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An Evaluation of Individuals' Construction of Personal Trust in Organizations

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2016

Abstract

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by

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MBA, Albertus Magnus College, 2004

MS, Albertus Magnus College, 2002

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Trust is in decline within organizations resulting from poor management and ethical indifference. Failing to address trust perceptions has led to stress between management and employees. Researchers have studied organizational trust as a constant quality within groups but have neglected the uniquely individual constructs of trust that inhibit trust-building efforts. The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate how personal constructs of trust may affect outcomes at the organizational level among workers and managers in hierarchal structured organizations. The topics of the research questions addressed the extent which cultural values and the relative trust situation affected individuals' perceptions of the state of trust in organizations. The recruitment strategy included 92 managers and workers over the age of 18 from the Survey Monkey Audience participation pool. The theoretical framework was Glidden's structuration and Bandera's social cognitive theories. The data analysis strategy involved implementing Pedhazur and Schmelkin's procedures for multiple regressions along with effect coding. The study included a survey instrument composed of Hofstede's Values Survey Module 2013 and Chathoth's Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. The results indicated an association between social-cultural values and trust. The results from Chathoth's Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey indicated that the variables of integrity, commitment, and dependability all had a significant statistical association with the demographic role in the organization and with Hofstede's quality of individualism. To enact positive social change, organizational leaders would benefit from evaluating the managerial and worker relationships indicated in the study and incorporate them into trust-building programs.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my late wife Rita, who died in March 2011 while I was in the process of completing this work. It is also dedicated to Carol. God sent us to love and comfort each other. God connected a widower and a widow to find new happiness and joy. Carol has been very patient and supportive of me as I completed the dissertation process.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The declining level of trust is evident in organizations as well as throughout society (Stevenson & Wolfers, 2011). Because a collective or organizational view of trust begins with individuals, it is necessary to understand the stimuli that help determine an individual's generalized trust outlook, which refers to the range of measure used to evaluate a person's general propensity to trust or not to trust. The influential properties that guide answers to new trust issues within an organization are the result of individual sociocultural experiences. Workers' experiences of trust shape their perceptions of their organizational culture and the relative trust environment.

Organizational leaders and individuals who can develop culturally based values and trust disposition profiles can alleviate the stress that accompanies factors related to national and social culture. One way to create better trust-building programs and to achieve greater organizational cohesiveness is by eliminating approaches to the organizational leadership–worker relationship with stereotypical superior–subordinate restrictiveness, (Kimble, 2011). These approaches include an outdated paradigm of adversarial roles for organizational leadership and employees (Quisenberry & Burrell, 2012).

The findings from this study include a means to create a system that includes sociocultural factors when analyzing trust measurements. Cooperation between organizational leaders and workers on the matter of trust can lead to healthier workplaces and workers with fewer health issues related to stress, thereby creating positive social change. This chapter includes the background of the problem, the procedure used to test research hypotheses, the theoretical foundation, and the limitations and significance of the research.

Background of the Study

Researchers have studied trust constructs as separate issues of anthropology, physiology, sociology, and organizational systems (Blommaert, Van Den Broek, & Pooter, 2014; Cook, 2014; Dinesen, 2012). Trust is the subliminal force that leads to social interactions between people. People can communicate on various levels using written and spoken language, art, and music, and trust is the factor that gives meaningful intention to these forms of communication (Blommaert et al., 2014). The origins of trust in societies and organizations are part of mankind's earliest developmental thinking.

Researchers have studied trust in nearly every area of human existence. In the field of genetics, Oskarsson, Dawes, Johannesson, and Magnusson (2011) contributed to the understanding of the genetic origins of relationships. Oskarsson et al. studied ties among psychological traits, hormonal activity, and social trust. Riedl and Javor (2012) examined the biology of the brain for trust-related chemistry and brain function. Uslaner (2008) investigated combinations of culture, ethnicity, and trust. Fisher (2013) and Tierney (2006) investigated the role of social capital and trust in social situations. Hofstede and Minkov (2013) investigated the generation of values across national cultures. Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) and many others examined complex problems of trust within organizations.

Researchers who conduct genetic testing use the information gathered to explore possible connections between trust development and genetic disposition (Riedl & Javor, 2012). Scientists and researchers have theorized that primitive elements for trust constructs exist in people's DNA. Trust research includes research in hereditary issues in anthropology, sociology, and psychology (Oskarsson et al., 2011).

Some researchers have shown that a connection exists between generalized trust and particular ethnic, cultural, and regional backgrounds. Uslaner (2008) showed that people in the United States whose families had a particular ethnic background and had migrated from certain countries and regions had a significant propensity for high- or low-trust profiles. Other researchers took Uslaner's studies to the next level of investigation.

Dinesen (2012) made a significant effort to determine what happens to people from lower trust areas when they migrate to higher trust areas. Dinesen conducted research with people from three countries that had low generalized trust (Italy, Poland, and Turkey) who had immigrated to countries that had higher generalized trust (Denmark, Finland, and Iceland). Dinesen found that living in high-trust countries positively affected the trust levels of emigrants coming from low-trust countries.

The work of Dinesen in this critical area led to a greater understanding of the effects of socialization on trust and added to knowledge when evaluating the constructs of personal trust in organizations. Individuals do not transition from private life to organizational workers as blank slates (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007); rather, they carry with them their genetic, ethnic, and social history as an accumulative weighted effect (Oskarsson et al., 2011). This study involved exploring the idea that positive change comes from a complete understanding of trust issues. The study was necessary to bridge the divide between anthropology, physiology, sociology, and organizational systems and to promote cooperation between organizations and employees.

Problem Statement

Trust in people and institutions has been declining since 1970. Trust in management declined by 13% from 1970 to 2010 (Stevenson & Wolfers, 2011). Organizational leaders face trust problems resulting from poor management and ethical indifference (Robinson & Jackson, 2001; Rodriguez & Verso, 2013. General problems related to a lack of trust can negatively affect the economic and interpersonal well-being of organizations.

The specific problem addressed in this study was the apparent inability of many organizational managers to understand that trust is an individual construct and is not the result of broad-based trust-building programs. The problem was dissimilar expectations of trust held by managers and workers. To gather individual perceptions of the integrity, commitment, and dependability of their relationship with the organization, I designed a quantitative survey instrument. The population was anyone over the age of 18 employed in a public or private, for-profit or not-for-profit, hierarchal organization for at least 5 years.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. The intention of this study was to advance the knowledge of trust research by understanding causal effects of multiple cultural and social circumstances of new and existing employees within an organizational setting. The research design was causal-comparative, which is similar to the correlation design, as they both include the elements of relationships and comparison. The research design included a survey instrument to measure the independent variables, which are national and cultural values and trust.

Hofstede’s six dimensions of culture values entailed the independent variable *values*. The dependent variables included power distance index (PDI), individualism index (IDV), masculinity index (MAS), uncertainty avoidance index (UAI), long-term orientation index (LTO), and indulgence versus restraint index (IVR). The independent variable of trust represented Chathoth’s three dimensions of organizational trust. The dependent variables were integrity, commitment, and dependability.

The general population was individuals over the age of 18. The candidates were from a SurveyMonkey audience. The research sample was from individuals in the audience employed in a hierarchically structured, public or private, for-profit or nonprofit organization located within the United States. The goal of this study was to measure individual values as defined by Hofstede and the level of organizational trust of individuals as defined by Chathoth and to look for relationships between them. This study may lead to added value in the discipline of management. The study may also result in change to organizational trust-building programs by affirming the value of individual trust characteristics over groupthink assumptions about trust.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede’s six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth’s three dimensions of organizational trust?

$H_0$1: None of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relate to any of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust.

H_a1: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relates to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust.

RQ2: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors?

$H2_0$: None of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relate to any of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors.

$H2_a$: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relate to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors.

Theoretical Foundation

Two theories underpinned the foundation of this study concerning the creation of an individual trust disposition profile. The two theories were structuration theory by Giddens (1986) and social cognitive theory by Bandura (1988). Both theories are consistent with each other and include ways to capture different yet compatible information.

Giddens (1986) recognized a problem with the theories of structuralism and agency. Structuralism is the idea that researchers can explain society by interconnected order. Agency is the idea that humans determine and change social order. Giddens noted the problem was not that one or both theories were wrong but that the dualism of separate but equal was inadequate and a false premise. The position taken in this study is similar to that taken by Giddens, which was that the parts of trust research (i.e., genetics, ethnicity, social and cultural identity, and organizational structure) are valid. However, as in Giddens' structuration theory, accessing the individual components is an invalid premise for describing the totality and interactivity of trust. Giddens contended that a duality of joined and equal existed, and that a relationship existed between human free will, or agency, and determination, or structure, that together could account for human behavior.

According to social cognitive theory, individuals achieve their sense of belonging in the context of an environment. Bandura (1988) noted that people do not react to environments but create their environments. If people do not agree with their environment, they will create change. Oppong's (2014) theoretical analysis included a comparison of the logic models of both Giddens and Bandura.

In the theory of structuration, the node coded as structure consists of external forces such as rules, resources, and social systems. The node coded as agency consists of human freedom, personal choice, and personal governance. The connecting entity is structuration (Giddens, 1986). Structuration is the relationship of the parts in an organized whole, which includes the structure and the elements of agency. Structure and agency can have bidirectional interactions, but the interactions always occur through the mediating force of structuration.

In contrast, social cognitive theory includes three nodes of action. All the nodes can and do interact with each other (Bandura, 1977). The node labeled person, which consists of cognitive abilities and other personal factors, interacts with the node labeled environment, which consists of family, school, and other influences. The resulting output is the node labeled behavior. Although this path from humans to the environment to behavior may seem to be the most logical, the three nodes are free to interact in any way. Giddens' structuration is a method for coping with people and social structure through the societal view. In contrast, Bandura created a method for understanding people, their environment, and their behavior through a personal view. I used Bandura's approach as a micro view of human interaction.

Nature of the Study

To evaluate the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations, the quantitative research design used was the causal-comparative design. This method involved examining present characteristics and reviewing them for past contributory effects to find causes, relationships, and meaning. Causal-comparative research has many similarities to correlation studies, as neither involves manipulating an independent variable. In this type of research, researchers need to observe variables as they naturally occur (Simon & Goes, 2013). The challenge in causal-comparative research is that observed relations between an independent variable and a dependent variable may not be causal at all but may have resulted from a detectable or undetectable third variable. Causal-comparative research usually includes a categorical independent or dependent variable. The categorical variable allows a comparison between groups (Simon & Goes, 2013). Causal-comparative research always includes an implication of cause and effect that makes it distinctively different from correlation research design.

A causal-comparative study is suitable for this study because the data came from two separate survey instruments. The study survey was suitable for comparing the findings of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values survey and Chathoth's trust and employee satisfaction survey to look for statistically significant relationships between the two (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). The first set of questions came from Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values survey. These survey questions became Questions 1-24 in my survey. The second set came from Chathoth's Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. These questions became Questions 25-43 in my survey. The categorical independent variables in the research were values and trust.

The next set of data emerged during the study. I solicited information via the SurveyMonkey data pool. The questions from Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values survey model were the result of 25 years or more of comparing national cultures on Hofstede's six indices indicators (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013). Hofstede identified over 110 counties where researchers conducted these tests. Chathoth developed the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey to measure trust within one organization. The measurement included two high-quality hotels: one in India and the other in the United States.

Definitions

The following are the operational definitions for this study:

Commitment: Devotion or dedication to a cause, person, or relationship.

Dependability: Consistency of behavior of a person .

Ethnicity and race: Ethnicity refers to a population of human beings that identifies with each other based on a real or presumed genealogy or ancestry. Ethnicity is different from race and serves to divide people into groups based on physical characteristics (*Ethnicity vs. Race—Difference and Comparison*, 2014).

Existentialism: A field of philosophy that maintains that human beings are biological creatures thrown into the world and humans are condemned to create meaning and values in an absurd and meaningless universe (Ashman & Winstanley, 2006).

Generalized trust: Is the positive or negative trust perception of an individual toward anyone or anything external to him or her. The perspective individuals choose is reflected in the question, "Do you believe that most people are trustworthy?" or "Do you believe that you need to be careful of people's intentions" Uslaner, (2008), *Individualism:* "Individualism stands for a society in which the ties between individuals are loose: a person is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her individual family" Hofstede, G., & Minkov, M. (2013, p.7).

Indulgence versus restraint: "Indulgence stands for a society which allows free gratification of some desires and feelings. Restraint stands for a society which controls such gratification, and where people feel less able to enjoy their lives" (Hofstede, G., & Minkov, M. (2013, p9).

Integrity: The quality of possessing and steadfastly adhering to high moral principles or professional standards, Chathoth, P., Mak, B., Sim, J., Jauhari, V., & Manaktola, K. (2011).

Long-term orientation: “Long Term Orientation stands for a society which fosters virtues oriented towards rewards, in particular adaption, perseverance and thrift” (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013, p.8).

Masculinity: “Masculinity stands for a society in which gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success; women are supposed to be more tender, and concerned with the quality of life” (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013, p.7).

Ontological insecurity: Uncertainty of knowing one’s state of being that results in emotional distress (Laing, 1990).

Power distance: “The extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013, p.7).

Presenteeism: Being at work even when sick or incapacitated to avoid possible repercussions from excessively missed personal or sick days (Ashman & Winstanley, 2006).

Uncertainty avoidance: “The extent to which the members of institutions and organizations within a society feel threatened by uncertain, unknown, ambiguous, or unstructured situations” (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013, p.8).

Assumptions

The first assumption was that all individuals in the general population, and therefore the target population, had both positive and negative trust experiences in their lives. Most individuals have experienced several positive (trust) and negative (distrust) occurrences (Colquitt et al., 2007). Positive trust often exists in feelings of love, confidence, well-being, safety, and other uplifting emotions. It may be difficult for most individuals to segregate and articulate which part of their feelings of well-being is trust, especially within the setting of family and friends. When individuals leave the safety of their friends and family, they often find their emotions are not helpful. For their security in the world, they need to rely on personal tools based on cognitive assessments. Another assumption was that individual participants surveyed in this study had diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds. A further assumption was the participants were part of a for-profit or not-for-profit organization and had experienced occurrences of trust and distrust within their organization.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope and delimitations were in accord with the theme of the research, which was an evaluation of the individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. Within the scope of this research, I included populations employed in a for-profit or not-for-profit organization (Colquitt et al., 2007). Following the constructs of the survey, SurveyMonkey allows for exclusions as well as inclusions in the survey distribution process.

All persons from the research population were welcome because diverse ethnicities, cultures, ages, and genders would add to the pool of information. I included individuals who had occupational roles as employees, middle managers, and upper management (Simon & Goes, 2013). All the participants had acted as trustor (one who trusts others), as trustee (one whom others trust), or as both.

The electronically generated invitation to participate in the survey indicated that the study would involve examining the behaviors and values of individual employees and reiterated the inclusion factors of age, employment status, and circumstances. The invitation also included the exclusion of family-owned businesses. Although SurveyMonkey can deselect individuals in the survey distribution process, the method only allows for selection or deselection based on their fixed criteria.

Limitations

Participants were part of the SurveyMonkey audience. I assumed that people who join the pool are willing, truthful, and interested in helping to advance academic knowledge and could be effective survey participants. According to the statistical expert employed for this project, SurveyMonkey is a reliable research tool and appropriate for this study.

Depending upon the time of year and other factors, participants may be inactive in their participation. I included individuals who worked in for-profit or not-for-profit organizations and eliminated individuals who were exclusively students or did not otherwise meet the criteria (Simon & Goes, 2013). The requirements that participants must be over the age of 18 and employed in a for-profit or not-for- profit hierarchal organization were so inclusive that the disqualifying rate was low.

Another limitation of the study was bias. Bias may reflect in the survey answers of participants, the instructions for the survey, the survey itself, the recommendations, and the conclusions in a study (Simon & Goes, 2013). Another problem associated with the causal-comparative method is how to account for the detectable or undetectable third variable. The ways to mitigate problems related to third variables and biases are (a) to be aware of them and be vigilant; (b) to make sure that all interactions with the research participants, including the survey instructions and the survey itself, be as neutral as possible; and (c) to make sure the wording of the recommendations and conclusions in the proposed study is neutral.

Significance of the Study

This study on the state of individual constructs of values and personal trust in organizations filled the gap left by the lack of complete subjective information concerning trust within individual employees. This study involved looking at the established problem of declining trust from a particular cultural–organizational perspective (Criado, Herreros, Miller, & Ubeda, 2015). A significant positive benefit from studying the research problem using this approach was a better understanding of the issue of trust deficit. This was the first time this question had been under investigation in this manner. A benefit of this study of trust was a profile of individual trust disposition. Providing this information to organizational leaders and workers may facilitate individual trust-building efforts. The result of this study may include a means to ease stress on both organizations and individuals to establish the benefit of a positive social change.

When the word trust exists in social relationships, it can have multiple meanings. Therefore, within organizations, leaders should codify and prominently display a well-defined, universally accepted definition (Rabanal & Friedman, 2015). Even though an organization-wide definition of trust is prominently displayed and held, individuals retained their own meanings.

If a leader in a low-trust environment was to ask, “Do you trust me,” workers may interpret the phrase as a way to gather support for their general leadership (Lawler & Ashman, 2012). The intent of this seemingly disingenuous use of the word trust is as a rhetorical question that indicates that the receiver of the question should be compliant. The persons addressed could answer, probably to themselves, “I do trust you,” “I do not know if I trust you because I do not have enough information,” or “I have enough information and I do not trust you.”

Trust is a socially constructed event that occurs as a temporal state between two or more people. In other words, trust occurs as a single phenomenon (Tierney, 2006). People should probably not assume that a single phenomenon is a guarantee of another such occurrence, nor is it a contract that trustful social interactions will continuously reoccur. Both trustors and trustees have the right to sever a trusting relationship. The central point of this study was that having a better understanding of the antecedents of individual, ethnic, cultural, and societal constructs of trust can have a positive social impact and can occur while advocating the worth, dignity, and development of individuals.

Significance to Theory

Two theories were suitable for the research on this study of the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. The first is Giddens’s theory of structuration. Giddens (1986) explained how he created structuration theory. Giddens examined phenomenology, which refers to the nature of things as they are perceived and as they are, and hermeneutics, which refers to the science and methodology of interpreting texts, to arrive at the intersection of structures and agents without stating that one theory was superior to the other.

