2019

Improving Organizational Performance in Mixed Design Organizations Through Cultures of Trust

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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The Office of the Provost

Walden University
2019

Abstract

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MBA, Southern Methodist University, 1984

MLS, The University of Texas, 1974

BA, Marymount Manhattan College, 1973

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

October 2019

Abstract

The effect of trust on employees' business processes and work outcomes is an important focus for managers because more businesses have combined centralized and remote work environments in mixed-design organizations (MDOs). A multiple case study was conducted to explore successful strategies that 9 business leaders and managers in 5 service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States used to improve organizational performance by successfully building organizational cultures of trust. Leader–member exchange served as the conceptual framework for this study. Data were collected using semistructured interviews and documents as secondary sources. Thematic analysis was used to examine participant content, evaluated in chronological and random order, as well as secondary data. Four themes emerged from data analysis: value of ongoing multidirectional communications, valuing mistakes as learning moments, observing trust responses regardless of leader/follower proximity, and relying on Internet communications technology to enable managers and leaders to create teams and build trust. Findings of this study may be used by leaders and managers in service sector MDOs to nurture and sustain trust among stakeholders regardless of location, including colocated and remote work environments. The implications of this study for positive social change include the potential of trust between leaders and stakeholders to strengthen employee engagement and productivity, improving quality of work life for personnel and sustainability for residents who might seek career opportunities and contributing to community viability.

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to all who dream of making the world a better place and who pursue education and research as their tools for change. Stay true to the course!

Acknowledgments

To all who encouraged my exploration of trust in the workplace, thank you. Angel, you provided the tipping point and led me to explore this topic. Dan, Kas, Judy, Tricia, Rochelle, Abel, Lucas, and Pepper, you kept me going when times got tough. Lara, Dave, and Kathleen, your own doctoral study paths provided insights, not the least of which was the advice that any progress is good so long as you keep moving forward.

Thank you, my peers in the doctoral program. I found your posts motivating and full of good cheer. That you were willing to provide peer-reviews countless times leaves me forever grateful.

Thank you to the many professors who guided my growth from the blackboard to independent scholarship. Dr. Laursen and Dr. Lesser, you made certain I did not get lost in the shuffle of reviewer roles, and you bridged a gap that could have demolished my trust. Thank you for the values you live by and for the support you provided at a critical moment.

Thank you to the many persons who were interested in my study and who volunteered to take part. Perhaps we will meet again in a post-doctoral study or work environment.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Researchers have studied trust in organizations extensively over the last 40 years (Carpini, Parker, & Griffin, 2017), defining how the presence or absence of trust affected employees' business processes and work outcomes (Kaltiainen, Helkama, & Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2018). Van der Werff and Buckley (2017) defined trust as essential to workplace relationships, suggesting that social exchange theory-based research provides the foundation for exploring how trust develops and is nurtured between leaders and personnel. How stakeholders perceive the organizational environment of which trust is a factor affects commitment (engagement) and performance (Alfes, Shantz, & Alahakone, 2016; Lins, Servaes, & Tamayo, 2017). Now that organizational leaders conduct work in both colocated and distant environments, leaders may require new skills for the development of trust at the levels of the individual, team, and company for increased productivity and performance.

Background of the Problem

Brown, Gray, McHardy, and Taylor (2015) studied trust in relation to company performance and productivity. Hughes, Rigtering, Covin, Bouncken, and Kraus (2018) asserted that observation of a relationship between trust and company performance is grounded in social exchange theory (SET). In reference to SET, van der Werff and Buckley (2017) promoted the necessity of establishing and maintaining trust between persons in workplace relationships. Reflecting the 20th century model of Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, Eikeland (2015) added a phenomenological perspective, separating trust from other, similar phenomena that can be observed at the point of exchange at which trust takes place. Grounded in SET, leader-member exchange (LMX) leadership researchers such as Hassan and Hatmaker (2015) suggested that trust influenced performance and is, therefore, key to the exchange found in high-quality relationships.

