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Trust in Union Leaders and Decline in Union Membership

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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Seth Francois

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Walden University 2017

Abstract

Trust in Union Leaders and Decline in Union Membership

by

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MA, National University, 2003

BS, University of Phoenix, 2001

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

October 2017

Abstract

As of 2015, public opinion of the ethical and honesty standards of labor union leaders was low, with 36% of the public reporting a low or very low rating, and only 18% reporting high or very high ratings. Grounded in leadership behavioral theory, the purpose of this correlation study was to examine the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. Forty-four union members completed a brief demographic survey, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire XII, and the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. The results of simultaneous linear regression indicated that model as a whole was able to significantly predict union members' perceptions of leadership trust, F(2,41) = 10.40, p < .001, $R^2 = .30$. Leadership consideration was the only significantly predictor of union members' perceptions of leadership trust, $\beta = .62$, t = 3.23, p = .002. The results may have significance for social change; union leaders can implement leadership consideration to improve the trust levels of members towards union leaders. Further social change implications include the potential to increase union membership. Moreover, society benefits when strong labor unions can provide a pathway to checks and balances that subsequently may improve employees working conditions, worker's pay, local economy, and produce higher quality goods and services.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this study to my Mom, Fabiola Francois, and my two sons, Joshua and Joseth.

Acknowledgments

I would like to give a special thanks to Dr. Roussas for guiding me to the finish line. Dr. Roussas was not only my Chair, he was also an advocate, navigator, and inspiration. I also would like to thank Dr. Mike Ewald and Dr. Reginald Taylor for the excellent feedback provided. This has been an amazing journey. I would like to thank Dr. Judy Blando for mentoring my progress through the initial proposal phase, and Dr. Charlene Dunfee assisting me with the initial aligning of Section 1 and 2. Thanks to my wonderful Mom, Fabiola Francois for all of her support and encouragement along with my two sons, Joshua and Joseth.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Background of the Problem

Mistrust has been part of the culture of labor unions throughout history, a mistrust often stemming from relations with organized crime. In the past, misconduct in labor unions has included racketeering, lack of accountability of union officials, bribery, embezzlement, falsification of business records, and election fraud (Jacobs, 2013). Union members tend to be less trusting of leadership both within their workplace and in the union (Chang, O'Neill, & Travaglione, 2016; Jacobs, 2013). For unions, this mistrust is problematic, because strong identification with the union increases the likelihood a union member will participate in union activities, such as strikes (Born, Akkerman, & Torenvlied, 2013). Lack of trust interferes with social identification with a union (Born et al., 2013; Coombs & Cebula, 2011).

Therefore, these types of misconduct on the part of union leaders correlated to the decline in union membership (Coombs & Cebula, 2011). Between 1983 and 2013, union membership in American has declined 8.8%, constituting a loss of 3.3 million union members (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Prior researchers pointed to leader misconduct and members' erosion of leadership trust as a cause of the loss of union membership (Coombs & Cebula, 2011). Union leaders require strategies that will increase trust and therefore decrease the amount of people leaving unions.

Effective leadership sets the tone for union members' organizational trust, which can determine union enrollment (Chathoth, Mak, Sim, Jauhari, & Manaktola, 2011).

Contingent leadership, especially combining transactional and transformational

leadership, has emerged as an effective method of managing members (Fiedler, 1964; Jo, Lee, Lee, & Hahn, 2015; Piccolo et al., 2012; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Two factors that may facilitate the development of trust are leadership initiation of structure and leadership consideration (Jo et al., 2015; Piccolo et al., 2012).

Problem Statement

Lack of leadership trust may reduce members' involvement and participation in an organization (Timming, 2012). As of 2015, public opinion of the ethical and honesty standards of labor union leaders was low, with 36% of the public reporting a low or very low rating, and only 18% reporting high or very high (Gallup, 2015). The general business problem is that union leaders are failing to create an environment of trust through their leadership practices. The specific business problem is that some union leaders do not understand the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of union leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perception of leadership trust.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The independent variables were union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration and union members' perceptions of leaders' initiation of structure. The dependent variable was union members' leadership trust. The specific population was comprised of union members in the United States.

The implications for positive social change include the potential for union leaders to foster sustainable membership growth, organizational profits, and increased member engagement though representation (Fusch & Gillespie, 2012).

Nature of the Study

The study involved implementation of a quantitative method because the goal was to examine statistically significant effects of quantifiable concepts (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Qualitative researchers explore in depth and extensive themes (Howell, 2012). Therefore, the qualitative method was not appropriate because the intent of this study was to explore the relationship between numerical variables. Therefore, the qualitative method was not appropriate because the intent of this study was to explore the relationship between numerical variables. The focus of this research was to investigate the relationship between leadership qualities and trust.

James and Slater (2014) detailed the quantitative method uses variables, universal measurements, and numbers and specific measurements. The qualitative method was not appropriate for the present study because qualitative research had the potential for researcher bias, misinterpretation of collected data, problems with generalizability, and participants choosing to drop out of the research study. In qualitative studies, researcher bias can also pose a threat to data collection and interpretation (Smith & Noble, 2014). The mixed-methods approach requires interviews and creating themes that would cause similar delays as the qualitative method. Mixed-methods research was plausible; however, it required the use of two methods (Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013). These delays could increase the cost of performing the study and would not necessarily enhance

the outcome.

I used a correlational design for the present study because this analysis established relationships between the variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). I examined the relationship between a union member's trust in union leadership and their leaders' decision-making, policy creation, direct and indirect interaction, organizational structure, and inaction. Pallant (2013) suggested a comparative approach was not appropriate for the examination of relationships among variables. Ruling out a comparative design also eliminated the experimental or quasiexperimental designs, based on the determination of group differences (Pallant, 2013). A correlational design eliminated the ability to track relationships through time, and excluded the possibility of longitudinal research (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Research Question

What is the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust?

Hypotheses

Null Hypotheses (H_0): There is no relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Alternative Hypotheses (H_1): There is a relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Theoretical Framework

Leadership behavioral theory provided the theoretical framework for this study. The study of leadership traits and behavior began in the 1930s with John B. Watson framing behaviorism as an environment that shapes the habits of people (Kreshel, 1990). Leadership behavior theory included principles for behaviors of leaders who are successful (Malik, 2012). Each leadership style produced a different effect on the same group (Malik, 2012). This theory began as the trait paradigm and later formed a new paradigm of leadership behavior (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011).

The leadership trait theory centered on different personality characteristics of leaders and nonleaders. Stogdill (1959), a leading behavioral leadership theorist, believed a single personality trait does not translate into effective leaders. Yukl (2012) suggested the effectiveness of a leader depended on certain behavioral schemes contingent on the needs of the followers. Skills, personality traits, values, or a leader's roles were not synonymous with leadership behavior; instead, a leader must employ different strategies depending on the behavior he or she is involved in, including task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external behaviors (Yukl, 2012).

Leadership behavior theory was applicable to this study because the study examined the relationship between leadership behaviors and trust, and leadership behavior theory outlines various leadership approaches that could affect member trust and participation. According to leadership behavioral theory, the motivational function of the leader was to increase rewards and reduce detriment to goal attainment, thereby increasing the members' opportunities for personal satisfaction (Malik, 2012).

Through leadership behavior theory, the study results added to the body of knowledge of various leadership approaches that may affect members' trust in leaders and participation. To examine union members' perceptions of union leadership behaviors, I utilized the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII–Ideal Leader(LBDQ). The LBDQ includes 12 constructs of leadership and they are:

- Representation: The leader's ability to represent the group through speech and actions.
- Demand reconciliation: The leader's ability to compromise among members to reduce systematic conflicts.
- Tolerance of uncertainty: The leader's emotional ability to address organizational insecurity or delays effectively.
- Persuasiveness: The leader's ability to convince or persuade followers with conviction.
- Initiation of structure: The leader's definition of his or her role and expectation-setting skills.
- Tolerance and freedom: The leader's mindset and the extent to which followers have agency within an organization.
- Role assumption: The leader's ability to take on leadership tasks and roles,
 rather than passing them on to others.
- Consideration: The leader's regard for followers' emotions, input, and status within the organization.
- Production emphasis: The leader's focus on productivity from followers.

- Predictive accuracy: The leader's ability to have accurate knowledge of the outcomes of actions.
- Integration: The leader's resolution and maintenance of organization members' relationships.
- Superior orientation: The leader's ambition to move up in the organization, as demonstrated by his or her strong relationships with superiors within the organization.

In this study, I used leadership consideration and initiation of structure as variables. Leadership consideration is a transformational behavior, whereas leadership initiation of structure is transactional (Derue et al., 2011). Various researchers have examined these variables and determined they are effective in leadership situations (Derue et al., 2011; Green, Rodriguez, Wheeler, & Baggerly, 2015; Stogdill, 1953). Some researchers proposed situations could require leaders to display both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors, depending on the requirements of the situation (Derue et al., 2011; Fiedler, 1964). Others proposed leadership consideration and initiation of structure were the two most important dimensions of leadership (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Tracy, 1987). Jo et al. (2015) specifically found leadership initiation of structure and consideration significantly contributed to follower trust. Therefore, I will examine these two constructs with respect to union members' trust in leadership.

Operational Definitions

Agency shops: An agency shop is a union security agreement where employees may join or not join the union (Lam & Harcourt, 2007).

Behavior integrity: Behavior integrity is the alignment of a person's words and actions perceived by another person (Kannan-Narasimhan & Lawrence, 2012).

Closed shops: Closed shops are workplaces that require union membership to gain employment (Lam & Harcourt, 2007).

Fair share: Fair share refers to the process by which a person pays a fee to the union by nonmembers of a bargaining unit who have not joined the union (Malin, 2013).

Labor racketeer: Labor racketeer is a person enriching self and associates to achieve dominance, influence, and control (Schloenhardt, 2012).

Management-established representation systems: A management-established representation system is a system that integrates management-established representation systems into corporate structure so employees do not seek outside representation from union established systems (Devinatz, 2011a).

Trade union: Trade unions are organizations whose leaders support the rights of workers politically, in bargaining, in contract enforcement, and in public opinion (Ahamed, 2012).

Unionism: Unionism is the collective action of people to create equity on the worksite (Devinatz, 2013).

Union shop: Union shop is a place of business where leadership requires employees to join the union after accepting employment (Lam & Harcourt, 2007).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are facts assumed to be true with respect to the study that are not verifiable (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The assumptions of the study are:

- 1. Study participants were literate and coherent.
- 2. Study participants were honest, credible, and able to complete the data collection instruments.
- 3. Study participants were fluent in the English language.
- 4. Third parties, not part of the study, would not interfere, seize, or try to manipulate participants' responses.

Limitations

Limitations are weaknesses of a study outside of the researcher's control (Ellis & Levy, 2009). Potential weaknesses, identified as limitations of the present study were:

- Time constraints affecting results because attitudes of members changed during certain events, such as political seasons, contract negotiations, and the state of the economy.
- 2. The survey was in English at a sixth-grade level, which may have limited participation if a member only understood English at a lower level.
- Correlational studies only suggest a relationship between variables; they do not predict causation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Pagano, 2009).
- 4. The validity of the LBDQ limited the results to measurement of behavioral traits in leaders.

The validity of the organizational trust inventory, developed in 1996 by
 Cummings and Bromiley, and validated by Andreescu and Vito (2010) limited
 the results.

Delimitations

Ellis and Levy (2009) defined delimitations as boundaries to the study the researcher must define. The delimitations of the study were as follows.

Within the scope of research of the study:

- 1. Participation included only union members in the United States.
- 2. The focus of the study included blue-collar, pink-collar, and white-collar union workers who worked in a union job and paid dues to the union.
- 3. Participation included only individuals who possessed computer skills, Internet service, and access to a working computer to take the online survey.
- 4. The focus of the study included responses from members, ages 18 years and older, of a union.
- 5. The focus of the study included responses from members having one year or more union membership.

Outside the scope of the study:

- 6. Although there were union members in many places in the world, this study was confined to the United States.
- 7. The focus of the study did not include union members holding executive positions within an organization nor was the focus be on union leaders working in a paid position in the union.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

The study contributed to improving business practices by enhancing a leader's awareness of how his or her actions affect the level of trust from those they lead. Leaders exhibiting consideration and sincere caring for those their authority could yield a higher commitment to the leader, thus presenting the potential to improve the results of an organization (Piccolo et al., 2012). A leader's understanding of leadership initiation of structure, setting clear objectives and roles for self, and others working under his or her leadership could increase leadership trust and significantly decrease lag time, increase productivity, and allow the voice of members (Fusch & Gillespie, 2012). For an organization relying on membership as a driver of revenue, the research data could be a tool for executive leaders to identify issues affecting trust within an organization and subsequently reverse the membership enrollment.

Implications for Social Change

The social change implications of the study included benefits for union leaders.

Union leaders lack understanding regarding how leadership actions and behaviors affect the social climate among union members. Positive social change resulting from the study include a union leader's ability to interact with members through building trust, respecting members, and building strong leadership to provide protection of workers' rights. Positive social change, for unions, means effectual leadership that contributes to sustainable membership growth. Such leadership increases organizational profits, which in turn leads to increased member engagement though representation (Fusch & Gillespie,

2012). Strong labor union is a form of checks and balances to ensure workers have a fair and safe working environment and fair wage. Strong unions may create high productivity, efficiency, and greater profitability. Society benefits may benefit when workers receive increase wages this may improve local economies and produce higher quality goods. Increased leaders' commitment and trust may reverse outsourcing of American jobs.

Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine if a relationship existed between the independent variables of leadership consideration and leadership initiation of structure and the dependent variable, leadership trust. Through the study, I tested the following research question

What is the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust?

Null Hypotheses (H_0): There is no relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Alternative Hypotheses (H_1): There is a relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

I reviewed current literature containing empirical research in the relevant areas, which appear in a wide range of publications, including *Journal of Occupational and*

Organizational Psychology, Human Resource Management Journal, Leadership

Quarterly, Journal of Banking and Finance, Academy of Management and Learning and

Education, The IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior, Journal of Organizational

Behavior, and Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship. The process for identifying

articles involved the use of searches conducted through Google Scholar with a preference

for peer-reviewed journals, and through Internet searches engines, such as Google and

Scirus, with a filter applied for peer-reviewed journals. Additionally, once completing

the identification of key authors, I reviewed the corpus of their work and works cited by

those authors for other relevant research. A review of additional journals involved the

same scrutiny, especially in specifically themed issues, for other relevant work.

The literature compiled for this review occurred through comprehensive online library search methods. The use of a librarian for assistance helped to determine the best search method and to generate ideas regarding keywords to search. Among the journal databases searched, those generated the most applicable results were JSTOR, EBSCO, PubMed, ScienceDirect, Wiley, SAGE, and Elsevier. The process included searches of a multitude of other databases as well. Prior to generating the returns, I selected the *peer-reviewed* feature, ensuring the literature generated would fit this designation.