Giddens (1986) found that structuralism and agency both yielded properties that were useful in creating structuration theory, but noted the focus of the objectivism of structuration was on detached structures from humans and lacked consideration for humanist properties. Giddens further indicated that the focus of subjectivist agency theory was individual and group agents, without any regard for the sociostructural relationship. Giddens focused on the abstract properties of social relationships and envisioned social experiences as layered events that individuals can study and analyze at each layer.

Human social experiences are events that are measurable across space and time (Giddens, 1986). The relationship of structuration to my study on the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations includes the layered components of space and time. Space refers to the place where trust experiences occur from infancy with influences of ethnicity, culture, and society through organizational culture, which is where the constructs of personal trust occur (Giddens, 1986). Time refers to when these experiences occurred and the duration of time in each location. Social learning and social cognitive theory serve as a theoretical way to understand people without including structural issues.

The basis of social learning theory is that some part of an individual's knowledge directly relates to observing others in social interactions and experiences (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory also explains behavioral issues (Bandura, 1977). Bandura

(1977) suggested that social learning theory is in agreement with individuals' perceived self-efficacy and in turn their behavioral changes.

The second theory selected for this study was social cognitive theory. Bandura (1988) built the social cognitive theory on the principles of social learning theory. The focus of the social cognitive theory is the role that cognition plays in processing the learned behaviors observed in social interaction and experiences and providing new information to guide new behaviors. Bandura added mass media and communication to the existing stimuli of learned behaviors observed in social interactions and experiences. Social cognitive theory is suitable for a study on the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations because it is suitable for examining how individuals observe trust behaviors throughout their social and professional life (Bandura, 1988).

Significance to Practice

Incorporating ethnicity and cultural awareness into trust-building efforts has the potential for building stronger inclusive systems and programs (Lawler & Ashman, 2012). This study illuminated individual trust constructs before and during organizational membership. It is the hope that transformational leadership would see the benefit from this study.

Relationship indications in the results pointed to the need to understand the importance of individual trust constructs, which may lead to reduced uncertainty, tension, and stress in an organization (Rabanal & Friedman, 2015). Incorporating ethnically and culturally generalized trust profiles has the potential to create positive change in trust-building programs. An exclusively Western cultural view of trust development can become a universal system. Incorporating more diverse meanings and formulations of trust constructs can lead to a more involved and sharing workforce.

Summary and Transition

Chapter 1 included an overview of the path that this study followed. Cultures and customs are unique to individuals, as are the sense and strength of trust. Chapter 1 included a background to the study, a brief description of the purpose of the study, the problem, the theoretical structures, the research design, and the research questions. The chapter also included a case to show that both individuals and society will benefit from this research. In Chapter 2, I will review the current literature that pertains to organizational trust. I will also explore all the literature that provides evidentiary and hypothesized connections between trust, culture, and biology.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The decline in trust from a global and organizational perspective may be the result of several issues, including corruption, financial misappropriations, and ethical breaches in social contracts (Iverson, & Zatzick, 2011; Jason, 2014; S. Robinson, 1996; Stevenson, & Wolfers, 2011). The general problem that organizational leaders face is that declining trust, poor leadership, and ethical indifference feed into each other and cause a downward drag on the economic and interpersonal well-being of organizations. Missing from the literature is research on trust segmented into separate intellectual disciplines. The specific problem addressed in this study was the apparent inability of many organizational managers to understand that trust is an individual construct and is not the result of broad-based trust-building programs.

The purpose of this study was to test the idea that collective individual trust experiences and attitudes are weighted by individual power within the trust culture of organizations (Criado et al., 2015; Kong, 2013; Oskarsson et al., 2011). Individuals can view trust both personally and organizationally by reviewing proximal terms that include faith, belief, hope, conviction, confidence, expectation, and reliance (Acar-Burkay, Fennis, & Warlop, 2014; Greifeneder, Muller, Stahlberg, Van den Bos, & Bless, 2011; R. Robinson & Jackson, 2001). This research study involved examining the trust contribution factors of ethics in organizations and ethical and transformational leadership. This chapter includes a review of the following three major categories: foundations of individual trust constructs, sociological factors of individuals' trust constructs, and trust within organizations. Subcategories illuminate the problems and opportunities within each major category.

Literature Search Strategy

The principal objective of the literature search strategy was to find material that would clarify the problems of values and trust within organizations and specifically address how individuals construct personal trust in organizations. The secondary objective was to find opposing theories and perspectives that would balance the diverse opinions that have evidence in their background but for which theory is their basis. The literature review included material in the fields of heredity, sociology, psychology, and organizational science. The sources used included books, magazines, peer-reviewed journal articles, conference and academic reports, dissertations, government websites, and government reports. I accessed and downloaded all electronic material through the Walden University Library, which provided subscription access to various research databases, including ProQuest and EBSCOhost.

I found seminal material in print from 1960 through 2013. The journal search database included scholarly material pertinent to the research. It also included current material published from 2011 to 2016. I conducted the electronically published article searches using Boolean search parameters that included the keyword or key phrase combinations of terms such as *trust, organization, ethics, limited research, culture, society,* and *transformational leadership*.

Theoretical Foundation

I selected two theories to drive the research on the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. The first was Giddens's theory of structuration. Giddens (1986) explained how he derived structuration theory and examined phenomenology and hermeneutics to arrive at the intersection of structures and agents without stating that one theory was superior to the other.

Giddens (1986) found that structuralism and agency both contained properties that were helpful in creating structuration theory. However, Giddens noted that the focus of the objectivism of structuration was on detached structures and not humanist properties. Giddens suggested that subjectivist agency theory included individual and group agents without any regard for the socio-structural relationship. Giddens's focus was the abstract properties of social relationships, and Giddens envisioned social experiences as layered events that he could study and analyze at each layer. Human social experiences consist of events that are measurable across space and time (Giddens, 1986).

The relationship of structuration to my study on the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations includes the layered components space and time. Space refers to the place where trust experiences occur from infancy with influences of ethnicity, culture, and society through the influences of organizational culture (Giddens, 1986). Time refers to when these experiences occurred and the duration in each location. Social learning and social cognitive theories concern individuals without including structural issues.

The basis of social learning theory is the idea that some part of an individual's knowledge directly relates to observing others in social interactions and experiences (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory also works in tandem with behavioral issues (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1977) indicated that social learning theory correlates with individuals' perceived self-efficacy and in turn their behavioral changes.

The second theory selected for this study was social cognitive theory. Bandura (1988) built social cognitive theory on the principles of social learning theory. The focus of social cognitive theory is the role that cognition plays in processing the learned behaviors observed in social interactions and experiences and in providing new information to guide new behaviors. Bandura (2001) added mass media and communication to the existing stimuli of learned behaviors observed in social interactions and experiences. Social cognitive theory was suitable for a study on the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations because the theory provided a guiding influence on observing trust behaviors throughout an individual's life, including the experience of organizational culture. According to social cognitive theory, observed behaviors have a strong influence on new behaviors (Bandura, 2001).

Foundations of Personal Trust Constructs in Organizations

A fundamental understanding of how people form personal trust requires a definition of personal trust. Personal trust refers to individuals' values, meanings, and perceptions concerning others in the specific circumstances in which they encounter them (Acedo-Carmona & Gomila, 2014; Courtois & Tazdait, 2012; Oskarsson et al., 2011). Personal trust results from a combination of heredity, culture, and ethnic interactions.

Social experiences form within and without one's own in-group (Cook, 2014; Criado et al., 2015). Individuals ultimately interweave all previous knowledge with new experiences and watch, learn, and decide whether to trust new people in new circumstances.

Generalized trust is an individual's predisposition toward positive or negative trust. People build generalized trust on the properties of personal trust, although generalized trust simply builds on trust experiences. Personal trust involves judgments made concerning trust experiences (Bjornskov, 2006; Kong, 2012; Rathburn, 2011). The richer an individual's trust experiences, the more informed that individual's decisions concerning generalized trust will be. Individuals who by choice or circumstance disregard out-group socialization may develop their family or in-group's cynicism and prejudice. Tendencies toward cynicism and prejudice may be difficult to overcome as an adult.

Social trust consists of the trust attitudes individuals have for the social groups to which they belong. The particular concern of social trust is communities such as federal, state, and local governments (Bjornskov, 2012; Brien, Ratna, & Boddington, 2012; Huhe, 2014). Social trust is a person's generalized trust, especially as it pertains to the entities mentioned. Individuals can express social trust in a survey and in opinion forums in which they can demonstrate, improve, expand, and refine individual trust and generalized trust.

Organizational trust is a unique circumstance in which the intangible structure of the organization constrains an individual's personal and generalized trust. The attitudes and decision making of generalized trust are the results of personal trust interaction experiences within the community of the organization (Duden, 2012b; Rodrigues & Velso, 2013). In the world outside the organization, both personal trust and other printed and broadcast material can inform the decisions of generalized trust. Within the organization, individuals will create generalized trust almost exclusively from personalized trust experiences.

Trustworthiness is the perceived quality of trust by which one individual assesses another. The outcomes of trust experiences usually determine trustworthiness (Clapham, Meyer, Caldwell, & Proctor, 2014). Positive trust experiences that occurred in the past do not guarantee positive future experiences. However, one negative trust experience will alert the trustor of possible dangers.

Biology

Human beings have certain genetically embedded elements of trust. However, trust is a blend of an individual's heredity, socialization, and perceptions of previous trust decisions (Riedl & Javor, 2012; Volman et al., 2013). The interaction of human physiology with human sociology appears in Figure 1, which replicates Riedl and Javor's (2012) model of behavior, biology, and environment factors.

The most successful results of biologically based trust research have come from studies that involved using functional magnetic resonance imaging. An extensive amount of work has revealed several regions of the brain associated with trust (Riedl & Javor, 2012). Riedl and Javor (2012) cross-indexed studies on human trust behavior and associated regions of the brain (see Appendix A).

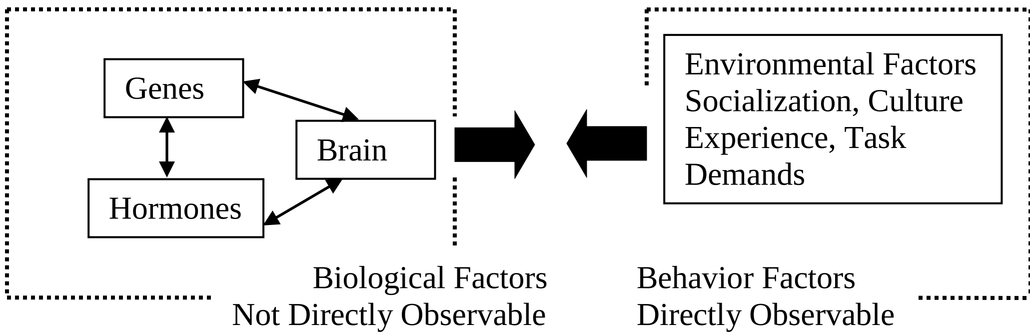

Figure 1. Model of behavior, biology, and environment. From "The Biology of Trust: Integrating Evidence from Genetics, Endocrinology, and Functional Brain Imaging" by R. Riedl and A. Javor, 2012, *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics*, *5*(2), 66. Copyright 2012 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

As noted in Figure 1, hormones help establish the connections between transmitters and receptors along the neural network. The type of hormone, the strength of the hormone, and the region of the brain determine the behavior of an individual (Riedl & Javor, 2012). There are seven hormones associated with trust behavior: four associated with trust and three associated with distrust (shown in Appendix A).

The effects of oxytocin have been a topic of discussion since 2009. Presenting at the 2009 Neuropsychoeconomics Conference, Reuter et al. (2009) confirmed work on oxytocin as a trust-altering hormone. Reuter et al. noted that studies at the time showed that nasally administered oxytocin had a positive effect on individuals' trust levels.

Prior to the experiment, the participants in the study underwent testing and answered some simple trust-level screening questions (Reuter et al., 2009). That information served as the pretest profile (Reuter et al., 2009). During the experiment, the participants received oxytocin nasal spray, and the researchers again checked the oxytocin levels. Reuter et al. (2009) noted that while oxytocin and trust inclinations rose, there was no difference in risk attitudes or prosocial inclination. The results indicated that variations in oxytocin levels influenced individual differences in the proclivity to trust.

Several researchers have expanded the research on oxytocin. IJzendoorn and Bakermans-Kranenburg (2012) indicated that researchers have substantiated several theories about oxytocin. Oxytocin has a reputation for being the love hormone because of the benefits of healing and bonding for postpartum mothers and new babies (IJzendoorn & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2012). IJzendoorn and Bakermans-Kranenburg conducted research associated with that bonding effect. Oxytocin administered intranasally tested significant for recognition of facial expressions and in-group trust (IJzendoorn & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2012). IJzendoorn and Bakermans-Kranenburg failed to prove significantly the theory of the negative effect of oxytocin on out-group trust.

Ethnicity

Humans inherit a generalized disposition for trust from their parents. Inherited trust is a claim that Uslaner (2008) derived from studying the subject. Uslaner reported that the strength of the inherited value is constant over generations. Similar to genetic material, humans have generalized the trust propensity programmed into their cognitive system (Uslaner, 2008). The generalized tendency is only one ingredient of the antecedents to trust.

Uslaner (2008) relied on the interview questions in the General Social Survey of the United States and several other public social surveys in the United States and abroad. The study involved extracting observational and demographic information, as well as individual perceptions that resulted from documented interviews. Uslaner based his information on immigrant populations coming to the United States. In addition to the genetic component, the geographic area and the cultural history from which people came had a significant influence on their level of generalized trust (Uslaner, 2008).

Uslaner (2008) observed that people coming from Denmark, Norway, Finland, and Sweden had a strong presence of generalized trust. For areas with lower levels of trust perceptions, "strong in-group identification" (Uslaner, 2008, p. 730) was present. Strong in-groups are families or extended families, are like-minded, and have a strong ethnic association. Deep in-group tendencies have a negative effect on whether a member of the in-group would be likely to trust strangers (Uslaner, 2008).

A weakness in Uslaner's (2008) study was the lack of public opinion surveys in the 1890s or 1920s in the United States or any other countries from which people emigrated during those time periods. The information would have been invaluable in determining a more accurate perspective of trust levels in the countries of origin at the time of emigration, as well as provided a comparison of trust levels across time. Such missing information would be vital for confirming the legacy theory of generalized trust in the multiethnic United States in the 21st century.

Uslaner (2008) determined that trust has been in decline in the United States since the 1970s. Putnam (2000) also acknowledged a significant reduction in the number people who trust each other in the United States. Putnam studied the sociology of trust, whereas R. Robinson and Jackson (2001) studied the generational reduction in trust.

The downward trend in trust may be in part due to a larger percentage of new immigrants coming from areas with less trust than did those who came before. Uslaner

(2008) investigated this issue and indicated that a more detailed analysis of the issue was necessary. The purpose of additional analysis would be to determine why people from some cultures are less likely to trust than others are (Uslaner, 2008). Cultural, regional, or predispositional distrust may come from a personal economic weakness in their home country and their perception of unfairness in the United States. Uslaner also hypothesized that the stratification of economic classes likely exacerbated the problem for new arrivals. Stratification in Uslaner's research meant the disappearing middle class, the wealthier upper class, and the poorer lower class.

In a separate study, researchers investigated the residual effect of ethnicity on fifth, sixth, and later generations of immigrants (Gans, 2014a). Investigating later-generation ethnics (LGEs), researchers tested the meaning of LGEs in the larger context of immigration and trusting behavior (Gans, 2014a). The researchers' concern was the power of ethnicity to remain a part of individuals' identity as the succeeding generations of people moved further away from the immigrant. The basis of the research was the wave of European immigrants coming to the United States between 1870 and 1924. Gans had fellow researchers who worked independently, and the research appeared as a series of six separate articles, two by Gans and four by others that were comparisons and critiques of the articles by Gans.

In the first of two articles, Gans (2014a) noted a hope that a future researcher would investigate LGEs who are Mexican, Japanese, and African American. Gans suggested that some of these groups had ancestors who came to the United States before most Europeans (Gans, 2014a, 2014b). Gans (2014b) posited all researchers of LGEs should study the continuing effects of stigmatization, prejudice, and segregation. Gans further advocated that researchers throughout the United States examine all LGE activities, including festivals, tourism, commercial establishments, and websites dedicated to promoting and continuing the tradition of a specific ethnic group.

The research indicated no intrinsic connection existed between ethnicity and religion. Like any other people, LGEs may have retained both their ethnicity and their religion, or they may have retained one without the other (Gans, 2014a, 2014b). In the Roman Catholic and Jewish communities, many LGEs find that religion has a strong social and emotional pull. Religion has greater cultural power and more material resources than ethnic forces to ensure its survival.

The four other writers who comprised the remainder of the six-article project took issue with many of the statements made by Gans (2014a, 2014b). Mollenkopf (2014) noted that the ties between English, German, Scots-Irish, and other ethnic groups remain firmly implanted in the fifth, sixth, and further generations. The fading of ethnic ties is not visible in the short term. Sollors (2014) noted festivals, tourism, commercial establishments, and websites have a nostalgic quality. Gans (2014b) noted the desire for the nostalgic past is often strong among cultural and political conservatives.

Some researchers have investigated the strength of ethnicity in a multiethnic and multiracial United States. Specifically, investigators wished to know how many Whites married to Asian Americans and Latino Americans were European LGEs (Foner, 2014; Waters, 2014). The investigators indicated that studies of how immigrants have transformed the United States might shed light on the pull of ethnicity. Gans (2014b) asked whether the immigrant transformation of the United States is even possible to research because of the increasing population and diversity of the country. Studies concerning late-generation ethnicity are important in the context of this study, as Uslaner (2008) and other researchers have considered the effect of ethnicity and its relevance to trust.

Culture

Can generalized trust and distrust be carried with individuals as they travel from low trust areas to high trust areas? There is a major split in the study of the origin of generalized trust. On one side of the debate are those taking the social–experiential viewpoint (Jimenez, 2011; Schmeets & Riele, 2014). On the other side of the issue are those who ascribe to the inherited or cultural in-group perspective (Acedo-Carmona & Gomila, 2015; Dinesen, 2012). Inherited or cultural in-group theory scholars believe that generalized trust is a stable trait primarily inherited from one generation to the next through parental socialization. Experiential scholars have indicated that people's accumulated experiences form their inclination for their general view of trust as good or bad.