As organizations increase in virtual or distance distribution of stakeholders, the formation of relationships between leaders and followers can be affected by physical space. Both public and private organizations are rapidly adopting telework or similar workspace relationships (Chiru, 2017; U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2017). I explored the relationship of trust and performance through the lens of LMX.

Problem Statement

Trust in the workplace has declined to an all-time low (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017; Lins et al., 2017), affecting both external and internal stakeholders. At the same time, leaders' redesigns of workplaces have increasingly incorporated distance (virtual) workers (Dulebohn & Hoch, 2017), making more challenging the task of establishing trusting work relationships. According to Lins et al. (2017), employees in workplace environments characterized by a high degree of trust performed 4 to 7% higher than in workplace environments with lower levels of trust, suggesting leaders' attention to trust development is an important management responsibility leading to improved performance. The general business problem is that stakeholders are less productive in untrustworthy organizational cultures. The specific business problem was some business leaders and managers in colocated and virtual service sector mixed-design organizations (MDOs) lack successful strategies to build an organizational culture of trust.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore successful strategies that business leaders and managers in service sector MDOs used to build an organizational culture of trust. The study population consisted of nine service sector business leaders and managers representing five service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States who successfully built organizational cultures of trust. This region was well-suited for study as many business leaders engaged in mixed-design organizational development. Implications for positive social change include the potential for leaders and managers of service sector MDOs to learn of strategies they can use to develop working conditions to foster individuals' well-being, group productivity, and enhanced organizational performance. Leaders and managers who promote trust locally and virtually may attract a larger talent pool with new employees who fuel innovation, sustain corporate productivity, and promote economic growth in local communities. Communities' residents may benefit socially from added job opportunities, higher earnings, and improved quality of life.

Nature of the Study

Qualitative method researchers rely on participants' contributions to achieve meaningful study outcomes based on researcher and participant input (de Chesnay, 2015). I proposed use of a qualitative method and conducted a thematic analysis of interview data and documents to develop an understanding of the trust-based culture, focusing on the experiences of leaders. I did not select the quantitative method because investigators use quantitative methods to test hypotheses from theory by testing variables' relationships or differences through measurement models (see Cooper, 2019). Mixed method researchers combine quantitative and qualitative techniques to answer research questions based on both numerical and qualitative forms of information (Yazan, 2015). I did not use quantitative measures in my study; therefore, the mixed method approach was not appropriate.

Researchers use the explanatory multiple case study (EMCS) methods described by Yin (2018) to enable exploration of complex choices within companies. I used the EMCS method, conducting interviews and reviewing documents in five MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States. I developed the cases exploring trust phenomena using Merriam and Merriam's (1998) criteria of what and why decisions occur via interactive, open-ended questions, followed by thematic analysis. I did not use alternative methods that do not align with my research question, including narrative inquiry, phenomenological methods, and ethnography. Researchers use narrative inquiry to gather participants' fictive stories (Byrne, 2017) rather than the true-to-life experiences that I sought. Researchers use phenomenological methods to study the meaning of experiences (Johnston, Wallis, Oprescu, & Gray, 2017), while I explored strategies to build trust in service sector MDOs. Ethnographic researchers collect multiple data sets over time through fieldwork to characterize a culture with intent to yield theoretical findings (Morse, 2016). I neither included longitudinal collection in my study design nor sought to modify theory or create a new theory. Therefore, I used the EMCS method.

Research Question

What successful strategies do business leaders and managers in service sector MDOs use to build organizational cultures of trust?

Interview Questions

Interview questions for data gathering included the following:

1. What successful strategies do you use to build organizational cultures of trust?
2. How did you identify these successful strategies to build organizational cultures of trust?
3. What challenges did you encounter in the implementation of successful strategies to build organizational cultures of trust locally and virtually?
4. How did you overcome these challenges?
5. How do you assess the effectiveness of strategies for how your organizational culture of trust affects performance locally and virtually?
6. What additional information regarding strategies for building an organizational culture of trust would you like to share?