I developed a structure of the Application to the Applied Business Problem as follows: a restatement of the envisioned study's purpose statement and hypotheses, an analysis of the literature of the theoretical framework, and an examination of the literature pertaining to the variables and measurements of the envisioned study as provided in the purpose statement. To ensure thoroughness, the literature review includes

citation of 60 relevant articles. In addition, 53 of these articles (88.3%) have publication dates after 2012, and all 60 (100%) were peer reviewed.

Application to the Applied Business Problem

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The independent variables were union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration and union members' perceptions of leaders' initiation of structure. The dependent variable was union members' leadership trust. The specific population was comprised of union members in the United States. The study might contribute to social change by providing knowledge to encourage effectual leadership that contributes to sustainable membership growth, organizational profits, and increased member engagement through representation (Fusch & Gillespie, 2012).

Hypotheses

Null Hypotheses (H_0): There is no relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Alternative Hypotheses (H_1): There is a relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Theoretical Framework

The study of effective leadership began in the 1930s with Watson (1930) publishing work on behaviorism. Stogdill (1959), who noted observable behaviors instead of personality traits determine criteria for effective leadership, later expanded Watson's (1930) study. Through a quantitative study, Stogdill examined skills rather than traits. He ushered a trend in leadership study to focus on behaviors rather than the personality of leaders. Behaviorism, as studied by Stogdill, began as the trait paradigm and later emerged in new forms of leadership behavior (Derue et al., 2011).

This emphasis on leadership behavior led to the development of various theories, including Fiedler's (1964) contingency theory, which holds group performance is contingent on the interaction of leadership styles and situations favorable to the leader. Fiedler used the Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC), which applies to leaders or potential leaders and measures to what extent they are human relationship-oriented (high LPC) or task-oriented (low LPC). In the quantitative study, Fiedler used the LPC scale to construct a model to measure how much situational control or effectiveness a leader had based on three components: (a) leader-member relations or mutual trust, (b) task structure outlined for the group, and (c) the extent of power the leader has over followers. House (1977) formulated a similar theory, charismatic leadership, also focusing on leaders' skills instead of personality traits. House (1996) later reformulated the theory as pathgoal theory. These two theories were seminal in developing contingency theory (Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011).

Yukl (2012) built upon the studies of Pires da Cruz, Nunes, and Pinheiro (2011), Fiedler (1964), and House (1977, 1996) regarding leadership personality traits, using a review of the literature to classify leadership behavior with four metacategories. Yukl's method consisted of identifying categories of leadership behavior through a review of the literature to form a hierarchical behavioral taxonomy. The four categories determined through Yukl's analysis were task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external behaviors. Within this hierarchical taxonomy, compatibility between leaders and members were not the most important factor in successful leadership relationships; instead, trust between leader, and members was more indicative of leader effectiveness (Yukl, 2012). Therefore, skills, personality traits, values, or leaders' roles were not necessarily synonymous with effective leadership behavior (Yukl, 2012). These findings are consistent with the idea that effective leaders' behaviors are contingent upon the situation (Fiedler, 1964).

In a similar study, Chan and Mak (2014) examined leadership trust using a structured questionnaire survey to collect data from 218 employees in a service-oriented, private firm in China. Consistent with Yukl's (2012) assessment, they found trust in leader mediated the relationship between servant leadership and subordinates' job satisfaction. Chathoth et al. (2011) also found effective leadership sets the tone for union members' organizational trust in the service industry, as the researchers examined hotel employees on the West coast of the United States and from a major metropolitan area in India using a nonrandom sampling technique. The sample from India came from four 5-star hotels and the sample from the United States consisted of employees from 5-star

hotels, 4-star hotels, and 3-star hotels. From the findings, Chathoth et al. suggested organizational trust was similar among individualist and collectivist cultures. Employees perceived trust to be comprised of integrity, commitment, and dependability (Chathoth et al., 2011). Chan and Mak's (2014) included only participants in China, whereas Chathoth et al. (2011) sampled individuals in the United States and India. Chan and Mak and Chathoth et al. utilized quantitative survey designs.

Malik (2012), like Yukl (2012) and Chan and Mak (2014) examined a combination of innate traits and learned behaviors. Malik conducted a study using a quantitative, correlational design to examine 200 employees in various jobs in the cellular industry as well as 50 managers and supervisors (Malik, 2012). Malik determined the motivational function of the leader is necessary to increase payoffs for subordinates for goal attainment as well as to reduce roadblocks and pitfalls, thereby increasing the opportunities of personal satisfaction. Malik further developed leadership theory, but instead of focusing on leadership trust like Yukl, he noted the right leadership style for followers was most appropriate for best leadership outcomes. Malik's findings built on the work of Chan and Mak (2014) and Chathoth et al. (2011) by including leaders in the sample; in addition, Malik assessed the leader's function was to motivate employees through personal satisfaction, which Yukl linked to trust.

Conversely, some researchers have solely focused on a singular leadership style, assuming it is the most effective (Benoliel & Somech, 2014; Boies, Fiset, & Gill, 2015; Newman, Kiazad, Miao, & Cooper, 2014). For example, to assess the relationships among transformational leadership, team performance, and creativity, Boies et al. (2015)

collected data from 70 male and 67 female students from a large Canadian university. The researchers placed participants in 44 teams (11 teams made up of 2 people, 29 teams comprised of three people, and 7 teams comprised of 4 people; Boies et al., 2015). Individuals then constructed intricate structures out of building blocks, and associated instructions that the researchers assigned a point value. Boies et al. subsequently assessed the correlations between performance and leadership style, as well as the mediating factors within these relationships.

Boies et al. (2015) found communication within teams was an important element to build trust in teams as it relates to transformational leadership. The Boies et al. study is relevant because the researchers identified the importance of leadership and team trust, built within the team framework. A lack of communication may affect the development of team trust. Boies et al. suggested trust built by team members' interactions and communication among each other influences team performance; thus, Boies et al. noted the failure to establish trust through leadership, as determined by Chan and Mak (2014) and Chathoth et al. (2011) might influence the performance of an organization. Nonetheless, unlike Chan and Mak (2014), Chathoth et al. (2011), Boies et al. conducted their study outside of an organizational setting.

Similar to Boies et al. (2015), Benoliel and Somech (2014) examined participative leadership; instead of focusing on trust in the leader, they focused on personality using the five-factor personality model typology. Focusing on the five dimensions of personality posited by the five-factor model openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Benoliel and Somech found personality has an effect on

effective leadership. The researchers collected data from 153 randomly chosen schoolteachers and their supervisors at 153 elementary schools in Israel, chosen from 1,784 elementary schools (Benoliel & Somech, 2014). Benoliel and Somech used hierarchical regression analyses to show the personality dimensions of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism served as moderators in the relation between participative leadership, employee performance, and psychological strain. The researchers pointed to the necessity of including personality factors when considering the effect of participative leadership on employee outcomes (Benoliel & Somech, 2014). However, Boies et al. used correlational analysis and studied transformational leadership style, whereas Benoliel and Somech used hierarchical regression analyses and examined participative leadership style.

I critiqued approaches such as Benoliel and Somech's (2014), Boies et al.'s (2015), and Hannah, Sumanth, Lester, and Cavarretta (2014). I then conducted a review and critical evaluation of literature regarding new and traditional leadership theories. Benoliel and Somech's and Boies et al. and Hannah et al. noted a shift in the last few decades of leadership studies on interpersonal dynamics and newer genre theories. Hannah et al. addressed criticism of these newer genre theories including leadership styles, such as transformational, ethical, and authentic. The researchers also addressed neglected topics, such as leader vision and inspirational messages, transparency, emotional effects, morality, individualized attention, and intellectual stimulation of leaders (Hannah et al., 2014). Instead, Hannah et al. emphasized a contingent approach, such as Fiedler's (1964), which was more effective in judging modern leadership.

Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, and Chang (2012) attempted to bridge research on leader traits and behaviors and found that factors outside of leader behavior contribute to the determination of effective leadership. This confirmed the findings of Yukl (2012), Pires de Cruz et al. (2011) and Malik (2012). Johnson et al. argued leader identity, a combination of innate traits and learned behaviors, is capable of shaping follower behaviors. Johnson et al. also found transformational leadership and leadership consideration behaviors bring followers together, whereas abusive behaviors pushed followers away. The researchers surveyed 55 high-level managers enrolled in a weekend MBA program during a 3-week period at a large U.S. university (Johnson et al., 2012).

Johnson et al. (2012) used multiwave methodology to examine the differential effect of leaders' chronic collective, relational, and individual identities on the frequency of their transformational, consideration, and abusive behaviors. The researchers found leaders' collective and individual identities uniquely related to transformational and abusive behaviors (Johnson et al., 2012). Johnson et al. also observed abusive behaviors were most frequent when a strong individual identity paired with a weak collective identity. The multiwave methodology allowed for collection of data over a specific period of time, rather than a one-time assessment of leadership preferences as in Benoliel and Somech's (2014) and Boies et al.'s (2015) studies.

Ethical behavior from the leader is essential in developing leadership trust and increasing followers' likelihood of performing extra-role behaviors (Newman et al., 2014; Yukl, 2012). Newman et al. (2014) investigated the correlation between ethical leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors of followers. Among 184

supervisor—subordinate dyads from three firms in southeastern China, the researchers found ethical leadership promoted higher return in the areas of affective and cognitive trust (Newman et al., 2014). A mediation correlation of ethical leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors existed in relation to affective and cognitive trust. Newman et al. mentioned affective and cognitive trust plays a significant social exchange role. How workers subject themselves to leaders' demands depends on the actions of the leader and social exchange between leaders and followers. The researchers found a relationship between affective and cognitive trust (Newman et al., 2014). In addition, a positive correlation occurred between ethical leadership and affective leadership trust. Newman et al. also discovered a stronger correlation between ethical leadership and cognitive trust than in the case of ethical leadership and affective trust.

The significance of Newman et al.'s study was a leader's interaction affects trust placement in an organization. Organizations should spend time training managers in ethical leadership, including demonstrating consideration for followers and establishing a clear and consistent structure (Yukl, 2012). However, Newman et al.'s sample consisted of participants in China alone, which like Chan and Mak's (2014) study, may limit the generalizability of the quantitative results to the present study. Conversely, Chathoth et al. (2011) determined trust formed similarly in both collectivist and individualist cultures; therefore, these results may be applicable to the discussion of this study's results.

Independent Variable of Leadership Consideration and its Measurement

The independent variable of leadership consideration is essential, according to Stogdill (1959), to understand the behaviorist approaches to leadership. For this reason,

the present study included the use of the independent variable of leadership consideration. Piccolo et al. (2012) conducted a study using the PsycInfo database (1887–2011), examining leadership consideration in terms of successful leadership behavior and used keywords, such as consideration, initiating structure, transformational leadership, and the four dimensions of transformational leadership to conduct their metaanalysis. Piccolo et al. defined leadership consideration as the degree to which a leader shows concern and respect for followers, protects followers' welfare, and shows appreciation and support; combined with leadership initiation of structure, Piccolo et al. determined this behavior created an effective leader. Analyzing available leadership literature, McCleskey (2014) conducted a qualitative meta-analysis of three seminal leadership theories (situational leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership) and their development using a sampling of articles. The researcher found leadership consideration and transformational leadership were the most important predictors of employee job satisfaction and ratings of leadership effectiveness (McCleskey, 2014), unlike Piccolo et al. (2012), who grouped both variables—leadership consideration and leadership initiation of structure—as portraying effective leadership, contingent on follower maturity rather than leader effectiveness.

In this study, I measured the independent variables using the LBDQ, a tool developed to identify behaviors of effective leaders through evaluation (Stogdill, 1963). The subscale pertaining to the independent variable of leadership consideration consisted of 10 items that addressed the degree to which a leader demonstrates regard for the wellbeing, comfort, and contributions of followers (Stogdill, 1963). I used a transactional

behavior, leadership initiation of structure, and a transformational behavior, leadership consideration. Using those behaviors, the goal was to understand whether contingency leadership, as posited by Fiedler (1964), was appropriate for building trust among union members. This study was built on the work of McCleskey (2014) and Piccolo et al. (2012) by adding new data to address the variable of leadership consideration and its efficacy within union leadership.

Literature relative to the measurement of leadership consideration through the LBDQ has demonstrated its validity in gauging leadership effectiveness (Green et al., 2015; Sgro, Worchel, Pence, & Orban, 1980). For example, Sgro et al. (1980) also used the LBDQ to predict scores on the Rotter Interpersonal Trust Scale (RITS). The researchers conducted a quantitative study using a sample of 149 freshman cadets and 41 cadet leaders in the military corps from two southern universities (Sgro et al., 1980). Sgro et al. determined a significant correlation between leadership consideration and leadership trust. This indicated the LBDQ showed predictive validity, specifically regarding measurements of leadership consideration (Hubley & Zumbo, 1996).

Whereas Sgro et al. (1980) validated the LBDQ through correlative quantitative study; Green et al. (2015) did so through a quantitative meta-analysis of the literature. Green et al. assessed when leadership consideration scores on the LBDQ were high, scores regarding leadership effectiveness were generally also higher. Derue et al. (2011) and Green et al. suggested in general, relationship-oriented behaviors, such as those exhibited by leadership consideration, correspond more closely with leader effectiveness

than are task-oriented behaviors associated with leadership initiation of structure, discussed in the next section.

Independent Variable Leadership Initiation of Structure and its Measurement

Stogdill (1959) identified the independent variable of leadership initiation of structure and its measurement as essential to effective leadership. Through the initiation of structure, leaders clarify the hierarchical structure between the leader and employees (Stogdill, 1959). Piccolo et al. (2012) further examined the variable of leadership initiation of structure by searching the PsycInfo database. According to Judge et al. (2004) and Piccolo et al., leadership initiation of structure is the degree to which a leader defines his or her role and the roles of employees. Leaders who initiate structure tend focus on task and goal attainment and establish clear patterns of communication with followers; thus, leadership initiation of structure is a transactional leadership trait (Derue et al., 2011). These leaders also make an effort to maintain standards for the manner in which work needs accomplished (Piccolo et al., 2012). Piccolo et al. assessed leadership initiation of structure, combined with leadership consideration, resulted in effective leadership. This finding contrasted with other researchers who suggested only transformational leadership behaviors were effective for organizational outcomes (McCleskey, 2014).

