reputation) of the new member's competence. A male university official stated, "They say trust is earned, and it's solely earned, but you come in with a reputation" (2). Thus, leaders are making sense

of what they know and have evidence for, and what they do not know due to lack of evidence (Choo, 2006; Weick, 1995, 2001).

The nature of the industry leaders and members work in may influence the degree of trust present in the selection phase. According to one leader, members have trust by "virtue of the position" (5), such as law enforcement (5), insurance (40), and real estate (22, 34), because of rigorous training and industry-recognized examinations and certifications. For example, a female insurance agent and business owner testified to this from her personal experience before she became a leader, ". . . we [leader speaking as both a member and a leader] go through about a six-month selection process where it's a series of interviews, a business plan that we put together, classes that we go through, and then we interview to be placed in a – a[n] approved candidate pool" (40). Another leader, a male real estate appraising company owner reported:

> Well, you know, before I hire somebody, we felt like they're – you know – fairly trustworthy, you know, just through our – and, uh, you know, our employment process. You know, when we interview 'em, and we – you know, we don't have a lot of turnover, so I, you know, I guess I feel like, you know, you – I'm going to feel like they are trustworthy until they've had a chance to prove me wrong. 'Cause I, you know – if they weren't trustworthy we probably wouldn't be hiring them. You know, and these are all professional people that are fairly well compensated, so I'm not dealing with the same level skill and – as, you know, maybe an entry level job. You know. So, when they come to us, they – you know – they've had some professional experience in the real estate business. Some of them have already done appraisal work for, maybe, someone else, you know – so – um, so the level of trust, you know, it – you know – we wouldn't hire them if we had had any doubt about it. (22)

The data presented by the leaders yields what appears to be a paradox between a societal *Discourse* of leadership trust (i.e., good and effective leaders trust their members) and the *discourse* of leaders (i.e., what the leaders report actually saying and doing; Giddens, 1979). For example, despite eagerly espousing trusting members

"100%," these leaders readily identified that new members are vetted through a process that is defined in part by skepticism and doubt. While some participants at first reported holding an expectation that all members are trustworthy, the ways in which participants described selecting members through the interviewing vetting process contradicts the assumption of members initially being fully trusted and considered trustworthy.

Communication behaviors. Communication behaviors associated with the selection phase include: explicit questioning, critical listening, and the verification of task-related abilities. Explicit questioning takes place during the interview process as the leader probes the member regarding their ability and experience in order to project the member's expected job performance. For example, a male director of a non-profit ministry organization reported:

> In the interview, we [the selection committee] ask very pointed questions. We want to know as much as [we] can in a 45-interivew, everything about this person, and to make sure that we have our eyes open going into saying 'yes' or 'no' to them. (6)

Critical listening takes place as the leader evaluates the member's responses to the explicit questioning. A female CEO stressed how crucial critical listening is when she shared about an employee who stole a significant amount of the company's possessions. She said, "I think one thing we learned there was that employee at the very beginning we should have listened, and watched some signals a little closer" (7). Lastly, the verification of task-related abilities is revealed through any of several ways: the member's performance on work-related examinations (e.g., 11), being able to operate machinery properly (e.g., 24), or perform job-related tasks claimed by the member on his/her resume (e.g., 12). In sum, explicit questioning, critical listening, and verification

of task-related abilities are communication behaviors in place to address doubts or to maintain or build trust.

Additionally, the leader evaluates the other-supplied evidence of the member's trustworthiness, including contacting references and obtaining reputational reports from social networks. These communication behaviors beg the question: Why would an effective leader need to question explicitly, listen critically, and verify if he/she trusted a member completely? Again, these communication behaviors are indicative of implicit doubt. Through these communication processes, a sufficient amount of self- and other-supplied evidence has to be gathered in order that doubt can be decreased and trust can be increased.

Probation. In the probation phase, trust is granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's observation of the member's initial and early performances of the duties for which the member was selected. In this phase, trust grows through a process of scrutiny and close evaluation. If a leader comes to interpret the member's day-to-day task performance as deficient, doubt in the member's ability to complete the assigned tasks grows. However, some leaders provide opportunities for second chances if the initial role performances were either not communicated clearly, not performed sufficiently, or both. The probation phase always follows the selection phase, and always precedes the escalation phase. However, the probation phase can also precede the termination phase (see *Figure 1*).

Trust and doubt. After members have been vetted and selected they enter the "probation" (39) or incubation phase. Initial and contingent trust has been communicated by the leaders to the members in that the members were selected and given a role to

perform certain tasks. In the probation phase, a slightly greater degree of trust is granted to members due to the fact they successfully processed through the selection phase. A male sheriff acknowledged a member can be trusted initially; however, how the member handles that trust dictates if the member will be trusted in the future (5). Leaders sometime even place a strategic and explicit timeframe on the probation phase. A female retail district manager said, ". . . usually I can tell within the first two to three weeks" (4); and another leader, a female veterinarian business manager, explained her organization has a, "two-month probationary period" (39). These timeframes suggest members are given a window of opportunity to prove they can be trusted by leaders to perform certain tasks. Again, this opportunity to *prove* themselves implies the presence of doubt.

Trust is characterized and communicated in the probation phase as a restricted or cautious trust. Trust is partially defined by the presence of doubt in the member's ongoing and future role performance. A degree of trust is carried over from the selection phase; however, new members are still in the process of proving they are a good fit for their roles and can be relied upon to perform competently and consistently. Experiences in the probation phase serve as a time for both leaders and members to see whether there are "red flags" (39) in the leaders' expectations of the members, the leaders' communication of these expectations, or the members' understanding and execution of these expectations. Furthermore, according to some leaders, in this "probationary period they [new members] can leave without any questions asked; we [management] can say, okay, this just isn't working out for us, you know, and that's kind of what we said. You know, it's just – I – just don't think this is right for you" (39). Thus, the leader is going to give the new member the *benefit of the doubt*: As one leader explained that he was

giving the member "the benefit that maybe [the leader was] wrong" (34) about the selection, the placement of or the expectations of the member and how these expectations were communicated.

Furthermore, experiences in the probation phase speak to the leader's willingness to acknowledge his/her possible error in placing certain role expectations on the new member, if the new member is slow to observe and adhere to these expectations, or if new members are not placed in a position that allows them to use and operate in their natural "God-given gift or ability or skill" (24), "skill set" (21), or "giftings" (3). A male bank branch president acknowledged his role in taking responsibility if there is not a good fit initially for the member:

> If I hire 'em to sit here and interface with somebody but they really like doing [something else], okay, I've made a mistake. Now, that doesn't mean you throw that person out; you've just gotta find a better *role* for them within your organization that will help them become stronger at the things they enjoy to do. And so, I think from a leadership standpoint, you have to identify that and be willing to say, "you know, I messed up here in my, in what I thought was the right *role* for somebody," and is to find a better place for them and move them. And, we've had to do that here within this organization. You know, just be honest and forthright with somebody and talk to them about their likes and dislikes and their skills and what they want to do. (21, emphasis added)

This excerpt shows how important it is for the leader to facilitate successfully the process of finding the best-fitting role for the member in the organization. This excerpt also shows that the possibility of misunderstandings is common, expected, and accepted, at least in this phase. In conjunction, another leader, a female insurance agent and business owner, acknowledged the importance of her responsibility as a leader to train members effectively for the role for which they were selected, and to communicate clearly her expectations of the member in the specified role:

> I think it's a matter of training my people and, to me, that's a huge part of leadership, is being able to train your folks well and explain the *expectations* clearly to each person and how we want things run and how we're gonna do it, and then hold them accountable – um – for the level of excellence that we *expect* here in the agency. (40, emphasis added)

By helping members find the best-fitting roles, and by training and communicating clearly the expectations to these members, the leader can better predict and come to trust the member in those particular roles.

Throughout interviews, leaders acknowledged two types of trust. Primarily participants reported being concerned with task-related trust, or trust in one's competency, or ability, to perform and complete one's role expectations—a result that is not surprising given the workplace context of leadership trust. Beginning in the probation phase and continuing through the jeopardy phase (see *Figure 1*) leaders also recognized the importance of relational or character-based trust. The following is an example of how participants reported acknowledging, valuing, and developing both task-oriented and relational trust through communicative behavior with their members:

> You start out hoping you know them. Interviews are, you know, pretty short-lived and, um, so they have to build the trust. You give 'em, uh, -- you start at the base; you don't, you know, distrust 'em, but I mean, I just started a new employee two weeks ago. I have not given her a key to the place yet and she doesn't have the security code yet. (24)

Interestingly, this quote also demonstrates how participants acknowledged indirectly that both trust and doubt are present simultaneously during the probation phase, where members have been selected and are now being socialized and learning the ways of the organization. Trust is present, to a degree, in that the member has been selected to fulfill a certain role, performing certain tasks. However, doubt is also present in that trust is

still *building* and new members have *not* obtained the leader's full confidence to perform certain tasks. Similarly, a male pastor observed:

> You know, trust can – trust can happen on many different levels, in that you can trust the character of a person and the heart of a person, but you may not trust their ability to get – simply get something done, and so, for example, um – [pause] – if – if I give somebody a responsibility, a task, to get something done and it is not done, as it is consistently forgotten about or not accomplished, it's not that I don't trust the person – um – as far as their character is concerned and where their heart is, because I believe it's in the best spot. It's – in this example, it's – I don't trust their ability to remember without writing it down, and that's how we solved part of that challenge, without writing it down that they are going to remember the task that they are asked to complete. And so, to – in order to overcome that, we changed – we changed the way we approached things. We changed the pattern of which we – we communicate in – in this respect. So, rather than – knowing the person's a good person; knowing he does have my best interest at heart; and knowing that – that, um, he does want to – to do well, um, and when he does well he's very excited about it, but also knowing that he's got some weaknesses, and all of us have weaknesses, and so it was, "How do we re-approach the situation in such a way where we eliminate the opportunity for those weaknesses to reveal themselves?" And so, there's definitely an element where I did not trust him in the current ways that we communicated, but things were going to get accomplished in a way that they should, but how we overcame that trust is we – and to be honest with you, there's still an element of trust that is lacking because of the weaknesses pertaining exactly to what he does that – but – how we overcome that is that we – we change the *expectations*. We changed the way we communicate. (3, emphasis added)

In this excerpt, the leader acknowledged, as did other leaders, that both task and relational trust are important to predicting members' future actions. Also, this excerpt is another example of second chances given to the member if the initial role did not work out for the member (i.e., if the expectations were not communicated clearly or if the member did not competently or correctly fulfill the expectation initially).