Another factor that can affect trust is an increase in democracy. Increasing democracy can lead to positive citizenship traits. In turn, positive citizenship can lead to more tolerance, volunteering, and donations to charities. Dinesen (2012) asked if those positive values are the product of inheritance or social surroundings. Acedo-Carmona and Gomila (2015) and Jimenez (2011) monitored generalized trust in Turkish, Polish, and

Italian immigrants in their new countries and compared the results with the generalized trust of citizens in Turkey, Poland, and Italy.

Dinesen (2012) measured the immigrant groups from these countries against the citizens in their home country and against the citizens of their new home countries. Also described were the democratic positions of the immigrants in their homelands (Dinesen, 2012; Jimenez, 2011). Institutionally, the three countries differed considerably. Italy has been a democracy, though unstable, since the end of World War II (Jimenez, 2011). Poland has been a developing democracy for about 20 years, and Turkey is still not fully democratic.

The six new home countries were Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and Germany. These six new home countries also contained the largest immigrant groups in Northern Europe (Bjornskov, 2006; Cook, 2014; Dinesen, 2012). The three old home countries were a substantial distance from each other geographically (Dinesen, 2012). Additionally, they varied considerably in religious affiliation. Italy and Poland are Catholic countries, whereas Turkey is a Muslim country. Dinesen (2012) and Jimenez (2011) subsequently tracked immigrants from these three countries as groups into specific countries in Northern Europe where generalized high trust was prevalent.

All three immigrant home countries had low-trust cultures in common. The emigration period also varied between the three countries. Italian emigration to other parts of Europe took place primarily between 1950 and 1970. Turkish emigration started in 1980 and has been ongoing (Dinesen, 2012; Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010). Polish emigration started with the fall of communism, has been ongoing, and surged after Poland joined the European Union (Dinesen, 2012).

The research design was as follows. Bjornskov (2006) and Dinesen (2012) wanted to find home countries and new populations or countries that appeared in the European Social Survey. Additionally they wanted to find home countries that had an accessible population and, as previously noted, had a low-trust culture (Bjornskov, 2006; Dinesen, 2012). They needed to find high-trust countries in Northern Europe that had a large population of immigrants from low-trust countries that they could identify and access within an enclave in the new country. Lastly, they wanted the immigrants in the new country to be first- or second-generation immigrants who had emigrated between 1945 and 2012.

These selection criteria were relevant because Dinesen (2012) and Jimenez (2011) wanted to be able to test the experiential perspective that stressed that trust is subject to change in the environment in which one lives. Dinesen and Jimenez were advocates of the social–experiential viewpoint, and they noted that Uslaner (2002) and other inherited or cultural in-group theorists have had a lack of comparable data (Dinesen, 2012). Using the immigrant population from the three low-trust European countries noted, they then determined, using previously listed criteria, the six high-trust countries from Northern Europe (see Appendix B for Dinesen’s findings).

Sociological Factors of Individual Trust Constructs

Social Capital

Fisher (2013) provided an example of why social trust, communication, and social capital are critical to maintaining the structure of civilization. Fisher described a study situation concerning beef cattle growers in England. Fisher’s study was a reanalysis of an earlier study by Mort, Convery, Baxter, and Bailey (2005). The problem the cattle growers faced was an outbreak of bovine tuberculosis. The problem originated early in the 1970s when a farmer discovered a dead badger infected by the disease. Shortly thereafter, cattle began coming down with the disease. The disease spread and the number of infected animals increased throughout the 1980s and 1990s.

By 2001, a full resurgence of bovine tuberculosis was under way and reached epidemic proportions. In 2005, independent researchers reopened and investigated the 2001 epidemic, scrutinized and reviewed all the literature in detail, and made new conclusions (Mort et al., 2005). In 2011, the government initiated a program to increase cooperation, responsibility, and partnership in the dairy industry. The mission of the Information Acquisition and Knowledge Exchange program was information acquisition and knowledge exchange to farmers. The program had minimal success.

Fisher (2013) investigated why the response to the Information Acquisition and Knowledge Exchange program was so tepid and why farmers were not confident in the information and assistance they received from the government. The findings explicitly pointed to the structural weakness of the government program. The data indicated the government caused the difficulties and the lack of success of the program. Fisher noted the problem started when the British government insisted on using only its own expertise and that of its veterinarians to solve the problem. The farmers challenged the authority of the government, which the farmers noted ignored local knowledge and expertise based on their experience.

Fisher (2013) reflected on a previous study by Putnam, Leonardi, and Nanetti (1993) on the theory of social capital. Putnam et al. approached the subject of social capital as an example of social cohesion. Fisher determined that government experts identified social capital's positive benefits and neglected the negative impacts such as the development of exclusive networks (see also Uslaner, 1998). Fisher found no universal measurement or acceptable indicator for social capital in the literature.

Fisher (2013) determined that the government experts had adapted proxy indicators to provide a sign of social capital within given networks and had often used trust as a proxy indicator for social capital (Balliet & Van Lange, 2013). Individuals should never consider trust and social capital as interchangeable (Keller, Mayo, Rainer, & Pfattheicher, 2015). Fisher noted that the government experts conceptualized trust as a catalyst through which they could realize the potential benefits of social interaction. Although all social capital proponents have maintained that trust is a key element in social capital success, they have not agreed whether trust is the cause and effect of the success. In the case of the farmers and the government, Mort et al. (2005) analyzed the role of knowledge and social capital and found that undermining the value of local knowledge led to a loss of trust in government.

Cultural Capital

The following is a description of how cultural capital is interdependent on social capital. In an unnamed small Scottish farming community, a good reputation for being an upstanding farmer and good neighbor had two possible causes (Sutherland & Burton, 2011). The first cause was the display of farming ability, characterized by good land management, upkeep of equipment, and care of livestock. The second cause was being a good neighbor and developing a reputation for complying with traditional reciprocal arrangements. In the described situation, the farmers depended on each other to succeed as farmers.

Farmers highly valued other farmers who displayed signs of good farming and demonstrated an understanding of what constitutes compliance with the rights and responsibilities of being a community member. Those particular farmers had the reciprocal benefits of exchanged equipment, common land, and shared labor (Sutherland & Burton, 2011). Farmers who did not comply with requests regarding how long they could borrow equipment, land, and labor could damage their cultural capital.

Farmers who seemed to be damaging equipment or were inattentive to their or others' livestock could jeopardize implicit agreements. Any attempt to misuse or damage cultural capital could result in the loss of social capital (Sutherland & Burton, 2011). In the case described, the population was small and close-knit. Therefore, stories of favorable and unfavorable experiences would move quickly, and listeners would assign confidence according to the credibility of the storyteller.

Social Trust and Ethical Behavior

Other researchers have also examined the benefits of the hormone oxytocin. Higher levels of oxytocin relate to social trust (IJzendoorn & Bakermans-Kranenburg, 2012; Oskarsson et al., 2011). Several researchers noted that social trust is evident in the psychological traits of extraversion, personal control, and social intelligence (Egan, 2011; Oskarsson et al., 2011; Putnam et al., 1993; Reuter et al., 2009). People who have high levels of social trust promote egalitarian stability.

The hypothesis that oxytocin promotes positive public trust indicates oxytocin would promote better trust responses (Jung & Kwon, 2011; Oskarsson et al., 2011). Informed responses will promote more possibilities in situations where the opportunity costs are high (Oskarsson et al., 2011; Rothstein & Uslaner, 2005; Uslaner, 2002; Zak & Knack, 2001). High opportunity costs can result from staying away from potential opportunities in favor of lasting committed relationships. Successful outcomes should have a positive relationship with trust.

The examination of the physiology of social trust is not limited to a study of oxytocin. In a study on the genetic basis for social trust, Sturgis et al. (2010) contended that trust propensity and a belief that fellow citizens would not act against common interests in social and economic transactions were key trust factors and contended that propensity had a genetic factor. Effective functioning of egalitarianism and genetics plays a part in generalized social trust (Barnett, 2014; Basford, Offermann, & Behren, 2014; Sturgis et al., 2010). Researchers prior to Sturgis et al.'s research focused on the social, developmental, and political features of individuals and societies and asserted that these features are primary causal influences of the degree of social trust. Sturgis et al. believed that social trust had a genetic component but that the causes of this generalized or social trust were not clear.

Trust and Society

The realm of strict sociology extends beyond inheritability and genetics. In this area, theorists have contended that trust is a sociocultural construct (Tierney, 2006). Tierney (2006) used the word culture to refer to culture inside an organization. Trust is a determination made by the individual rationale that people employ when making socially constructed trust decisions (Kong, 2013; Tierney, 2006). Because trust has ties to the social interaction of one person toward another, it is logical to extend trust outward into webs and networks of other people and social situations. With each trust encounter, individuals decide, alter, and expand generalized unspoken meanings of trust (Gur, 2015b; Tierney, 2006).

Not all socio-cultural constructionists directly discard theories of predisposition toward trust. Rather, they take a position that people essentially develop trust without regard for anthropological antecedents (Gur, 2015a; Kong, 2013; Tierney, 2006). Gur (2015a), indicated that trust is neither a fully developed issue that exists regardless of whom the individuals are, nor characteristic of one person or group regardless of the social organization in which the individual exists (Tierney, 2006). Trust development also creates a symbolic framework in which trust happens even as the framework expands or contracts. As this symbolic trust system becomes more of a shared vision, its benefits increase significantly (Tierney, 2006).

Tierney's (2006) inherited concepts referred to cultural meanings that exist in organizations at any point in time. As individuals enter or leave a company, they add or remove their interpretations of the culture. The impact of the addition or subtraction is in proportion to the power impact of the individual and the chemistry of the organization (Gur, 2015b; Kong, 2013). Tierney criticized scholars who envisioned social capital as a means to exploit social relationships and agreed with scholars who saw the intrinsic value of positive social relationships. Theorists who only see the commodity value of social trust and social capital are practicing a form of the social bartering system (Kong, 2013; Tierney, 2006). Humans can create and build social capital by entering preexisting networks and making them into something more relevant to them.

The results in one area of trust from a study in the hospitality and tourism industry in New Zealand came from investigating a possible connection between full- and part-time employment, trust, and employee commitment (Brien et al., 2012). Eighty-eight percent of respondents worked full time. Although part-time staff members represented a smaller proportion of the staff, they reported a much higher level of organizational trust at 55% compared to full-time staff who reported 31%. The finding was counterintuitive, as the expected outcome was that full-time employees should have a greater sense of trust and commitment (Brien et al., 2012). One explanation was that the part-time employees received the same hourly wages as the full-time workers, so the full-time workers felt management underappreciated their efforts and loyalty. The other benefits that full-time workers received were not enough to offset the wage issue.

Trust decreases among people who require welfare in the United States. Countries such as the United States that have a welfare system that requires needs testing for public services have increased suspicions among recipients (Bergh & Bjornskov, 2011). The suspicions center on the perception of poor procedural justice due to discretionary bureaucratic power. Countries with high-trust-propensity populations (Norway, Sweden, and Denmark) all have a well-established universal welfare system (Bjornskov, 2006; 2012; Bjornskov & Sonderskov, 2013; Bjornskov & Svendsen, 2013; Putnam et al., 1993). Trust, norms, and networks within all societal structures, including business organizations, can improve the efficiencies and well-being of participants.

Individual Trust Constructs in Business and Organizations

Organizational Cross-Cultural Differences and Similarities

Within organizations, cultural differences regarding generalized trust can cause widespread problems (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010; Srivastava & Banaji, 2011). When researching cultural differences, Ferrin and Gillespie (2010) also found evidence of universally common themes. Ferrin and Gillespie (2010) indicated that they followed standard conceptual frameworks for identifying differences in the understanding of trust in cross-cultural situations and noted that the standard conceptual frameworks ignored the possibilities that certain issues could be universal.

Ferrin and Gillespie (2010) found evidence that certain organizational behaviors are common. Concerns over achievement, pay, growth, and interesting work are universally common across cultures (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010; Oginde, 2013). Ferrin and Gillespie paraphrased earlier writers when they defined national culture and noted that national culture consists of shared beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles, and values. These qualities were common among speakers of a particular language who lived during the same historical period in a specified geographic region.

Some of the most inclusive historical records for social data are the General Social Survey of the United States and the European Social Survey (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010; Oginde, 2013). The universal question of trust is as follows: "Do you believe that most people can be trusted or you can't be too careful in dealing with people" (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010; General Social Survey, 2006; Teoh & Cyril, 2008)? Researchers asked the question to participants from 60 countries, and the results were telling (Tsai, Laczko, & Bjornskov, 2011). The measure of trust was a percentage of respondents in each country who replied, "Most people can be trusted" as opposed to "Can't be too careful."

Ferrin and Gillespie (2010) measured the national averages for trust affirmation and ranked the nations. The national average scores ranged from 65% in Norway to 3% in Brazil. The highest trust countries were those with percentages greater than 50%. Countries with a higher trust percentage included ones in Western Europe, as well as Japan, China, India, South Korea, United States, Canada, and Australia (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010; Tsai et al., 2011). The countries with the lowest percentages, those less than 50%, were countries in Eastern Europe, South America, and Africa.

Although average sampling tells a lot about a country, it does not tell the whole story. When the generalized trust studies of living conditions, lifestyle, and health surveys were complete, Ferrin and Gillespie (2010) found that several low-trust countries had pockets of high levels of trust. The pockets of high levels of trust in low-trust countries were identical to those pockets in high-trust countries (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010). Therefore, while national trust profiles are important ways to track sociopolitical populations, researchers need to note exceptions.

Workplace Health

Stress-related illness accounts for 60% of medical problems. Health benefits cost the average company 45% of its after-tax profits (Chughtai, Byrne, & Flood, 2015; Spangler, Koesten, Fox, & Radel, 2012). Stress-related illnesses are at the top of the 45% health benefits costs resulting from numerous incidences that result in lost productivity. Some of the most serious consequences of stress in an organization are absenteeism, employee versus employer litigation, grievances, accidents, conflicts, interpersonal problems, and violence. Another product of a stress-filled workplace is a condition known as presenteeism, which refers to being at work even when ill to avoid criticism or punishment for using excessive sick days.

The results of these serious workplace incidences are higher medical costs for employers and far-reaching health and safety issues for both employees and employers. Researchers have conducted a great deal of research relating to the perception of stressors, stress response, and emotional reactions (Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010; Rehn & Naeem, 2012; Woiceshyn, 2011). Despite all the research, stress continues to have an association with disease, cancer, pain, delayed wound healing, and depression (Spangler et al., 2012). Life stressors seem to influence mild depression, which is particularly costly to employers because of its high prevalence and high aggregate productivity loss.

Participants in research investigations have indicated that their organizations' commitment to values, ethics, or missions have provided symbols and guideposts, (i.e., organizational rules) for employee behaviors. In these same companies, organizational policies aligned with mission statements, and leaders communicated them thoroughly (Burns & Christiansen, 2011; Spangler et al., 2012). Strong, regular, and clear communication emerged as an organization's greatest strength in reducing distress. Other participants saw managers living out the teachings that organizational leaders had established as the strongest indication of how serious the leaders were in their goal to reduce stressors and stress.

Emotions are the trigger for setting occupational stress on a downward spiral. Emotions managed and controlled in the workplace can have a mediating effect on relationships between organizational trust and occupational stress (Oktug, 2013). Oktug (2013) noted organizational trust was one of the most important factors in creating organizational efficiency. A quasi-math formula may be the most effective way to describe the relationship between emotions, trust, and stress: a positive value of organizational trust added to a positive value of the effort of emotional management greatly reduces the negative value of occupational stress.

Structures

Researchers investigating the phenomenon of trust across levels in organizations must distinguish their research work from previous research efforts (Burns & Christiansen, 2011; Fulmer, & Gelfand, 2012). Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) commented on previous studies that included the term cross-level and noted that, despite the use of the term cross-level, the basis of most prior research was trust at one level, and the research involved comparing one individual to another individual. Additionally, Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) noted that even researchers who had cross-level as their investigation mission failed to show whether their findings were unique to one level or were generalizable across levels.

To explain specific terms used in the study, Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) created specific definitions. Fulmer and Gelfand used the term *referent* when they discussed the object of trust. The specificity of this term serves the purpose of consistency, especially when discussing more than one individual, which otherwise might be referred to as trustees, the collective team, or the organization.

Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) used the term *interpersonal trust* to refer to one individual's trust in another person, that is, the referent. Fulmer and Gelfand and Quandt (2012) noted that they wished to define their use of the word interpersonal as simply from one person to another. They intended interpersonal trust to exist without the inference of generalized trust or trust propensity that other researchers (R. Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Siegrist, Connor, & Keller, 2012) used. Fulmer and Gelfand created a structure in which the three organizational levels are individual, team, and organizational.

Within each of the three organizational levels, at least three referents are possible. These referents are interpersonal, team, and organization. An interpersonal referent refers to a specific other person (Colquitt et al., 2007; Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012; R. Mayer et al., 1995; Ozera, Zhen, & Chen, 2011). These individuals may also bear the title of leader, coworker, or another applicable title. Team referent refers to a group of interdependent people who share a common activity and goal. The organization referent refers to the tangible and intangible entity that encompasses the whole of the common pursuit.

Fulmer and Gelfand (2012) characterized both the trustor (the individual, team, or organization) and the referent. Colquitt et al. (2007), Ozera et al. (2011), Capaldo and Giannoccaro (2012), and Msanjila (2011) provided the foundation for Fulmer and Gelfand's work on cross-level similarities and differences to trust. R. Mayer et al. (1995) correlated a propensity to trust with a perception of trustworthiness and further noted that the quality of trustworthiness has the embedded properties of ability, benevolence, and integrity.

Excessive Trust Propensity

Another issue discussed is excessive trust propensity. Followers with an excessively high propensity to trust have high trust in their leaders, despite the fact that followers had low perceptions of leader trustworthiness (Bammens & Collewaet, 2014). This situation may be the result of wishful thinking or a very skillful charismatic leader. This condition can easily create an atmosphere for leader misbehavior and follower disappointment.

Trust Building and Sustaining

A culture of trust requires a substantial number of high-placed advocates or guardians. A guardian of trust can be a person, method, or theory that cultivates trust in organizations (Blommaert et al., 2014; Cuilla, 2011; Torche & Valenzuela, 2011). Blommaert et al. (2014) noted that although trust methods can aid in business performance, they often run counter to organizational managers and internal auditors

(Bachmann, 2011). Internal auditors are nonspecific entities and can be singular or multiple individuals or managers, codified rules and regulations, or the prevailing cultural norms within an organization. Trust is a key to every business and personal relationship (Shahnawaz & Goswami, 2011).