Several literature reviews have supported the necessity of including transactional behaviors, like leadership initiation of structure, in models of leadership (Derue et al., 2011; Sokoll, 2014; Yukl, 2012). Yukl (2012) conducted a study compiling four metacategories and 15 specific component behaviors to interpret results in literature to identify

the effectiveness of leadership. Yukl found leaders use change-oriented behaviors, such as leadership initiation of structure, to increase innovation and facilitate change. Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, and Guzman (2010), in an overview of published empirical research on the effect of leaders and leadership styles, suggested a stressed leader's negative behavior can affect employees, but positive leader behavior, which included the variable of leadership initiation of structure, relates to employee well-being and a low degrees of employee stress. Moreover, Sokoll (2014) linked leadership initiation of structure to servant leadership, which had several positive outcomes in Sokoll's (2014) study, including employee commitment to supervisor and high retention.

Further examining established literature on leadership initiation of structure,
Derue et al. (2011) assessed a variety of leadership behaviors, including leadership
initiation of structure, as a method of developing an integrated model of leadership to
account for effectiveness. Specifically, Derue et al. noted universal focus on either
transformational or transactional leadership behaviors left out several key traits that could
contribute to leadership effectiveness. For initiation of structure, a typically transactional
or task-oriented leadership behavior, Derue et al. determined through meta-analysis of 79
previously published articles that leadership initiation of structure predicted group
performance, accounting for 32.9% of the variance in this outcome. Furthermore,
leadership initiation of structure mediated the relationship between leadership
effectiveness and intelligence, between leadership effectiveness and conscientiousness,
and between leadership effectiveness and openness (Derue et al., 2011). Thus, Derue et
al.'s analysis of the previously published literature supported Skakon et al.'s (2010) and

Yukl's (2012) positive assessments of leadership initiation of structure; however, Derue et al. addressed the outcomes of this leadership behavior on group performance.

Conversely, Bosch (2013) determined leadership initiation of structure had a negative association with positive employee outcomes. Specifically, Bosch used quantitative methods to examine electronic survey responses of 150 employees working in various industries in the southwestern United States. Bosch assessed the relationships among transformational leadership, transactional leadership (measured by leadership initiation of structure), and leader-follower work value congruence, including intrinsic, altruistic, and social adherence to organizational values. The data analysis demonstrated in all dimensions of work-value congruence that leadership initiation of structure had a negative relationship. Thus, Bosch's findings suggested leadership initiation of structure was not beneficial in organizations attempting to reorganize or restructure their values. Similar to Bosch (2013), Lin and Wang (2012) assessed the influence of leadership initiation of structure on affective and continuance commitment among employees. From the results, no significant relationship existed between leadership initiation of structure and affective commitment, though a slightly positive relationship existed between initiation of structure and continuance commitment. Together, Bosch (2013) and Lin and Wang (2012) supported the overall negative perceptions of task-oriented leadership behaviors' effectiveness, cited by Derue et al. (2011).

This study consisted of measuring leadership initiation of structure using the LBDQ, a tool developed by Stogdill (1963) to identify behavior of effective leaders. Bosch (2013) also utilized the LBDQ to measure leadership initiation of structure.

According to Stogdill, leadership initiation of structure involves the leader setting up boundaries for followers, including what the leader's role is and what expectations exist for followers. On the LBDQ, 10 items measure leadership initiation of structure.

As with the independent variable of leadership consideration, Sgro et al. (1980) used the LBDQ to predict scores on the RITS. The researchers confirmed from the data that the LBDQ showed predictive validity. In a quantitative meta-analysis, Fisher and Edwards (1988) also examined leadership initiation of structure. The researchers found in general, leadership initiation of structure positively correlated with all leader effectiveness criteria except for negative organizational outcomes (Fisher & Edwards, 1988). Therefore, both empirical quantitative data and a meta-analysis supported the validity of the LBDQ (Fisher & Edwards, 1988; Sgro et al., 1980).

Dependent Variable of Leadership Trust and its Measurement

The dependent variable for the present study is leadership trust. Bevelander and Page (2011) examined and defined leadership trust within the context of an organization, noting leadership trust meant being vulnerable to another party through reciprocal personal experiences. Searching for interdependence among a group, the researchers examined a series of risks within relationships in various positions within the organizational hierarchy (Bevelander & Page, 2011). The formation of an interdependent relationship within a group was through a series of personal reciprocal experiences. Specifically, Bevelander and Page assessed the differences in networking approaches among male and female students in an internationally oriented full-time MBA program. The researchers collected data by surveying the students in two consecutive MBA classes

at two discrete points in time. Based on the data, Bevelander and Page found leadership trust builds over time and exists in an environment of a mutual relationship in which risks are present. Leaders should consider building this trust because of a multitude of benefits for the organization (Lu, 2014; Timming, 2012). I measured leadership trust through the organizational trust inventory, developed in 1996 by Cummings and Bromiley, and validated by Andreescu and Vito (2010).

Benefits of followers' trust in leaders. Because of its influence on leadership effectiveness, factors that influence leadership trust are important for researchers to determine (Lu, 2014). Through correlational analysis and hierarchical linear regression, Li, Nahm, Wykand, Ke, and Yan (2015) explored factors facilitating the participation of 219 shop-floor employees in the manufacturing industry in China. In this endeavor, Li et al. demonstrated several findings relevant to the present study related to leadership trust. First, the researchers determined transformational leadership had a significant, positive relationship with leadership trust among followers (Li et al., 2015). Second, affect-based trust related to employee's sense of security, and cognitive-based trust positively influenced perceived security in loyalty. Last, the researchers found leadership trust had an indirect effect on creating a positive organizational culture conducive for participation when filtered through perceived security (Li et al., 2015). However, Li et al. noted the finding of only an indirect relationship between these factors might relate to the Chinese value of saving face, which might cause employees to avoid criticizing each other out of politeness. The researchers posited a more direct relationship might be present in

Western cultures (Li et al., 2015) though Western researchers emphasized the complexity of trust (Timming, 2012).

Timming (2012) suggested leadership trust was a complex social construct and sought to trace the process by which participation and involvement promote employee trust in management. Timming compiled data from the 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey of Employees and used structural equation modeling. Using this data, Timming traced how trust in management influenced employee involvement and participation among British workers. The degree to which a member feels involved in an organization relates to trust (Li et al., 2015; Timming, 2012); thus, leaders with high levels of leadership initiation of structure and leadership consideration may potentially stimulate leadership trust among followers. Thus, Li et al.'s (2015) and Timming's (2012) findings were similar in determining trust has an indirect effect on follower participation and involvement, although Li et al. used hierarchical linear regression and Timming used structural equation modeling.

Using correlational analysis, Hasel (2013) assessed another positive outcome resulting from trusting relationships between leader and follower. Hasel researched the relationship between leadership trust and leaders' effectiveness in times of a crisis and in times of noncrisis. According to Hasel, four leadership dimensions are important to leadership effectiveness: (a) rewards and feedback, (b) team building, (c) tenacity, and (d) empathy. The study sample was comprised of 207 employees from the banking and consulting areas in London, a Western setting similar to Timming (2012) and the setting of the present study. Hasel found increased leadership trust, as measured on Jung and

Avolio's (2000) trust in leader scale, had a positive relationship with all four effective leadership dimensions that was particularly evident in times of noncrisis.

Thus, trust in leadership might inspire followers to allocate personal resources to increase effectiveness and self-efficacy (Hasel, 2013). In addition, Hasel (2013) determined transactional qualities, including an appropriate and clear standard of performance, and rewards in a timely fashion, related to building trust among followers, consistent with Jo et al.'s findings (2015) and Stogdill's (1963) theory. Hasel indicated the importance of leadership trust and initiation of structure through clear standards and rewards in gauging leadership effectiveness and its positive organizational outcomes, which in addition to other relevant studies (e.g., Lu, 2014; Li et al., 2015; Jo et al., 2015) sets a foundation for conducting the present study.

Similar to Hasel's (2013) findings, Lu (2014) suggested leadership trust mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behaviors included followers' performance of behaviors beneficial to the organization and beyond the scope of their job duties (Lu, 2014). The participant pool was comprised of 104 pairs of supervisors and their subordinates employed in the public sector in China. The researcher found organizational citizenship behaviors toward the organization and individuals significantly correlated with cognitive and affective trust towards leadership (Lu, 2014). Moreover, affective, but not cognitive, trust completely mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors. Within a sample of 757 employees in a public organization in Lithuania, Pucetaite (2014) found through multiple hierarchical regression that

organizational trust partially mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and organizational innovation. The researcher collected data from a standardized, electronic survey distributed within the organization, and determined a positive, significant relationship existed between ethical leadership practices and organizational trust (Pucetaite, 2014). However, Pucetaite also noted since the results only showed a partial mediation, additional examination of other factors would allow for further understanding of the influence of leadership trust on ethical leadership and organizational innovation. Pucetaite's and Lu's hierarchical regressions demonstrated ethical leadership and trust related to positive organizational outcomes, including organizational citizenship behaviors and innovation.

Extending Lu's (2014) findings, Zhu and Akhtar (2014) tested a hypothesized model, in which cognition- and affect-based trust mediated the relationships between transformational leadership and followers' task performance and job satisfaction. Within two private companies in southeast China, the researchers surveyed 175 sales and services employees and their supervisors (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). The researchers partially validated the proposed model. Whereas cognition-based trust mediated the relationship between task performance and transformational leadership behaviors, affect-based trust mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and transformational leadership. Thus, Zhu and Akhtar suggested the different dimensions of trust might have alternating positive effects. Lu's (2014) and Zhu and Akhtar's (2014) results may not generalize outside of the Chinese setting in which they conducted their studies, and therefore may not apply to this study.

In another similar study, Miao, Newman, Schwarz, and Xu (2013) also found through hierarchical regression, leadership trust mediated the relationship between organizational commitment and participative leadership. Examining survey data from 239 civil servants in China, Miao et al. determined followers reciprocated with improved organizational commitment when leaders demonstrated participative leadership, which promoted a higher level of leadership trust. Hasel's (2013), Lu's (2014), Miao et al.'s (2013), and Pucetaite's (2014) studies are relevant because leadership trust is shown to be an important factor organizationally and individually and linked to participative and ethical leadership behaviors. Various quantitative methods verified these relationships, including multiple hierarchical regressions (Lu, 2014; Miao et al., 2013; Pucetaite, 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014), correlational analyses (Li et al., 2015; Hasel, 2013), and structural equation modeling (Timming, 2012). These researchers further outlined the importance of leadership trust and understanding what factors influence its promotion.

Drescher, Korsgaard, Welpe, Picot, and Wigand (2014) examined group performance through the dynamics of shared leadership and the role leadership trust played within the relationship. The authors used longitudinal data from 142 groups engaged in a strategic simulation game during a 4-month period (Drescher et al., 2014). The researchers confirmed positive changes in leadership trust mediated the relationship between shared leadership adjusting to more positive leadership strategies, including distribution of leadership responsibilities, and positive performance changes (Drescher et al., 2014). Drescher et al. provided validation of another leadership situation in which trust plays a role. In addition, the researchers suggested when more positive leadership

changes occur, leadership trust is a likely result that may in turn promote positive follower behaviors (Drescher et al., 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). However, Drescher et al. did not conduct their study in an organizational setting, unlike Zhu and Akhtar (2014), who had similar findings within Chinese organizations.

As in Drescher et al.'s (2014) and Zhu and Akhtar's (2014) studies, Zhu, Newman, Miao, and Hooke (2012) found trust in leader-follower relationships led to increased effects of leadership style on follower outcomes. Zhu et al. examined the effects of cognitive and affective trust on followers' perceptions of transformational leadership behavior and work outcomes. Researchers used 318 supervisor-subordinate dyads from a manufacturing organization located in mainland China. Using structural equation modeling, the researchers showed affective trust mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and the followers' work outcomes, including organizational citizenship behaviors and commitment to the organization (Zhu et al., 2012). However, Zhu et al. determined cognitive-based trust negatively mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and work outcomes, as well as demonstrating no significant relationships with commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. Zhu et al.'s research suggested affect-based trust may be more effective in promoting outcomes, but still provides additional support for the development of trust as a positive leadership behavior with significant outcomes.

Zhu et al.'s (2012) examination of cognitive- and affect-based trust in relation to transformational leadership in a structural equation model echoed Zhu and Akhtar's (2014) model validation, but Zhu and Akhtar determined cognitive-based trust positively

mediated the relationship between task performance and transformational leadership behaviors. Therefore, these two studies were similar in that cognitive-based trust played a mediating role in relationships between transformational leadership and task performance and between transformational leadership and work outcomes. In the relationship between transformational leadership and task performance, cognitive-based trust was a positive mediator (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014), and in the relationship between transformational leadership and work outcomes, it was a negative mediator (Zhu et al., 2012).

Developing a positive relationship in which leadership trust played a role, Otken and Cenkci (2012) conducted an empirical study investigating the effects of paternalistic leadership on ethical climate and the moderating role of leadership trust. Otken and Cenkci used a convenience sample of 227 Turkish university students and employees for the study, who received a questionnaire containing paternalistic leadership items (Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farh, 2004), ethical climate items (Cullen et al., 1993), and trust in leader items (Boru, 2001). The results were paternalistic leadership had some effects on the ethical climate. Moreover, the researchers identified partial support for the moderating effect of leadership trust in the correlation between paternalistic leadership and the improved ethical climate (Otken & Cenkci, 2012). These improvements included employees following organizational rules, demonstrating concern, and taking responsibility for coworkers; therefore, Otken and Cenkci's multiple regression were similar to Zhu and Akhtar's (2014) structural equation modeling. Thus, trust in leader

may link to the promotion of an ethical work climate and increased task performance (Otken & Cenkci, 2012; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014).

Researchers such as Yang (2014) have demonstrated additional organizational benefits from trust in leader in a variety of settings. Conchie, Taylor, and Donald (2012) tested whether employees were more likely to voice safety concerns in dangerous conditions if trust in leader and safety-specific transformational leadership were present. The study involved 150 supervisor-employees dyads from the United Kingdom oil industry (Conchie et al., 2012). Conchie et al. found affect-based trust in leader, including the belief the leader will act in a considerate manner and he or she is trustworthy in high-risk situations, mediated the effectiveness of safety-specific transformational leadership. These researchers provided an additional leadership style in which trust plays a positive role (Conchie et al., 2012), and added to the multiple regression research conducted relative to affect- and cognitive-based trust (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014; Zhu et al., 2012).

Yang (2014), like Conchie et al. (2012), assessed the connections among outcomes from transformational leadership and leadership trust. A sample of 164 men and 177 women from four large insurance companies in Taiwan completed questionnaires consisting of the Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) instrument for leadership trust and transformational leadership behavior, and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) for job satisfaction. Bootstrapping mediation and structural equation modeling revealed leadership trust mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and transformational leadership. Yang's study revealed another

positive relationship between employee outcomes and leadership style in which leadership trust was a mediating factor, validating the present study's investigation of contributing factors to building leadership trust. Chan and Mak (2014) also examined leadership trust through a quantitative study of 218 employees in a service-oriented private firm in China and, like the previously mentioned researchers, found leadership trust mediated the relationship between servant leadership and subordinates' job satisfaction. Yang used structural equation modeling, while Chan and Mak employed multiple regressions; both groups of researchers studied a similar sample in Taiwan and China (Chan & Mak, 2014; Yang, 2014), which may limit the generalizability of their findings to the present study's setting.