Leaders in certain industries, such as law enforcement and medicine, have to make sure members can operate specialized machinery. The necessity of technical proficiency requires a task-oriented trust. One male business president explained:

> I set boundaries for them [new members] and goals and what the *expectations* are, and then they carry them out, and then pass that on to the people that they are in charge of. So, the biggest thing that we look for in potential employees is both the technical knowledge to do their job and the ability to do it and not have to be minded over. (14, emphasis added)

These leaders need to be confident that members can fulfill and complete competently and consistently what they say they can do, such as pass a "machine test" (24) or produce the dish they report they can make on their resume (12). Whereas, with other professions, like education, insurance (40), or the legal (11) profession, proficiency exams have to be passed, and continuing education development courses have to be completed in order for a member to stay employed in a particular role.

Having members demonstrate they can fulfill the expectations of technical role performances is a process facilitated by both trust and doubt. Trust at this point in the probation phase is present when the leader is able to expect and rely upon the member to fulfill certain role performances because the member's resume and references claimed the member could perform certain roles and tasks. Furthermore, doubt, at this point in the probation phase is apparent when the new member has to prove that he or she can perform in his/her new role by meeting the leader's expectations. When new members meet those expectations of a role adequately (i.e., competently, correctly, and consistently), trust is maintained or increases, and there is less doubt present because the new members have proven their ability to perform tasks in a specified role. However, at least some doubt remains in the probation phase because leaders have limited personal experience with members' role performance at this point. Such doubt is manifested in leaders' communication behaviors, which are described below.

Communication behaviors. Leaders emphasized the importance of open communication and honesty during the probation phase. A male sheriff stated, "I think in any organization, when you first start out in that organization you have to have that dialogue between yourself and the members to let 'em know . . . what you *expect* them to do" (5, emphasis added). Communication behaviors that specifically characterize the probation phase include instruction of procedures, frequent and close evaluations and observation, listening, a large volume of dialogue in terms of frequency, duration, and intensity, and micro-managing. The possibility of misunderstandings is more common, expected, and acceptable during the probation phase.

Leaders provide members with an instruction of procedures which addresses, but is not limited to, communicating role performance expectations and training. A male university official claimed "dialogue creates trust," and that it is important to create, set, and clearly communicate "reasonable *expectations*" (2, emphasis added). A female bank branch manager described her leadership role:

> I was responsible for training them [the members], for scheduling them, and firing them, if needed. I was responsible for the daily running of our particular branch. I was responsible for keeping track of the branch's profitability. But I guess more specifically in leadership, I was ultimately responsibility for the accuracy of the tellers that I supervised and how they were performing. (1)

These two excerpts illustrate leaders' responsibilities to communicate role expectations to members and training them.

Frequent and close evaluations and observations and listening are characteristic of communication during the probation phase because leaders need to continue to verify members can actually do (i.e., perform) what they claim they are able to and are recommended they can do. A female food market manager reported, "I've seen people

come in and think that are entitled to being where they are, but you have to prove to me that you know [and] are able to do the job" (12). Another leader, a former police officer and a current managing member of the business he owns, summed this notion up by saying, "I would make the decision of the trust after I'd seen some product" (13). Furthermore, evaluations, observations, and listening are present during the probation phase to ensure the communicated role expectations and procedures are understood and carried out competently and consistently by the new members. A female retail district manager explained, "We do have checklists that we go through on a weekly basis from the home office, um, just to kind of keep us fresh" (4). She continued:

> We have four solid shifts that we only work with them, and so you feel like, you know, four solid shifts of about five hours, you're gonna really get to know their work ethics and whether or not this is the right job for them. But even at that, what questions are they asking you? Are they following up with things that you're asking them to do. Are they paying attention? Are they open-minded in – and trying different things that you're not even thinking of, so you can kind of read some of that and if you're getting someone that -- it's been proven, we could bring on two people at the very same time, go through the very same – we go through the same training with all – all bulk of them; one will excel and one may not. (4)

This excerpt illustrates how frequent and close evaluations, observation, and listening characterize the probation phase as members' roles and performance expectations are being communicated, developed, and confirmed.

During the probation phase there is a large volume of dialogue in terms of frequency, duration, and intensity due to the instruction of procedures, which may take the form of new member training. In additional to the communication of new members' role performance expectations in training, instruction of procedures may include familiarizing new members with organizational information, protocols, and procedures (e.g., 1, 4, 5, 16, 17, 19, 26, 39, 40). These communication behaviors help to keep the

new members accountable to their role performance expectations, as well as help them develop their organizational roles. As one female insurance agent and business owner acknowledged:

> I'm pretty hands-on with everything that goes on, from the way the office feels and looks when somebody walks in the door, how they're greeted – you know – all those types of things. I believe in systems and so we've developed systems for every service transaction and sales transaction and those types of things, so I think it's a matter of training my people and, to me, that's a huge part of leadership, is being able to train your folks well and explain the *expectations* clearly to each person and how we want things run and how we're gonna do it, and then hold them accountable for the level of excellence that we *expect* here. (40, emphasis added)

As stated in the excerpt, the probation phase allows for more "hands-on" (20) management, what may be perceived as micro-managing. Participants reported that what might be perceived as micro-management actually facilitates the experiences that take place during the probation phase. In other words, trust grows through a process of scrutiny and close evaluation (i.e., micro-managing) in order that the leader may closely observe and evaluate the member's day-to-day task performances and accumulate more personal experiences with and assessments of the members' competence. Some leaders reported they were not intentionally trying to "micro-manage" (1, 17, 20, 25) members during the probation phase. These leaders acknowledged that these behaviors breed a tension between having to micro-manage and not wanting to acknowledge they are micro-managing, which some admit doing, during this phase of trust development. These few participants were likely reluctant to admit they engaged in micro-managing because it may be considered face-threatening (Goffman, 1959).

Micro-managing may not be thought of as an appropriate behavior of an effective leader who trusts his/her members. Face refers to an individual's public self-image that

he/she projects to others on a daily basis (Goffman, 1959). This communication behavior of the leader (i.e., micro-managing) may imply that he/she does not trust members, and thus the behavior threatens the face of the leader because he/she desires to be considered a respected and liked leader. Furthermore, this behavior could threaten a leader's face because the presence of micro-management in effective leadership behavior is contrary to a *Discourse* of leadership trust, which positions trust as an incontestable good. Additionally, this communication behavior could threaten the face of the member because micro-managing may imply the member can not be trusted to perform his/her role and responsibilities.

Misunderstandings are common, expected, and accepted in the probation phase because members are learning and testing out their new roles and tasks. Some leaders may have standard ways of communicating their expectations to members. However, these standard communication guidelines may not always be successful with certain members in certain circumstances. A male regional manager of a bank stated, "There are going to be mistakes, too, and that's okay. If you don't make mistakes, you're not growing and you're not learning" (20). Similarly, another leader, a male bank branch president, echoed this notion by stating, "A mistake is an opportunity. . . . the fix is every bit as much as important as the problem in the beginning. When you have a problem you want it handled quickly and – and efficiently" (21). Furthermore, a female business owner reported:

> At any time, if they're faltering, you take a step back; you re-define it and clarify what – what it is that they're *expected* to do, and if it's something they're not getting we either do more training, or, you know, I help, and then you just keep moving forward. (17, emphasis added)

Thus, leaders may experiment with communication tactics to distinguish which tactics are effective in conveying their expectations to members. This, in turn, will maximize the possibility for members to possess a clear understanding of their role performance expectations, and competently and consistently meet these expectations in order to progress through to the escalation phase.

Escalation. In the escalation phase, trust is granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's observation of the member's consistent performances of the duties throughout the probation phase, for which the member was selected. In this phase, trust grows beyond the micro-management typical of the probation phase. In escalation, trust is in the process of being worked out. The leader experiments by giving the member more responsibilities with less supervision as a means to reduce the leader's uncertainty about the predictability of the member's performance. The escalation phase may be brief; and, it always follows the probation phase, and always precedes the confederation phase. However, the escalation phase can also proceed directly to the termination phase (see *Figure 1*). It stands to reason that regression from escalation to probation is possible if members do not perform the leaders' communicated role expectations competently and consistently; however, there were not data to support such regression. If members did not perform expectations adequately and effectively in the escalation phase they would remain in the escalation phase until they progressed to the following phase (i.e., confederation), or their role performance, or lack thereof, deemed them worthy of the termination phase.

Trust and doubt. In the escalation phase, trust has increased from the probation phase, in that the leader may still doubt, to a degree, the member's ability to perform

consistently the duties he/she was selected to do. Leaders reported that it is important to communicate verbally and non-verbally to the member that he/she is trusted in this phase. A female business owner explained when responding to a question regarding how she communicates she trusts her members:

> Mm, that's interesting. Probably more non-verbal, but I think – I think it would probably more effective, you know, to say, "I trust your decision on this. You decide." You know. So, I think, it's kind of like a child thinking, you know, you assume your child knows you love 'em, but it's pretty important to say "I love you." You know, so it's the same thing and sometimes I assume they know what I say – you know – what I'm thinking, which gets me in trouble. (17)

This participant acknowledges, as an effective leader, how crucial it is in the development and communication of trust for a person of influence and authority to not only communicate explicitly she trusts an individual with her actions, but also to communicate explicitly with the actual words, "I trust you."