Informed trust determines the measure of trust or distrust in an organization. Blommaert et al. (2014) defined informed trust as a situation in which individuals give a limited amount of trust in incremental measures, periodically verify the trust, and mutually reconfirm it. Trust is the most important human, social, and economic capital (Carter & Greer, 2013; Gausdal & Hildrum, 2012; Kayser, 2015). Many managers start their leadership term of governing and organizing from a position of distrust. New leaders entering an organization often employ the dogma-like position that trust is good but control is better.

Rules, procedures, and controls overwhelm an organization when distrust is the prevailing culture. Additionally, internal auditors will want more rules, procedures, and controls to continue to protect a firm (Bachmann, Gillespie & Kramer, 2011; Blommaert et al., 2014; Gur, 2015b; Knoll & Gill, 2011; Li & Tan, 2013). The prevailing organizational culture from 1960 through 1980 was one of distrust. Individuals did not trust people in positions of organizational leadership and saw the leaders as needing to be in control and to monitor all operations**,** outcomes seemed predictable and controllable. The same cultural paradigm still seems to exist and is often the norm, despite the fact that the industrial world has become subject to rapid change and uncertainty.

Researchers have mined information to determine when and where managers and other prominent organizational leaders felt most satisfied in their careers. While interviewing managers, controllers, and internal and external auditors, Blommaert et al. (2014) asked them to describe a period in their career when they felt engaged, full of energy, and highly motivated. According to the results of the interview questions, all the participants described situations when they were at their best. The participants described a time when the organizational climate had fewer rules, procedures, and internal controls (Blommaert et al., 2014); Sloan & Oliver, 2013; Sousa-Lima, Michel, & Caetano, 2013). The same respondents indicated that trust, purpose, respect, and openness permeated the organization culture when they were at their best.

There is a subjectively ideal level of trust and distrust within any organization. Adding more trust to an organization that already has a high level of trust will likely increase risk (Blommaert et al., 2014; Palmer & Huo, 2013; Tomlinson, 2012; Webber, Bishop, & O'Neil, 2011). The increase in risk will add to the likelihood of opportunism that manifests in situations of self-interest and fraudulent behavior.

Too much trust will also create more risk in the timely detection of bad behavior. On the other end of the trust spectrum, adding more distrust to already low-trust organizations can result in more controls, more costs, and less individual motivation, which in turn increases the risk to the organization. Blommaert et al. (2014) developed a graphic representation of the relationship between the level of trust and the risk profile (see Appendix C).

Trust is an essential property, ingredient, and component of relationships. Relationships are structural foundations of all human interaction, and the study of organizations is no exception. McKnight and Chervany (2006), Benetyte and Jatuliaviciene (2011), and Shooter, Paisley, and Sibthrop (2012) determined that trust is important to organizations because it eases the complexities of relationships. In the initial phase of trust, when people first meet, they have little or no firsthand information about each other.

McKnight and Chervany (2006) used the phrase relationship distance, which meant two people have never had a face-to-face introduction. Another phrase used by McKnight and Chervany is social distance, which meant two people have spoken on the telephone or through e-mail, but have never met in person. The initial unfamiliarity stops after the parties gain verifiable information via firsthand interaction or transactional experience with each other.

Types of Leadership

Authentic leadership and existentialism. Authenticity is a growing area of interest in leadership studies and an important concept in existential thinking. Lawler and Ashman's (2012) point of contention with the majority of authenticity scholarship is that it implies authenticity relates to the inner or true self. Existentialist thinking rejects the possibility that an individual can have multiple selves. Individuals may be capable of acting differently in different circumstances, but it is all the same self (Ford & Harding, 2011; Gardiner, 2011; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & DeHoogh, 2011). According to existentialism, individuals are in the world, with perceptions and circumstances.

Individuals are without a separate and private or true self, which is what Sartrean existentialists refer to as being-in-the-world.

There is no inner authenticity separate from the real world. Individuals are integral to the world and do not exist beyond or apart from it (Lawler & Ashman, 2012; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke, 2011). Remembering the existentialism of Sartre, Lawler and Ashman (2012) noted that the primary meaning of existentialism is all people are responsible for their own existence, the meaning of their life is in their hands, and they should acknowledge the help received along the way, but any blame lies with them.

An association exists between authentic leadership and transformational leadership that includes personal charisma as a necessary element (Cameron, 2011; Lawler & Ashman, 2012). Personal charisma, in turn, is dependent on the perception of authentic leadership and the character and values held by individuals, including the leader (Du, Lindgren, & Sen, 2013; Egan, 2011; Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun, & Frey, 2012). Authentic leadership represents a confluence of positive organizational behavior, transformational leadership, and ethical and moral capacity and development.

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is a style of leadership in which leaders identify needed change. Transformational leaders create a visionary plan and guide the change through their competencies and ethical behavior (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey 2013; Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Roszak, 2015). Their inspiring behavior also means closer leader–follower awareness of work and personal issues. Transformational leaders also seek to turn negative situations into positive situations through motivation and morale building.

Researchers have done a considerable amount of work at the transformative leader–individual level that has confirmed the benefits of those relationships (Braun et al., 2013). Braun et al. (2013) focused on filling in missing information concerning transformational leadership; trust in supervisor and team, job satisfaction, and team performance in multilevel analysis. The research included 360 employees from 39 academic teams.

The results were in explicit terms. First, Braun et al. (2013) noted the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' job satisfaction at the individual and team level was positive. Second, they noted transformational leadership mediated the relationship between followers' perception of supervisors' transformational leadership and individual job satisfaction. The mediation occurred through trust in the leadership and trust in the team (D. Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012; McCann & Holt, 2013). However, individual trust in a team and supervisor did not mediate the relationship between team perceptions of the supervisors, transformational leadership, and team performance (Searle et al., 2011). Thus, transformational leaders and supervisors had a positive effect on individual job satisfaction when mediated by trust in the supervisor and the team. However, the trust that the collective individuals in the team had for each other did not mediate the relationship of the team toward transformational leadership.

An investigative study of transformational leadership and employee well-being involved exploring possible approaches to the subject. Investigations have revealed three major types of leadership (Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loghlin, 2012). The first type is transformational leadership, which occurs when superior leaders broaden, inspire, and support the interests of their employees (Avery, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012; Trapp, 2011). Transformational leadership generates awareness and acceptance of a team's purpose and goals. Transformational leaders can motivate employees to look beyond their self-interest for the success of the team.

Transactional Leadership: The second kind of leadership described was transactional leadership. Transactional leadership includes an emphasis on transactions between the leader and the employee (Kelloway et al., 2012; Sutherland, 2012). Transactional leadership includes both positive (contingent rewards) and negative (management by exception) events. Management by exception is a practice in which employees bring only significant deviations from goals to the attention of management so that management focuses only on those areas in need of action (Kelloway et al., 2012). Transactional leadership and management by exception mean there are no regular management–employee interactions. Therefore, leadership overlooks both positive and negative events that are not exceptional.

The third type of leadership is nontransactional or laissez-faire. Laissez-faire is a French term meaning a policy or attitude of letting things take their course without interfering (Kelloway et al., 2012). Another term for this is nonleadership. This management style does not have the limited benefit of transactional leadership. Leaders who practice nontransactional leadership only become aware of exceptional events when their managers make them aware of the problem, and repercussions could involve the termination of their contract.

The issue with both transactional and nontransactional leadership is that neither process has a continuous positive relationship with employees and neither includes helping employees broaden and pursue their goals and interests (Caldwell, Troung, Linh, & Tuan, 2011; Kelloway et al., 2012). Managers in transactional and nontransactional leadership programs frequently do not know the names of the employees two levels below them (Caldwell et al., 2012), and their primary interest is in preserving their employment status (Caldwell, Guevara, Taylor, Licona, & McConkie, 2013; Schaubroeck, Peng, & Hannan, 2013). Employees in those circumstances often feel alienated (Kelloway et al., 2012). When asked about their job, they might say, “I must be doing well. I haven’t gotten fired.” These employees also often suffer from stress, distress, anxiety, and depression.

Trust Within the Organization

Most of the classic models of trust assume that trust develops gradually over time (Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1993). Trust in temporary teams develops from different places than trust in permanent teams (R. Mayer et al., 1995; Meyerson et al., 1993).

Additionally, Meyerson et al. (1993) and Peloza, Loock, Cerruti, and Muyot (2012) realized that trust in temporary teams would have to form quickly. Meyerson et al. (1993) labeled quickly formed trust as swift trust. The swift trust they described was appropriate for virtual teams in an Internet exchange media application (De Jong & Dirks, 2012). Trust scholars such as Mishra and others defined the antecedents of trust as the qualities of benevolence, competence, honesty, and predictability; swift trust had slightly different antecedents (Mukweyi, 2011; Muller et al., 2013; Wong, Yip, & Chan, 2013). Although a comparison of the classic versus swift trust groups of antecedents would show that some differences exist, the requirements are all meaningful to the process of trust formation.

Organizational trust, when referred to as a type of interpersonal trust, occurs between individuals and organizations. This interpersonal type of organizational trust refers to the positive expectations of individuals (R. Mayer et al., 1995). The positive expectations include competence, reliability, and benevolence of a representative member of an organization. This trust also refers to institutional trust between organizational members.

Organizations often have self-managing teams to direct change and improve trust. Cross-functional teams are no exception to the commonly constructed self-managed method for building teams (Franz & Mastrangelo, 2014). However, organizational leaders rarely consider the rationale for choosing individual members of the team. Giving little initial consideration to staffing results in the typical, less innovative two sources in which appointed team leaders either ask for volunteers or in which group leaders assign direct reports. Organizational commitment should be the basis on which to form a team whose mission is to drive change and improve trust.

In a case study that involved the Canadian division of a multinational health care company, Franz and Mastrangelo (2014) served as consultants to understand problems and help develop creative solutions. The organization had a yearly survey to analyze all aspects of product development, as well the organizational culture. The focus of the cultural aspects was employees' perceptions of issues. Included in the cultural review was how well the organization valued people, their company satisfaction, rewards and recognition, ethical conduct, and other issues that were personal motivations rather than strictly organizational strategic matters. A recent survey had indicated that all the measured values had decreased, which indicated negative attainment from the previous year.

To help the company leaders understand the reason the employee perception numbers were decreasing, management called for a special team. The company leaders launched a feedback and diagnostic process based on six principles (Franz & Mastrangelo, 2014). The reason for selecting those principles was to develop a consistent approach, create a transparent and safe environment for respondents, and create a flexible timeline process to address the most issues. The organization leaders set up a team of managers to process results. The managers provided a formal process to track ongoing remedial processes. At a national sales meeting, Franz and Mastrangelo (2014) collected peer nominations of persons whom nominating peers thought would best serve on a cross-functional team.

The teams formed included the individuals most nominated on the peer-nominated tabulations. The newly formed team consisted of skilled individuals, managers, and two senior leaders. One of the two senior leaders was the division's general manager (Franz & Mastrangelo, 2014). The two senior leaders would act in dual capacities. The first was to act as a fully functional team member with the same authority (neither more nor less) as the rest of the team. The second capacity was to act as an advocate for the team when it met with all members of the senior leadership. The two senior leaders were to act like a sounding board for determining whether ideas might face budgetary or legal constraints.

When teams formed, subsequent surveys took place. The results of the survey indicated that all the business functions of the company had improved, but the cultural aspects of the review had not improved (i.e., how well the organization valued people, their satisfaction with the company, rewards and recognition, and ethical conduct; Franz, & Mastrangelo, 2014). With confidence in the team and in how well the business functions had improved, they began to gather the subject material to improve the results. In the end, all the organizational activities, including trust, improved considerably. An examination into the positions of the two senior leaders, especially the division general manager, was instrumental in the success of the change effort. Franz and Mastrangelo (2014) determined that the division general manager's flexibility concerning her dual roles was central to her success.

Organizational culture is the unwritten prevailing ambiance that exists within an organization. The culture is where individuals generate, convey, and reinterpret meaning

(Tierney, 2006). The organizational structure is perpetually changing and never fixed. New issues constantly arise that test the bounds of previously conceived structures, and people are always entering and exiting the company. Therefore, the chemistry of the organizational structure is always flexible and dynamically reforming.

The methods of social interchange that are often uncontrollable create reality within an organization. Trust is not a belief that exists throughout an organization, as if the organization is only singled minded (Tierney, 2006). When individual behavior is fair and consistent, perceived integrity exists in the actions and language within the organization.

Scholars of inheritable trust have maintained the belief that trust is trait-like or dispositional. Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007) contended that trust is an aspect of social relationships and built their argument concerning trust on the fact that each trust incident had a temporal and conditional aspect. In the theoretical principles that Schoorman et al. constructed, time was a crucial factor. Propensity and disposition are essential qualities at the beginning of a trust relationship. Facilities for judgments, ability, and integrity develop next. The ability to make sound judgments concerning the integrity of character and the perception of trust carries a relationship forward before meaningful benevolence takes place in the relationship.

A trust, risk, and reward balance system serves to maintain trust within an organization. The system may be economically or strategically codified or simply asserted as a rule of thumb (Schoorman et al., 2007). Regardless of the origin of the system, it adjusts the balance at a comfortable level within a given organization. As this comfort level is subjective, the style and culture of an organization will determine the perceived risk individually and collectively observed. Perceived risk will modulate the relationship between trust and risk taking. An organizational manager’s judgment of the amount of risk or reward present in a given situation will facilitate the management of the type and amount of risk and reward that are acceptable.

Risk and trust are not mutually exclusive. When risk in a situation is greater than trust, a reliable control system can bridge the difference. The bridging can involve lowering the perceived risk to a level that the trust can manage (Schoorman et al., 2007). Organizational systems that have open policies and transparency of numbers may have a lower risk perception and greater trust. Organizational systems of open policies and transparency of numbers that have a strong and rigid risk, reward, and trust system will have little chance of failure.

However, such a rigid system also ironically provides little chance for the growth and development of trust. In the inverse situation of a closed policy organization with more opaque perceptions of numbers, general trust may include only perceptions of what actions can substantiate (Schoorman et al., 2007). Additionally, the duty and privilege of risk and reward management will be limited to those inside the system who know the circumstances of a given project. This procedure limits the amount of human input and, therefore, puts all the responsibility on those who control the system.

Context-specific models of trust must include the issues of power between supervisors and subordinates (Schoorman et al., 2007). In this hierarchical condition, superiors will have more information about the subordinate than the subordinate has of the superiors. Supervisors are able to decide quicker rather than subordinates whether to trust. The party who has more power in the relationship will likely perceive, by virtue of that power, less risk and thus engage in more risk-taking actions. Risk taking by the supervisor may be acceptable to the subordinate, but does not put the subordinate and supervisor on the same level of information (Schoorman et al., 2007). This imbalance of information may not trigger reciprocal perceptions of trust toward the supervisor.

Gap in the Literature

The gap in the literature is the segmented research on trust. Researchers have dealt with trust constructs as separate issues of anthropology, physiology, sociology, and organizational systems (Blommaert et al., 2014; Cook, 2014; Dinesen, 2012). A comprehensive understanding of how individuals develop and use their trust intelligence is missing in the field of values and in trust research and trust-building programs. Although the disciplines of trust research are segmented, individuals are not. Workers who enter an organization, or who are already long-term employees, have a lifetime of trust experience. The concept of investigating lifelong trust experiences brought into the organization lacks sufficient research.

Summary and Conclusions

In Chapter 2, I provided an outline of the chapter, a description of the procedures used for the literature review, and the results of my inquiry into the various definitions of trust from some of the most prominent trust scholars. I then proceeded, within the structure outlined, to examine the literature to provide a comprehensive analysis of the individual constructs of personal trust in organizations.

An evaluation of an individual construct of personal trust in organizations requires individuals and managers to understand their trust journey from infancy to organization member. These experiences subjectively consist of heredity, ethnicity, cultural background, and social experiences. The section on the gap in the literature included a specific explanation of the gap and its importance to organizational studies. The two research questions were as follows: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and the three dimensions of organizational trust? What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and the three dimensions of organization trust after controlling for demographic factors?

The survey questions created to obtain answers about how and whom the participants trust inside the organization and their demographic information should give insight into how their ethnicity and socialization help determine their trust profile. Trust researchers do not universally accept that trust is an inherited quality. Neither do an overwhelming number of trust researchers believe that trust is simply an experiential quality. Giddins's structuration theory and Bandura's social cognitive theory both serve as a path for acquiring new learning and new trust detection tools.

The review of the literature revealed the segmented nature of the disciplines of trust research, but individuals are not segmented; they process external stimuli based on all their learned experiences. Trust is not a constant quality within a group or organization. Understanding individual constructs of trust for the improvement of trust-building programs is an achievable plan. Chapter 3 includes the research design that consisted of a survey investigation into the way that individuals perceive values and trust levels within their organization.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Within the structure of an organization, individuals interpret the prevailing culture and the value placed on ethics and trust. They decide when, where, or if they will trust others or merely comply with the individuals to whom they report. The research method for this study was quantitative. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. This study advances the knowledge of trust research by contributing to the understanding of causal effects of national culture and ethnicity for new and existing employees within an organizational setting.

The research design was causal-comparative, which is similar to the correlation design in that they both include the elements of relationships and comparison. This chapter includes a more detailed description of the design, as well as the rationale for choosing the causal-comparative design. Also within Chapter 3 is a discussion of the population, procedure for recruitment, participation, data collection, data analysis techniques, and procedures for ensuring ethical considerations. The chapter concludes with a summary and a transition to Chapter 4, which will include the results of the study.

Research Design and Rationale

A causal-comparative research design was suitable for this study because it was my intention to determine whether trust attitudes correlate with individual values within an organization. This study included two independent variables. One independent variable was trust, as determined by Chathoth et al. (2011). The dependent variables were three trust categories: integrity, commitment, and dependability. The second independent variable was values determined by Hofstede and Minkov (2013). The dependent variables were the six indices used to determine values (a) PDI, (b) IDV, (c) MAS, (d) UAI, (e) LTO, and (f) IVR.

The research questions and hypotheses were as follows:

RQ1: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust?

$H1_0$: None of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relate to any of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust.

$H1_a$: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relates to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust.

RQ2: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors?

$H2_0$: None of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relate to any of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors.

$H2_a$: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values reelates to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors.