Trust in leader may assist ethical leaders in minimizing emotional exhaustion and improving work engagement. Chughtai, Byrne, and Flood (2015) focused on supervisor-trainee relationships, specifically the correlations between trust in supervisor, ethical leadership, work engagement, and emotional exhaustion. Using survey data collected at two points in time, the researchers assessed the responses of 216 trainee accountants from several different organizations (Chughtai et al., 2015). From the results, the researchers confirmed leadership trust mediated the effects related to ethical leadership on engagement at work and emotional exhaustion (Chughtai et al., 2015). Further, a correlation existed with ethical leadership and trust in supervisor. The Chughtai et al. study is relevant because the results demonstrated additional benefits of developing leadership trust in supervisor and practicing ethical leadership behaviors. Chugtai et al. added a positive emotional outcome for followers that compounded the organizational

benefits of a trusting relationship between leader and follower found in other studies (Otken & Cenkci, 2012; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014; Zhu et al., 2012).

Kelloway, Turner, Barling, and Loughlin (2012) studied if a correlation existed between employees' perceptions of their managers' transformational leadership and the mental well-being of employees. Kelloway et al. conducted two studies to assess these relationships. The first study centered on trust in the leader fully mediated the positive relationship between perceptions of managers' using transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being in a cross-sectional sample. The study consisted of 436 participants. Subsequently, Kelloway et al. repeated the methodology in a second study, which had 269 participants and used an extended model involving active management-by-exception and laissez-faire behaviors, which reduced trust in the manager. Both studies demonstrated trust in leader mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and employee well-being (Kelloway et al., 2012), which echoed Chugthai et al.'s (2012) correlational analysis. Chugthai et al. specified mental wellbeing more fully, whereas Kelloway et al. analyzed more leadership styles.

Combining emotional and organizational outcomes from trust in leadership,
Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, and Frey (2013) assessed the relationships among
transformational leadership, trust in supervisor, trust in team, job satisfaction, and team
performance using multilevel analysis. The population consisted of 360 employees from
39 academic teams. The researchers found several relationships from the data. Relevant
to the present study, Braun et al. determined trust in the team and in the supervisor
mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' job

satisfaction. However, the data showed trust in the team did not mediate the relationship between team perceptions of supervisors' transformational leadership and team performance. Braun et al.'s correlational findings echoed Yang's (2014) structural equation modeling regarding the relationship between members and leaders, but furthered the discussion by addressing trust in team as well as trust in supervisor.

An additional organizational and personal benefit from followers' trust in leaders is increased creativity (Zhang & Zhou, 2014). Among 322 employees and 130 supervisors in a light bulb design and manufacturing company in China, Zhang and Zhou (2014) researched if a correlation existed between leadership, uncertainty avoidance, and leadership trust and the employee's creativity. The researchers revealed empowering leadership, such as those leaders who initiate boundaries and demonstrate consideration, might be effective as it relates to creativity for environments with high levels of uncertainty avoidance and trust in their supervisors (Zhang & Zhou, 2014). When employees did not trust their supervisor with an environment of high levels of uncertainty avoidance, it was unlikely to empower leadership with increased creativity. The study was relevant because of the factor of leadership trust in promoting creativity. Zhang and Zhou augmented the significant amount of quantitative literature on trust in leadership in Chinese samples (e.g., Chan & Mak, 2014; Yang, 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014; Zhu et al., 2012)

Thus, leadership trust has demonstrated multiple positive effects for organizations and employees in varied leadership styles. Affected areas include sense of security (Li et al., 2015), organizational culture (Li et al., 2015), and leader effectiveness (Drescher et

al., 2014; Hasel, 2013). The literature revealed connections with diverse leadership styles, such as ethical leadership (Lu, 2014; Pucetaite, 2014), transformational leadership (Braun et al., 2013; Kelloway et al., 2012; Yang, 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014; Zhu et al., 2012), and participative leadership (Miao et al., 2013; Otken & Cenkci, 2012). Specifically, leadership trust has been demonstrated as a mediating factor in the relationship between (a) ethical leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors (Lu, 2014); (b) ethical leadership and innovation (Pucetaite, 2014); (c) transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and performance (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014); (d) transformational leadership and employee outcomes (Zhu et al., 2012); (e) transformational leadership and employee well-being (Kelloway et al., 2012); (f) transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Braun et al., 2013; Yang, 2014); (g) participative leadership and organizational commitment (Miao et al., 2013); and (h) participative leadership and ethical climate (Otken & Cenkci, 2012). Given the integral role of leadership trust in such diverse leadership behaviors and outcomes, it was essential to examine the leader behaviors promoting this trust.

Literature of behaviors promoting leadership trust. Researchers have studied several behaviors in relation to their promotion of leadership trust. The following section offers the literature related to these behaviors. In addition, the following section revealed the relationship between these previously examined factors and those highlighted in the present study, leadership initiation of structure and leadership consideration.

There are several methods by which leaders can create and expand trust in organizations (Bai, Li, & Xi, 2012; Cho & Poister, 2014). Sparrow (2013) spoke of four

key behaviors that build leadership trust (a) investment in relationships, wherein people must have an opportunity to know about the leader and the leader must be willing to build a solid trustful relationship with followers; (b) honesty, meaning leaders must be willing to give facts and admit to mistakes; (c) humility, or a leader is humble and does not hide behind his or her image; and (d) consistency, meaning a leader is involved and interested, and sets consistent expectations. Sparrow also noted leadership trust was paramount in building high performing organizations. The author further suggested a trust paradigm must be systematically part of the culture of an organization (Sparrow, 2013). Ndubisi (2013) also confirmed successful conflict resolution advances leadership trust and commitment. Through a review of literature, the researcher developed a conceptual model of sustainable employee motivation and enterprise performance based on job characteristics through the juxtaposition of the internal marketing, job characteristics, uncertainty, and equality theories (Ndubisi, 2013). Sparrow's and Ndubisi's review of literature on trust therefore revealed similar definitions and concepts of trust as Bevelander and Page's (2011) review of the literature.

The leader behaviors that influence leadership trust were worthwhile to study (Sparrow, 2013). Hernandez, Long, and Sitkin (2014) researched correlations between leadership trust and a leader's behavior. In two separate studies, Hernandez et al. assessed various leadership behaviors, their correlation to leadership trust, and the mediating variables in these relationships. Hernandez et al. conducted the first study among experienced managers, 131 men and 158 women, ages 22–73 years with experience of 1–58 years in management. The managers responded to a series of

hypothetical vignettes and evaluated the leader's behaviors, assessed performance, and judged their trust in the leader. Results demonstrated personal, relational, and contextual leadership behaviors significantly and positively related to follower trust. Moreover, relational leadership behaviors mediated the influence of personal and contextual leadership behaviors on follower trust (Hernandez et al., 2014).

Hernandez et al.'s (2014) second study involved collecting data from 206 practicing managers enrolled in a leadership class. Participants in Hernandez et al.'s second study were employed from 3 to 28 years and 76 % were from the United States, whereas 24% resided in other countries. Prior to beginning the leadership course, participants submitted names of peers and direct reports who could provide unbiased, accurate assessments of their leadership approach and the experience working with them. Subsequently, Hernandez et al. analyzed 876 peer reports and 729 follower reports (a median of 3 reports per participant) to assess the relationships among personal, relational, and contextual leadership behaviors and leadership trust. As in the first study, leadership behaviors positively related to the extent to which followers trusted their leaders. Moreover, personal and contextual leadership behaviors were both significant predictors of relational leadership behaviors, suggesting relational leadership behaviors mediate the effects of personal and contextual leadership behaviors on leadership trust. These findings were consistent with contingency leadership theory (Fiedler, 1964).

Through the two studies, Hernandez et al. suggested relational leadership was important to creating leadership trust with followers. This study was relevant because it showed leaders' behaviors were important to developing leadership trust with followers.

This finding suggested various leader behaviors promoted followers' leadership trust, consistent with contingency leadership theory (Fiedler, 1964). In this study, I assessed leadership consideration, and leadership initiation of structure. Some scholars outlined these variables as key dimensions of leadership (Judge et al., 2004; Piccolo et al., 2012; Tracy, 1987).

Several other researchers have similarly assessed factors that may promote trust in leaders (Bai et al., 2012; Cho & Poister, 2014; Ndubisi, 2013). For example, Cho and Poister (2014) researched the relationships among managerial practices, regarding the relationship of trust in leadership, teamwork, and organizational performance. The data consisted of surveys completed by 3,691 highway construction workers. The researcher's computer three factors; overall departmental leadership, the employee's leadership team, and his or her immediate supervisor. Cho and Poister suggested communication was the most significant factor in building trust among leaders and followers, though strategic planning and career development also affected trust in the leadership team. The study was important because it identified how leadership trust was important in leadership and related some leadership behaviors that might promote leadership trust (Cho & Poister, 2014). They also specified relational leadership behaviors that promote trust, consistent with Hernandez et al.'s (2014) correlational analyses. Communication, specifically, might relate to this study's independent variables of both leadership initiation of structure and leadership consideration, because communication was necessary for both behaviors.

Holland, Cooper, Pyman, and Teicher (2012) also found communication related to employee trust. Like Bevelander and Page (2011), Holland et al. defined leadership trust as the confidence between two parties' willingness not to exploit each other's vulnerabilities and this process included sharing of information. In addition, like Bevelander and Page, Holland et al. examined vulnerability's role in building leadership trust and found the most crucial part of not violating vulnerability meant sharing of important information occurred between management and staff. Holland et al. examined the relationship between employee voice arrangements and employees' trust in management using data from the 2007 Australian Worker Representation and Participation Survey of 1,022 employees. Through the regression analyses, the researchers found employees with a direct voice, or direct dialogue with management, had increased trust in management (Holland et al., 2012). In addition, regular meetings between senior management and staff had a statistical relationship with leadership trust while managerial opposition to unions was indicative of lack of leadership trust.

Like Cho and Poister (2014), Hernandez et al. (2014), and Holland et al. (2012), Bai et al. (2012) explored how leaders in top management and supervisory levels affected the trust of employees in leaders. In order to do so, the researchers posited a dual influence of organizational support and leader member exchange existed on the influence of transformational leadership behaviors and leadership trust (Bai et al., 2012). Bai et al. tested this hypothesis among 357 Chinese employees and supervisors. From the data, the researchers confirmed both organizational support and leader member exchange mediated the positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and follower trust

in the organization at both the management and supervisory levels. The researchers suggested the caring, reflexive, considerate behaviors encouraged through leader member exchange and support systems led to more trust among followers when leaders demonstrated transformational leadership (Bai et al., 2012). Bai et al.'s correlations between transformational leadership and trust reflect the positive relationships between trust and relational behaviors in Hernandez et al.'s (2014) correlational analyses, although Bai et al.'s sample was from China, and Hernandez et al.'s from the United States. Bai et al. and Hernandez also paved the way for the present researcher, who examined the relational behavior of leadership consideration and its relationship with trust in leaders.

Closely related to the present study, Sousa-Lima, Michel, and Caetano (2013) found leadership trust improved when leaders showed consideration to their followers. Sousa-Lima et al. examined the mediating influence of leadership trust in the organization regarding the relationship between distributive justice, information receiving, and perceived supervisor support from a sample 1,300 manufacturing employees. The researchers confirmed the hypothesis that the leader distributing outcomes in a fair manner, sharing information with employees, and providing support, can develop feelings of leadership trust in the organization. Unlike Bai et al. (2012) and Hernandez et al. (2014), whose studies tangentially related to the present study through relational behaviors, Sousa-Lima et al. specifically examined leadership consideration as a variable, as defined by the LBDQ.

An additional connection that suggests leadership consideration and leadership initiation of structure may increase employees' trust in leaders was the connection between fairness and leadership trust. Perceptions of the importance of fairness may connect to a leader's likelihood to set up clear expectations and roles for him or herself and for members as well as consideration (Bai et al., 2012). Seppälä, Lipponen, and Pirttilä-Backman (2012) stated trust in leaders stem from followers' perceptions of the leader's fairness. The researchers found fairness in leaders was an important predictor of leadership trust (Seppälä et al., 2012). One factor often overlooked when measuring the relationship between managers and employees was managers are members of the groups they supervise, which means the leaders have an influence on those groups from within (Seppälä et al., 2012). Therefore, the perceived fairness of the leader also affects the relationships between employees. Seppälä et al. used 176 employees within 30 work groups from a restaurant chain and a social service provider. The researchers found perceived supervisor distributive, procedural, and interactional fairness showed a strong relationship to employee trust in their coworkers if the supervisor was highly group prototypical rather than less group prototypical (Seppälä et al., 2012). Seppälä et al. added the dimension of intragroup trust to the leadership literature, yet retained the importance of relational leadership and leadership consideration respectively demonstrated through Hernandez et al.'s (2014) and Sousa-Lima et al.'s (2013) findings. Initiation of structure, however, might also contribute to perceptions of fairness and therefore to trust (Stogdill, 1963; Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

Like Seppälä et al. (2012), Liu, Hernandez, and Wang (2014) examined the influence fairness, or procedural justice, might have on the level of leadership trust within an organization. Examining 1,008 workers on 138 teams in China and 672 workers on 125 teams in the United States, Liu et al. determined the single most important negative leadership behavior that decreased leadership trust was the differentiated treatment of members. Moreover, this diminished trust led to less social interactions among team members and damaged the intrateam behaviors. Specifically, team members within organizations with diminished leadership trust because of fairness issues demonstrated increase sensitivity to inequity or perceived inequity (Liu et al., 2014). Thus, within Liu et al.'s multiple regression, fairness played a significant role in the development of leadership trust, as in Seppälä et al.'s (2012) correlational analysis.

Fairness might also relate to the development of consistent expectations as necessary for effective leadership (Stogdill, 1963), as examined by Wang and Hsieh (2013). Wang and Hsieh examined the effect of authentic leadership on employee engagement through employee trust in leader. The researchers used 386 employees in the top 1,000 manufacturing companies and the top 500 service companies in Taiwan (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). The researchers found consistency in words, actions, and moral perceptions correlated with employee engagement, and supervisors' consistency in relations to words and actions correlated to employee trust (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Employee trust in leader positively related to employee engagement, and employee trust had a partial intermediating effect amongst authentic leadership and employee engagement. Wang and Hsieh's study showed a correlation with employee engagement.

The significance of the study was the alignment of leadership trust with consistency in expectations, as I examined in this study; also, Wang and Hsieh utilized correlational analyses, as did Bai et al. (2012), Hernandez et al. (2014), and Seppälä et al. (2012).