As trust in the member increases, more responsibility and delegation is granted to the member as a means of confirming the leader's expectations of the member's competent role performance. An example of this process was explained by the female business owner, "I try to lay it out and let them take baby steps; build that trust to there and then say, 'they're ready' and give 'em a little more and lay it out and then build that trust" (17). When responding to questions regarding how as leaders they communicate that they trust their members, the majority of leaders reported that they non-verbally communicated trust. However, interestingly the majority of leaders admitted that they had not spent a lot of time thinking about how they communicate trust to their members. This observation was perplexing because trust and being trustworthy was reported consistently as being valuable in the workplace. Again, as observed in the selection phase and the probation phase, leaders' views of trust and doubt (i.e., *Discourse,* talking

of trust as good and doubt as bad) seemed to differ from their reports of how they actually communicated trust and doubt. In other words, on one hand, leaders reported giving their members more responsibilities in this phase as a way of evidencing their trust. However, leaders also described experimenting in giving these responsibilities, which enacts a posture of withholding complete trust, and implies a degree of skepticism and doubt.

Both trust and doubt are present in the escalation phase. Trust is present when members are empowered to perform the roles they are assigned. The leader is then able to come to expect (i.e., trust) that when a member is delegated or given a certain task to fulfill, the member will be able to perform competently. When leaders assign tasks in the escalation phase, doubt remains present, if only a little, because of a lack of personal experience with the members' past performance and because leaders feel they must experiment with delegating tasks, despite reframing that experimentation as delegation. However, in this phase, leaders trust members enough to take risks in experimenting with assigning tasks.

Communication behaviors. Communication behaviors present in the escalation phase include frequent delegation, complex delegation, and periodic evaluations. Frequent delegation entails an increase in the amount of tasks and responsibilities delegated to the member. Complex delegation entails the leader empowering the member with the freedom to decide how the delegated task and responsibilities are to be approached and accomplished. Periodic evaluations entail monitoring members' performance on less frequently. A male real estate business president responded to the question, "How would someone who works for you know that you trust him/her?" by

saying, “They would tend to get the brunt of the work. [chuckles] They would tend to get more from me – I would become very dependent on them” (34). A male pastor in response to the same question said, “In a leadership position you can give them responsibility” (3). A female business owner said simply, “You delegate it [responsibility] and you monitor it and then you say, ‘Good job’” (17).

When asked about how trust is communicated and builds between the leader and a member in the escalation phase, a male university official said, “They’re the ones making things happen, and I think promoting them, and helping them, and them seeing that I truly want them to be successful, and have their dreams, and invest in that, spend time talking [about] that, mentoring them, building them into that, that builds trust” (2). A male regional manager of a bank summed up the escalation phase of the LMTM:

> Being an effective leader, in part, is delegating and letting people know that they’re important and ‘I trust you with this task.’ I mean, that goes to the heart of – of trust, is sharing leadership. And then, lettin’ them run with it. (20)

As this example illustrates, some leaders delegate tasks to members in order to reduce uncertainty about members’ role performance in this phase. Additionally, this excerpt provides an example of how leaders not only empower members by delegating them responsibilities, but by telling them they are important and trusted.

Complexity of delegation, in addition to how often members are delegated tasks, is a communication behavior characteristic of the escalation phase. The member has demonstrated and continues to demonstrate they can be trusted with not only more tasks, but more complex tasks and responsibilities. Leaders at this stage in the process are able to demonstrate in the member by entrusting them with more complex tasks. For example,

one female bank branch manager recalled a situation when she asked a teller to organize all the books the bank was accumulating, and the leader reported:

> She [the member] completely astounded me at what she came up with. I thought, I was more expecting a simple, just a simple system. She went online and found cataloguing, this do-it-yourself kind of library cataloguing system, and uploaded pictures of all the books. I mean, it was beyond what I expected. So, I mean, I trusted her with a little bit, and she ended up turning out a big, very clean product. (1)

After experiences like the one in the excerpt, leaders are better able to trust (i.e., expect) the performance of members when it comes to the complexity of tasks that can be delegated. If members continue to meet expectations and go beyond expectations they can reach the confederation phase. The majority of leaders acknowledged a desire to trust members without reservations in order that members reach the confederation phase and become confederates.

Leaders also discussed the importance of empowerment as experimenting with frequency and complexity of delegation and members' effective role performance throughout the escalation phase. A male university official claimed that when he became a new leader in his current organization:

> The first thing I did was assess what was going on with [the members]. And there was not a lot of empowerment. Lots of capability. Lots of talent. Lots of vision. Lots of dreams. But not a lot of empowerment. So what I wanted them to do was for them to see, and I think every situation's different but what I did in this situation is I empowered them. Every one of them. I sat down and listened to them. I had them teach me about their job. And I empowered them. (2)

Similarly, a male pastor stated:

> I think it's important to just keep constantly communicating it in a bunch of different ways, verbally, that you do trust them. I think 'empowerment' is a key word, that you can empower them to chase after what you've asked them to chase after and what they're excited about chasing after, and not necessarily, um, tell them every step, but walk alongside them. So, I mean, I think – I think it's a combination of actions and words. (3)

Both excerpts illustrate how leaders perceive the importance of communicating trust, both verbally and non-verbally, and communicating their trust often to their members in order to empower them to execute their role effectively. Empowerment is present when leaders' trust for a member has increased, or escalated, but is not fully developed. Empowerment, in this sense, is a kind of risk-taking and trial grounds for members to demonstrate they can be fully trusted. The leader empowers the member by giving him or her more and greater responsibilities to reduce any uncertainty the leader has that the member can competently and consistently fulfill his/her role. Without such risk-taking by leaders—in the face of somewhat uncertain role performance expectations—members cannot achieve full confederation status.

Confederation. In the confederation phase, trust is granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's observation of the member's demonstrated and proven skills set (i.e., members' ability to perform the expected tasks competently and consistently). In this phase, trust is maximized and constructed as accomplished while also somewhat ongoing through trust maintenance. Trust is accomplished in that the leader knows and is able to predict the member's acceptable performance behaviors consistently and accurately based on personal experience. The confederation phase provides a context for the LMTM, or a point of reference by which all the other phases of the model can be defined and to which all other phases are oriented. In other words, a leader's goal is for a member to become a confederate. Trust is maintained in the confederation phase in that the leader continues to approve and support the member's acceptable performance behaviors. Confederation is the phase in which leaders feel confident in their predictions and expectations of members' role performance (i.e.,

prediction uncertainty is at its lowest). The confederation phase always follows the escalation phase, and precedes the jeopardy phase. However, the confederation phase can also precede the termination phase (see *Figure 1*).

Trust and doubt. In the confederation phase leaders' trust *discourse* aligns with leaders' *Discourse* of leadership trust (i.e., effective leaders trust their members). The confederation phase is the assumed goal by which all other phases are judged deficient and an embarrassment to effective leadership. Trust is at a maximum level in the confederation phase, and doubt is at a minimum. "Team" (2, 40), "community" (2), "family" (17), "system" (27, 32), and "symbiotic relationship" (18) were metaphors used by leaders to compare and characterize how they felt about their most trusted members. Interestingly, leaders reported that similar comparisons are reflected in the language they use when communicating to their members. For example, a female retail district manager pointed out that she uses certain pronouns strategically when communicating that she trusts her members, "So, I do a lot of 'we's,' I do a lot of 'us,' a lot of the team bonding. It's never – they're never really by themself. It's never 'I,' or 'you'" (4). A male university official described this team-like mentality by describing his role as a leader and how he communicates trust, "I think that what you have to do is roll up your sleeves and show that it's not about me" (2). A male regional manager of a bank said:

> I think trust comes from listening and understanding. We all see the world through a different lens and if the lens you're looking at is different than the lens I'm looking at, until I understand your perspective, I can't see it the way you're seeing it. (20)

Another way trust is communicated is through:

> Giving people the latitude to – to have their own opinions and their own views and understand those views and opinions, and if you can see it through their lens

> then, even though they may have seen it differently than you did, you gained a respect for the way they see it. (20)

Members have proven themselves trustworthy through the selection, probation, and escalation phases, and these experiences provide the context for confederation. A male retail business owner described trust communicated during this phase as "an attitude of *expectation*" (30, emphasis added). Leaders are able to expect and trust that members will perform the roles they were assigned because of the member's consistency and competency with task-related performances. Moreover, members are encouraged to create, elicit, and employ their own ideas in the confederation stage—the antithesis of micro-management.

However, participants reported still needing to be watchful of their members, in order that leaders do not develop a blind trust, or to make sure trust is not taken advantage of by members. In other words, some participants identified that too much trust may present its own set of dangers. Once members are empowered through the delegation of responsibility in the escalation phase and then become confederates, participants reported that members need to be held accountable to perform their roles, in order that members do not take advantage of leaders' trust. A male director of an archive center acknowledged how important it is to, "Trust, but verify," making reference to remarks made by former President Ronald Reagan (8). The participant continued, "Trust but maybe question or investigate . . . a part of being a good organizational member is trusting, but verifying" (8). Similarly, a female bank branch manager stated:

> In the bank setting, of course I wanted to trust all my employees not to steal money, and you know, I think everybody wants to be able to trust people in that way, but we're all human and humans make bad decisions, and as much as I did trust my employees, we still had to have procedures in place where they could never be alone in the vault with the money. (1)

A former city attorney and associate district judge reported:

> I tend to want to include others, even – even if the decision's ultimately mine and I completely disregard everything they say, I want those folks who are at least direct management, or positions that would directly report to me, to have some input, because a lot of times I may have blinders on and – and I get very good input, but I also want to be able to trust that the input I'm getting is – is good, honest input, because I have learned, unfortunately, that many people, rather than valuing those kinds of trades, value appearing to be important or running someone else down in order to build themselves up -- and so, it can be very interesting. (11)

These examples support the notion of "trust but verifying" with confederates. "You don't gain somebody's trust one day and then always have it. So you always have to work at maintaining that trust" (1). If trust is not verified or there is too much trust it can produce detrimental consequences.