Researchers build causal-comparative studies using the same mechanisms as correlation studies, as they are both ex post facto and nonexperimental because manipulation of the independent variable does not occur. They also both involve an attempt to determine whether a relationship exists between two or more quantified variable groups (Airasian & Gay, 2015; Morley, 2015). However, only a causal-comparative design involves an attempt to show a cause-and-effect relationship between two or more quantified variable groups (Simon & Goes, 2013). Because researchers do not manipulate independent variables, the dependent variables remain fixed at one specific time, which is the completion of the survey. Additionally, the design and research questions should effectively interact with the dependent variables and the independent variable of trust.

Time will be a valuable and finite resource in all collegiate studies to meet specific milestones. Time constraints are one factor involved in selecting the quantitative methodology but were not a factor in the choice of a causal-comparative design. Investigations into the possibility of using qualitative theories in organizational trust issues revealed that the study would not be effective if it included one of the five approaches for qualitative research.

There are several reasons for not choosing a qualitative study. First, the ex post facto material and information involved in the research were best defined in quantifiable demographic data and the Likert-type scale responses of a survey instrument. Second, while time spent on interviews might yield some insights to the study, it would not compensate for the time lost searching for empirical data, nor would it produce definitive answers to the research questions (Knobloch, 2002; Olsen, 2015). Causal-comparative designs have yielded successful research in a variety of academic fields, including health care, education, and business studies (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). In the field of scientific inquiry, causal-comparative research designs are an effective means of investigating and comparing past data with present circumstances and making causal inferences.

Methodology

A quantitative methodology was suitable for conducting a systematic empirical investigation of the individual constructs of trust for individuals who work within an organization. I gave specific instrument-assigned values to common demographic designations. I also recorded participants' replies to Likert-type responses for the dependent variables. The outcome for this study was to generate unbiased results that are generalizable to a larger population.

Population

The participants in the study consisted of a population of individuals who were 18 years old and older and employed in a hierarchically structured, public or private, for profit or nonprofit organization located in the continental United States. The exact size of the population is incalculable. I recruited the participants from the audience on the commercial site SurveyMonkey. The first stage on SurveyMonkey was the design and construction of the survey. The second stage was to select from the drop-down menus for the requirements for selecting and deselecting survey candidates. The third step involved merging Steps 1 and 2 and bringing that instrument into SurveyMonkey's audience, which is an available pool of willing participants available through SurveyMonkey. Recruitment ceased when the sample size reached the required number determined by the power analysis.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

I used a simple convience sampling method within the incalculable population previously defined. Any individual within the general population who met the selection specification had an equal probability of selection (Chambers & Skinner, 2003). The benefit of random sampling is that it minimizes bias. However, randomness may produce a sample that is not representative of the larger population, particularly as it pertains to certain demographic indicators. Researchers have used systematic and stratified techniques to overcome the problem.

My purpose in conducting this study was to examine connections between individual values and trust in organizations. As indicated by the participants' survey responses, I looked for causal-comparison information that would lead to an enhanced trust profile of each. Included in the study were individuals from the population who met the participant screening criteria. The participants were willing and available to participate and responded yes on the document of informed consent.

I performed a power analysis to determine the multiple regression power analysis and sample size. To determine the sample size for multiple regression models, researchers have used G*Power 3.1 software (Buchner, Erfelder, Paul, & Lang, 2009). With eight predictors (gender, age, education, position in the organization, length of service in the organization, combined household income, U.S. region, and device type used to complete the survey), a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$), and an alpha level of $\alpha = .05$, the needed sample size to achieve sufficient power (.80) was 92 respondents.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data)

The sample used in this study was from the SurveyMonkey audience. Anyone over the age of 18 who worked in a for-profit or nonprofit organization qualified to participate. The organizations were hierarchical, so that every person in the organization reported to someone else or someone else reported to that person. I followed the participant requirements to reach the minimum sample size of 92.

Ethical Protection of Research Participants

The study followed the requirements of the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB), as well as the SurveyMonkey IRB to ensure the methods used in the study were ethical, moral, and responsible. Neither the names nor any other personal identification of the participants was necessary to complete the survey. The SurveyMonkey 10-digit identification number was visible to me in the test results. I could not identify individual responses to single survey questions or single surveys in totality or otherwise identify them in any fashion. I recorded all the data to make analytical assumptions about individual characteristics and their decision choices, and I ensured that I articulated each data collection step in the study, including receiving IRB permission before conducting any research, contacting participants, conducting the research, and collecting data.

The first page of the survey was the consent form. The consent form was the standard Walden University consent form customized to include the unique specifics of this study. I specified the particular candidates that I sought as participants and described the document as a step in the process of informed consent. The consent form included my name and background information for the study, a synopsis of the study procedures, and a sample of the survey questions. The form also included information on the voluntary nature of the study and the fact that participants can leave the study whenever they wish.

I conducted the study electronically and in a manner that obscured participants' names and any other personal information from anyone, including me. There was no risk from employers or any agency. The consent form included an explanation of the potential benefits of participating. Both SurveyMonkey's data collection methods and the fact that I was blind to any personal or identifying information helped to ensure privacy. Even though the source of the material was unknown to me, or anyone else who may examine it, I will keep any electronic data or printed material for a 5-year period in a fireproof safe. After the 5-year period, I will remove the data storage device from the safe and destroy it.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Construct

The survey instrument consists of three separate sections: Hofstede and Minkov's (2013) Values Survey Module (VSM) for 2013, Chathoth et al.'s Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey, and demographic questions. The basis of the module was Hofstede's early efforts to understand the differences in values from one national culture to another. The original work was the worldwide survey of IBM employees' values between 1967 and 1973. Hofstede's earlier research culminated in the 2008 VSM. In VSM 2008, the survey module consisted of what became the first four-dimensional indices of the national culture and values module.

The VSM 2013 survey is an index of the six dimensions that constitute the entire VSM 2013 module:

- Ten differences between small and large power-distance societies.
- Ten differences between weak and strong uncertainty-avoidance societies.
- Ten differences between collectivist and individual societies.
- Ten differences between feminine and masculine societies.
- Ten differences between short and long-term oriented societies.
- Ten differences between indulgent and restrained societies.

Each of the 10 differences equals one either/or condition and, therefore, one question. The complete set of indices equals 6 × 10 questions, or 60 questions. The survey had cross-indices constructs. From each of the six indices, I used four questions (4 × 6 = 24); therefore, the instrument consists of 24 questions. Hofstede and Minkov used the same questions in their VSM survey. Hofstede and Minkov (2013) noted that the VSM is for comparing national samples and not for comparing individuals, organizations, or published scores, and it is not a teaching tool.

The study involved computing the values for each of the four questions separately. The basis of the values for each separate question was a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = *of utmost importance* and 5 = *of very little or no importance*. Through a process of assigning a weighted value to each response, I computed and totaled a value for each level. The number of respondents who answered the question multiplied by the number of answers equaled the total. For example, if 14 people answered 3, then 14 × 3 = 42. I totaled all five answers and divided by the number of respondents to arrive at the value for one of the 24 specific questions. Each of the 24 questions had the prefix m, so the designation for Question 2 was m02, and so forth. Each of the six indices had a formula. For example, PDI = 35(m07 – m02) + 25(m20 – m23) + C(pd). C(pd) is constant (positive or negative). Hofstede (1980) tested the reliability of the instrument using the IBM data. The computation to determine Cronbach's alpha revealed that all four indices had alphas higher than .700. The rule of thumb for testing reliability is a value over .700.

The second section consists of Chathoth et al.'s Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. The instrument is cross-cultural in the two countries tested. The test was designed to ask specific questions in the areas of integrity, commitment, and dependability. The answers served as proxy indicators to measure the amount of trust that employees have for their organization and the organization's management (see Appendix D). This study concerned the development of personal trust within organizations; therefore, this is a positive fit.

The variables in Chathoth et al.'s (2011) research and in this study were integrity, commitment, and dependability. Checking validity and reliability involved using SPSS statistical software and computing the trust values for each of the three variables separately. The basis for the trust measurement for each separate question was a 10-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 10 = *strongly agree*. Factor analysis was suitable to establish construct validity (Barrett, Leech, & Morgan, 2011). The reliability and validity values for each of the three variables and their seven, seven, and five survey questions, in respective order, appeared in Table 2 of Chathoth et al.'s study.

Chathoth et al. (2011) selected two countries to compare: India and the United States. The industry involved was the hospitality industry. The subsection in the industry was hotels. In India, the respondents were workers from four 5-star hotels. In the United States, the workers came from a 5-star, 4-star, and 3-star hotel. Performing an analysis of variance was suitable to determine whether the employees from the United States and India differed in the averages of their integrity, commitment, and dependability. The analysis indicated that the differences were statistically significant. Cronbach's alpha for this study indicated that the U.S. employees had an alpha of .940, and the Indian employees had an alpha of .760.

The third section consisted of eight demographic questions on gender, age, education, position in the organization, number of years in the organization, combined household income, U.S. region, and device type used to process the survey. The survey consisted of 24 questions in the first section, 19 questions in the second section, and eight demographic questions.

Data Collection

SurveyMonkey collected the data. After reaching the required minimum number of respondents (n = 92), SurveyMonkey downloaded the data in the form of an Excel file. I then cleaned and screened the material in the file. Cleaning refers to the process of examining data to identify incomplete, incorrect, inaccurate, and irrelevant material. I replaced, modified, or deleted the resulting coarse data. Screening has a similar meaning and involves identifying surveys that contain no answer or more than one answer to the same question. I excluded such survey results from these data sets from the calculation. I then downloaded the finished Excel file.

Data Analysis Plan

Data processing involved using SPSS Version 22.0 software. I repeated the tests performed for the questions in the first two survey sections. I performed a multiple regression analysis to predict the value of the variable based on two or more variables. This included the values measurements in Hofstede’s survey, the trust measurements in Chathoth et al.’s survey, and the eight demographic variables.

Threats to Validity

Population Variable

Researchers use the population variable to determine how representative the sample is to the population and how globally the findings apply (Michael, 2015; Trochim, 2007). The participants were from SurveyMonkey and selected using a simple convience sampling process. Because the requirements of being in this study were not very restrictive (i.e., over the age of 18 and employed in a hierarchically structured organization), the likelihood that the sample was representative of the population was high. Likewise, the possibility of generalizing the research findings from the sample to a global population was probable.

Interaction Effect of Testing

The interaction effect of testing refers to the possibility that a pretest will affect posttest scoring (Trochim, 2007). This situation is only applicable to research that has a pretest–posttest design. No pretest was necessary in this research. Therefore, the threat was nonexistent.

Internal Validity

History refers to the possibility that some unexpected event will occur while filling out the survey that will alter the outcome of the survey. This study included a survey on trust in organizations (Michael, 2015; Trochim, 2007). Participants completed the survey in approximately 25 minutes. The only thing that would affect the outcome of the survey would have been an intrusion that occurred in the middle of filling out the survey that altered the individual’s perception of trust in his or her organization. The possibility of such an event occurring was minuscule, as was the threat to internal validity.

External Validity

Maturation refers to the possibility that changes to the dependent variable will occur due to natural or accidental occurrences over the life of a study. This study included two independent variables. One independent variable was trust, as determined by Chathoth et al. (2011). The dependent variables were the three trust categories: integrity, commitment, and dependability. The second independent variable was values, as determined by Hofstede and Minkov (2013). The dependent variables were the six indices used to determine values: (a) PDI, (b) IDV, (c) MAS, (d) UAI, (e) LTO, and (f) IVR. These were changes, so there was no chance of this occurring during the 25-minute test time.

Testing threats only occurs in a pretest–posttest design. Such threats would include situations in which participants receive instructions and examples during the pretest that are nearly identical to the actual test questions (Trochim, 2007). No pretest was necessary in this research. Therefore, the threat was nonexistent.

Instrumentation also only occurs in a pretest–posttest design. Instrumentation means that the researcher altered the test given in the pretest prior to giving it in the posttest. No pretest was necessary in this research (Trochim, 2007). Therefore, the threat was nonexistent.

Mortality occurs when participants leave a study in the time between the pretest and the posttest (Trochim, 2007). Any person who consented to participate in this research and did not return or register a final survey were considered statistically as having received a survey and not responding, and the survey was cleaned or screened.

Regression is a pretest–posttest phenomenon that only occurs when a researcher sets up a test group from a nonrandom sample that consists mainly of participants who scored low on the pretest (Trochim, 2007). The regression threat occurs when a researcher retests these low scorers. The scores improve, increase, or regress toward the mean of the total population. The effect continues to regress toward the mean with every subsequent test. No pretest was necessary in this research. Therefore, the threat was nonexistent.

Construct Validity

A preoperational construct and definition occurs when the preoperational plan is inadequate for operationalizing the research questions and measures to meet the intentions of the construct (Trochim, 2007). Questions and measures in the study aligned with the conceptual construct map (see Appendix E).

Mono-operational bias occurs when the independent variable causes a program or treatment in the study based on a single person, a unique group, or a single location at a single point in time (Trochim, 2007). This study was a one-time survey of individuals who had diverse ethnicities and backgrounds.

Mono-method bias refers to the measures or observations and not to the study construct or causes. Mono-method bias concerns the same issues as the mono-operational bias, except it refers to the measurements or observations (Trochim, 2007). The first of two existing test instruments that comprised the basis of the study was VSM 2013, which has national and cultural values as the independent variable and contains six dependent variables (see Appendix D). The second survey was the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey, which has trust as the independent variable and contains three dependent variables (see Appendix D). Both surveys were suitable for comparing the six and three dependent variables, respectively, to establish the significance of the variables.

Interaction of different treatments occurs when the participants in a study have possibly received other treatments given simultaneously to the research treatment that could cause a change in behavior instead of the research treatment (Trochim, 2007). This research study was essentially a post hoc study that involved measuring the past and existing factors at one moment in time. Hypothesis guessing occurs when participants anticipate as they move along in the study what the key dependent variable has to do with the independent variable, and they alter their behavior when answering the remainder of the questions (Trochim, 2007). This research design involved taking the questions from the two specified surveys and composing a new survey devoid of two independent variables: values and trust.

Researcher expectancies occur when a researcher creates a bias in research results. In physical approaches where the researcher and the participant are face-to-face, certain looks, facial expressions, tones, or other subtle changes can bias the study. In written instructions, the wording used can lead participants to react a certain way. In this research study, the research instrument was fixed and published. I took care when creating research survey instructions and questions to ensure a neutral tone.

Summary

Chapter 3 included a detailed explanation of the causal-comparative research design. The two independent variables were values and trust, and the chapter included a discussion on the dependent variables for each independent variable. Within the chapter, I defined the causal-comparative design and explained why I chose this research design.

The chapter included the target population's requirements, and I noted the source of the target population was SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey, 2015). The instrument included two existing tests. One test was for measuring the effects of values in an organization (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013), and the other was for measuring trust and employee satisfaction (Chathoth et al., 2011). I reviewed the threats to validity and discussed the subcategories within external, internal, and construct validity while applying each to this study. The informed consent form, survey instrument, and conceptual construct map are in the appendices.

Chapter 4 includes a review and analysis of the statistical information described in Chapter 3. The chapter will include a discussion of how I collected the data gathered from the survey instrument and demographic inquiry. Chapter 4 also includes the study results, a discussion of how representative the sample was of the population, and a determination of whether I could make certain generalizations.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. Within the structure of an organization, individuals interpret the prevailing culture and the value placed on ethics and trust. They decide when, where, or if they will trust others or merely comply with the demands of the individuals to whom they report. A total of 92 participants were included in the study.

The research questions were:

1) What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust?
2) What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors?

Preview chapter organization

Chapter 4 describes the instrumentation of the research plan defined in Chapter 3, documents the implementation of the research design and includes any issues that impeded or altered the execution of the study. Chapter 4 begins with a restatement of the purpose, the research questions and a statement concerning a pilot study. The core of the chapter includes data collection, results of the study, summary, and transition to Chapter 5.

A statement concerning a pilot study

A pilot study was determined to be unnecessary by the researcher. The final study survey design was a composite of the intact instruments used by Hofstede, G., & Minkov, M. (2013), and Chathoth, P., Mak, B., Sim, J., Jauhari, V., & Manaktola, K. (2011). Also included in the final study survey were demographic questions which were research standards. The researcher concluded that the design plan submitted and approved by the IRB was contingent on the exact unaltered execution of the two surveys mentioned above.

Preparing survey instrument

About two weeks before the acceptance of my proposal I had been investigating a possible electronic method that allowed for the exclusion of certain individuals from the sample. I had incorporated a statement that would exclude anyone who worked in a family- owned-and-operated business. The reason for that exclusion was people who worked in a family owned business have a different kind of trust dynamic than people working with non-relations. Additionally, I had intended to exclude anyone who was related to me by blood or marriage, and anyone who was a friend of mine. Those three requirements were removed because the electronic method and logic of excluding applicants that matched the three issues were difficult to verify and cumbersome to manage.

Data Collection

The time frame

The submitted proposal for this dissertation was accepted by Walden University on November 29, 2015. On March 10, 2016, Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB), approved the research plan, and authorized commencement of research as specified in Chapter 3. The first two pages of the survey were the standard Walden University consent form. Walden University's approval number for this study was 03-10-16-0045539.

Because the researcher has been retired for sixteen years, finding and contacting an available population to survey seemed to be a daunting task. Additionally, the researcher believed that a study involving organizational trust might be viewed by corporate representatives as too risky and sensitive to be allowed on their property. The researcher decided to use SurveyMonkey to collect data.

The SurveyMonkey Audience is a volunteer group of individuals who support academic research and participate in surveys. A fifty-cent contribution per each completed survey is sent from SurveyMonkey to a charity of the audience member's choice. The researcher purchased 145 responses in anticipation of fulfilling the required number of 92 responses.

Before deciding on using SurveyMonkey Audience, my survey instrument was in two different computer formats. Hofstede's Values Survey Module and the demographic inquiries were in a Microsoft Word 2007 format. Chathoth's Trust and Employee

Satisfaction Survey was a picture copied from an Adobe Systems Portable Documents Format, (PDF), and pasted into a blank Microsoft Word format.

The Chathoth's Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey would need to be converted into a Microsoft Word format to be made functional. That conversion operation was made mute because SurveyMonkey does not accept documents in their original format. SurveyMonkey requires that all surveys and survey question are entered into their format.