Most relevant to this study, Jo et al. (2015) also researched the role of leadership trust related to the perceived leadership style of leaders. The researchers collected data from 350 participants (292 men and 58 women) who had worked for at least 2 years in the information and communications technology industry in Korea (Jo et al., 2015). Using a structural education model, Jo et al. tested whether leaders' consideration and initiation of structure had a relationship with followers' trust in leader and the organization, and in-turn, whether trust led to increased creativity. Jo et al. measured trust through Nyhan and Marlowe's (1997) Organizational Trust Inventory. The researchers determined leadership consideration and leadership initiation of structure significantly influenced leadership trust with path coefficient of 0.281 (p < 0.01) and 0.467 (p < 0.01) for each (Jo et al., 2015). Thus, Jo et al.'s study set groundwork for the present study. However, the results required further validation within a broader, Western sample, considering the extensive body of literature on trust in leader conducted in Eastern settings (Bai et al., 2012; Chan & Mak, 2014; Yang, 2014; Zhang & Zhou, 2014; Zhu & Akhtar, 2014; Zhu et al., 2012) as well as using the more reliable LBDQ instrument to measure leadership trust.

Thus, in the review of the literature the researcher found several variables that may promote leadership trust within organizations. These included career development (Cho & Poister, 2014), communication (Cho & Poister, 2014), conflict resolution

(Ndubisi, 2013), leadership consideration (Jo et al., 2015; Sousa-Lima et al., 2013), consistency (Sparrow, 2013; Wang & Hsieh, 2013), fairness (Liu et al., 2014; Seppälä et al., 2012), honesty (Sparrow, 2013), humility (Sparrow, 2013), investment in relationships (Sparrow, 2013), leader-member exchange (Bai et al., 2012), organizational support (Bai et al., 2012), strategic planning (Cho & Poister, 2014), and vulnerability (Holland et al., 2012). Of these variables, many are related to or similar to leadership initiation of structure and leadership consideration. For example, career development, fairness, honesty, humility, investment in relationships, and vulnerability are all variables that could relate to leadership consideration. Similarly, communication relates to leadership initiation of structure. Of the studies reviewed, only Jo et al. (2015) considered both variables; thus, a gap in the literature existed, which the present study addressed.

Literature for the measurement of the dependent variable of leadership trust. Sgro et al. (1980) relied on the LBDQ to predict scores on the RITS, which indicated the LBDQ showed predictive validity and found a significant correlation between leadership initiation of structure and leadership trust. The researchers also found subordinates perceived leaders who showed high scores in interpersonal trust as exhibiting behaviors that reflected their basic trust in human nature (Sgro et al., 1980). According to Sgro et al.'s data, followers who provided high scores for leaders in interpersonal trust also rated the leaders highly on LBDQ.

Transition

Section 1 covered an outline of the background of problem, problem statement, purpose statement, nature of study, research question, and hypothesis, theoretical framework, definitions of terms, and assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. Second, the significance of the study presents a delineation and the influence of the research toward social change. A comprehensive review of literature helped to determine the relevance of research.

The objective of Section 2 was to describe my role as the researcher, the selection process, sampling, and relationship of participants, research method and design, data collection process, data analysis process, and measures to achieve reliability and validity of the research. Section 3, after Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval and data gathering, covered the application to professional practice, offered an overview of the study, presented the findings, and offered recommendations for action, social change, and further study.

Section 2: The Project

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The independent variables were union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration and union members' perceptions of leaders' initiation of structure. The dependent variable was union members' leadership trust. The specific population was comprised of union members in the United States. The study might contribute to social change by providing knowledge to encourage effectual leadership that contributes to sustainable membership growth, increased organizational profits, and member engagement though representation (Fusch & Gillespie, 2012).

Role of the Researcher

My role as a researcher in the data collection process of a quantitative correlational study was to (a) incorporate tested tools used to ensure consistency, (b) obtain participants who met sample size requirements, (c) ensure means were available for collecting resultant feedback from participants, (d) place at designated venues a notice to remind participants to complete the survey at set intervals, and (e) ensure data were stored in a secure location to maintain confidentiality for participants (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). My key roles as a researcher was to collect, organize, and interpret the data collected (Daigneault, 2014; Kratochwill & Levin, 2014; Liu et al., 2014). My

relationship to the topic of my doctoral was one of extended involvement with the unions. Professionally, I possessed more than 7 years of union involvement as a member-leader. For an additional 8 years, I held other positions as a staff member working in such activities as lobbying, organizing, recruitment of members, resolving grievances, training staff and members, leading negotiations, serving as a campus member union official, serving as a union staff person, and serving as a union field administrator in various unions. I am currently retired from the industry. I had no direct contact with participants and did not develop a relationship with participants. I had no interaction with the labor union industry in the general geographic area of the State of California and no interaction with union members in other States within the United States.

A researcher, my role, as articulated within the Belmont Report, was to ensure studies undertaken uphold the ethical principles of respect for persons, beneficence, and justice to participants (Ross, 2015). The participants received the same protection, privacy, and anonymity (LeCompte, 2015). In terms of justice, LeCompte (2015) and Ross (2015) suggested no researchers should subject any participant to coercion and leveraging of power in the recruitment process. I ensured all participants were aware their participation was voluntary and they were able to leave at any point during in the survey without explanation. In terms of beneficence, my role as a researcher was to inform participants of any potential risks and protect them from any risks associated with the study. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) cited the importance of anonymity in maintaining ethical protection of participants. To protect participant identities, participants did not have the opportunity to identify themselves at any time during data

collection. In addition, I disabled the option to collect Internet Protocol (IP) addresses on SurveyMonkey to prevent identify the participants. I saved all collected data onto the external drive on my personal password-protected computer, and data is only available to the researcher, research committee, and IRB.

To assure anonymity, I did not make direct contact with participants. I placed links on selected social media (Linkedin, Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram), and used publicly posted union emails from American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations union affiliates, and Service Employee International Union affiliates alerting the sample population about the study and for their participation. Participants followed the link, leading them to a prequalifying questionnaire on SurveyMonkey. After successfully completing the prequalifying questionnaire, participants received an informed consent form as the front page of the survey. Participants are unable to proceed until providing consent to participate. The use of an informed consent form ensured participants were respected and treated with dignity throughout the research process. This respect for persons involved with the study took the form of an opportunity to understand their role in the study prior to their involvement.

Participants

The population of interest for this study focused on union members living in the United States. The inclusion criteria relevant to the population dictated participants must be (a) older than 18 years of age, (b) worked in a union job paying dues to the union, (c) had been a member of the union for a year or more, (d) lived in the United States, and (e) were able to provide consent (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). I gathered participants using

social media, including union groups on Facebook, LinkedIn, and on union websites containing a list of e-mails. Participants received a notification of the eligibility criteria and then screened for eligibility through a series of demographic questions prior to responding to the survey.

I used social media as a tool to gather participants for the study. Brickman-Bhutta (2012) indicated an ever-increasing number of Americans use social networking sites every year, and social networking tends to represent diverse ethnic groups as years pass. Brickman-Bhutta also posited the use of social media as a recruitment tool is helpful in studying how people behave in real life. Brickman-Bhutta further suggested social media is a quick and efficient way to gather a large group of applicable participants. Union groups received an initial e-mail letter explaining the scope of the study or members saw the call for participation posted on social media sites. The notice included the confidential policy and participation requirements. The notice provided an option-out provision and explained how the researcher protected participants' identities and the information collected. If the participant chose to participate by clicking the disclosure and authorization button, no waiting periods or opt-outs existed except for exiting the website. However, the participant could stop the survey process at any time during the survey without penalty.

To ensure findings were generalizable, the participants must align with the population relevant to the research questions (Howell, 2012). The use of eligibility requirements helped to gather an applicable sample, and no further restrictions existed to participation beyond the requirements. Participants who were members of a union from

all sectors were in line with the one research question: To what extent is there a statistical relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust?

Research Method and Design

Research Method

Venkatesh et al. (2013) stated three common methods exist in research, which were quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-methods. Because the goal of the study was to examine statistically significant effects of quantifiable (i.e., numerically measureable) concepts, the quantitative method was the most appropriate method. The quantitative method of research was most appropriate when research requires a description or explanation of the relationship between variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Because I assessed the variables of interest—leadership characteristics and trust in the union numerically and measure the relationships between these variables using regression analysis, the quantitative method was best suited. The qualitative method was not appropriate for this study because the researcher did not intend to interpret data into themes and utilize the inherent complexity to calibrate the findings. The mixed-methods approach required interviews that would cause similar delays. Mixed-methods research was plausible; however, it requires the use of two methods (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Implementing two methods would require training time for a researcher and may not yield a higher return relative to the outcome. Morçöl and Ivanova (2010) described the qualitative method as using long, in-depth semistructured interviews requiring

researchers to understand the conversation of the participants. These same barriers to utilizing a qualitative method were present within the scope of mixed method research. As such, the length of time, difficulty in accessing the population, and monetary constraints were the largest concerns.

Research Design

Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009) suggested three quantitative designs: (a) correlational, (b) quasiexperimental, (c) and experimental. I employed a correlational design. The correlational design was appropriate to establish relationships between the variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). I examined the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. In a cross-sectional design, a researcher only collected data at one point in time. Because I gathered data at one time and not doing any follow-up assessments, I used a cross-sectional design. The correlational design was appropriate because it afforded the researcher the ability to compare two or more variables for either direct or inverse relationships (Pagano, 2009).

Mallick (2013) suggested an experimental design when the environment were a clinical or scientific environment. The researcher did not involve a controlled environment or manipulate variables in the study, but instead illuminate the relationships (or lack thereof) between multiple variables at a single point in time. The lack of manipulation to the independent variables of the study, as well as the lack of intent to study causal relationships, barred the experimental design from the realm of the present research (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The quasi-experimental design was similar to the

experimental design in application, where the goal was to make inferences regarding causal relationships. Without some form of manipulation to the independent variable, this design was both inappropriate and unavailable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Population and Sampling

The appropriate selection of a population and sample size was necessary to ensuring both the internal and external validity of the investigator's research (Gordon Lan & Wittes, 2012). While a sufficiently sized sample must be gathered to allow statistical certainty and protect against Type II error, the use of an appropriate population and representative sample allows the findings to be externally valid to the scope of the research (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2014; Stevens, 2012). Within the scope of this study, the population of interest comprised ethnically diverse members of unions from the entire United States. The sampling frame included eligible volunteers who: (a) were older than 18 years of age, (b) worked in a union job paying dues to the union, (c) had been a member of the union for a year or more, (d) lived in the United States, and (e) were able to provide consent. Though this method of participant selection detriments the overall generalizability and external validity of the findings, it was useful in gathering a sample who meet the criteria of participation, and provided results applicable to the specific population relevant to this study's research question (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Participants who were not card members, had membership of less than one year, were under the age 18, or lived outside the United States do not meet the inclusion criteria of the study, and could not participate. To determine applicability, participants responded to a brief demographic questionnaire (Appendix D). This process allowed me to focus on

only those with experience as union members in order to inform the research question in an applicable manner.

To gather a sample from this population, I used probabilistic sampling procedures. Probabilistic sampling procedures allowed the collection of a representative sample of a population, but did not typically allow selection based upon specific inclusion criteria (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Using a probabilistic procedure, I used a cluster sampling strategy. Using this strategy of sampling, I divided available participants into clusters from which I could gather a random sample. These clusters was the inclusion criteria, and ensured the random sample included only those who were eligible for the study. Pagano (2009) identified this as a useful method for gathering participants with specific traits, as was the case in this study.

The sample size was important to select a population characteristic and was significant to minimize the effects of random variation (Matsui & Noma, 2011). In the initial calculation, I estimated the necessary sample size using the 50 + 8 (m) formula, where m equals the number of predictors in a regression model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The predictors were both of the two leadership scores (i.e., leadership consideration and leadership initiation of structure). This results in an m of 2; using the formula, 50 + 8(2) = 66. The sample consisted of 66 workers represented by a U.S. union. I contacted this selection of members through Facebook and LinkedIn social groups, as well as e-mails from U.S. union sites. In addition, I posted links to the survey on Instagram, Twitter, and Tumbler.

Ethical Research

I obtained approval from Walden University IRB before starting the study. Prior to participation in the study, participants had to read the consent form and provide their informed consent. The consent form was a tool to inform participants of their role in the study, as well as their rights to participate or leave the study (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). The consent form was the first page of the online survey, and participants had to indicate their consent to participate by selecting that they understood their role in the study and consent to provide data to the study. If a participant did not agree to participate in the study after reading the consent materials, the web page directed them out of the survey and they were unable to proceed. Participants were able to cease participation in any phase of the study without penalty by simply closing the survey page in their browser.

An initial e-mail letter explaining the scope of the study was included with the confidential policy and participation requirements. The notice included a provision to option-out, and explained how the researcher protected participant identities and data. If the participant chose to participate, he or she clicked the disclosure and authorization button. By clicking the participation button, the participant agreed to a no waiting period; however, the participant at any time could option-out by exiting the website. The initial e-mail notice and consent materials informed participants they could stop the survey process at any time during the survey without penalty by closing the survey window on their Internet browser. The study did not involve incentives for participation.

Many safe guards were in place to guarantee ethical protections for participants.

Walden University's IRB approved this study prior to launching the research. This

process ensured compliance with all appropriate federal laws, the regulation at the institution was appropriate, and researchers maintained appropriate conduct during the process to maintain transparency (Florczak & Lockie, 2015; Klitzman, 2013).

The exclusion of personal information related to participants and organizations ensured participant protection. The participants were adult volunteers who will give their answers anonymously. I used SurveyMonkey for data collection and retrieval. I contacted unions through Facebook, LinkedIn, and union sites containing the e-mail address of members to gain access and permission from those union members. A locked fireproof file cabinet presently safeguard the anonymous information for 5 years, protecting the participants' identification and location of study. At the end of the 5 years, I will destroy the data by permanent deletion. Appendices A and B contain surveys I used in the study. Walden University's IRB approval number for this study is 10-28-16-0246284.

Data Collection Instruments

I used three data gathering instruments for this study, including (a) a brief demographic survey, (b) the Behavior Description Questionnaire XII, and (c) the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. As a prescreening measure, I asked participants if they were older than 18 years of age, if they were dues-paying members of a union, and if they belonged to a union for more than one year. If participants gave affirmative answers to those three questions, participants moved to the next set of questions regarding their age, length of time in the union, and gender (see Appendix D). Second, participants completed the organizational trust inventory, developed in 1996 by Cummings and

Bromiley, and validated by Andreescu and Vito (2010). Appendices B and C contained these instruments. The last part of the study consisted of participants completing the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, developed by the staff of the Personnel Research Board, The Ohio State University in 1957, and finalized to Version XII in 1962. I based validation of this survey on the work of Judge et al. (2004), and Appendix B contains the finalized version. Upon completion of the data collection and analysis, other researchers and auditors could request raw de-identified data from the researcher. See permissions in Appendix C.