Conceptual Framework

LMX theory, first developed by Graen in the 1970s (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975), was the conceptual framework I selected for this study. LMX, a modern leadership theory based on SET, is a relational approach to interaction in dyads. The concept of dyadic (interpersonal) exchange is a crucial construct of LMX, and researchers study dyads in multiple studies of trust (Tzafrir, 2005). Leadership theorists focus on the exchange between parties rather than the traits, behaviors, and personal characteristics of leaders when using LMX to explore the dynamics of relationship (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000). Sousa-Lima, Michel, and Caetano (2013) stated that trust is a necessary component of productive work relationships, summarizing a significant outcome of applied LMX. Mayer et al. (1995) suggested that willingness to accept the influence of another as having value, quality, and significance is an actively trusting relationship. I chose this definition because it aligns with LMX and integrates concepts of personal interaction, communication, power and influence, and exchange. LMX was a potential lens for understanding the findings from this study because of the focus on the interaction between members of a dyad without regard to physical proximity. Therefore, I expected to understand the strategies and processes of trust building that leaders and managers use in service sector MDOs to catalyze productive social exchange.

Operational Definitions

Colocation work environments: Colocation work environments are traditional workspaces in which stakeholders work in ongoing physical proximity and may communicate face-to-face for increased collaboration (Rodriguez, 2017).

Distributed workers (also distributed stakeholders or virtual teams): Distributed workers are persons working away from colocated environments such as offices or other colocated work environments all or some of the time (Nayani, Nielsen, Daniels, Donaldson-Feilder, & Lewis, 2018).

Leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships: LMX relationships are dyadic relationships in which the leader customizes forms and content of communications to each follower so that the quality of the relationship is unique to each dyad (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016).

Mixed-design organizations (MDOs): MDOs combine centralized and decentralized workspaces in which some stakeholders work face-to-face and others in a virtual or networked environment (Kiss, Hámornik, Geszten, & Hercegfi, 2015). In centralized or traditional settings, face-to-face contact is high; in virtual settings, face-to-face contact is low, and dependency on technology for communication is high (Susan Dean, 2017; Orhan, Rijsman, & van Dijk, 2016).

Stakeholders: Stakeholders are persons engaged in the work of an organization, including employees, managers, leaders, contractors, gig workers, service vendors, volunteers, and all others who contribute to productivity and performance of teams and organizations (De Stefano, 2016).

Trust [in the workplace]: According to the seminal writing of Mayer et al. (1995), stakeholders characterize trust as having the willingness to be vulnerable to one another. Further, Mayer et al. noted that vulnerability includes the expectation that the other has one's best interests at heart without regard for power or influence. Humans observe trust as occurring in the exchange between two parties rather than as a trait, characteristic, or tendency that requires acceptance of risk by either party (Gibson & Petrosko, 2014).

Virtual work environments: Virtual work environments are those in which employees work without physical proximity either individually or in a group and are who located apart from the center of the organization (Meil & Kirov, 2017). Sometimes referred to as working at a distance, or working in a networked environment, or geographically disbursed, workers in a virtual work environment rely on information and communications technologies (Short, 2014).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Researchers identify assumptions, limitations, and delimitations in a study because a lack of discussion could present risks if the reader were to use the research in other contexts. In this section, I presented my beliefs and suppositions as assumptions. Then, I introduced limitations and delimitations to highlight potential weaknesses and my chosen ambit, both of which add to the reader's awareness of how the findings might best be used.

Assumptions

Rossman and Rallis (2016) defined the impact of assumptions as determining the research model. According to Rossman and Rallis, assumptions form the unquestioned foundation of the researcher's understanding of reality, ranging from interpretivist or objectivist views. I approached the study of trust in the workplace with three assumptions. First, I assumed that trust is intangible and neither a trait nor a skill: There is no standard for measuring it. Stakeholders individually experience events that lead to a sense of trust or distrust about the organization and its representatives. Second, I assumed that managers and leaders have strategies for building trust and are willing to discuss experiences concerning trust in the workplace. Third, I assumed that managers and leaders in both the colocated and virtual work environments can communicate experiences in terms that convey the uniqueness of their specific organizations expressed in understandable terms in spite of the lack of standardized terminology for mixed-design work arrangements.