Detrimental trust. High levels of trust in the confederation phase can turn detrimental. A male campus pastor reported, "Sometimes trust, absolute trust creates freedom of fear and freedom of fear is a healthy thing, but it also can be very much taken advantage of" (3). A male retail business manager and school board director described his business as a "pretty close environment" where "your friendships will grow pretty quick," and a member "took advantage of the friendship and didn't seem to distinguish and thought it was okay [to do what she did]" (25), which can quickly lead to the jeopardy or termination phase (described below). Thus, it is vital for leaders to communicate clearly to members that although trust takes time to develop through role expectations being performed competently and consistently by the member, that trust can be lost in a moment, depending upon the severity of the member's behavior.

The *Discourse* of leader's trust (i.e., trust is an incontestable good) may blind leaders to the disadvantages of too much trust and not enough productive doubt in the

leader-member relationships. Crucial for a healthy leader-member relationship and an effective organization is for the leader to remember that trust is not always to be revered in one's communication as a god term (i.e., good), nor doubt to always be regarded as a devil term (i.e., bad; Burke, 1945).

Communication behaviors. Communication behaviors representative of the confederation phase include diminished volume and frequency of task-related messaging, an increase in relational messaging, and self-management by members. In this phase, leaders now feel comfortable in their ability to expect and predict that members can perform the tasks for which they were selected. Members have successfully processed through the selection, probation, and escalation phases, phases characterized by more task-related communication. Consequently members may not hear from the leaders as often in the confederation phase, because they have consistently and competently performed their roles at the desired expectation level. Additionally, some leaders may increase their relational messaging with members seeing that role expectations have been met. One leader, a female business owner, conveyed that if her members are not hearing from her as often, she is indirectly communicating to them, "You're good" (17). Another female leader, a retail district manager reported:

> So once we get that established, that working relationship, it might be then I can – you know – some morning when we're working, I can branch out just a little bit on, 'Well, what was your weekend – you know – like this weekend?' To keep it very vague; to keep it – you know, I don't want to know specifics, but it kind of lets me know, you know, did they hang out with their family? Did they – um – you – I – just that's a big read that I feel like I get to trust people with because I feel like if they are well-rounded outside of the store, they'll be well-rounded here. (4)

The presence and amount of relational messaging may, however, not be present in certain leader-member exchanges due to individuals' personalities and/or the nature of the organization, role, or task.

Diminished volume and frequency of task-related messaging, and a possible increase in relational messaging is often demonstrated through members being able to self-manage. Self-management refers to the leader communicating verbally and non-verbally to the member that he/she is capable of leading projects by taking risks without first consulting the leader. For example, a female manager of a food market explained her perspective of self-management, or "self-directing" as she refers to it:

> If I give [an employee] a list of things to do and it's been done, so then we have the other five hours left in the day, you know, of your shift to do what you need to do. So, if I'm not there to, direct you, then you need to be able to be self-directing of things that you know that need to be done in the market. (12)

Furthermore, a male co-owner of a media production company stated he communicates the following to the members in his organization:

> You either make contributions to this company as part of this team and it's easy to measure and notable, or you don't, but I'm going to trust that you're going to do that and you know how to manage and motivate yourself, 'cause I'm not interested in doing that for you. So, that works with some people and it's a miserable failure with others. (37)

This failure of members to maintain trust (i.e., continue to perform expected tasks competently and consistently) can result in the jeopardy phase (described below). If trust granted by the leader to the member is taken advantage of by the member not meeting the leader's expectations regarding role performance, the leader's trust in the member decreases in order that the collective's superordinate goal is not jeopardized due to the member's failure to perform his/her role.

Jeopardy. In the jeopardy phase, trust is partially denied by the leader to the member, triggered by the leader's observation of the member's failure to perform his/her role competently or consistently. In this phase, trust is mostly withdrawn; however, in a sense, trust partially characterizes the leader's predictability of the member in that in this phase leaders begin to expect that they are *un*able to predict the members' performance accurately. Doubt in the member's ability to perform duties consistently is present. However, redemption remains possible in some circumstances. When redemption is achieved, the member returns to the confederation phase. The jeopardy phase always follows the confederation phase, and usually precedes the termination phase.

Trust and doubt. In the jeopardy phase, how trust and doubt are communicated from the leader to the member is similar to how trust and doubt are communicated in the probation phase, with the exception that a relational history of confederation contextualizes interaction in ways different from the probation phase. Leaders return to micro-managing the member because the member cannot be trusted with the role he/she was given. In other words, the leader cannot expect the member to perform the role for which the member was selected. A male university official summed up the transition from confederation to jeopardy as follows:

> I asked one of our staff members to work . . . work on a project and when I want updates on it, I'm not getting updates or I'm not getting progress on it. This is trust. I don't want to micro-manage anyone, but you're forcing me to micro-manage you, because I don't know what's going on because you're not doing anything. So, I'm ultimately responsible for what happens in this office. And that means they're responsible to me, because I'm responsible to someone. And that causes me to distrust them. (2)

This excerpt expresses that confederation is needed and important in order for a member to avoid moving to the jeopardy phase. Leaders need to trust confederates to get

collective work accomplished. Furthermore, the excerpt reveals how leaders do not necessarily want to place members in the jeopardy phase, but members' behavior *jeopardizes* the leaders' trust for members and forces leaders to place members in the jeopardy phase.

Other leaders reported a loss or diminishing of trust because the member was "not performing" the task he/she was assigned to do (2), and when the member became "defiant" (40), or "judgmental" (36). For example, a female director of a private school said:

> If after talking to a teacher about the issues and they cannot ever get to the place of seeing that what they have done is in any way inappropriate, and if that continues, then – then my flags go up that say, 'You know, I think this isn't working'. (32)

A male principal said he lost trust in a member because "expectations" were not met (35). The member did not take the time to do what he was supposed to do, so the leader provided the member with a "plan for improvement and resources [for] the plan for improvement," but the member did not acquiesce (35). In other words, the member did not meet the expectations set for him, which placed him in the jeopardy phase. Once in the jeopardy phase, the member was provided an improvement plan and resources to accompany the plan in order to redeem himself. The member did not use the plan for improvement or the resources, which kept him in the jeopardy phase. Some leaders revealed that there can be a benefit to communicating doubt to members as it regards their expectations of role performance.

Beneficial and productive doubt. Doubt communicated can prove to be effective and productive, especially in the jeopardy phase, in order that the member is not

terminated, but may redeem him/herself, and achieve confederation status again. A male pastor claimed communicating doubt can be "extremely" effective and productive:

> Because it is gonna be beneficial in one of two ways: Either you're going to solve the distrust issue and rebuild the trust or you're going to begin to probably separate, um – or, to some degree, distance yourself in the way of that relationship. (3)

Another leader stated, "Is it important for me to distrust them? Yes. When they prove that they don't deserve your trust. I think sometimes we think it's all about praise, and it's not" (2). A male retail business manager gave an example of how this productive doubt might look and sound. He described what this type of interaction with a member might sound like:

> I want you to think about this. What, in a day's time, are you doing that's negative in this organization, that's costing this organization money? And it ain't all about money; but think about it. I can just put an ad in the paper and hire 100 people tomorrow. Think about it. And you plant the seed in their mind, you know, 'Did you do this, or do that?' Well, no.' You know, you look at it – whenever you get to where you're so lax that you feel like you're your own one hundred percent and nothing's getting' done, you're costing everybody's job from that point up, because you're bothering what it takes to get the thing out the door. You're a weak link in the chain. We don't need any weak links.' Their choice to make. Either tighten that link up like it was, be proud of your job and let's go forward, or, get out of there and we'll replace that link in the chain. It's that simple. And you'd be surprised – people were not aware of some stuff that they're doing that there's brought to their attention in a tactful manner, they come out a better employee after all. (31)

By the leader communicating doubt, in a respectful and constructive manner, the member is provided with the opportunity to re-examine the leader's expectations of his/her role performance. To claim that doubting can be beneficial may seem counterintuitive because this notion challenges the relationship between the idealized view of trust (i.e., *Discourse* of leadership trust) and what effective leaders report actually saying and doing (i.e., their *discourse*) to communicate trust and doubt to members. Doubt is not normally

esteemed or valued. However, the communication of doubt can provide the member the opportunity to redeem the trust of the leader.

Redemption. Redemption is possible with some cases and trust can be regained if members take responsibility for their actions (27) and return to competently, correctly, and consistently fulfilling the leaders' expectations for them. A male bank branch president said, "But it's how you recover; it's what you do to recover. You know, I always say to the rest of our folks here is, 'You know, a mistake is an opportunity'" (21). The following is a university official recalling a specific redemption scenario with a member and how he approached the member:

> 'This is what I noticed. Explain this to me because I don't think that's what we're about. At the end of the day, we're in it together. It's not your problem to fix. It's our problem to fix. I'll do everything that I can. What do you think I can do? Here's what we need to do, and here's what we need to do and work on it together. And then you better come through on your side of it.' And at the end of the day, he got better. He really answered the call. And you praise them. You recognize good work. So, and then at the end of the day, I think they are able to say, we had hard conversations because he cares about me getting better. (2)

This excerpt is an example of a member moving from the confederation phase to the jeopardy phase and experiencing redemption rapidly. The participant's descriptions made it clear the member was in the jeopardy phase because the leader implicitly communicated doubt when he said, "And then you better come through your side of it" (2). The leader talked with the member about expectations that were initially communicated to him, because there was a problem in the member fulfilling the initially communicated expectations. Next is an example of the process of redemption recalled by a female bank branch manager:

> There were a few days that were very, very difficult but [trust] was regained because well, for one, the employee apologized, and the, in this instance, I did take the situation to my supervisor because I wanted to make sure that my own

> reputation was not at stake and I wanted my supervisor to know what actions I had taken before the event and that it still went on against my decision. And so, at that, my employee apologized and, and promised to not do that again, which, it never did happen again and so, just after time after kind of towing the line we did regain that trust. (1)

In this excerpt, an opportunity for redemption was provided by the leader because the member acknowledged his wrongdoing and apologized, and what happened was not severe enough for direct termination.