Demographic

Participants gained access to the survey instruments through SurveyMonkey. I used the demographic portion of the instrument to determine member eligibility based on the following criteria: (a) members were older than 18 years of age, (b) members held a membership in a union represented job, and (c) members worked in a union represented job for at least one year. I used this initial information as inclusion criteria; I only allow adults (18 years or older) who were union members for at least one year to complete the survey (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). I used additional questions to gather participants' age, gender, and length of time in the union; this allowed me to report sample demographic information. After completing the demographic portion of the survey, participants proceeded to the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire XII.

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire XII

The second instrument on the survey was the 1962 LBDQ XII. Stogdill (1963) developed and tested the LBDQ XII for validity and reliability at the Ohio State Fisher

College of Business. Researchers have successfully administered this scale to several populations, including army division, highway patrol, aircraft executives, ministers, community leaders, corporation presidents, labor presidents, college presidents, and senators. The 12 constructs for the LBDQ follow below, including the concepts each scale measures, as well as reliability properties:

- 1. Representation: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader spoke and acted as the representative of the group. It derives from the average of responses to five items, and has an internal consistency (i.e., reliability) ranging from .54 (among corporation presidents) to .85 (among aircraft executives). Stogdill (1963) calculated the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .70.
- 2. Demand Reconciliation: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader reconciled conflicting demands and reduced disorder to system. This scale also consisted of five items, and has average reliability scores ranging from .58 (among community leaders) to .81 (among labor presidents).
- 3. Tolerance of Uncertainty: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader tolerated uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset. It consisted of 10 items, and has reliability coefficients ranging from .58 (among the army division) to .85 (among community leaders). Stogdill (1963) showed the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .82.
- 4. Persuasiveness: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader used persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions. It

resulted from the mean of 10 items. Reliability coefficients for this scale were higher on average, ranging from .69 (among corporation presidents) to .85 (among highway patrol). Stogdill (1963) showed the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .80.

- 5. Initiation of Structure: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader clearly defines their own role, and lets followers know what was expected. It was composed from the average response of 10 items, and had a slightly higher average reliability. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for this scale ranged from .64 (among senators) to .80 (among college presidents). Stogdill (1963) showed the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .78.
- 6. Tolerance and Freedom: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader allowed followers scope for initiative, decision, and action. It consisted of 10 items, and had alpha coefficients ranging from .58 (among labor presidents) to .86 (among aircraft executives and community leaders). Stogdill (1963) showed the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .58.
- 7. Role Assumption: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader actively exercised the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others. It consisted of 10 items. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for this scale range from .57 (among corporation leaders) to .86 (among labor presidents).
- 8. Consideration: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader regarded the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers. It resulted from the average of 10 items, and has reliabilities ranging from .38 (among

senators) to .87 (among highway patrol). Stogdill (1963) showed the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .83.

- 9. Production Emphasis: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader applies pressure for productive output. It resulted from the average of 10 responses, and has reliabilities ranging from .59 (among ministers) to .79 (among highway patrol, aircraft executives, and community leaders). Stogdill (1963) showed the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .65.
- 10. Predictive Accuracy: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcome accurately. This scale consisted of five items, with reliability coefficients ranging from .76 (among the army division) to .91 (among aircraft executives). Stogdill (1963) showed the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents to be .87.
- 11. Integration: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader maintained a closely-knit organization and resolved inter-member conflicts. This scale consisted of five items, with reliability coefficients ranging from .73 (among army division) to .79 (among highway patrol). Researchers have not yet tested the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents.
- 12. Superior Orientation: This scale represented the degree to which the respondent felt their leader maintains cordial relations with superiors and has influence with them, or was striving for higher status. It resulted from the mean of 10 items, and has reliability coefficients ranging from .60 (among college presidents) to .81 (among

aircraft executives). Researchers have not yet tested the internal consistency of this scale among labor presidents.

This instrument measured constructs on a 5-point Likert-type survey that included 100 questions and consisted of 12 interval level subscales. For the purpose of this study, the survey included questions for two of the subscales, and thus consisted of 20 items from this instrument. In their 2013 study, Kluger and Zaidel used the LBDQ XII in a similar way, which consisted of the consideration and initiating structure scales only. Both scales retained their high internal consistency, where consideration had a Cronbach's alpha of .86 and initiating structure had an alpha of .76 (Kluger & Zaidel, 2013).

This instrument was a tool for abstracting the leadership behaviors union members perceived of their leaders; it measured both (a) leadership consideration and (b) leadership initiation of structure as continuous variables. Both subscales consisted of responses to 10 items each, and thus resulted in 20 items pertaining to the study, though I administered the full instrument maintaining the same structure as in previous studies where reliability and validity were assessed. Kluger and Zaidel (2013) researched the topic of people oriented (consideration) and task orientated (initiating structure) on the LBDQ XII assessment. The Cronbach's alpha reliability for leadership consideration was .86 and was .76 for initiating structure, suggested a good degree of internal consistency based on George and Mallery's (2010) guidelines for interpreting Cronbach's alpha. In addition to the known reliability, I conducted a test of internal consistency using the same

measure (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) to determine the degree of reliability within the present sample.

Predictive validity refers to the degree to which an instrument's scores are able to predict or correlate with another instrument that measures a separate, but related concept (Hubley & Zumbo, 1996). Sgro et al. (1980) used the LBDQ to predict scores on the RITS. In this study, the researchers determined a significant correlation between leadership consideration and trust (r = .33, p < .01) and initiating structure and trust (r = .21, p < .05; Sgro et al., 1980). This indicated the LBDQ exhibits a high degree of predictive validity, specifically in regards to predicting measurements of trust (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey

The third instrument was the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey, which consisted of 19 questions using a 10-point Likert-type format. I used this instrument to measure the level of trust a union member felt for the union and combine subscales of this instrument through averaging, and only used the measure of trust. The resulting variable was continuous in nature and indicated trust levels on a continuum ranging from 1 to 10. Andreescu and Vito (2010) tested the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey for validity and reliability, and determined the instrument was highly valid in a sample of both American and Indian hotel workers, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .76 to .98, which correspond with good to excellent reliability (George & Mallery, 2010). Upon request, I will make raw data with no identifying factors available. Appendices B and C contain the surveys.

Data Collection Technique

When using an electronic survey, Thukral and Goel (2012) confirmed the reliability and relevancy of the collected data. Web-based data collection methods are acceptable, feasible, and preferable for researching (Pyke-Grimm, Kelly, Stewart, & Meza, 2011). The advantage of using a web-based collection method lies in cost effectiveness, ease of use, and flexibility (Sarkar, 2011). The disadvantages of using a web-based collection method were participants may not have access to the Internet and they may lack the skill level to engage. However, Pyke-Grimm et al. (2011) found participants tend to have few problems with electronic data collection, regardless of computer expertise. I created an environment for participants to engage with a system to store, record, retrieve, and manipulate data. SurveyMonkey was a survey host site, and was the tool used in this study to administer the survey to participants electronically. This data collection technique is low in cost and easy to administer, though could result in a return rate much lower than instruments administered face-to-face (Pyke-Grimm et al., 2011).

After IRB approval, I directed participants who respond to the request of participation to SurveyMonkey, which hosted the informed consent form, demographic survey, LBDQ XII, and Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. The full survey took approximately 15–25 minutes to complete. I downloaded the raw data as a file formatted for SPSS. I removed participants who did not complete the necessary scales or who had excessive outliers, as they were either unusable in the present study or skewed the data (Stevens, 2012). I also removed any nonconsenting responses.

I collected data using a specific e-mail address, sethfrancoisdocs@gmail.com, for participants' submitted surveys. I held the information gathered through SurveyMonkey on the site's database until extracted as a .sav file for analysis. I stored this resulting .sav file. Data collection involved use of SPSS to transfer, store, and manipulate data. The SPSS software allowed me to conduct multiple statistical reports and create charts and graphs. The SPSS software was a tool used to crosscheck data to ensure the accuracy. In the study, SPSS was the instrument used to identify if a correlation exists between a set of several variables. I will retain raw data for a period of 5 years, and saved data in a password-protected file on a password-protected computer to protect the anonymity of the study participants. At the end of the 5-year period, I will destroy data by deletion.

Data Analysis

I entered data into SPSS for ease of organization and statistical analysis. I then screen the data for accuracy, missing data and outliers, or extreme cases. I conducted descriptive statistics and frequency distributions to determine responses were within possible range of values and outliers do not distort the data. I tested the presence of outliers by the examination of standardized values. I created standardized values for each subscale score, and examine cases for values above 3.29 and below -3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). I examined cases with missing data for nonrandom patterns. I excluded participants who do not complete major sections of the survey. Following data cleaning and assessment procedures, I began analysis. The analyses informed the following research question and hypotheses:

What is the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust?

Null Hypotheses (H_0): There is no relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Alternative Hypotheses (H_1): There is a relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Hypothesis 1

In order to address Hypothesis 1, I conducted a multiple linear regression. The multiple linear regression was the appropriate analysis to conduct when the goal of researcher was to determine if a linear relationship existed between a set of predictor (independent) variable and a single continuous outcome (dependent) variable (Pagano, 2009). The independent variables was leadership consideration and leadership initiation of structure, and the dependent variable was leadership trust. The following sections present the specific procedures and justification for this analysis. Post hoc analysis of the leadership consideration predictor directly inform hypothesis one.

Hypothesis 2

In order to address Hypothesis 2, I utilized the same multiple linear regression.

The multiple linear regression is the appropriate analysis to conduct when the goal of researcher is to determine if a linear relationship exists between a set of predictor

(independent) variables and a single continuous outcome (dependent) variable (Pagano, 2009). Because this hypothesis was tested using the same overall model as used to test hypothesis one, the independent variables was leadership initiation of structure and leadership consideration, and the dependent variable was leadership trust. However, to inform this research question, post hoc analysis of the leadership initiation of structure variable was conducted. The following sections present the specific procedures and justification for this analysis.

Linear Regression

Though multiple linear regression is one of many correlational analyses, it was the most appropriate for this study because it allowed entry of multiple predictors and was able to parse out the effect of each variable in the analysis to accurately describe each predictor's contribution to any predictive relationship found (Stevens, 2012). This degree of statistical ability is not available within the scope of the Pearson correlation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). In this multiple linear regression, I entered both predictor variables into the model (i.e., leadership consideration and leadership initiation of structure) simultaneously, which created a model that accounted for the influential nature of both of these variables while controlling for the effect of one another.

The regression model uses the F test to assess whether the set of independent variables collectively predicts the dependent variable (Pallant, 2013). To interpret the results of these analyses, I examined the F statistic for each overall regression and interpreted this outcome through a corresponding p value. For a regression with a p value below .05, I interpreted the effect size and review the individual predictors within the

regression. I examined effect sizes for regressions using the partial η^2 statistic. According to Cohen (1992), effect sizes for a regression are small if they are above .02, medium if they are above .15, and large if they are above .35. After determining the strength of the predictive equation, I assessed individual predictors for their significance

to the regression by examination of B values and standardized β values. It is during this

step of the analysis that either hypothesis was answered.

The standardized β is the partial correlation coefficient, as it indicates the strength of a relationship between a predictor and the outcome variable after controlling for each of the other predictors (Stevens, 2012). To determine whether an individual predictor was significant, I subjected this standardized β to a t test to determine if it is significantly different from zero. For significant predictors, I examined both the standardized β and the unstandardized β . The β value explained the relationship between a predictor and the outcome while all other predictors were constant. For a significant predictor, an increase of one unit in the predictor variable corresponds with an increase (or decrease) of β in the outcome (Stevens, 2012).

Assumptions. Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the multiple linear regression. The assumptions of the multiple linear regression included linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. Normality assumed a normal bell curve distribution between residuals, the predictor variables, and the criterion variable, while homoscedasticity assumes scores have near equal distributions about the regression line. A researcher assesses normality and homoscedasticity by examining the scatter plots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The absence of multicollinearity assumed predictor

variables were not too closely related, and I assessed this using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF).

Variance Inflation Factors values higher than 10 will suggest the presence of multicollinearity and a violation of the assumption (Stevens, 2012). Stevens (2012) further stated when a sample size approaches 30, researchers could assume normality with a relatively small effect to the validity. However, if the data violated these assumptions, a bivariate analysis was considered using nonparametric tests. The Spearman correlation is the nonparametric equivalent of the bivariate correlation, and is the analysis most analogous to the linear regression. The F family of tests (i.e., regression analyses) are robust to violations of these assumptions, and nonparametric testing will only take place if these assumptions are highly violated (Stevens, 2012). The data analysis process consisted of using tools to ensure participants provided information that met the standard of calibration and used tools that enable accurate analysis of the information collected. This deductive approach was important to the design of this study. After participants completed the questionnaire on the SurveyMonkey website, I downloaded data as a .sav SPSS file. Outside the research, IRB and Walden University prohibits the unauthorized use of personal information. The information collected was stored in a safe location at my home on a secured drive in a locked fireproof file cabinet.

I loaded data from the surveys into SPSS GradPack Version 18 to determine the strength and direction of any potential relationship. SPSS was valuable to ascertain the direction and influence relative to the linear relationship of two variables by means of hypothesis testing the data set information collected. I used descriptive statistics to

describe the sample demographics and the research variables used in the analysis. I calculated frequency and percentages for nominal data and the means and standard deviations for continuous data (Howell, 2012).

Study Validity

The primary mechanism to ensure validity in the study is to assess internal and external threats during the data collection and analysis process (Bleijenbergh, Korzilius, & Verschuren, 2011). The survey collected scores for the organizational trust with executive board leaders throughout the union organization. This holistic approach was important in research and requires the knowledge of understanding the subsystems of the whole problem (Bleijenbergh et al., 2011). By identifying potential threats and the issues caused by the threats, I created an action plan to mitigate threats (Wilson & Darke, 2012). The process included testing the data to ensure accuracy and safeguard the data collected.

The relationship between internal and external validity in a study is a relationship of trade off, where taking measures to increase one form of validity typically results in study features that jeopardize the other. However, internal validity is also a precursor to external validity (María & Miller, 2010). One measure of internal validity is power, or the ability to detect significance where it exists, thus decreasing rates of Type II error (Stevens, 2012). Increasing power occurs using a larger pool of participants to ensure obtainment of the .05 alpha level. This attention to the sample size contributed to the external validity as well, as results are representative of a larger number of participants.