Limitations

Marshall and Rossman (2016) defined limitations as restrictions the researcher identifies for a study. As such, limitations present uncontrollable weaknesses in a research study. I identified the following three limitations to this study: (a) interviews may be held face-to-face or by distance technology due to participants' locations, introducing variation that may influence the results, (b) participants may be constrained by organizational policies or concerns about confidentiality of information, and (c) the geographical area in which the data were collected only represents Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States.

Delimitations

Researchers define delimitations to constrain the scope by setting boundaries in studies (Udom, 2017). I narrowed the scope of my study and included only participants representing service industry organizations in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States. Further, I only included companies in my study population that have both colocated and virtual work arrangements.

Significance of the Study

Business leaders may derive benefit from this study of trust in the workplace when considering strategic initiatives for organizational sustainability. When trust is lacking, costly problems can result. These include challenges in talent attraction, training satisfaction, and attrition motivated by dissatisfaction on the job (El-Nahas, Abd-El-

Salam, & Shawky, 2013; Huang & Su, 2016). In MDOs, the problem becomes more complicated by decentralization of workers who are therefore unable to interact in face-to-face dyads as do workers colocated with managers and leaders. Business leaders who apply awareness about trust in organizations and choose trust nurturing practices may have a competitive advantage that affects company performance while also bringing concomitant benefits to other stakeholders (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2017).

Contribution to Business Practice

Business leaders acknowledge trust as crucial in the functioning of commerce: Without trust, business transactions do not occur (McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003). Investigators have considered how workplace design affects the performance of workgroups (Bangwal, Tiwari, & Chamola, 2017). If trust replaces proximity as a control that contributes to performance, as suggested by Chang, Chuang, and Chao (2011), through my research I may offer insights for businesses in colocated and virtual workgroup designs so that leader-follower trust can improve performance without proximity. As leaders develop specific strategies for managing trust as the basis for exchange, they can improve both the workplace culture and organizational performance (Brown et al., 2015; Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017). Specifically, leaders could improve satisfaction and productivity of personnel (Martin et al., 2016) through the positive emotional investment of social capital that conveys the sense of caring (Martins & Martins, 2017) and work-related happiness (Oswald, Proto, & Sgroi, 2015). Business leaders in the mixed-design workplace who apply successful trust building strategies can, therefore, benefit organizations as well as the stakeholders, regardless of proximity.

Implications for Social Change

Internal and external stakeholders including owners, workers, customers, vendors, and community members can experience positive outcomes when trust flourishes. Some changes may be vast, such as reduction of environmental effects of commuting, reduction of risk related to business continuity during disasters, and reputation of organizations as ethical, safe places to work and live. Other positive outcomes relate to job satisfaction (Gibson & Petrosko, 2014), increased work-life balance, stress reduction (Chou, Chu, Yeh, & Chen, 2014), empowerment (Ugwu, Onyishi, & Rodríguez-Sánchez, 2014), group productivity (Carter & Mossholder, 2015), and heightened sense of well-being (Grant, Wallace, & Spurgeon, 2013). When the stakeholders experience positive outcomes, the organization is potentially stronger and more sustainable, and team members' innovation is more pronounced. Understanding strategies useful for building workplace cultures of trust may enable leaders and managers of service sector MDOs to improve working conditions. By fostering stakeholders' well-being, group productivity, and enhanced organizational performance, leaders and managers potentiate economic growth. Additionally, leaders and managers who add job opportunities and raise incomes stabilize the community, leading to improved quality of life.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

In this section, I provide a critical review of literature comprising the background and conceptual framework for my study of trust in the workplace. Topics addressed via analysis and synthesis of the literature include (a) LMX theory and its grounding in SET as context for the current study; (b) workplace design and proximity; (c) trust, including a discussion of the vocabulary and definition of the concept, relationship to other workplace factors that influence performance, and implications of virtual or remote designs on communication, trust, and performance; and (d) research methods used in the study of trust in the workplace and areas identified for further research. In summary, I contextualize my research topic given historical exploration and what is timely for exploration as relates to change in workplace design. Specific changes in the workplace include integration of information and communication digital technologies (ICTs) and networked locations for distributed stakeholders working as a team. I relate additional information to the findings of previous researchers, adding to the understanding of how some business leaders and managers in service sector MDOs use strategies to build an organizational culture of trust.