The survey data was collected on SurveyMonkey from March 10, 2016, to March 11, 2016. SurveyMonkey provided me with 145 responses. Of the 145, twenty checked *no* on the informed consent document. Thirty-three respondents did not complete the entire survey, or they incorrectly filled out the questionnaire and their data were removed. Ninety-two participants remained, which was the required number of complete surveys as determined by my power analysis.

Baseline and descriptive Demographic characteristic

Table 1 displays the frequency counts for selected variables. The ages of the participants ranged from 20-24 (10.9%) to 60 or over (9.8%), with the median age being 37 years old. Seventy-two percent had at least a bachelor's degree, and 30.4% had 18 years or more of education. Fifty-nine percent were non-managers, and over half (55.4%) had been with their current organization for less than 5 years. There were almost equal numbers of women (51.1%) and men (48.9%). Combined household income ranged from $0-$9,999 (1.1%) to $200,000 and up (8.7%), with the median income being $87,500. The most common regions were the South Atlantic (23.9%) and East North Central (22.8%). Seventy-eight percent used a Windows-based desktop or laptop.

Table 1

Frequency Counts for Selected Variables

Variable and category	*n*	%
Age [a]		
20-24	10	10.9
25-29	18	19.6
30-34	12	13.0
35-39	11	12.0
40-49	18	19.6
50-59	14	15.2
60 or over	9	9.8
Education		
12 years or high school graduate	3	3.3
13 years	4	4.3
14 years or AA/AS degree	15	16.3
15 years	4	4.3
16 years or BA/BS degree	33	35.9
17 years	5	5.4
18 years or master's degree and higher	28	30.4
Role		
Skilled or semi-skilled production worker	13	14.1
Generally trained office worker or secretary	24	26.1
Vocationally trained technician, IT-specialist	17	18.5
Manager of one or more subordinates	27	29.3

Table 1 (*continued*)

Variable and category	*n*	%
Manager of one or more managers	11	12.0
Years in current organization		
Under 5 years	51	55.4
6-10 years	13	14.1
11-15 years	10	10.9
16-20 years	7	7.6
21-25 years	7	7.6
26-30 years	2	2.2
31 years or more	2	2.2
Gender		
Female	47	51.1
Male	45	48.9
Combined household income		
$0 to $9,999	1	1.1
$10,000 to $24,999	4	4.3
$25,000 to $49,999	18	19.6

$50,000 to $74,999	22	23.9
$75,000 to $99,999	15	16.3
$100,000 to $124,999	12	13.0
$125,000 to $149,999	4	4.3
$150,000 to $174,999	3	3.3
$175,000 to $199,999	5	5.4
$200,000 and up	8	8.7
U.S. region		
New England	5	5.4
Middle Atlantic	9	9.8
East North Central	21	22.8
West North Central	5	5.4
South Atlantic	22	23.9
East South Central	4	4.3
West South Central	4	4.3
Mountain	10	10.9
Pacific	12	13.0
Device type		
iOS phone/tablet	9	9.8
Android phone/tablet	7	7.6
Windows desktop/laptop	72	78.3
MacOS desktop/laptop	3	3.3
Other	1	1.1

Note. N = 92.
[a] Age: *Mdn* = 37 years. [b] Household income: *Mdn* = $87,500.

How representative are the results?

Table 2 displays a comparison of the data from this study to that of the general US workforce and the total US population in reference to six distinct factors. Those factors are: median age, percentage of the population with a bachelor's degree, the percentage of population with a master's degree or higher, percentage of workforce gender F/M, median years in the organization, and median combined household income. In the descriptive statistic of age, the median age of this study is slightly younger than that of the Total US Workforce but nearly identical to the median age of the total US population.

The comparison in the areas of educational attainment indicates that the participants in this study are much more educated than the Total US Workforce, and the Total US population. That holds true for both the percentage of the population with a bachelor's degree as well as the percentage of the population with a master's degree or higher.

The percentage of women versus men in this study is much higher than the Total US Workforce and about equal to the Total population of the United States. The Median years in the organization are slightly lower that the years reported in the Total US Workforce. The Median combined household income is more than twice that of the Total US Workforce.

Table 2

Comparison of this study to/ the US workforce in general / Total population of the US

Factor	Study completed for this dissertation	Total US Workforce	Total US Population
Median Age	37.0	41.9 (2)	37.2 (4)
% of population with bachelor's	35.9	22.1 (2)	14.47 (2)
% of population with master's or higher	30.4	13.5 (5)	8.10 (2)
%Workforce gender / F / M	51.1 / 48.9	42.0 / 41.8 (5)	50.8 / 49.2 (4)
Median years in organization	5.5	5.7 (3)	-
Median combined house hold income	87,500	41,150 (1)	-

1) Bureau of Labor Statistics, (BLS) (April, 2016). News release usual weekly earnings of wage and salary workers, first quarter 2016, Table 2. http://www.bls.gov.
2) Department of Education, (DE) (2015) Educational attainment of the population 18 years and older Table 1, http://www.de.gov
3) Bureau of Labor Statistics, (BLS) (Sept. 2014). News release Employee Tenture in 2014, http://www.bls.gov.
4) United States Census Bureau, Age and sex composition: 2010. http://www.uscb.gov.
5) Bureau of Labor Statistics, (BLS) (2014). Median age of the workforce, by gender, race, and ethnicity. Table 3.6 http://www.bls.gov.

How representative are locations?

Table 3 displays the nine regional divisions defined by the US Census Department, (United States Census Bureau, Regions, 2010). The study had representation in all nine regions. The two regions with the most respondents included the East North Central Region (22.8%) and the South Atlantic Region (23.9%) resulting in a combined 46.7% of the total geographic participation..

Table 3

Participation by regional area. / all regions in the US / States in Participation area

All regions in the US	Regions by % of total participants	Regions by number of participants	States in the participating regions
New England (1)	5.4	5	Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts
			New Hampshire, Rhode Island,
			Vermont
Middle Atlantic (1)	9.8	9	New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania
East North Central (1)	21	22.8	Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio
			Wisconsin
West North Central (1)	5	5.4	Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri
			Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota
South Atlantic (1)	22	23.9	Delaware, District of Columbia
			Florida, Georgia, Maryland,
			North Carolina, South Carolina
			Virginia, West Virginia
East South Central (1)	4	4.3	Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi
			Tennessee
West South Central (1)	4	4.3	Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma
			Texas
Mountain (1)	10	10.9	Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana
			Nevada, New Mexico
Pacific (1)	12	13.0	Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon
			Washington

1) United States Census Bureau, Regions and Divisions with state FIPS code: 2010. http://www.uscb.gov.

The descriptive statistics for the nine summated scale scores appear in Table 4. For the six cultural values indexes, the highest was the IVR (*M* = 70.16), while the lowest was the UAI (*M* = -73.42). The three organizational trust scores were integrity (*M* = 5.05), commitment (*M* = 5.13), and dependability (*M* = 4.56).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the Hofstede Cultural Value Scales

Scale	*M*	*SD*	Low	High
Power Distance Index	38.70	47.13	-60	145
Individualism Index	37.66	47.34	-70	175
Masculinity Index	3.04	52.31	-140	175
Uncertainty Avoidance Index	-73.42	60.24	-195	120
Long Term Orientation Index	-3.42	54.64	-260	130
Indulgence versus Restraint Index	70.16	66.64	-115	260

Note. $N = 92$.
Note. Cronbach alpha statistics were not calculated because the scoring for the value scores included adding and subtracting items.

Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics for the six Hofstede cultural value scales. The highest scale score was for indulgence versus restraint ($M = 70.16$) while the lowest scale was uncertainty avoidance ($M = -73.42$) (Table 4).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Chathoth Trust Scales

Scale	Items	*M*	*SD*	Low	High	Alpha
Integrity	7	5.05	1.32	1.00	6.00	.94
Commitment	7	5.13	1.35	1.29	6.00	.95
Dependability	5	4.56	1.52	1.40	6.00	.90

Note. $N = 92$.

Table 5 displays the descriptive statistics for the three Chathoth trust scales. The highest scale was commitment ($M = 5.13$) while the lowest scale was dependability ($M = 4.56$) (Table 5).

Variables

Table 6

Pearson Correlations for the Covariate Demographic Variables with the Criterion

Variable	Integrity		Commitment		Dependability
Age	-.08		-.16		-.12
Education	.29	***	.26	**	.10
Role	.25	*	.27	**	.11
Years in Organization	-.04		-.12		-.05
Gender [a]	-.09		-.12		-.15
Household income	-.05		-.04		-.19
Windows device [b]	.15		.11		.14

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$.

[a] Gender: 1 = *Female* 2 = *Male*.

[b] Coding: 0 = *No* 1 = *Yes*.

Table 6 displays the Pearson correlations for the seven covariate demographic variables with the three criterion variables. For the resulting 21 correlations, four were significant at the p < .05 level. Specifically, the respondent's integrity scale score was positively correlated with both the respondent's education level (r = .29, p = .005) and their role in the organization (r = .27, p = .02). In the same way, the respondent's commitment score was positively correlated with both the respondent's education level (r = .26, p = .01) and their role in the organization (r = .27, p = .009) (Table 6).

Addressing the Research Questions

Research Question 1

The first research question was as follows: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust? The related hypothesis for this research question was the following: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relates to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust. To address this, the correlations for the six cultural values indexes with the integrity, commitment, and dependability scales appear in Table 7. Both Pearson and Spearman's rho correlations appear in the table because the distribution of some of the scale scores was not normal. In general, similar-sized correlation coefficients were noted based on the two types of correlations. Out of the resulting 36 correlations, only two were significant. No significant relationship existed between integrity or dependability and any of the six cultural values scales. However, a positive relationship existed between commitment and individualism based on the Pearson correlation (r = .21, p = .04) and a negative relationship existed between commitment and masculinity based on the Spearman's rho correlation (r_s = -.21, p = .04). This combination of findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 7

Correlations for Cultural Values Indexes With Integrity, Commitment, and Dependability Scales Using Both Pearson and Spearman's Rho Correlations

Index and correlation type	Integrity	Commitment	Dependability
Power distance			
Pearson	.02	-.03	-.07
Spearman's rho	-.02	-.05	-.06
Individualism			
Pearson	.17	.21*	.20
Spearman's rho	.17	.19	.18
Masculinity			
Pearson	-.11	-.14	-.06
Spearman's rho	-.13	-.21*	-.06
Uncertainty avoidance			
Pearson	-.03	-.15	.00
Spearman's rho	-.07	-.13	.03
Long-term orientation			
Pearson	.01	-.05	-.06
Spearman's rho	-.03	.02	-.14
Indulgence versus restraint			
Pearson	.05	.04	.08
Spearman's rho	.07	.10	.07

Note. $N = 92$.
* $p < .05$.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was as follows: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors? The related hypothesis for this research question was the following: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relate to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors. Three multiple regression models created this hypothesis for the dependent variables of integrity, (Table 8) commitment, (Table 9), and dependability, (Table 10)..

The prediction of integrity based on 13 selected variables appears in Table 6. The model was not statistically significant (p = .13) and accounted for 20.2% of the variance in the dependent variable. However, inspection of the beta weights indicated a positive relationship existed between integrity and role (β = .28, p = .02).

Table 8

Prediction of Integrity Based on Selected Variables

Variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*
Intercept	3.47	0.85		.001
Age	-0.08	0.10	-.11	.45
Education	0.14	0.09	.18	.11
Role	0.29	0.12	.28	.02
Years in organization	0.06	0.12	.07	.63
Gender [a]	-0.37	0.33	-.14	.26
Household income	-0.07	0.07	-.12	.34
Windows device	0.38	0.33	.12	.26
Power distance index	0.00	0.00	.01	.94
Individualism index	0.00	0.00	.16	.22
Masculinity index	0.00	0.00	-.04	.72
Uncertainty avoidance index	0.00	0.00	-.01	.90
Long-term orientation index	0.00	0.00	.02	.84
Indulgence versus restraint index	0.00	0.00	.08	.52

Note. N = 92. Final model: $F(13, 78) = 1.52$, p = .13. R^2 = .202.
[a] Gender: 1 = *Female* 2 = *Male*. [b] Coding: 0 = *No* 1 = *Yes*.

The prediction of commitment based on selected variables appears in Table 9. The 13-variable model was statistically significant (p = .02) and accounted for 26.0% of the variance in the dependent variable. Specifically, a positive relationship existed between commitment and role (β = .37, p = .001).

Table 9

Prediction of Commitment Based on Selected Variables

Variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*
Intercept	4.01	0.83		.001
Age	-0.16	0.10	-.23	.11
Education	0.08	0.09	.10	.35
Role	0.40	0.12	.37	.001
Years in organization	0.05	0.12	.06	.68
Gender [a]	-0.51	0.33	-.19	.12
Household income	-0.05	0.07	-.08	.50
Windows device [b]	0.28	0.33	.09	.39
Power distance index	0.00	0.00	-.01	.93
Individualism index	0.00	0.00	.17	.17
Masculinity index	0.00	0.00	-.04	.71
Uncertainty avoidance index	0.00	0.00	-.16	.15
Long-term orientation index	0.00	0.00	-.05	.66
Indulgence versus restraint index	0.00	0.00	-.01	.96

Note. $N = 92$. Final model: $F(13, 78) = 2.11$, $p = .02$. $R^2 = .260$.
[a] Gender: 1 = *Female* 2 = *Male*. [b] Coding: 0 = *No* 1 = *Yes*.

The prediction of dependability based on selected variables appears in Table 10. The 13-variable model was not statistically significant ($p = .15$) and accounted for 19.6% of the variance in the dependent variable. However, a positive relationship existed between dependability and both role ($\beta = .25$, $p = .04$) and individualism ($\beta = .30$, $p = .02$), but a negative relationship existed between dependability and combined household income ($\beta = -.25$, $p = .04$). This combination of findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 10

Prediction of Dependability Based on Selected Variables (N = 92)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*
Intercept	4.45	0.98		.001
Age	-0.08	0.12	-.10	.48
Education	-0.02	0.10	-.02	.84

Role	0.30	0.14	.25	.04
Years in organization	0.09	0.14	.09	.52
Gender [a]	-0.40	0.38	-.13	.30
Household income	-0.17	0.08	-.25	.04
Windows device [b]	0.47	0.39	.13	.23
Power distance index	0.00	0.00	-.11	.37
Individualism index	0.01	0.00	.30	.02
Masculinity index	0.00	0.00	.03	.83
Uncertainty avoidance index	0.00	0.00	.05	.69
Long-term orientation index	0.00	0.00	-.01	.95
Indulgence versus restraint index	0.00	0.00	.14	.27

Note. $N = 92$. Final model: $F(13, 78) = 1.46$, $p = .15$. $R^2 = .196$.
[a] Gender: 1 = *Female* 2 = *Male*. [b] Coding: 0 = *No* 1 = *Yes*.

Treatment and/or Intervention Fidelity

The treatment and execution of the planned research was exactly as noted in Chapter 3. Preplanning allowed for the smooth execution of the survey testing on SurveyMonkey, and the data was able to be downloaded within hours of the survey completion.

Summary

In summary, data from 92 participants were used to evaluate individual constructs of personal trust in organizations and to advance the knowledge of trust research by understanding causal effects of multiple cultural and social circumstances of new and existing employees within an organizational setting. Research hypothesis one (cultural values with organizational trust) was supported (Table 4). Research hypothesis two (cultural values with organizational trust controlling for demographics) was also supported (Tables 8-10). In the final chapter, these findings will be compared to the literature, conclusions and implications will be drawn, and a series of recommendations will be suggested.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. The intention of this study was to advance the knowledge of trust research by understanding the causal effects of multiple cultural and social circumstances of new and existing employees within an organizational setting. The methodology was quantitative, and the research design was causal-comparative. The research design included a survey instrument to measure the independent variables, which were national and cultural values and trust.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was to evaluate the state of individual constructs of personal trust in organizations. The causal-comparative design involved examining present characteristics and reviewing them for past contributory effects to find causes, relationships, and meaning. Causal-comparative research designs are always ex post facto and do not involve the manipulation of an independent variable.

Key Findings

The study involved finding significant relationships between Hofstede’s six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth’s three dimensions of organizational trust. The findings in Table 1indicated that Chathoth’s parameter of commitment positively related to Hofstede’s parameter of individualism. Commitment negatively related to Hofstede’s parameter of masculinity. The beta weights indicated that Chathoth’s parameters of integrity and commitment positively related to the demographic parameter of role in the organization. The beta weights indicated that Chathoth’s parameter of dependability positively related to the demographic parameter role, and Hofstede's parameter of individualism dependability negatively related to the demographic parameter of household income. The findings indicated that the null hypotheses of both Research Question 1 and 2 were rejected.

Confirmed positive and negative relationships Research Question 1		
Chathoth	Demographic	Hofstede
Commitment Integrity	Role in Organization	**Individualism** 1) Everyone is supposed to take care of him or her immediate family only 2)"I" consciousness 3) Right of Privacy 4) Speaking one's mind is healthy 5) Others classified as Individuals 6) Personal opinion expected: One person one vote 7) Transgressions of norms leads to guilt Feelings 8) Languages in which the "I" word is indispensable 8) Purpose of education is learning how to learn 9) Task prevails over relationship **Masculinity** 1) Maximum emotional and social role differentiation between the genders 2) Men should be, and women may be assertive and ambitious 3) Work prevails over family 4) Admiration for the strong 5) Fathers deal with facts, mothers with feelings 6) Girls cry, boys don't; boys should fight back, girls shouldn't fight 7) Father decide on family size 8) Few woman in elected political positions 8) Religion focuses on god or gods 9) Moralistic attitudes about sexuality; sex is a way of performing.

Figure 2. Model of the results of the survey illustrating the statistical significant interrelated connections of the three survey components.