External validity refers to the validity of statistically measureable relationships that transcend alternate measures of cause and effect, the population, time, and

environment (María & Miller, 2010). The external validity is the generalization of the research that applies to the research population (Erdinc & Yeow, 2011). I used purposive sampling for the population selection using social media sites and union-related site containing e-mails. The goal was to ensure study tools calibrate and capture the correct data from an appropriate sample. This purposive sampling method helped to gather applicable participants who provided responses representative of the targeted population. In doing so, and by achieving a minimum of 66 participants, results should be externally valid to the population at large (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Because this is a cross-sectional study, no issues of validity existed in terms of experimental mortality, participant changes, or environmental changes between measurements. However, it is possible observer error may affect the validity of the data collected for the study. In this study, participants were provided self-reports through Likert-type surveys. Because the participants provided data for their own perception scores, participants were also the observer in this study. Using closed-ended question ensured data consistency, wherein participants all answer like questions. Closed-ended questions ensured a concise understanding of the participants' answers. I had no need to interpret the response of a participant or to develop categories for placement of responses from participants. A higher instance of error could have occurred when using openended questions, and this would have allowed the potential for researcher bias in the data analysis. By using closed-ended questions, I aimed to decrease observer error and remove the potential for researcher bias.

I chose two existing surveys in determining the closed-ended questions on which participants self-report their perceptions for leadership trust and leadership characteristic. Upon consideration for use in the present study, existing researchers assessed information for both instruments and confirmed the instruments' validity and reliability. According to Witta and Gupton's (1999) assessment of the reliability and validity of the LBDQ, the reliability for leadership consideration was .76, and for initiating structure the reliability was .80, suggesting the instrument is reliable. Predictive validity refers to the degree to which an instrument's scores are able to predict or correlate with another instrument that measures a separate, but related concept (Howell, 2012). A study conducted by Sgro et al. (1980), the researchers determined a significant correlation between leadership consideration and leadership trust (r = .33, p < .01) and initiating structure and trust (r = .21, p < .05; Sgro et al., 1980). This indicated the LBDQ exhibits a high degree of predictive validity, specifically in regards to measurements of trust (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Transition and Summary

Section 2 of the study provided the foundation of the study and outlined the specific methodological procedures in meeting the purpose of the study. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. Section 2 included the role of the researcher, population of interest, analysis, and the potential threats to validity and reliability, including remedies to these potential harms. The section also presented

the method of selecting participants and protecting participants from undue harm. The research method and design discussion provided the tools and method of calibration in response to the guiding research question, which asks, "To what extent was there a statistical relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members perceptions of leadership trust?" The particular parameters for the population, sampling, data collection, data analysis, and ethical consideration follow, detailing the probabilistic sampling strategy of participants from a series of social media sites.

In Section 3, the findings of the study and a discussion of how the study applies to professional practice emerges. Section 3 first includes the statistical results and interpretation of the outcomes, and then outlines how the study affects social change and provides recommendations for action regarding social change. Section 3 also presents recommendations for further studies on the topic of leadership and organizational trust. This section then details the researcher's reflections and a summary and conclusion of the study.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The full model was able to significantly predict union members' perceptions of leadership trust, F(2, 41) = 10.40, p < .001, $R^2 = .30$. Leadership consideration was the only significant contributor to the model ($\beta = .62$, t = 3.23, p = .002).

Presentation of Findings

I used standard multiple linear regression, α = .05 (two-tailed), to examine the efficacy of union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The independent variables were union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration and union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure. The dependent variable was union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The null hypothesis was, no relationship exists between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The alternative hypothesis was, a relationship exists between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

Tests of Assumptions

I evaluated the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. Bootstrapping, using 1,000 samples, enabled combating the influence of assumption violations.

Multicollinearity. Multicollinearity was evaluated by examining the VIF. The assumption of multicollinearity was met because no VIFs were higher than 10.

Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I simultaneously evaluated the remaining assumptions (outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals) by examining the normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residual (see Figure 1) and the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (see Figure 2). The examinations indicated violations of these assumptions. The tendency of the points not to lie in a reasonably straight line (see Figure 1), diagonal from the bottom left to the top right, provides supportive evidence the assumption of normality was violated (Pallant, 2013). The systematic pattern (cone shape) in the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (see Figure 2) further supports the tenability of the assumptions being violated, indicating a difference in the magnitude of error as a function of the predictor values. Therefore, I computed 1,000 bootstrapping samples to combat any possible influence of assumption violations, and reported 95% confidence intervals based upon the bootstrap samples, where appropriate.

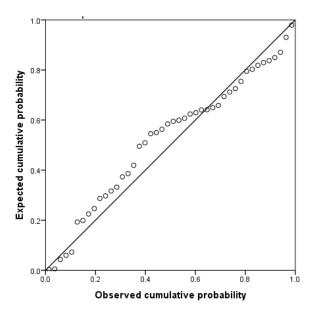


Figure 1. Normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals.

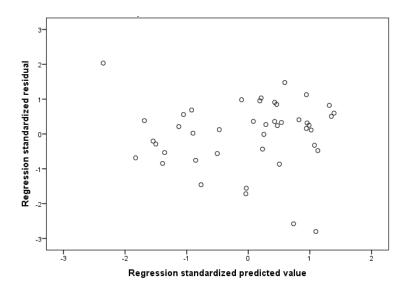


Figure 2. Scatterplot of the standardized residuals.

Descriptive Statistics

The analysis involved 44 records. Tables 1 and 2 contain descriptive statistics of the study categorical and continuous variables, respectively. The large standard deviation

(SD = 2.69) for overall trust suggests participants all tended to have highly varying perceptions of trust.

Table 1 $Descriptive \ Statistics \ for \ Categorical \ Demographics \ (N=44)$

Demographic	N	%
U.S. Citizen	44	100
Years as dues-paying union member		
1–3 years	4	9.1
> 3–5 years	7	15.9
> 5–9 years	8	18.2
More than 10 years	25	56.8
Age group		
25–34	2	4.5
35–44	11	25.0
45–54	20	45.5
55 and older	11	25.0
Gender		
Male	17	38.6
Female	27	61.4

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Study Variables (N = 44)

Variable	M	SD	Bootstrap 95% CI (<i>M</i>)	Bootstrap 95% CI (SD)
Initiation of structure	3.55	0.88	[3.29, 3.82]	[0.71, 1.01]
Consideration	3.52	0.98	[3.22, 3.80]	[0.79, 1.12]
Overall trust	5.77	2.69	[4.99, 6.57]	[2.27, 3.01]

Inferential Results

I used simultaneous multiple linear regressions, α = .05 (two-tailed), to examine the efficacy of union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration and union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, in predicting union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The independent variables were union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration and union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure. The dependent variable was union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The null hypothesis was, no relationship exists between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The alternative hypothesis was, a relationship exists between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust.

I conducted preliminary analyses to assess whether the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were met; I noted violations (see Tests of Assumptions); therefore,

bootstrapping 95% confident intervals, using 1,000 sample were reported, where applicable. The model as a whole was able to significantly predict union members' perceptions of leadership trust. F(2.41) = 10.40, p < .001, $R^2 = .30$, indicating 30% of variations in union members' perceptions of leadership trust is accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables. In the final model, only the leadership consideration was significantly predictive of perceptions of leadership trust, $\beta = .62$, t =3.23, p = .002. This result indicates that, after controlling for the influence of perceived initiation of structure, perceived leadership consideration had an individual effect on overall trust and resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis. Examination of the unstandardized beta coefficient indicated that a one-unit increase in perceptions of leadership consideration corresponded to a 1.71-unit increase in overall trust. The 95% confidence interval for this variable's beta value ranged from 0.76 to 2.47, suggesting that the positive relationship was likely to be supported in 95 out of 100 samples if the study were to be repeated 100 times. Table 3 depicts the regression analysis summary for the predictor variables. The final predictive equation was include regression equation.

Table 3

Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables

Variable	В	SE B	β	t	p	B 95% Bootstrap CI
Initiation of structure	-0.17	0.59	-0.06	-0.29	.773	[-1.17, 0.79]
Consideration	1.71	0.53	0.62	3.23	.002	[0.76, 2.47]

The results related to leadership consideration were largely consistent with the previously published literature. Theoretically, researchers have supported the importance of leadership consideration (Judge et al., 2004; Stogdill, 1953; Tracy, 1987). Broadly, the findings related to leadership consideration were consistent with the determination that leadership behaviors can establish trust among followers (Cho & Poister, 2014; Hernandez et al., 2014). Leadership consideration is a transformational trait (Derue et al., 2011); therefore, the findings supported the use of a transformational leadership behavior in establishing trust among union members. My finding was also consistent with Boies et al. (2015), who found communication styles consistent with transformational leadership were important in building trust, and with Newman et al. (2014), who suggested considerate, ethical behavior supported trusting organizations. Johnson et al. (2012) further determined transformational leadership and leadership consideration unites followers. Consistent with this interpretation, Sparrow (2013) suggested behaviors that build leadership trust are investment in relationship, honesty, humility, and consistency. Thus, the present findings, in conjunction with theoretical literature, supported the use of the transformational behavior of leadership consideration in establishing trust among union members.

The results were also consistent with the literature published regarding leadership consideration and its relationship to trust. For example, McCleskey (2014) used a qualitative meta-analysis of three seminal studies referencing situational leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. The results were that leadership consideration correlated with leadership effectiveness. Similarly, Green et al.

(2015) conducted a quantitative meta-analysis of literature using the LBDQ and determined leadership consideration predicted trust. Thus, analyses of present literature supported the current findings.

Additional support for the present findings existed in quantitative studies conducted by Bai et al. (2012), Sgro et al. (1980), and Sousa-Lima et al. (2013). Bai et al. studied how leaders in top management positions affected employee's trust in leaders through transformational leadership, specifically by exhibiting caring, reflexive, and considerate behavior, although they did not utilize LBDQ measures of consideration. Sousa-Lima et al. (2013) further discovered consideration, defined by fairness, information sharing with employees, and necessary support to employees, improved leadership trust. Most similarly to the present study, Sgro et al. (1980) also found a significant correlation between leadership consideration and leadership trust among 149 freshman cadets and 41 cadet leaders in the military corps from two southern universities.

Through this study, I extended the findings of Bai et al. (2012), Sgro et al., and Sousa-Lima et al. (2013) by establishing that leadership consideration was also significantly predictive of perceptions of leadership trust, $\beta = .62$, t = 3.23, p = .002. Thus, the present study was consistent with Green et al.'s (2015), McCleskey's, and Sgro et al.'s findings, but provided significant extension of the literature by establishing a strong, predictive relationship between leadership consideration and leadership trust. These findings suggest for effective business practice, union leaders should establish trust by exhibiting leadership consideration, consistent with Li et al.'s (2015) determination about the role of trust in organizational practice.

Applications to Professional Practice

Consideration, or leaders' attendance to the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers, was a significant predictor of leadership trust among union members in the present study on predicting leadership trust. On the other hand, the findings did not support the use of leadership initiation of structure as a predictor for leadership trusts. Therefore, union leaders and managers should invest time, create an environment, and implement training to improve their consideration in the work environment. Union leaders should strive to ensure the comfort, well-being, status, and contribution of followers so that they feel recognized, considered, and validated.

Union leaders can use several methods to ensure that direct representatives in leadership positions demonstrate leadership consideration based on the results of the study and as suggested by prior researchers (Green et al., 2015; Sgro et al., 1980; Szilagyi & Keller, 1976). For example, executive board members in unions can measure union representatives' aptitude for leadership consideration using the leadership consideration items on the LBDQ, as I employed in the present study. Such evaluation should be established not only through self-rating, but also through union members' ratings. Member evaluation of leadership consideration can ensure the proper behaviors and actions of leaders are present to establish trust in unions. Members should be engaged in meetings, at worksites, and through surveys in the mail or electronically regarding their evaluation of the union, organizational leaders, and worksite leaders. This evaluation can act as a baseline for understanding the leadership consideration of union representatives, which led to increased trust in the present sample.

Furthermore, union executive board members may consider training leaders, specifically union representatives, to display leadership consideration. Such leaders should create, maintain, and expand a considerate work environment in which union members are recognized for their contributions, valued as union members and decision stakeholders, enabled to grow within the union ranks, and handled fairly (Sousa-Lima et al., 2013). Sousa-Lima et al. (2013) discovered fairness, information sharing with employees, and providing the necessary support to employees improved leadership trust through leadership consideration. Sparrow (2013) further suggested behaviors that build leadership trust are investment in relationship, honesty, humility, and consistency. Union leadership may consider implementing a training workshop, wherein leaders who work directly with union members can roleplay the proper interaction with members, including fairness, transparency, relationship building, and support (Bass, 1990). Such training can be developed internally based on the needs of the union, or through contracting an outside consultant specializing in leadership consideration, LDBQ, or membership retention.

It is not enough that only direct leadership display leadership consideration; such a member-centric union model must infiltrate all levels of leaders and staff (Piccolo et al., 2012; Sparrow, 2013). Unions can also establish an environment of leadership consideration by creating a membership complaint line where an independent ombudsman can review members' concerns and make recommendations to organizational leaders to mitigate. Achieving an environment where members feel their well-being and opinions are important, even to the higher echelons of union leadership,

can establish perceptions of leadership consideration and lead to increased trust in union leadership. An emphasis on the trust developed through leadership consideration is essential because of declining membership and participation in labor unions (Chang et al., 2016; Coombs & Cebula, 2011), especially given that the present sample showed a wide range of responses with regards to their overall trust. Some participants reported significantly distrusting union leadership, and others showed significant trust in union leadership. The large standard deviation in trust scores may mean that union executive board members need to cultivate a more consistent image of leadership consideration to create a more standard, trustful image for union members. To do so, trust must be part of the organizational culture (Sparrow, 2013); therefore, union leaders must demonstrate leadership consideration as a hallmark of their organizational culture to cultivate such trust at all levels of the union.

Implications for Social Change

The findings could beneficially affect social change and be useful for union leaders and leaders of membership organizations wanting to improve the level of leadership trust. The long-term outcomes associated with improving leadership consideration include members' feelings of belonging, increased participation of members, and reducing the decline of union membership in the United States. This may lead to heightened organizational activities of unions, and subsequently balancing power, ability to negotiate higher wages, better working conditions for employees, and equal terms and condition of employment throughout the United States. Previous researchers have established union members experience a lack of trust in leadership within their

workplace and in the union (Chang et al., 2016; Jacobs, 2013). This study finding indicates trust correlates with leadership consideration. Thus, an implication of the study is the benefits of increasing consideration in the vein of providing members with comfort, well-being, status, acknowledgement of members' contributions, and improving the level of trust in union leaders. Union leaders should exhibit consideration to their members to enable social change through union participation with the knowledge that a lack of trust interferes with social identification with a union (Born et al., 2013; Coombs & Cebula, 2011). Coombs and Cebula (2011) further noted a lack of trust decreased union membership. For unions, lack of trust can therefore result in decreased union member participation in activities, such as strikes, which make labor unions effective (Born et al., 2013). Moreover, union strikes are important in leveraging outcomes to achieve better union contracts, addressing worksite safety, and uniting union members for a common cause.