In order for redemption and the regaining of trust to occur a female insurance agent and business owner claimed, "It's gotta be a two-way thing" (40). In other words, the leader needs to be responsive to the member, and the leader needs to perceive the member is being responsive to him/her. When the leader approaches the member, the member has to be able to receive and respond appropriately to the doubt the leader is communicating. Leaders acknowledged trust can be regained; however, the following excerpts reveal redemption may not always result. A male pastor stated:

> I think the only way trust can be regained is honesty. [chuckles] I don't think – I mean, sure, it's going to be regained over a period of time where you begin to prove yourself, but if you're ever in denial about why the mistrust happened in the first place, then you're never gonna get over that first big step. (3)

A female president and CEO of a natural gas marketing company revealed, "I will give 'em multiple chances, but then you get to a point where you have, you know, where there's more doubt than there is trust and then once it gets to that point, I'm not a very forgiving person" (38). In the jeopardy phase, trust and doubt are both still present, but doubt supersedes trust. However, if the member responds positively to the leader communicating doubt, the effective communication of doubt can prove to be productive. The trust the member has earned through the selection, probation, escalation, and confederation phases can be redeemed. If redemption occurs, the member returns to the

confederation phase, though perhaps contextualized by their movement through the jeopardy phase.

Communication behaviors. Communication behaviors characteristic of the jeopardy phase include the leader re-evaluating expectations, returning to micro-managing, reducing the amount of delegation and responsibilities to the member, and critical observations. A male university official stated, "When they are not performing, that means I need to start questioning" (2). A regional manager of a bank stated:

> And, if it's not recognized, then maybe you [the leader] need to talk about it more directly, and you can kind of escalate what your actions are. I mean, maybe if you talk about it and it doesn't go away, then it's a verbal warning. You know, I mean it's, 'Hey, here's something that I'm really concerned about and something that we ought to talk about', and, um, I mean if it's a behavior that is within the control of the individual to turn it around on their own and they just don't have the internal capacity or drive or desire to turn it around, you can tell them, 'Hey, you need to turn that around.' And, if they're not moving in the right direction or if it gets worse, then maybe you have to have a meeting and put things in writing. I mean, what can we agree on in this situation. (20)

Leaders revealed they questioned both the members and themselves. The leaders ask themselves if they communicated their initial expectations clearly enough (e.g., 34).

As previously mentioned, the communication behaviors in the jeopardy phase are reflective of those in the probation phase. A male principal admitted, "I stay away from the micro-manage, and my employees would say that. I do not micro-manage until a point of time I have to come in directly to begin micro-managing because of a trust issue that's been broken" (35). Furthermore, a male retail business manager and school board director stated, "I think if you're trying to micro-manage something you've already tried to give them, then they obviously feel that they're not being trusted to do that" (25).

A decrease in the leader's delegation of responsibility to the member and critical observations are additional communication behaviors indicative of the jeopardy phase. A male co-owner of a media production company disclosed:

> It [Jeopardy] looks like me withdrawing less and less in terms of my reliance on them. The people that I doubt get less and less opportunity; they get less and less work, until one day – and this just happened, actually – until one day we have to have a conversation where, you know, 'You've been here awhile and you're not an integral part of this team'. (37)

A male real estate business president phrased it, if an action by a member causes any sort of doubt or question, the leader will observe that member a little more closely to get "a little closer to the problem" (34). A female former city attorney and associate district judge is she doubted a member she would, "monitor very closely" (11). However, if the member "continues to deteriorate, failure to produce or failure to deliver or . . . failure to abide by this agreement can lead to further action up to and including termination" (20).

Termination. In the termination phase, trust is completely denied by leaders to members, triggered by leader's observation of members' failure to redeem the leader's belief in their ability to perform their responsibilities. Furthermore, leaders' trust in members' ability to perform assigned duties is lost in this phase. Trust is not easily regained. Termination can follow the probation, escalation, confederation, or jeopardy phases depending on the severity of the member's actions (see *Figure 1*). Participants cited three main forms of egregious acts that would send a member directly to the termination phase. They were lying (5, 24, 26, 30, 40), stealing (4, 7, 18, 30, 36, 38, 40), and engaging in sexual activity on the job in the workplace (24). For example, some leaders reported members did not report to work and then lied about their whereabouts (e.g., 5, 30). Additionally, some leaders reported members were terminated for stealing

merchandise from their organizations (e.g., 4). One female CEO and business president reported a former employee, "Stole about $250,000 worth of – in this case, it was equipment and cattle" from a company ranch (7). Some leaders provided actual examples to illustrate these egregious acts (e.g., 24), and others simply referenced lying and stealing as communication behaviors that would result in termination.

Trust and doubt. In the termination phase, trust is absent and doubt dominates. A male regional manager of a bank reported:

> When I did have to fire someone who reported directly to me, it came as no surprise, because we'd been talking about it for three months. No doubt. No doubt. [chuckles] They knew their performance was in doubt. And, uh, yeah, it didn't come as a surprise, and – and, uh, I think this person knew that it wasn't the right fit, you know – that they would probably be successful – something – find something new that's a better fit for them. (20)

This excerpt illustrates how trust was not redeemed once a member was placed in the jeopardy phase, after being given multiple chances. Interestingly, the leader used the phrase "no doubt" to refer to the fact that there was no uncertainty with him, the leader, or the member of the expectations. From the leader's perspective, the member knew termination was inevitable, because the leader had communicated he could no longer rely upon the member to perform his role in the organization.

When describing what takes place in the termination phase, leaders clarified that members were terminated because they could not meet the expectations and perform the role for which they were selected, even after being given multiple chances in some cases. A male real estate business owner stated, "We'd lost trust in her competency and the time she was shown the door was probably, you know, a week" (22). Whereas, a female insurance agent and business owner recounted, "If it was a character issue [rather than a competency issue] that we found out about, there wouldn't be a 30-day window; you'd be

gone" (40), implying more chances granted prior to termination were given if doubt was related to a member's deficient competency that could not be resolved.

Determination of termination seemed to vary by industry and the type and size of organization. For example, there is a difference between professions requiring tasks that are a matter of life and death (e.g., law enforcement and medial) and service industry professions (e.g., food and non-profit). Law enforcement is a particular line of work where multiple chances of the member's breaking of trust are not tolerated. Whereas, in a service industry organization, a male business owner claimed, "If they run below 75 percent [with 100 percent being complete trust from the leader to the member], yeah, they're – they're, uh – they're done" (26). Thus, implying a greater degree of doubt can exist prior to a member's termination. With regard to size of an organization, one leader, a retail business manager, reported, "So, because we're on a small scale and usually if I leave people, it's one or two, and it's very important that they're doing what they're told. Any lack of trust there, and that's – they just can't be there anymore" (25).

Trust can be completely lost when leaders perceive there is no possibility for the members to achieve redemption and be re-confederated. Furthermore, trust can be completely lost if members repeatedly do not fulfill the expectations that have been clearly laid out for them multiple times. A male co-owner of a media production company claimed that if termination was not the consequence of blatant lying or stealing, it was because role expectations were not met on a consistent basis:

> I think [the member] made a decision that it was up to me for [them] to be successful here, and that was a mistake. And I had communicated that repeatedly. Um, and then, you know, the other thing is, and I do believe this, and it's almost always the case, a lot of the performance issues are because you are doing things that you're not passionate about doing. (37)

This excerpt reiterates that the leader could not rely on the member to perform his/her role on multiple occasions, and that is why the member was terminated. The expectations, at least from the leader's perspective, were communicated clearly, and chances for redemption were provided and not obtained, and thus, trust was lost. And, as a female business owner stated, "You know, I think unfortunately when trust is gone, it's hard to get it back" (17).

Communication behavior. The communication behavior indicative of the termination phase is discursive closure. In other words, this phase is indicative of communication behaviors designed to end communication. Members were released by leaders or resign before being released, because members were not able to perform the role for which they were selected initially, nor were able to redeem themselves when given a chance.

Thus, the LMTM explains how both trust and doubt are present between leaders and members regarding leaders' expectations of members' role performance. The degree of trust present between leader and member helps to define the degree of doubt present between leader and member, and vice versa. Leaders reported desiring to trust their members to perform the roles for which they were selected; however, many leaders also reported too much trust can be taken advantage of by the member and thus be detrimental for the organization.

Negative Case

Negative case analyses strengthen qualitative claims by accounting for and including exceptions to generally-observable data patterns within proposed theoretical frameworks rather than removing such exceptions as outlier cases (Bisel & Barge, 2011).

Trust and doubt were acknowledged as both productive and detrimental by all but one participant. Initially, during most of the interviews, when the fruitfulness of doubt was mentioned, most participants hesitated, likely because doubt is usually considered bad and undesirable. However, as participants answered questions regarding the role of doubt in their own work experiences, they began to make sense of how productive and effective the communication of doubt could be, as elaborated upon in the results section (Weick, 1995). One participant, however, claimed doubt and the communication of doubt were always undesirable in her work relationships. Two potential reasons for this negative case are: (a) the values espoused by the participant's profession as a member of the clergy, and (b) a face-saving (Goffman, 1959) strategy used in response to the question. There is the possibility that the values espoused by this member of clergy are ones of faith, hope, and trust, as opposed to doubt; and, that doubt does not serve to produce any positive consequences. If reason for this participant's response was a face-saving strategy there is a possibility this leader may not have wanted to threaten the public image of a clergy member by associating doubt with the role.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The objectives of this research were to investigate how effective leaders come to predict members' role performance and catalog the communication behaviors indicative of those predictions. In order to accomplish these objectives, three research questions were proposed and answered by interviewing 40 individuals who had reputations for being effective leaders. The first research question was answered by the Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM) as depicted in Figure 1. The sample of effective leaders reported coming to predictions about their members' role performance (i.e., trusting and doubting members) through six phases (i.e., selection, probation, escalation, confederation, jeopardy, and termination) as presented in the LMTM. The model contributes to the literature of leadership trust by illustrating how doubt permeates leaders' expectations of members' role performances, even as reported by participants in this sample of effective leaders.