I used peer-reviewed and other authoritative publications as well as dissertations in preparing my review of the literature. I performed searches using library databases including ABI/Inform, Business Source Complete, EBSCO, ProQuest Central, and ERIC. Resource database subscriptions at Walden University, Wayland Baptist University, and the Anchorage Public Library (APL) provided an expansive reach to documents from publishers world-wide. All three libraries provided interlibrary loan services, with the APL's proximity to University of Alaska libraries making access to many items efficient. To generate periodical references prior to indexing in comprehensive databases, I searched publishers' lists provided by Sage, Emerald Insights, and Wiley. By scanning the professional publication indexes, Google Scholar, and social media, I watched for changes in vocabulary used by business leaders and added additional terms to my search strategy. The resultant citations analyzed for this literature review met standards as peer-reviewed as shown in Ulrich's Global Serials Directory (http://www.ulrichsweb.com) and web pages of publications in cases not addressed by Ulrich's.

From Walden University, Wayland Baptist University, and the APL, I gained access to books and dissertations. With the advancements in access to books online, I found EBSCO eBooks and Google Books beneficial in accessing historical works and more recent authoritative monographs. For dissertations, I searched ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global through Google Scholar and the Walden Library. In some cases, I found Walden dissertations through the ScholarWorks portal as well, searching therein for a view of research completed by previous graduates. Given the breadth of my search, I encountered research and additional authoritative documents that varied by discipline, geographic location, culture, and economic/industrial sector. In Table 1, I list databases and indexes consulted to demonstrate comprehensive searching with a multidisciplinary focus.

Table 1

Sources of Access to Reference Materials

Sources
ABI/Inform
Academic Search Premier
ALNcat/WorldCat
Business Source Premier
CiteSeerX*
CrossRef.org*
Data USA
Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ)*
Dissertations & Theses @ Walden University
EBSCO Book Collection
EBSCO Host (multiple databases)
Emerald Insight
ERIC
Expanded Academic ASAP
General Society Survey (NORC.org)
Google Scholar*
JournalGuide*
ProQuest Central
ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global
PsycARTICLES
PsycINFO
Sage Journals
Sage Research Methods Online
ScholarWorks
Social Sciences Citation Index
Taylor and Francis Online
Thoreau Multi-Database Search
Ulrich's Periodical Directory
Wiley Online Library

Note. Sources accessed through Anchorage Public Library, Walden University Library, and Wayland Baptist University Library. Items with an asterisk (*) accessed publicly via the Internet.

My search strategy included keyword choices with a date range, academic quality, and pattern observation as limiters. Keywords included *trust, trust in the workplace, LMX, leader-member exchange, SET, social exchange theory, trust, trust tests, trust research workplace design, virtual work, distant work, remote work, telework, physical distance*, and variations of these words and synonyms. To examine research designs and methods, I sought articles in which researchers used the case study design for examinations of behaviors in organizations. In some cases, I used *case study* as a limiter in conjunction with keywords, as in *trust – case study.*

I searched for publications in the 1900s to gain an historical perspective, then limited my analysis and synthesis to peer-reviewed and other authoritative works, most of which date since 2015. Observing for trends in the frequent citing of work by one researcher or team by another researcher or team, I sought patterns in types of research and dominant institutions as indicated by number and frequency of trust research publications. Then I attempted to develop a timeline over which trust and trust-related topics predominated the field. In Table 2, I show the composition of the 116-item literature review by category.