Unions are financed by membership dues, fare-share fees, and donations made by members for political purposes. When membership dues decrease, the union loses income, and subsequently loses the ability to fund campaigns to win better contracts, organize new work-sites for new unit certification, defend against decertification of units because of unhappy members and raiding, support the ability of the union to back political candidates supporting American workers, hire staff to negotiate union contracts, organize the handling of work-site grievances, and establish representation for union members. The improvement of leadership trust in unions through leadership consideration could therefore improve the commitment of followers and employees, and

subsequently increase union membership. Zimmer (2011) stated increased union participation may have a positive effect on unions' (a) economic impact, (b) political effects, and (c) social enhancements. Thus, union leaders acting according to the results of the present study could have significant economic, political, and social implications that can improve workers' experiences through union organization. The community can benefit from the ripple effect of building better worksites that pay higher wages. Higher income of workers provides a larger federal, state, county, and city tax base.

Recommendations for Action

The results of this study indicate several actionable steps on the part of union leadership. The following list includes recommendations.

- Union executives should consider vetting and training leaders to create an environment of comfort and well-being.
- Union leaders should consider open and honest leadership practices, exhibited through consideration of union members' perspectives.
- Union leaders should recognize members' contributions in a fair manner.
- Union leaders should work towards improving internal communications and
 use all forms of technology to assist in building a two-way platform of
 communication to show consideration to members.
- Union leaders should provide action oriented membership services that protect members' interests.
- Union leaders should be willing to hear and take appropriate action to correct members' concerns.

Union leadership could use the results of this study to create a higher level of trust within union organizations. When union members feel their leaders have their best interest in mind relative to consideration, these union members trust in leadership.

Executive boards and officers in unions should use the study results to train and educate union leaders to improve opportunities to build trust within their union membership.

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the results of the present study, I make several recommendations for further research. First, as the present research did not support Stogdill's (1953) model combining leadership initiation of structure and leadership consideration in conjunction for organizational outcomes, I recommend a qualitative study where interviews take place with union leaders and members with key questions to ascertain leadership behaviors from the LBDQ and perceptions of those behaviors. A qualitative method offers the researcher an opportunity to identify a leader's range of behaviors that fosters trust. Qualitative questions could include how union leaders establish trust in specific labor union sectors, and what behaviors members perceive in trusted union leaders. This qualitative study, and my interpretation, may help to determine whether and how transformational or transactional leadership behaviors combine to establish effective leadership, specifically leadership trust, without identifying specific behaviors prior to the fact.

Future researchers should also pursue the causation of lack of trust in union leaders using quantitative methods. Although I used the LBDQ to measure behavioral traits in leaders, future researchers may use an alternate questionnaire to analyze other

leadership behaviors related to members' trust in union leaders, specifically. The findings of the present research suggest transformational leadership behaviors, such as consideration, may be more effective for establishing trust than transactional leadership behaviors, such as leadership initiation of structure. Therefore, future researchers should examine Podsakoff's (1990) six dimensions of transformational leadership related to trust: articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, individualized support, and intellectual stimulation. Because results are limited to the validity of the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey, future researchers may seek validation outside the confines of this instrument, as may be appropriate within the specific environment of a leadership union. Because trust is so essential to union membership and participation, researchers may consider developing specific instruments for assessing trust within labor unions.

Additional recommendations stem from the limitations of the present study. One limitation presented in this study was that union members did not take the time to complete the survey using the social media platform. Despite multiple attempts to recruit union members, through social media posts and email lists obtained through unions, only 44 participants completed the survey within a 3-month period. The initiation of the research started during the 2016 presidential election may have affected the number of respondents. For the future, the study may be replicated in a nonpolitical season to ensure members are available to participate in survey. In addition, researchers may consider visiting union meetings in person or through teleconference to discuss the importance of the research and to garner participation. Future researchers should

ascertain languages understood by the sample population, and consider preparing surveys in multiple language.

Reflections

Experiencing the research process, I found personal growth was necessary to complete the process. The research process was overwhelming at times, which has humbled me. Overall, the process was exciting, and a learning platform for future endeavors. I have learned that opportunities to grow in the Walden community could be obtained through peers, Walden research tools, and from interaction with my Dissertation Chair and other Committee Members. The collaborative process of writing a dissertation was a change in perspective from my previous experiences with writing documents.

Entering the process, I had several assumptions about union leadership relating to members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perception of leadership trust. My first assumption of union leadership as it related to members' perceptions of union leadership consideration was that leaders did not consider the comfort, well-being, and contribution of members. Through my research, I found that in some cases, union leadership was effective in establishing consideration, and when that occurred, leadership trust also increased. My second assumption was union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, or how members perceived their leaders' abilities to clearly define their own role and let members know what to expect, would establish trust. I assumed leaders did not clearly define roles and members had unclear expectations, and

that factor would lead to decreased trust among union members. However, I found initiation of structure had an insignificant effect on leadership trust.

My third assumption was union members' leadership trust would be low. This was established through personal experiences as well as information in the literature (e.g., Chang et al., 2016; Coombs & Cebula, 2011). This assumption was confirmed through the research process. Reviewing the data, a lack of trust existed in union leaders. My perception after reviewing the data results of 44 respondents and the review of the literature led to my firm belief that union leaders must focus on establishing leadership consideration to create trust throughout the labor union sector, and to reap the economic, social, and political benefits of active union membership in the workforce (Zimmer, 2011).

Summary and Study Conclusions

The finding of this study provided a response regarding the lack of trust and resultant declining membership and participation in labor unions. Specifically, the purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between union members' perceptions of union leadership consideration, union members' perceptions of leadership initiation of structure, and union members' perceptions of leadership trust. The diverse sample included 44 union members who were U.S. citizens and who responded to social media and email recruitment procedures. The results of the multiple linear regression indicated leadership consideration had a significant predictive relationship of union members' perceptions of leadership trust. Conversely, no such relationship existed between leadership initiations of structure.

The results had several implications for research and for practice within unions. First, the findings supported the use of the transformational behavior of leadership consideration to increase leadership trust. According to the findings, union leaders must lead by example and establish an environment where the comfort, well-being, status, and contribution of followers are paramount. To establish consideration, union leaders must create an environment of fairness, consider members' input, and communicate clearly in the overall scheme of the union, and clear communications is established. Alternatively, union leaders do not necessarily need to invest their time in establishing and initiating structure, according to the results of the present study. More focus must be in the area of selecting and training leaders to understand the importance of consideration as it relates to building trust among union members.

With consideration established, union leaders may be able to increase members' perceptions of trust, thereby retaining members and maintaining their participation in the union. Through union participation, the workforce can reap economic, political, and social gains on the part of workers (Zimmer, 2011). Moreover, many members are required to pay union dues as a member, or fees as a nonmember, and this payment should be met with trust in leadership to have the members' interest as a priority. Utilizing these recommendations can significantly improve current business practices.

This study extended the findings of Bai et al. (2012), Sgro et al., and Sousa-Lima et al. (2013) by establishing that leadership consideration was also significantly predictive of perceptions of leadership trust, $\beta = .62$, t = 3.23, p = .002. Thus, the present study was consistent with Green et al.'s (2015), McCleskey's, and Sgro et al.'s findings,

but provided significant extension of the literature by establishing a strong, predictive relationship between leadership consideration and leadership trust. The findings suggest for effective business practice, union leaders should establish trust by exhibiting leadership consideration, consistent with Li et al.'s (2015) determination regarding the role of trust in organizational practice.

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Appendix A: Survey Questions: Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey and Use

Permission

Note: Test name created by PsycTESTS

PsycTESTS Citation:

Chathoth, P. K., Mak, B., Sim, J., Jauhari, V., & Manaktola, K. (2011). Trust

and Employee Satisfaction Survey [Database record]. Retrieved from

PsycTESTS. doi:10.1037/t24191-000

Test Shown: Full

Test Format:

This measure uses the 10-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 10 = strongly disagree)

strongly agree).

Source:

Chathoth, Prakash K., Mak, Brenda, Sim, Janet, Jauhari, Vinnie, & Manaktola,

Kamal. (2011). Assessing dimensions of organizational trust across cultures: A

comparative analysis of U.S. and Indian full service hotels. International Journal

of Hospitality Management, Vol 30(2), 233-242. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.09.004

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Integrity

- 1. My organization treats me fairly and justly.
- 2. My organization takes significant measures to lead me in the right direction.
- 3. My organization has sound policies to guide me.
- 4. My organization encourages openness in the relationship among employees.
- 5. My organization communicates with me openly and honestly.
- 6. My company tells me the truth, whether it is pleasant or not.
- 7. My company tells me everything I need to know.

Commitment

- 8. My organization tries to maintain a long-term commitment with me.
- 9. My organization shows confidence in my knowledge.
- 10. My organization has built a long-lasting relationship with me.
- 12. My company is willing to invest in me.
- 13. My organization shows confidence in my skills.
- 14. My organization values my input.
- 15. I feel loyal to my organization.

Dependability

- 16. I can rely on my organization's management to keep its promises.
- 17. I am willing to let my organization make decisions for me.

- 18. My organization helps me to deal with all my crises.
- 19. My organization guides me when I do not have the skills, knowledge, or capabilities to handle the situation.
- 20. My organization has a well-established mentorship program for me to obtain guidance from senior employees.

Appendix B: Survey Questions: Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII–

Ideal Leader

DIRECTIONS:

- a. **READ** each item carefully.
- b. **THINK** about how frequently the leader you are scoring engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. **DECIDE** whether he/she (A) Always (B) Often, (C) Occasionally, (D) Seldom or (E) Never act as described by the item.
- d. MARK your answers by clicking on your decision.

The Survey Begins on the Next Page

	A	В	C	D	E
Questions 1-25	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
Act as the spokesman of the group					
Wait patiently for the results of a decision					
Make pep talks to stimulate the group					
Let group members know what is expected					
of them					
Allow the members complete freedom in					
their work					
Be hesitant about taking initiative in the					
group					
Be friendly and approachable					
Encourage overtime work					
Make accurate decisions					
Get along well with the people above him					
Publicize the activities of the group					
Become anxious when he cannot find out					
what is coming next					
Be convincing in his arguments					
Encourage the use of uniform procedures					
Permit the members to use their own					
judgment in solving problems					
Fail to take necessary actions					
Do little things to make it pleasant to be a					
member of the group					
Stress being ahead of competing groups					
Keep the group working together as a team					
Keep the group in good standing with higher					
authority					
Speak as a representative of the group					
Accept defeat in stride					
Argue persuasively for his point of view					
Try out his ideas in the group					
Encourage initiative in the group members					

	A	В	С	D	E
Questions 26-50	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
Let others persons take away his					
leadership in the group					
Put suggestions made by the group into					
operation					
Needle members for greater effort					
Be able to predict what is coming next					
Be working hard for a promotion					
Speak for the group when visitors are					
present					
Accept delays without becoming upset					
Be a very persuasive talker					
Make his attitudes clear to the group					
Let the members do their work the way					
they think best					
Let some members take advantage of					
him					
Treat group members as his equals					
Keep the work moving at a rapid pace					
Settle conflicts when they occur in the					
group					
Get his superiors to act favorably on					
most of his suggestions					
Represent the group at outside meetings					
Become anxious when waiting for new					
developments					
Be very skillful in an argument					
Decide what shall be done and how it					
shall be done					
Assign a task, then lets the members					
handle it					
Be the leader of the group in name only					
Give advance notice of changes					
Push for increased production					
How things turn out as he predicts					
Enjoy the privileges of his position					

	A	В	C	D	E
Questions 51-75	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
Handle complex problems efficiently					
Be able to tolerate postponement and					
uncertainty					
Not be a very convincing talker					
Assign group members to particular tasks					
Turn the members loose on a job, and					
lets them go to it					
Back down when he ought to stand firm					
Keep to himself					
Ask the members to work harder					
Be accurate in predicting the trend of					
events					
Get his superiors to act for the welfare of					
the group members					
Get swamped by details					
Wait just so long, then blows up					
Speak from a strong inner conviction					
Make sure that his part in the group is					
understood by the group members					
Is reluctant to allow the members any					
freedom of action.					
Let some members have authority that he					
should keep					
Look out for the personal welfare of					
group members					
Permit the members to take it easy in					
their work					
See to it that the work of the group is					
coordinated					
How his word carries weight with his					
superiors					
Get things all tangled up					
Remain calm when uncertain about					
coming events					
Be an inspiring talker					
Schedule the work to be done					

Allow the group a high degree of			
initiative			

	A	В	C	D	E
Questions 76-100	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
Take full charge when emergencies arise					
Be willing to make changes					
Drive hard when here is a job to be done					
Help group members settle their					
differences					
Get what he asks for from his superiors					
Be able to reduce a madhouse to system					
and order					
Be able to delay action until the proper					
time occurs					
Persuade others that his ideas are to their					
advantage					
Maintain definite standards of					
performance					
Trust the members to exercise good					
judgment					
Overcome attempts made to challenge					
his leadership					
Refuse to explain his actions					
Urge the group to beat its previous					
record					
Anticipate problems and plans for them					
Be working his way to the top					
Get confused when too many demands					
are made of him					
Worry about the outcome of any new					
procedure					
Inspire enthusiasm for a project					
Ask the group members to follow					
standard rules and regulations					
Permit the group to set its own pace					
Be easily recognized as the leader of the					
group					
Act without consulting the group					

Keep the group working up to capacity			
Maintain a closely knit group			
Maintain cordial relationship with			
superiors			

Appendix C: Use Permission

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire XII Ideal Leader (LBDQ)

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire XII Ideal Leader (LBDQ) was developed by the staff of the Personnel Research Board, The Ohio State University, as one project of the Ohio State Leadership Studies, directed by Dr. Carroll L. Shartle.

There is no cost and no need to request permission to use the LBDQ forms provided via this website. The LBDQ provides a technique whereby group members may describe the behavior of the leader, or leaders, in any type of group or organization, provided the followers have had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as a leader of their group. Use of the following LBDQ components should be for research purposes only and no monetary gain should be realized from their use.

Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey

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Appendix D: Demographic Survey

This demographic survey gathers some basic information about you and determines your eligibility to the study. Please respond honestly and accurately so that your eligibility to the study can be determined. If you are not eligible, you will be directed out of the survey. Thank you for your time!

Do you currently live in the United States?
Yes
No
How many years have you been a due-paying member of a union? I am not a due-paying member of a union Less than one 1-3
4–5
6–9
More than 10
What is your age group?
17 and under
18–24
25–34
35–44
45–54
55 and over
What is your gender?
Male
Female