Leaders may not admit their doubt directly; however, the LMTM, which summarizes participants' responses, makes it apparent that the leader-member relationship is initiated, grown, and terminated in doubt. For example, the selection phase (i.e., the phase warranted by the leader's evaluation of the member's movement through a vetting process) is inherently imbued with leaders' skepticism of members' task competence. Such points of doubt were commonplace in five of the six phases of the LMTM. Participants themselves did not initially recognize the frequent presence of doubt with their members. However, throughout the course of interviews, leaders realized the ubiquity of doubt by hearing how they responded to interview questions and

by making sense (Weick, 2001) of how they communicate trust and doubt to their members (see Tracy & Rivera, 2010).

The second research question asked what communication behaviors are characteristic of leaders' expectations of members' role performance. Analysis of interviews revealed the sample of effective leaders reported communicating their expectations to their members through a variety of communication behaviors that align with the phases of the LMTM (see *Table 2*). These communication behaviors are indicative of the LMTM phases. For example, in the jeopardy phase, micro-managing, reducing responsibilities and delegation, and re-evaluating expectations are markers of members' presence in the jeopardy phase of the LMTM. From one perspective, communication is cast here as reflecting, or being indicative of, a relational reality. From another perspective, communication constitutes leader-member relationship, in the sense that the relationship does not exist outside of the communication shared between leaders and their members (Boden, 1994; McPhee & Zaug, 2000; Putnam & Nicotera, 2009; Taylor & Van Every, 2000).

The third research question asked how leaders' expectations about their members' future role performance relate to the duality of structure present in organizing (Bisel, 2009, 2010; Bisel, Ford, & Keyton, 2007; Kirby & Krone, 2002; Harter, Berquist, Titsworth, Novak, & Brokaw, 2005; Mumby, 2005; Poole, Seibold, & McPhee, 1985; Tracy, 2000). A careful reflection upon the analysis of interviews suggests trust and doubt are not well described by either structure or agency. Yet, from one perspective, trust and doubt may be forced into Giddens's (1979) conceptual categories of structure and agency. Recall that Giddens's notion of structure encompasses the influencing forces

of the *past* (e.g., habits, routines); whereas, his notion of agency encompasses individuals' ability to make choices in opposition to structure in the *present* (Bisel, 2009). Therefore, trust can be thought of as an influencing force of the past in the sense that an individual's expectations about another's actions (i.e., trust) can be confirmed or disconfirmed. Similarly, trust can manifest itself as an individual's ability to trust in the present, despite disconfirmed expectations from past encounters. Such reasoning demonstrates a kind of casuistic stretching (Burke, 1984) by invoking Giddens's structuration theory to explain trust and doubt. In other words, trust and doubt do not fit unproblematically into one category or the other, perhaps because of their future orientations–a noteworthy discovery. Typically, research using structuration theory as a framework reveals conceptual dualities in order to organize and explain the phenomena being studied (e.g., Bisel, Ford, & Keyton, 2007; Heracleous, 2006; Kirby & Krone, 2002; Poole, Seibold, & McPhee,1985; Tracy, 2000). Again, structure is past-oriented and agency is intrinsically present-oriented, leaving predictions about future states that have not yet happened (e.g., trust and doubt) to be misfits for these conceptual categories. Future research in leadership trust should grapple with structuration's inability to cleanly frame this relational dynamic. One theoretical possibility is offered in Bisel's (2009) discussion of a duality bias in which he proposes a future-oriented structuration category he labels "projections" (p. 630). In other words, in the context of leader trust, could trust be framed as a future-orientated structuration category because it requires a future prediction about an individual's future role performance?

Contribution to Literature

This study contributes to the literature on leadership trust by showing (a) how *maximized* leader-to-member trust characterizes only one of six phases, and (b) how effective leaders identify disadvantages implicated by even such *maximized* trust. In other words, and conversely, this investigation documents how doubt permeates five of six phases of leader-to-member trust and effective leaders construe complete trust as potentially problematic.

Leadership trust. This investigation contributes to the leadership trust literature in five major ways. First, to date, most investigations of leadership trust attempt to determine the factors of leadership styles that increase member trust (e.g., Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001) or antecedents and outcomes of trusting between leaders and their members (e.g., Bhattacharya, Devinney, & Pillutla, 1998; Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005; Mayer et al., 1995; Schoorman et al., 2007; Williams, 2001). Conversely, the leader-to-member trust model presented here articulates how leaders are engaged in processes of figuring out how well they can predict members' role performances (i.e., trust) rather than attempting to explain leadership trust as something leaders should *do*. Instead, this investigation interrogated the assumption that trust is beneficial and doubt is detrimental in effective leadership communication by identifying where detrimental trust and beneficial doubt characterize leader-member relationships.

Second, similar to a *trust as process* conceptualization of trust, this research describes leader-member trust as ongoing and in flux (e.g., Burke et al., 2007; Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2003; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). For example, the analysis of interviews revealed the possibility of a confederation-jeopardy-

redemption-confederation phase path. In this phase path, leaders gain confidence in their ability to predict a member's competent role performance (i.e., confederation), loses that confidence (i.e., jeopardy), and re-gains that confidence in a new relational context (i.e., redemption, a path back to confederation). This example illustrates how leader-member trust is continually worked out and can fruitfully be studied as a process.

Third, this investigation provides a unique model for conducting leadership trust research. A significant amount of trust research relies upon surveys and statistical analysis (e.g., Costigan et al., 1998; Gill et al., 2005; Hubbell & Chory-Assad, 2005; Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009). Certainly, many of these studies have contributed valuable insights. However, the qualitative approach to this investigation allowed the researcher to probe beyond simplistic evaluations of leadership and trust (in)effectiveness, and capture leaders' articulations of the communication behaviors that represent the substance of trust in their members' ability to perform. For example, two types of trust emerged from leaders' responses: Trust as it relates to the relational aspect of one's character (i.e., a leader can trust a member to be honest), and trust as it relates to completing a task (i.e., a leader can trust a member to complete a task). Taking this notion a step further, trust can be framed on two different continua—certainty and quality of an expected behavior. There may be a degree of *certainty* as to whether an individual will or will not meet or perform an expected behavior based on past performances; and, then an individual may have an expectation or prediction of the *quality* of future performances. Furthermore, when leaders were asked, "Would it ever be important to doubt your employees?," most initially responded in the negative. However, when probed with follow-up questions, most were able to describe a situation in which it would

be important and beneficial to communicate doubt to their members—a revelation that surprised many participants about their own leadership style. Why the apparent surprise? One possible explanation is that leaders were espousing a societal *Discourse* (i.e., ways of talking) about leadership trust (i.e., trust is an incontestable good) without critically analyzing their initial assumptions (see also Tracy & Rivera, 2010). Yet, when asked to reflect upon their own experience they realized doubt's instrumental role in their own effective leadership *discourse* (i.e., communication; Alvesson & Karreman, 2000; Bisel & Barge, 2011; Fairhurst & Putnam, 2004).

Fourth, the LMTM demonstrates how leaders seek to develop and maintain confidence in their role expectations of members' task competence through a process partially defined by doubt. Five of the six phases (i.e., selection, probation, escalation, jeopardy, termination) of the LMTM include leader skepticism of member competence. Even when members reach the confederation phase, many interviewees reported the benefit of continuing to communicate a sense of accountability to confederated members (i.e., a threat of doubt). These leaders' insight resonates with Weick and Sutcliffe's (2007) recommendation that leaders should raise doubts of members to increase information processing and member mindfulness (see also Langer, 1989). In other words, according to these participants, if members are held accountable, members are challenged to maintain their role routine and avoid mindlessness in performing their role.

Fifth, and similarly, the LMTM demonstrates how leaders' doubt of members' task competence has useful organizational functions and outcomes. Research demonstrates trust present in organizational relationships (i.e., between leader and member) produces organizational cultures which enhance decision-making effectiveness

and overall communication satisfaction (Hurley, 2006; Rantz, 2002). This investigation resonates with the notion of productive trust; however, the findings from this investigation also challenge that notion: If members are not challenged (i.e., doubt or the threat of doubt), they may become susceptible to mindlessness and groupthink (Langer, 1989; Lewicki et al., 1998), encouraging the emergence of lax and complacent culturing.

Leader-member exchange (LMX). The present research contributes to the LMX literature in three notable ways through the proposed LMTM. First, the LMTM demonstrates how role expectation and role ambiguity are co-present in leader-member relationship development. For example, the probation and jeopardy phases of the LMTM indicate that the outcome of leaders' communication of expectations to members may not necessarily decrease role ambiguity—as implied by LMX. In these cases, role ambiguity may not be reduced because these moments in relational development play out as a trial-and-error process. Thus, the probation and jeopardy phases illustrate how role expectations can be communicated and understood between leaders and members despite the presence of ambiguities in how roles are enacted.

Second, the LMTM demonstrates how leaders view trust with members as a goal-driven process, similar to the role-socialization process (i.e., LMX). Consistently leaders oriented their initial interview responses about trust to characterizations—crystallized by the confederation phase—in which trust in the leader-member relationship is constructed as maximized and ideal. Through follow-up questioning, five additional phases of leader-member trust were identified. As participants were probed about their assumptions regarding trust and doubt, most recognized retrospectively many of their own communication strategies with members were designed to achieve confederation

through four of those five additional phases. This process implies confederation is a goal of leader-member relational development.

Third, and lastly, the LMTM catalogs the communicative manifestations of leaders' evolving role expectations of members. As LMX posits, leaders are better able to expect and predict communication exchanges between themselves and their members depending upon where they are in the process of defining and developing their roles (i.e., role-taking, role-making, role-routinization; Graen, 1976). The LMTM provides a more descriptive explanation of the communication within the role development process through phases, and its cataloging of what communication behaviors are characteristic of each phase. For example, role-taking could be situated in the selection phase and possibly the probation phase, role- making could occur in either the probation or escalation phase or both, and role-routinization occurs in the confederation phase. Role-taking could project LMX's notion of the member as the "stranger" in the leader-member relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 232). Role-making could project LMX's notion of the member as the "acquaintance" in the leader-member relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, p. 232). Lastly, role-routinization in the confederation phase could project LMX's notion of the member-leader relationship as a "mature partnership" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, p. 232). LMX explains members may not progress through the stranger or acquaintance phases. The LMTM illustrates how a new member after being selected will move to the probation phase. The LMTM further illustrates how members in the probation phase and each phase after could or could not progress to a mature partnership with their leaders.