Table 2

Literature Review by Category

Sources = 116	Pre-2015	2015 to 2019	Percent of total	Percentage pre-2015
Dissertations	1	7	7%	7%
Monographs	0	8	7%	0%
Government documents	0	0	0	--
Serials: peer-reviewed journals	13	102	86%	12%

Note. As of March 04, 2019, 118 total references were included in the literature review of which 14 were published prior to 2015. Dissertations and monographs contributed 16 of the resources, with peer-reviewed articles comprising 86% of the total.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

Business leaders use LMX theory to understand leadership in a variety of organizational groupings. Leaders may use the LMX theory of individualized social exchange applied to individual, team, organizational (Anand, Vidyarthi, & Rolnicki, 2018; Bauer & Erdogan, 2016; Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014), and virtual organizational behavior (Guerra, 2017; Raghuram, Gajendran, Liu, & Somaya, 2017). Wu, Liu, Kim, and Gao (2018) referred to vertical relationships as LMX and horizontal exchange relationships as team member exchange (TMX), noting that LMX and TMX are both based on SET. To provide leadership that promotes organizational adaptability, leaders and managers build dynamic relationships (Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2018) based on social influencing processes (Thompson & Glasø, 2018) that result in benefits for both leaders and members (Bauer & Erdogan, 2016). Organizations may also achieve LMX benefits through employees' corporate citizenship behaviors (Jiang, Li, Li, & Li, 2017) and innovative behavior (Kim & Koo, 2017). Overall, LMX researchers and business leaders make broad application of LMX as a SET construct.

LMX researchers focus on the relationships between the actors without consistent use of terminology. Banks, Gooty, Ross, Williams, and Harrington (2018) examined leadership research categorically and suggested that much of the research is redundant, differentiated mostly by development of new wording to describe it. Banks et al. integrated research constructs, providing a model to explain how various terms such as social exchange, LMX, vertical dyads, and descriptors of constructs such as justice and trust relate. Banks et al. developed a model to relate traditional and modern leadership research as the foundation for relationship leadership, a term also used by Antonakis and Day (2018) to situate LMX as a relational leadership construct.

Antonakis and Day (2018) asserted that LMX is the dominant relational leadership research interest, citing extensive publication of research over 4 decades and with significant growth in quantity in the 2010s. Further, Antonakis and Day named SET as the most common of three main theories used to ground LMX research, followed by the resource theory of social exchange and the relative deprivation theory. I narrowed my review to LMX and SET. Applying LMX theory, leaders treat each member uniquely (Unsworth, Kragt, & Johnston-Billings, 2018), resulting in behaviors and attitudes that can be observed in each member's work life (Wang, Gan, & Wu, 2016). LMX differs from other theories of leadership due to the focus on the social exchange between two parties (leader and member or leader and follower) rather than on the characteristics or traits of leaders.

Even with documented differentiation of LMX, researchers encounter communication challenges due to an overlap in many leadership theories and terms. Suggesting an organizational scheme for understanding common words and acronyms, Banks et al. (2018) illustrated leadership constructs such as leader behaviors and types of leadership preference, then correlated them with trust, fairness, and social exchange as found in the literature of LMX and vertical dyad leadership. Banks et al. connected these constructs with measures such as job performance, attrition, organizational citizenship, and other behavioral outcomes (see Figure 1).