Positive

Negative

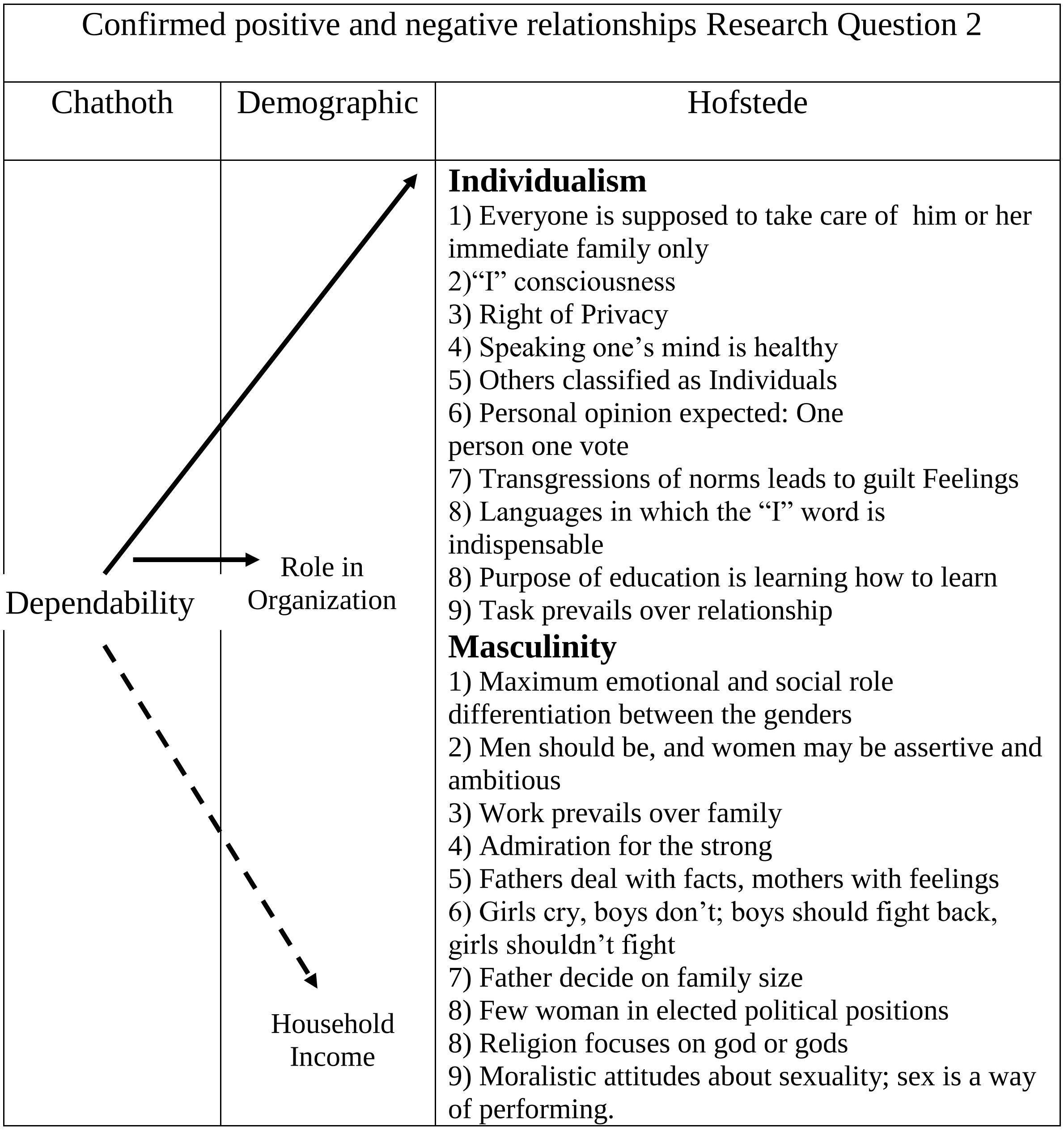

Figure 3. Model of the results of the survey illustrating the statistical significant interrelated connections of the three survey components.

Positive

Negative

Interpretation of Findings

The findings from this study aligned with the literature in Chapter 2. The intent of the concept and design of this research was intended to determine whether the personal constructs of trust in an organization are grounded in the fields of anthropology, biology, sociology, and psychology. The findings indicated that organizational trust and the constructs of personal trust have significant links to the specific sciences.

In the field of genetics, Oskarsson et al. (2011) contributed to the understanding of the genetic origins of relationships. Oskarsson et al. also studied the ties between psychological traits, hormonal activity, and social trust. In the field of biology, Riedl and Javor (2012) examined the biology of the brain for trust-related chemistry and brain function. Uslaner (2008) investigated combinations of culture, ethnicity, and trust. Fisher (2013) and Tierney (2006) investigated the role of social capital and trust in social situations. The relationships between physiology, experiential insights, and trust have significance. Individuals do not transition from private life to organizational workers as blank slates.

The survey instrument was a combination of two separate and previously tested survey instruments, Chathoth et al.'s Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey and Hofstede's Values Survey Module (VSM) 2013, and a set of demographic questions. The three separate items comprised the final single survey instrument.

In the results of the study supplied to me by SurveyMonkey, I was able to view the individual results for all three survey components. I used the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey (see Appendix D) to measure the level of trust that employees have across three variables*: integrity, commitment, and dependability* (Chathoth et al., 2011). As noted at the bottom of the survey, a 10-point Likert scale was suitable for determining the instrumented values (see Appendix D). Box 1 = *strongly disagree* and Box 10 = *strongly agree*. Participants indicated their level of agreement for each statement within the three variables of *integrity, commitment, and dependability*.

In order to calculate the weighted average in a survey the number of participants in each box is multiplied by the numerical value of the box and then divided by the total number of participants. For example, five participants choose Box 1; then 5 × 1 = 5. If three participants choose Box 2; then 3 × 2 = 6. The next step is to add the individual values and then divide by the total number of participants. In this study SuveyMonkey calculated the weighted average for each statement.

My organization treats me fairly and justly	1 = strongly disagree	2	3	4	8	9	10 = Strongly Agree	Total	Weighted Average
	6.19% 6						13.40% 13	92	6.95

Figure 4. Example of the form of the data supplied by SurveyMonkey in which the weighted average was calculated. SurveyMonkey, *Individual construction of Personal Trust* 3/10/2016.

In figure 3, the total number of participants was 92. Six participants chose box 1, as their perception to the statement representing 6.19% of the total participants. For limitations of space it was not possible to show the information in boxes 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. They were represented by the numbers 3, 3, 6, 6, 4, 13, 22, and 16 respectively. The statements about ‘tilting’, for the three variables, refers to the value of the weighted average with respect to the 1-10 values labels assign to each box in Figure 3. In an even numbered scaled measure, there is no median number. Any weighted average from 1.00 –

4.99, can be said to be tilting to the weaker, or less trusting side of the equation. Any weighted average from 5.01- 10.00 can be said to be tilting to the stronger, or more trusting side of the equation.

For the *integrity* variable, six out of the seven responses resulted in the trust factor slightly tilted to the more trusting side of the equation. Only statements 6 and 7, which are “my company tells me the truth whether it is pleasant or not” and “my company tells me everything I need to know,” resulted in findings slightly tilted to the less trusting side of the equation.

For the *commitment* variable, six out of the seven statements resulted in the trust factor slightly tilted to the more trusting side of the equation. Only statement 6, “my organization values my input,” resulted in findings slightly tilted to the less trusting side of the equation.

For the *dependability* variability all of the five statements resulted in the trust factor slightly tilted to less trusting. The details of all five statements appear in Appendix D. None of the 19 statements in this individual survey showed significant results toward the trusting side of the equation.

The second individual component survey in this study came from Hofstede’s VSM 2013 (see Appendix D). Hofstede’s cultural dimensions theory, sometimes referred to as Hofstede’s six dimensions of cultural theory, served as the basis for the survey. Hofstede founded the personnel research department at IBM Europe in 1965. Having access to all the personnel records at IBM, Hofstede developed the model to examine the results of a worldwide survey of employee values at IBM between 1967 and 1973 and noted the similarities and dissimilarities of values between nations.

Hofstede designed the model to present statements that people would universally understand. The VSM 2013 manual indicated that the reason for developing the questionnaire was to compare culturally influenced values and sentiments from two or more countries. The manual also indicated that the survey is not for comparing individuals or organizations and is not a teaching tool (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013).

The survey is indexed, which means that the questions came from a larger base of value factors. The larger set contained the six indices of power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint. Each index contains 10 positive and 10 negative aspects of the subject index. Hofstede, G., & Minkov, M. (2013), selected and formulated 24 questions from those indices to create the survey. The questions were not in subgroups at the initial stage, but adding or subtracting the values of specific questions led to the formulas that created the finished values for the index.

The scale is a Likert-type scale that contains five ratings for each question. Unlike the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey, Hofstede’s survey scoring runs left to right, from positive to negative, where 1 = *of the utmost importance* and 5 = *little or no importance*. Also unlike the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey, the calculation from SurveyMonkey’s report for Hofstede’s survey followed the standard method for calculating the weighted average. The mean for all 24 questions was 2.5. When appraising the number, the farther the number is below 2.5, the greater the importance that the participant places on the value.

The results indicated that the participants felt questions included in the first question (or as Hofstede numbers them: M01, M02, M03, M04, M05, M06, M07, M08, M10, M11, M19, and M21were either *of the utmost importance* or *very important* (see Appendix D). Participants felt Questions M13, M14, M22, and M23 were *of moderate importance*. Participants felt Questions M09, M12, and M24 were between *of moderate importance* and *of little importance*. Participants answered Question M15 with the response *sometimes*, Question M16 with the response *usually*, Question M17 with the response *sometimes*, Question M18 with the response *good*, Question M19 with the response *fairly proud*, and Question M20 with the response *usually*.

I have provided the details of the two component surveys, Chathoth et al.'s Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey and Hofstede's VSM 2013, so others can review in detail what was investigated in this study and build upon this research. An understanding of the detail questions should shed more light on the relationship of the research questions to the final positively and negatively significant relationships. As previously noted, I designed and processed parts of the final survey through SurveyMonkey shown in Appendix D.

The survey had a causal-comparative design. The findings of each survey underwent a comparison for statistical significance through simple and multiple regression models. The first research question was as follows: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust? The related alternate hypothesis for this research question was the following: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relates to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust. Research Question 2 was as follows: What relationships, if any, exist between Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values and Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors? The related alternate hypothesis for this research question was the following: At least one of Hofstede's six dimensions of cultural values relate to at least one of Chathoth's three dimensions of organizational trust after controlling for demographic factors.

The findings indicated that Chathoth's commitment variable positively related to Hofstede's individualism variable. The interpretation indicated that commitment to the organization relates to the meaning that Hofstede assigned to individualism. Hofstede noted, "Individualism stands for a society in which the ties between individuals are loose: a person is expected to look after himself or herself or his or her family only" (as cited in Hofstede & Minkov, 2013, p. 7). Commitment negatively related to Hofstede's masculinity variable. Hofstede noted, "Masculinity stands for a society in which gender roles are distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success; women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life" (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013, p. 7).

The beta weights indicated that Chathoth's integrity and commitment variables positively related to the demographic parameter of role in the organization. The beta weights also indicated that Chathoth's dependability variable positively related to the demographic parameter role in the organization. Hofstede's individualism and dependability variables negatively related to the household income demographic variable. The findings showed that the data supported rejecting the null hypotheses of both Research Questions 1 and 2.

Limitations of the Study

This study was completed using a sample of convenience. An ideal method might have been to use a random sample, however as previously described; using a random sample was not an option in this study because the researcher does not have access to a population. A pure random sample allows all members of a population to have an equal opportunity to participate; however, even this type of sampling does not guarantee that the results will be representative of the entire population. The sample may be skewed

Every demographic restriction or deliminator reduces the randomness of the sample. In the case of this study, there were only three deliminators; adults needed to be 18 or older working in a for-profit or not-for-profit organization who were either workers or supervisors. In this study, SurveyMonkey Audience was the population that I investigated. When the survey was entered into SurveyMonkey, the deliminators were part of the consent form. SurveyMonkey Audience, as previously noted, is a volunteer group that fills out surveys for the benefit of scholarly research. Although it was shown in Chapter four that the participants were demographically representative of the population, there was no indication of which metropolitan cities were represented, and what the urban versus suburban data represented. Hofstede's VSM13 represents numerous countries around the world, but the effect of resulting cultural biases from these dissimilar societies cannot be known.

Recommendations

When researchers process raw data, empirical numbers result, and simple or complex mathematical operations turn the numbers into usable information. The outcome of the process may or may not be the results for which the researcher had hoped. The data from this study indicated a limited amount of relationship ties existed between the two survey instruments. However, the confirmed ties indicated that a relationship exists between Hofstede’s six dimensions of cultural values (VSM 2013) and Chathoth’s Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. A relationship exists between values and trust within a work environment.

A continuation of this work should begin with a thorough review of what this research investigated and what the raw data implied. As mentioned, the findings confirmed that a relationship exists between cultural values and concepts of trust. The findings also confirmed that Hofstede’s six dimensions of cultural values aligned to the population described in this study, as his global findings included data about the United States, and all the participants in this study also lived in the United States.

Individuals interested in conducting additional research on the relationships between culture and trust may want to build on the studies of Dinesen. Dinesen (2012) studied immigrant groups from the low-trust countries Italy, Poland, and Turkey who moved to Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and Germany. The added value of Dinesen's work was the access Dinesen had to populations in the old countries and in their new countries. Additionally, basis for the criterion for Dinesen's study was the data being no more than two generations old. Dinesen wanted to be certain that the values and cultures in the old and new countries were essentially the same, unlike Uslaner (2008), whose studies lacked before and after information. Dinesen wanted to know whether the placed people live affects generalized trust, which is an individual's inherent propensity to trust or distrust. The results indicated that an experiential trust overshadowed generalized trust. The results indicated that the place where a person lives, and the people that they live among, is a greater determinant of practical trust than any other factor.

This study investigated trust constructs within an organization. Additional studies could help determine if any correlation exists between the trust that participants felt within their organization and the way they viewed their larger social setting. It might be productive to compare participants' trust in their organization to trust in the United States in general; that is, including the country's social and political institutions. It also might be informative to compare the trust levels of employees in various geographical areas of the United States.

Implications

When individuals state their interpretations of trust and values within their organization or societal settings, they are expressing what they see as good and bad in their workplace and their society. Sharing the results of this study with managers and leaders could benefit the health and well-being of all involved. At a minimum, sharing these perceptions gives voice to the people involved in an organization as a way of an anonymous expression.

This research determined that a positive relationship existed between commitment and individualism and that integrity and commitment positively related to the role an individual has within an organization. The survey results also indicated that the strength of the indication of integrity and commitment related to the higher level of management in the organization. As SurveyMonkey participants do so voluntary, the managers who participated may be the most dedicated and more likely advocates of transformational leadership.

When employees believe that managers and leaders hear and understand their opinions and concerns, and publicly acknowledge those concerns, then they feel their opinions matter. As health care is the largest after-profit cost to organizations, it is in the leader's best interest to minimize the causes of anxiety and depression in the workplace. A decrease in the level of stress in an organization leads to a reduction in negative reactions and a flow of creative ideas.

Beyond the benefit to the organization, the greater good is the personal benefit that individuals experience when there is less stress in the immediate family and extended friends and family. When workers come home with less stress, they are more likely to have positive interactions with their spouse and children. The health issues related to stress cause more violence in and out of the workplace, and can lead to conditions causing diseases resulting in an early death.

Walden University has a mission for positive social change. When I examined Walden’s 2014 *Social Impact Report*, I felt that individual expectations for positive social change are diminishing. I think that people feel that they must accomplish something great that changes the world or they can do nothing. People can accomplish great things by creating one positive individual relationship at a time. The slow expansion of positive relationships leads to the benefits of building on the energy and intelligence other like-minded people. Expanding an idea can create one small positive group at a time. Social change must begin at the local level before it resonates on a global scale.

Conclusions

This dissertation should be reviewed in its totality. The literature discussed in Chapter 2, and the extensive amount of material available beyond this work, confirm that the concept of constructing a personal definition of trust within an organization is grounded in inherited, cultural, and experiential knowledge. The research in this study confirmed the explicit value of trust as well as the proximal conditions of confidence, honor, ability, responsibility, reliance, and belief. Individuals should consider the value of trust and the problems that occur when trust is absent. Individuals should also imagine every minuscule task and transaction that requires a written contact that both the trustor and the trustee must sign. Contracts establish and maintain legal security for large-scale transactions. Confirmed information concerning trust and ethical history in prior agreements is the general requirement for all oral agreements.

All trust-building and trust-advancing programs require buy-in from ethical leadership. No program can be constructive and sustaining without strong dynamic leadership. Trust allows things to move quickly without cumbersome legalities. Trust is also the unwritten word and bond between individuals.

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Appendix A: Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging Trust Behavior and Associated Brain Regions

Hormones associated with trust behavior

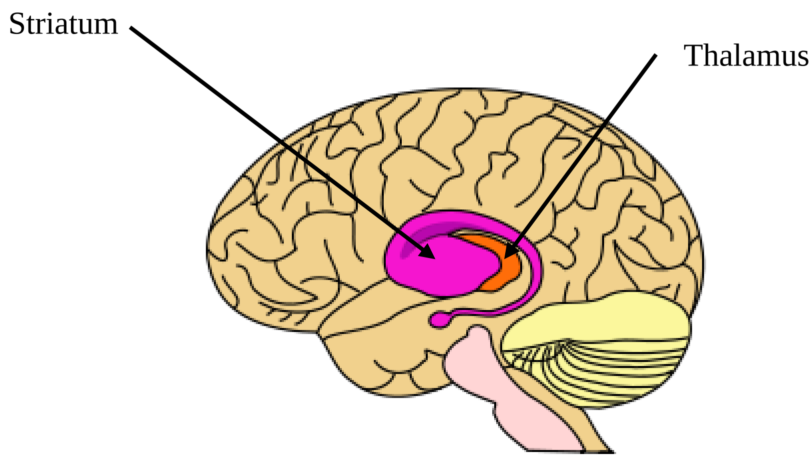

Figure A1. Brain regions associated with reward.