By situating the role socialization process of LMX (Graen, 1976) within the phases of the LMTM, both leaders and members have the opportunity to better understand the communication behaviors in the role-socialization process presented by Graen. Furthermore, unlike LMX, the LMTM provides an explanation for what happens to leader-member trust *after* leaders and members have reached a "mature partnership" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 230; i.e., the last stage of LMX)—a stage in which trust is maximized. In the LMTM, the "mature partnership" stage is similar to the confederation phase. However, the LMTM explains leader-member trust three steps beyond confederation by explaining the communication behaviors indicative of leader-member trust after it has been maximized through the jeopardy phase, potential redemption path, and the termination phase.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study, like all studies, has limitations. Specifically, all participants provided their own definitions and operationalizations of trust and doubt. Participants used these self-provided definitions and operationalizations to answer questions regarding how they communicate trust and doubt to their members. Consequently, there was not a standard definition of trust or doubt, which participants referred to in their responses, except for the definitions they provided. However, the findings and interpretations of the current research illustrate all participants' defined trust and doubt similarly enough to create comparability across interviews. Future research could provide participants with scholarly definitions of trust and doubt and compare findings with this research.

Additionally, the sampling procedure may have been limited in that participants' reputations for being effective leaders did not originate from members in every case, but

from leaders' peers and colleagues. Peers' and colleagues' views of these effective leaders may be different than the members who have to interact with the leaders on a day-to-day basis. Future research could solicit members to identify their leaders who have a reputation for being effective.

This research investigated leaders' perspectives of how they come to predict members' role performance (i.e., trust). Accordingly, the research provides the perspective of leaders and not members. Thus, future research could extend the model to take into account both the perspective of the leader and the perspective of the member (e.g., Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura & Gardner, 2009). Both leaders and members could be interviewed to discover if the proposed LMTM remains credible for members.

In the same vein, this inductively-derived model could be used to construct psychometric items for validation purposes (e.g., Butler, 1991). The communication behaviors indicative of each phase could be used to craft items. These items could then be factor analyzed to confirm the distinctiveness of each phase from leaders and members' perspectives (Brown, 2006). A LMTM measure could be coupled with other independent and dependent variable measures. Statistical analyses, such as dyadic-data analysis (see Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006) and Hierarchical Linear Modeling (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) are good candidates for exploring leaders and members perspectives on trust and doubt.

Lastly, research on ethics and communication in the workplace (Ploeger, Kelley, & Bisel, 2011) presents what is called the hierarchical mum effect: Subordinates reluctance to provide negative feedback for fear of harming relationships and identities. Future research could explore if and how leaders' trust of members is a moderator

between these hierarchical relationships and silence, equivocation, indirectness, and keeping mum. Presumably, confederated members will be more direct and less likely to keep mum than members in other phases.

CHAPTER 6

Conclusion

Trust and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory are two popular concepts studied in organizations. This investigation extends trust and LMX literature and introduces a provocative perspective of leadership trust by introducing the Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM), where productive doubt is a key ingredient in communicating, maintaining, and re-gaining trust effectively. The LMTM was developed from the perspective of leaders who have reputations for effectiveness. The LMTM describes how leaders' communicate with their members, specifically about leaders' predictions about their members' role performance, or how they communicate trust and doubt, through six phases (i.e., selection, probation, escalation, confederation, jeopardy, termination). Furthermore, the LMTM catalogs a variety of communication behaviors that align with the phases of the LMTM.

Analysis of interviews with 40 effective leaders from diverse industries revealed there is a tension between a societal *Discourse* of leadership trust (i.e., good and effective leaders trust their members) and the *discourse* of leaders (i.e., what the leaders report actually saying and doing; Giddens, 1979). Trust, when communicated by leaders to members can be both productive and detrimental. Similarly, according to the sample of effective leaders' experiences, doubt can actually prove to be productive and beneficial. In sum, this study reveals how doubt's pervasiveness frames the communication of trust in the leader-member relationship and leaders' predictions of members' role performances.

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Appendix A

Table 1, 2

Figure 1

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Participant	Sex	Industry	Leadership Role[a]	Years and Months in Leadership Role	Training Experience	Award Winning	Number of Persons Reporting to Leader[b]
1	F	Banking	Branch Manager	2	Yes		8
2	M	Education	University Official (Associate Vice President for Alumni Affairs & Executive Director of Alumni Association)	2	Yes	Yes	10
3	M	Clergy	Campus Pastor	1 and 5 months	Yes	Yes	3
4	F	Retail	District Manager of Clothing Store	15	Yes	Yes	150
5	M	Public Safety	Sheriff	1 and 6 months	Yes	Yes	145
6	M	Non-profit	Director of Ministry Organization	14	Yes	Yes	10
7	F	Business	CEO & President	22 and 6 months	Yes	Yes	40
8	M	Education	Director of Archive Center	6			6

9	F	Social / Philanthropy	President of a Social Collegiate Organization	7 months	Yes	Yes	23
10	F	Non-profit	Executive Director	6 months	Yes		33
11	F	Legal	Partner & Shareholder in Law Firm, President of Organization Boards of Directors, City Attorney, Associate District Judge	20	Yes	Yes	75-100
12	F	Food	Manager of a Food Market	1			5
13	M	Business	Owner of Limited Liability Company (LLC) & Managing Member	30	Yes	Yes	10
14	M	Business	President of Subcontracting Company	4	Yes	Yes	45

15	F	Education	Director of Special Education Services	15			10
16	M	Military	Colonel (Retired), Special Forces, United States Army	34	Yes	Yes	2,500
17	F	Business	Owner of Printing Company & Head of Sales & Marketing	15			5
18	M	Restaurant	Owner & Operator	6			40
19	F	Human Resources	Owner of Personnel Services & Staffing Firm	24		Yes	10
20	M	Banking	Regional Manager	7	Yes	Yes	10
21	M	Banking	Branch President	9	Yes	Yes	9
22	M	Real Estate	Owner of Real Estate Appraising Company	15	Yes	Yes	7
23	M	Clergy	Senior Pastor	3 and 6 months	Yes		8

24	F	Business	Owner of Printing Company / Corporate Production Control Manager & Plant Production Manager of Greeting Card Company	18 / 15	Yes	Yes	7 / 930
25	M	Retail / Education	Manager of Costume & Toy Store / Christian School Board Director	12 / 6	Yes		2-15 / 10 & 26[c]
26	M	Transportation	Owner of Limousine Business	20	Yes	Yes	45
27	F	Education	University Dean	4	Yes	Yes	60
28	F	Medical	Chief Resident	1	Yes	Yes	15
29	F	Clergy	Associate Minister	42 and 6 months	Yes	Yes	33
30	M	Retail	Owner & Manager of Retail Store	20	Yes	Yes	60
31	M	Retail	Manager of Furniture Store	35			11

32	F	Education	Director of a Private School	29	Yes	Yes	40
33	M	Medical	Owner & Medical Director of Medical Practice	6	Yes		12
34	M	Real Estate	President of Commercial Real Estate Business	10	Yes	Yes	10
35	M	Education	Middle School Principal	4	Yes	Yes	23
36	F	Food Service	Director & Manager of Catering Company	15	Yes		15
37	M	Media Production	Co-owner & Executive Producer of Media Production Company	11	Yes	Yes	14
38	F	Natural Gas	President & CEO of Natural Gas Marketing Company	20		Yes	40
39	F	Medical	Veterinary Business Manager	6 months	Yes	Yes	11

40	F	Insurance	Owner of Small Insurance Business	9	Yes	Yes	6
Totals	19 F 21 M			527 Years	32 Yes 8 No	28 Yes 12 No	

Note.

[a]Leaders responded to questions regarding their current role, or the accumulation of current and previous leadership roles.

[b]In most cases leaders reported the number of individuals who directly report(ed) to them. In some cases, leaders provided the sum total of those who directly and indirectly report(ed) to them. If leaders discussed multiple leadership roles the sum of individuals who report(ed) to them in the different roles was indicated; or, it is clearly labeled how many individuals reported to them in each role.

[c]Participant 25 reported there are, "10 people on the board that have equal voting power, and so we oversee the head administrator and then there's about 25."

Table 2

Phases of Trust in the Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM)