Images are available on line for non-commercial use, Biology.com, (2015). Data on brain regions associated with certain behaviors were from the following reference: Riedl, R., & Javor, A. (2012). The biology of trust: Integrating evidence from Genetics, Endocrinology, and Functional Brain Imaging. *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics,* 5((2), 63-91. Copyrighted by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix A (continued)

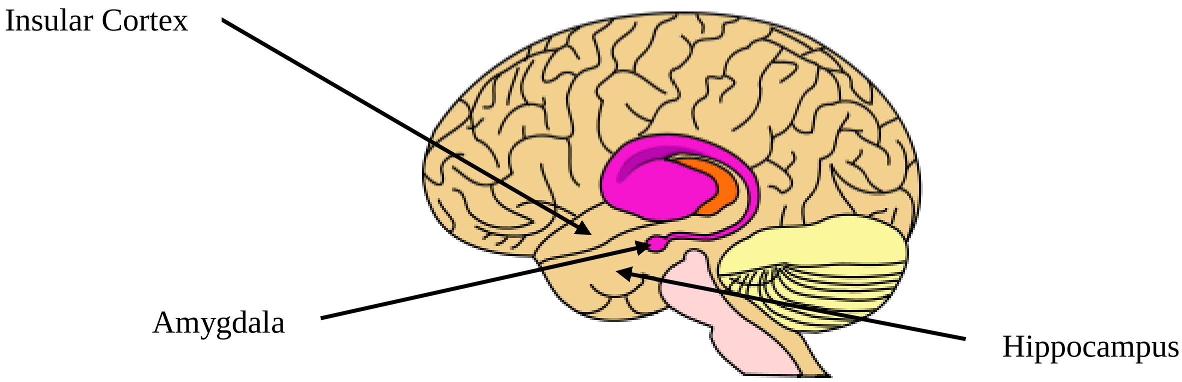

Figure A2. Brain regions associated with uncertainty, risk, ambiguity, fear/ memory. Images are available on line for non-commercial use, Biology.com, (2015). Data on brain regions associated with certain behaviors were from the following reference:: Riedl, R., Javor, A. (2012). The biology of trust: Integrating evidence from Genetics, Endocrinology, and Functional Brain Imaging. *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics, 5*(2), 63-91. Copyrighted by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix A (continued)

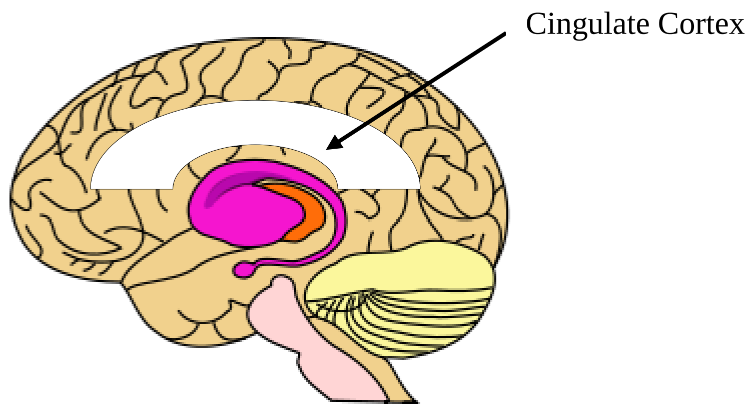

Figure A3. Brain regions associated with cognitive conflict.

Images are available on line for non-commercial use, Biology.com, (2015). Data on brain regions associated with certain behaviors From: " The Biology of Trust: Integrating Evidence From Genetics, Endocrinology, and Functional Brain Imaging" by Riedl, R. & Javor, A., (2012) *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics*, (2012), Vol. 5, No. 2, 63-91. P 79. Copyrighted by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

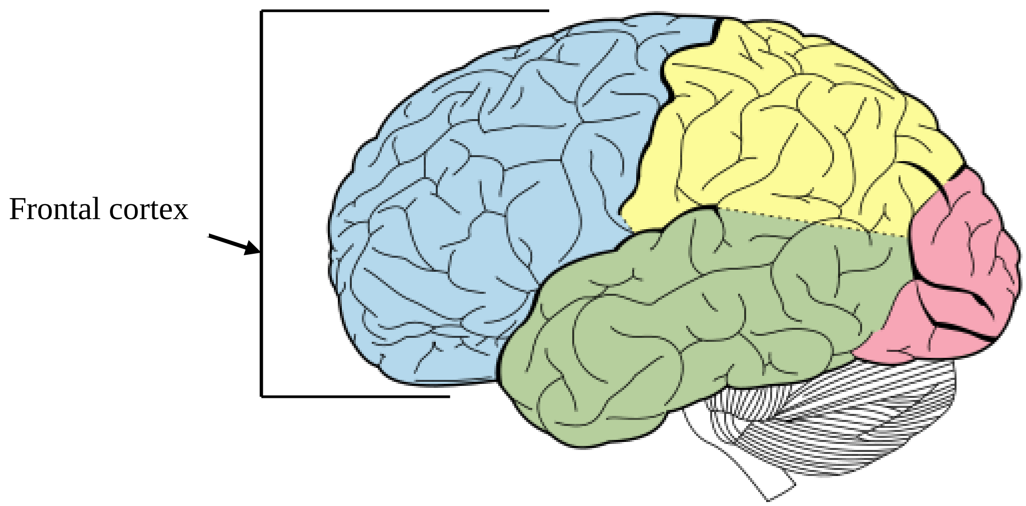

Figure A4. Brain regions associated with mentalizing and deliberate thinking. Images are available on line for non-commercial use, Biology.com, (2015). Data on brain regions associated with certain behaviors From: " The Biology of Trust: Integrating Evidence From Genetics, Endocrinology, and Functional Brain Imaging" by Riedl, R. & Javor, A., (2012) *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics,* 5(2),63-91. See page 79. Copyrighted by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix A (continued)

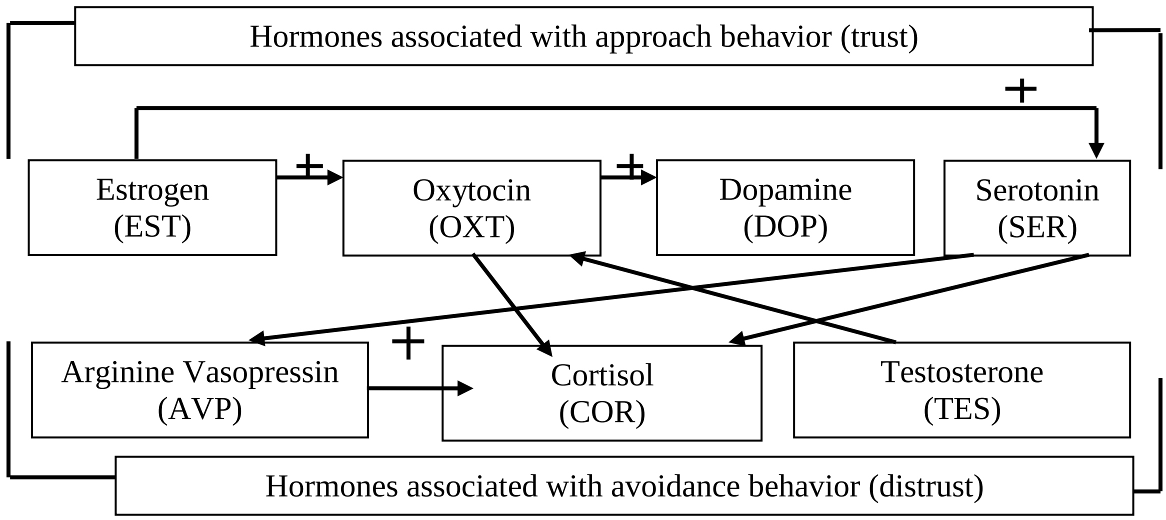

Figure A5. The functional relationships among important trust relevant hormones and neurotransmitters. Oxytocin is the hub of the system of trust and distrust related hormones**.** From: “ The Biology of Trust: Integrating Evidence From Genetics, Endocrinology, and Functional Brain Imaging” by by Riedl, R. & Javor, A., (2012) *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics,* 5(2),63-91. See page 74. Copyrighted by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix B: Dinesen's Trust Effect on Immigrants Across Countries

Table B1

Trust, Inequity, and Corruption in Migrant's Home Country

	Mean Generalized trust (0-10) (High= high trust)	Income inequality (0-100) (High number = high inequality)	Corruption perception index (0-10) (High number =low corruption)
Country of origin			
Turkey	3.3	45	3.5
Poland	4.0	36.3	3.4
Italy	4.3	33	5.0
Destination countries			
Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden and Sweden	5.5	27.4	8.7
Germany	5.3	26	8.2`

From "Does generalized (dis)trust travel? Examining the impact of cultural heritage and destination-Country environment on trust of immigrants. by Dinesen, P. (2012). *Political Psychology, 33,* 495-511. P.499. Copyright 2012 by Wiley Periodicals. Reprinted with permission.

The trust scale used consists of the following three questions: 1) "Generally speaking would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people? 2) Do you think most people would try to take advantage of you if they got the chance, or would they try to be fair?; 3) Would you say that most of the time people try to be helpful or that they mostly are looking out for themselves?" (General Social Survey. 2006; Dinesen, P. (2012, p.499). When measuring the responses, the extreme negative reply to all three of the questions would equal 0 on the trust scale. On the other hand, the extremely positive response to all three of the questions would be equal ten on the scale. Combinations of negative and positive responses would equal measurements from 1-9.

Table B2

Descriptive Analysis of Migrants and Nonmigrants

	Turks		Poles		Italians	
	Migrants	Nonmigrants	Migrants	Nonmigrants	Migrants	Nonmigrants
Trust	4.913 (1.78)	3.370 (2.280)	5.296 (1.896)	3.991 (1.830)	4.999 (1.935)	4.283 (1.854)
Observations	367	1809	314	6947	425	2709

Note: Means with a standard deviation in parentheses. All differences are significant at the 0.0001 level. Mean generalized trust is operationalized as the mean on the three-item trust scale. (Dinesen, 2012, p.502).

From "Does generalized (dis)trust travel? Examining the impact of cultural heritage and destination-Country environment on trust of immigrants. by Dinesen, P. (2012). *Political Psychology*, *33*, 495-511. Reprinted with permission.

The research used the same three trust questions as noted in Table A1. Additionally, the responses to the three questions would be scaled the same way as table A1. It is clear from Table A2 that the generalized trust level of people who migrated from low trust countries to high-trust countries were positively affected. In completing his research, they realized that language might affect the validity of his findings.

The material in the ESS consists of data that was reported in the language of the native country that in which they were located. In other words, Immigrants were interviewed in the language of their new home country while non-migrants were interviewed in their native language (Bjornskov, 2006; Cook, 2014; Dinesen, 2012). The researchers considered what (Hardin, 2002, p.57), wrote, "many languages have no direct, perspicuous equivalent of the term trust". They were determined to nullify the language factor by submitting a Danish study, by (Togeby, 2007), into the equation.

Table B3

Mean on the General Trust Scale for Turks

	Turks in Turkey Responding in Turkish	Turks in Denmark Responding in Turkish	Turks in Denmark Responding in Danish
Trust	3.277 (997)	4.745 (132)	6.006 (312)

Note: Means on the generalized trust scale (0-10) with numbers of observations in parenthesis. All differences are significant at the 0.001 level in an analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Bonferroni test.(Togeby, 2007).Table A2 (Dinesen, 2012, p.506).

From “Does generalized (dis)trust travel? Examining the impact of cultural heritage and destination-Country environment on trust of immigrants. by Dinesen, P. (2012). *Political Psychology*, *33*, 495-511. Copyright 2012 by Wiley Periodicals. Reprinted with permission.

This study indicates that not only were Turkish students demonstrating higher trust numbers in Denmark, but that were achieving higher trust measures even when tested in the Danish language.

Appendix C: Blommaert et al. Trust Risk Profile

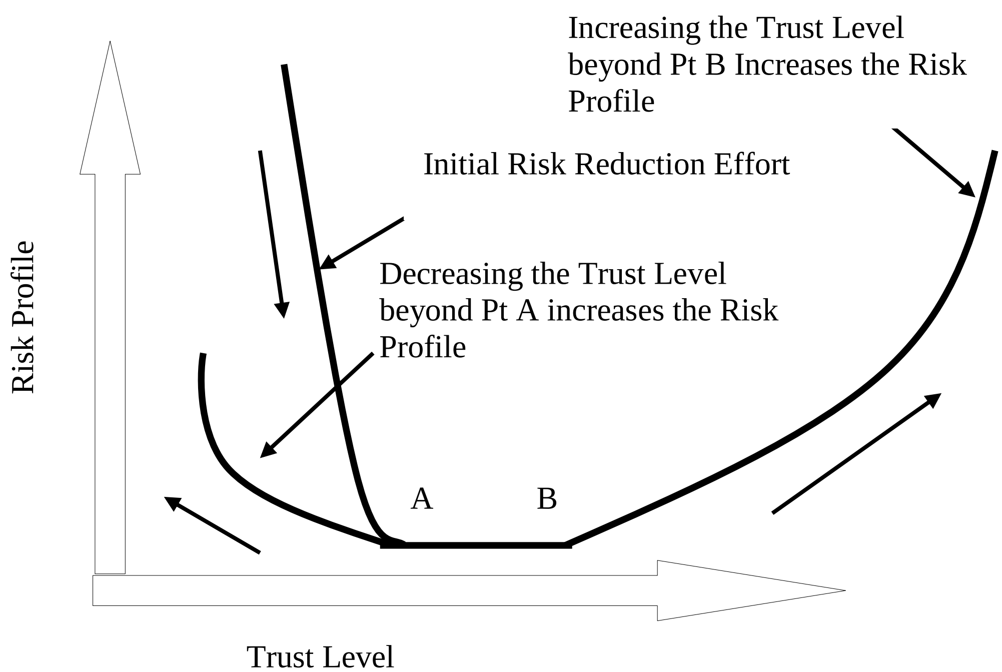

Figure C1. The tipping point between too little and too much trust.
Blommaert et al. (p 49, 2014). Copyrighted be the Internal Auditor. Used with premmission.

As long as trust levels stay within points A and B, then the optimal benefits of trust, and the optimal level of risk is allowed. In the event that the level of trust increases beyond PT B, the opportunities for individual and organizational misbehavior increase. This event results in more risk to the organization. Likewise, when the level of trust decreases below PT A, then more regulations slow the organization. Additional regulation decreases individual motivation and general attitudes about protecting the organization, (This figure has been graphically modified from the original to show the impact of too much or too little trust).

Appendix D: Values and Trust Surveys

Hofstede's Cultural Values Survey

V S M 2013

VALUES SURVEY MODULE 2013
QUESTIONNAIRE
English language version

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INTERNATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE (VSM 2013)- page 1

Please think of an ideal job, disregarding your present job, if you have one. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to ... (please circle one answer in each line across):

1 = of utmost importance
2 = very important
3 = of moderate importance
4 = of little importance
5 = of very little or no importance

01. have sufficient time for your personal or home life	1	2	3	4	5
02. have a boss (direct superior) you can respect	1	2	3	4	5
03. get recognition for good performance	1	2	3	4	5
04. have security of employment	1	2	3	4	5
05. have pleasant people to work with	1	2	3	4	5
06. do work that is interesting	1	2	3	4	5
07. be consulted by your boss in decisions involving your work	1	2	3	4	5
08. live in a desirable area	1	2	3	4	5
09. have a job respected by your family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
10. have chances for promotion	1	2	3	4	5

In your private life, how important is each of the following to you: (please circle one answer in each line across):

11. keeping time free for fun	1	2	3	4	5
12. moderation: having few desires	1	2	3	4	5
13. doing a service to a friend	1	2	3	4	5
14. thrift (not spending more than needed)	1	2	3	4	5

15. How often do you feel nervous or tense?
    1. always
    2. usually
    3. sometimes
    4. seldom
    5. never

16. Are you a happy person ?
    1. always
    2. usually
    3. sometimes
    4. seldom
    5. never

17. Do other people or circumstances ever prevent you from doing what you really want to?
    1. yes, always
    2. yes, usually
    3. sometimes
    4. no, seldom
    5. no, never

18. All in all, how would you describe your state of health these days?
    1. very good
    2. good
    3. fair
    4. poor
    5. very poor

19. How proud are you to be a citizen of your country?
    1. very proud
    2. fairly proud
    3. somewhat proud
    4. not very proud
    5. not proud at all

20. How often, in your experience, are subordinates afraid to contradict their boss (or students their teacher?)
    1. never
    2. seldom
    3. sometimes
    4. usually
    5. always

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements? (please circle one answer in each line across):

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = undecided
4 = disagree
5 = strongly disagree

21. One can be a good manager without having a precise answer to every question that a subordinate may raise about his or her work	1	2	3	4	5
22. Persistent efforts are the surest way to results	1	2	3	4	5
23. An organization structure in which certain subordinates have two bosses should be avoided at all cost	1	2	3	4	5
24. A company's or organization's rules should not be broken - not even when the employee thinks breaking the rule would be in the organization's best interest	1	2	3	4	5

Chathoth et al. Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey

PsycTESTS

Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey

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 utilizes a 10-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 10 = 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 © 2011 by Elsevier. Reproduced by Permission of Elsevier.

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PsycTESTS

doi: 10.1037/t24191-000

Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey

Items

Variable	Reliability
Integrity	My organization treats me fairly and justly.
	My organization takes significant measures to lead me in the right direction.
	My organization has sound policies to guide me.
	My organizaiton encourages openness in the relationship among employees.
	My organization communicates with me openly and honestly.
	My company tells me the truth, whether it is pleasant or not.
	My company tells me everything I need to know.
Commitment	My organization tries to maintain a long-term commitment with me.
	My organization shows confidence in my knowledge.
	My organization has built a long-lasting relationship with me.
	My company is willing to invest in me.
	My organization shows confidence in my skills.
	My organization values my input.
	I feel loyal to my organization.
Dependability	I can rely on my organization's management to keep its promises.
	I am willing to let my organization make decisions for me.
	My organization helps me to deal with all my crises.
	My organization guides me when I do not have the skills, knowledge, or capabilites to handle the situation.
	My organizaion has a well established mentorship program for me to obtain guidance from senior employees.

As noted on previous page, this instrument uses a 10-point Likert-type scale where (1= strongly disagree, and 10= strongly agree).

Some information about yourself (for statistical purposes):

1. Are you:
    1. male
    2. female

2. How old are you?
    1. Under 20
    2. 20-24
    3. 25-29
    4. 30-34
    5. 35-39
    6. 40-49
    7. 50-59
    8. 60 or over

3. How many years of formal school education (or their equivalent) did you complete (starting with primary school)?
    1. 10 years or less
    2. 11 years
    3. 12 years
    4. 13 years
    5. 14 years
    6. 15 years
    7. 16 years
    8. 17 years
    9. 18 years or over

4. Within your organization, what is your role (position)?
    1. Custodian or building maintenance
    2. Skilled or semi-skilled production worker
    3. Generally trained office worker or secretary
    4. Vocationally trained technician, IT-specialist.
    5. Manager of one or more subordinates
    6. Manager of one or more managers

5. How many years of employment do you have in your current organization?
    1. 5 years or less
    2. 5-10 years
    3. 10-15 years
    4. 15-20 years
    5. 20-25 years
    6. 25-30 years
    7. 30 years or over

Appendix E: Conceptual Construct Map