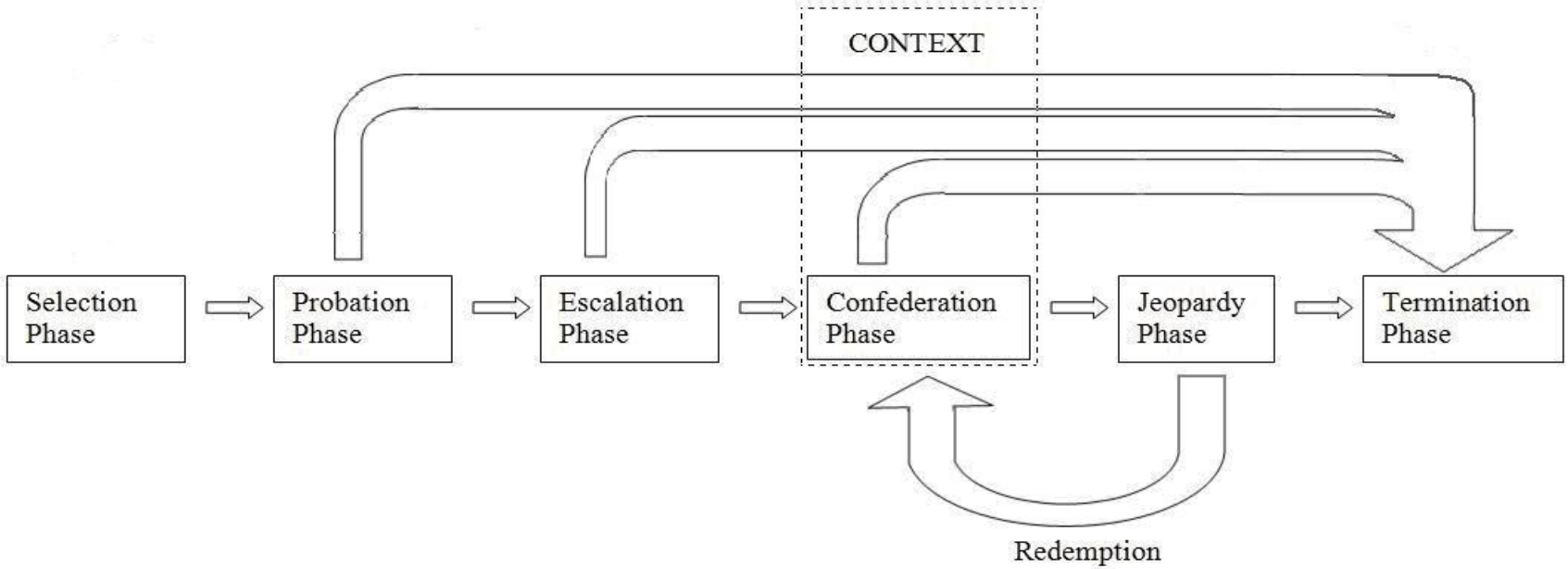
Phases	Defining Features	Communication Behaviors of Leader
Selection	Trust granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's evaluation of the member's movement through a vetting process. Trust is provisional, and contingent upon the member's continued performance. The vetting process relies upon two forms of evidence: self- (e.g., interview, testing, credentials, resume) and other-supplied (e.g., word-of-mouth, references, reputation, social networks) support of trustworthiness. The selection phase always precedes the probation phase.	∴ Explicit questioning ∴ Critical listening ∴ Verification of task-related abilities
Probation	Trust granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's observation of the member's initial and early performances of the duties for which the member was selected. Trust grows through a process of scrutiny and close evaluation. If leaders come to interpret the member's day-to-day tasks performance as deficient, doubt of the member's ability to complete the assigned tasks emerges. The probation phase always follows the selection phase, and always precedes the escalation phase. However, the probation phase can also proceed to the termination phase.	∴ Instruction of procedures ∴ Frequent and close evaluations ∴ Observation ∴ Listening ∴ Large volume of dialogue (frequency, duration, intensity) ∴ Micro-managing ∴ Misunderstandings common and expected

Escalation	Trust granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's observation of the member's consistent performances of the duties for which the member was selected. Trust grows beyond the probation phase. Trust is in the process of being worked out in that the leader experiments by giving the member more responsibilities in order to reduce the leader's uncertainty regarding the predictability of the member's performance. The escalation phase may be brief. The escalation phase always follows the probation phase, and always precedes the confederation phase. However, the escalation phase can also precede the termination phase.	∴ Experimentation with frequent delegation ∴ Experimentation with complex delegation ∴ Periodic evaluations
Confederation	Trust granted by the leader to the member, warranted by the leader's observation of the member's solidified skill set. Trust is achieved while also being maintained in this phase. Trust is achieved in that the leader knows and is able to predict the member's acceptable performance behaviors consistently and accurately over time. Trust is maintained in that the leader continues to approve and validate the member's acceptable performance behaviors. The confederation phase always follows the escalation phase, and precedes the jeopardy phase. However, the confederation phase can also precede the termination phase.	∴ Diminished volume and frequency of task- related messaging ∴ Communicate more relationally ∴ Allow self-management
Jeopardy	Trust is partially denied by the leader to the member, triggered by the leader's observation of the member's failure to perform consistently. Trust is mostly withdrawn; however, in a sense, trust partially characterizes the leader's predictability of the member. Doubt in the member's ability to perform duties consistently is present. The leader removes and withholds responsibility from the member because the leader predicts the member will perform poorly; however, redemption remains possible. When redemption is achieved, the member returns to	∴ Re-evaluate expectations ∴ Micro-managing ∴ Reduce amount of delegation and responsibilities ∴ Critical observations

	the confederation phase. The jeopardy phase always follows the confederation phase, and precedes the termination phase.	
Termination	Trust is completely denied by the leader to the member, triggered by the leader's observation of the member's failure to redeem the leader's belief in the member's ability to perform his or her responsibilities. Trust in the member's ability to perform assigned duties is lost. Trust is not easily regained. Termination can follow the probation, escalation, or jeopardy phases.	∴ Discursive closure

Figure 1

Leader-to-Member Trust Model (LMTM)



Appendix B

Interview Protocol

Interview Questions:

1) What is your current position at your organization?
    a) How long have you been working for the organiza
    b) How long have you been in your current position?
    c) Did you work at this organization prior to your leadership position?
        i) If so, what was that position?
    d) What are your responsibilities in your current position?
        i) How many individuals report to you?
        ii) How many individuals do you oversee?
    e) Is your current position in the organization considered a leadership position?

2) Is trust important in your work life?
    a) How so?

3) Is it important for you to trust your employees?
    a) Please explain.

4) How does your behavior (in the workplace) encourage or influence your employees to trust you?
    a) Please explain.

5) How does your behavior (in the workplace) encourage or influence your employees to doubt you?
    a) Please explain.

6) Is it ever important for you to distrust your employees?
    a) If so, why?
    b) If so, could you please provide an example of a time and situation of this?

7) Would it ever be important for your employees to distrust you?
    a) If so, why?
    b) If so, could you please provide an example of a time and situation of this?

8) Would it ever be important to doubt your employees?
    a) If so, why?
    b) If so, could you please provide an example of a time and situation of this?

9) Would it ever be important for your employees to doubt you?
    a) If so, why?
    b) If so, could you please provide an example of a time and situation of this?

10) In your position in your current organization, how do communicate or demonstrate that you trust those you oversee?

a) Could you please provide an example of how you have communicated or demonstrated trust with those who you oversee in the workplace? Please do not include the real names of the individuals involved.

11) How is the trust built or obtained between you and your employees?

a) Could you please provide an example of how trust was built/obtained between you and your employees, excluding the names of the parties involved?

b) How is this trust maintained?

12) Can you think of a time you lost trust with an individual you oversee, how was trust lost?

a) Was the trust re-gained? If so, how?

13) Can you think of a time an employee of yours lost trust in you, how was trust lost?

a) Was the trust re-gained? If so, how?

14) Can you tell me about a time when trust was taken advantage of in the workplace and explain what happened? Don't worry about including the names of the individuals involved.

15) How do you know that those you oversee trust you?

a) How do they communicate and demonstrate this?

b) Can you think of a time someone lost trust in you as the leader, how was the trust lost?

i) Was the trust re-gained? If so, how?

16) How might you know when you should stop trusting an employee of yours?

a) What messages from the employees encourage you to think this?

b) What behaviors of the employees encourage you to think this?

17) How might employees know when they should stop trusting you?

a) What messages from you encourage them to think this?

b) What behaviors of yours encourage them to think this?

18) Is there anything else you like to add about trust and leadership or any of the topics brought up during the interview?

19) When the transcription of this interview is ready to be reviewed how would you prefer to be contacted—via email or phone? When I contact you we will decide where you would like to retrieve the transcribed interview and your debriefing form.

Appendix C

Revised Interview Protocol

Interview Questions:

1) What is your current position at your organization?
    a) How long have you been working for the organization?
    b) How long have you been in your current position?
    c) Did you work at this organization prior to your leadership position?
        i) If so, what was that position?
    d) What are your responsibilities in your current position?
        i) How many individuals report to you?
        ii) How many individuals do you oversee?
    e) How is your current position in the organization considered a leadership position?

2) What is valued in your workplace?
    a) How is that communicated by you?
    b) How is that communicated by others?

3) Is trust important in your workplace?
    a) How so?
    b) How is this communicated?
    c) By whom is it communicated?

4) How do you define trust?
    a) Is trust important in your work life?
    b) How so?

5) How do individuals construct trust in their communication behavior?

6) What are words and metaphors you associate with trust?

7) When an employee of yours knows that you trust him/her, what have you done or said that created that impression?
    a) Please explain.
    b) What message did you send? How did you make this judgment?
    c) What factored into this impression formation?/What led up to this?
    d) How do employees respond to this?
        - Could you please provide an example?

8) How is the trust built or obtained between you and your employees?
    a) Could you please provide an example of how trust was built/obtained between you and your employees, excluding the names of the parties involved?
    b) How is this trust maintained?

9) Have you ever lost trust in someone? How was this trust regained?
    a) Please explain.

10) Can you think of a time you lost trust in one of your employees, how was trust lost?
    a) Was the trust re-gained? If so, how?
    b) What messages were sent?
    c) What factored in or led up to this loss of trust?
    d) What is it have never been addressed? What would have happened?

11) How do you define doubt?

12) How do you define distrust?

13) How do individuals construct doubt in their communication behavior?

14) When an employee knows you doubt them what have you done that created that impression?
    a) Please explain.
    b) What message did you send? How did you make this judgment?
    c) What factored into this impression formation?/What led up to this?
    d) How do employees respond to this?
        - Could you please provide an example?

15) What are other words or metaphors that you associate with doubt?

16) Would it ever be important to doubt your employees?
    a) If so, why?
    b) If so, could you please provide an example of a time and situation of this?

17) Can you tell me about a time when trust was taken advantage of in the workplace and explain what happened? Don't worry about including the names of the individuals involved.
    a) What messages were sent to lead up to this?
    b) What happened as a result?

18) How might you know when you should stop trusting an employee of yours?
    a) What has led up to this?
    b) What messages from the employees encourage you to think this?
    c) What behaviors of the employees encourage you to think this?

19) How might employees know when they should stop trusting you?
    a) What has led up to this?
    b) What messages from you encourage them to think this?
    c) What behaviors of yours encourage them to think this?

20) Is there anything else you like to add about trust and leadership or any of the topics brought up during the interview?

21) When the transcription of this interview is ready to be reviewed how would you prefer to be contacted—via email or phone? When I contact you we will decide where you would like to retrieve the transcribed interview and your debriefing form.