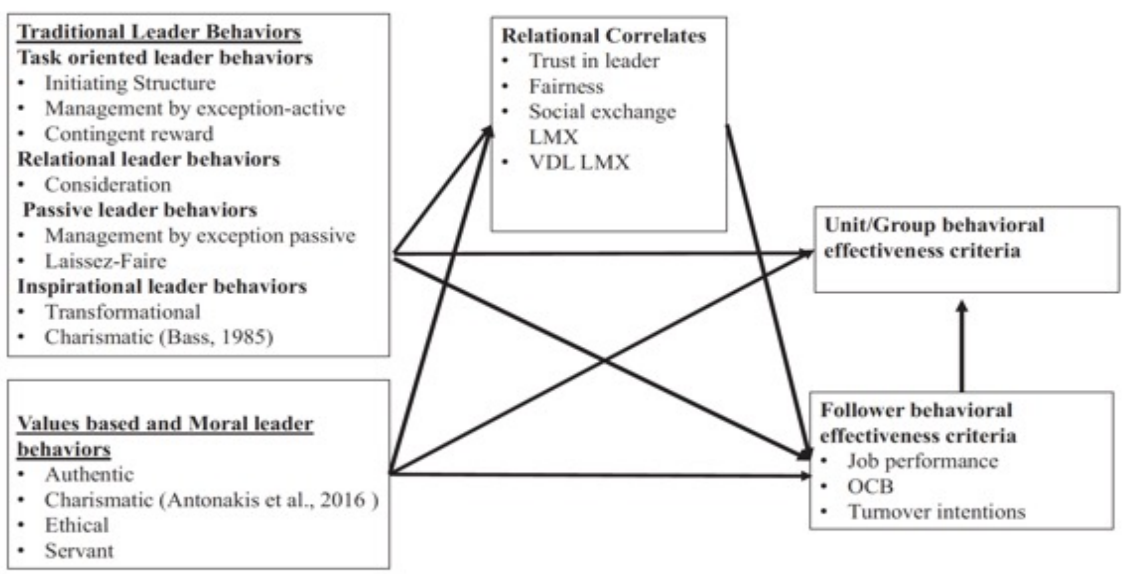

Figure 1. Integrated theoretical framework of leader behaviors, correlates, and outcomes. Relational correlates such as LMX and trust are related to traditional leadership and moral/values-based leadership models. LMX and correlates lead to behavioral outcomes for performance and other measures of effectiveness. “Construct Redundancy in Leader Behaviors: A Review and Agenda for the Future,” by G. C. Banks, J. Gooty, R. L. Ross, C. E. Williams, and N. T. Harrington, 2018, *Leadership Quarterly*, *29*, pp. 236-25. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.005. Used with permission.

LMX derives from Homans's (1958) SET. SET forms a body of influential, multidisciplinary frameworks for understanding behavior (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2007). Writing in the 1970s, Graen and collaborators identified LMX as a new style of SET leadership with fewer constraints than applied to SET (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975), opening exploration of social exchange in business management and leadership. From the 1950s through the 1970s, researchers agreed that characteristics of quality and dynamism defined the social exchange, suggesting that simple exchange of resources could evolve into relationships involving trust (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2007). Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, and van den Heuvel (2015) demonstrated the contribution of social reciprocity between leader and follower. Additionally, Tse (2014) and Wu et al. (2018) studied how workers experienced similar phenomena in TMX, paralleling LMX dyadic relationships in terms of social exchange and innovation, grounding LMX and TMX in SET.

Emotions, such as the feeling of connectedness, affect social exchange. Matta and Van Dyne (2018) investigated the role of emotional connections stimulated through individual interactions. Matta and Van Dyne explained the effectiveness of LMX dyadic relationships as based on emotions. Lu, Kong, Ferrin, and Dirks (2017) cited five experiments that showed how salubrious affective states (emotions) increased trust among individuals. Still others related trust, social exchange, ethics, and positive outcomes for both the organization and the individuals involved (Antonakis & Day, 2018; Strukan & Nikolić, 2017; Xu, Loi, & Ngo, 2016).

Social exchange and LMX relationships occur without regard for the number of individuals or the types of organizations involved. However, all LMX relationships vary in quality and strength of connection (Nahrgang & Seo, 2016). Therefore, some LMX relationships are called high LMX while others are low LMX relationships (Seo, Nahrgang, Carter, & Hom, 2018). Moorman, Blakely, and Darnold (2018) validated the use of LMX and its predecessor, SET, as a lens for evaluating interpersonal factors such as trust in the workplace in relation to performance and productivity, linking LMX with trust demonstrated in both the affective and behavioral states.

Many researchers described trust as a factor in leadership. Some researchers describe leaders in LMX relationships as participating in high trust and low trust exchanges (Coto, 2017) in the process of accomplishing goals. Other researchers related the level of trust to the unique nature of each dyadic relationship (Breevaart et al., 2015; Tse, Troth, Ashkanasy, & Collins, 2018; Wu, et al., 2018). Breevaart et al. (2015) and Choy, McCormack, and Djurkovic (2016) related variability of LMX relationships as high to low in quality. Participants in low quality relationships exhibit less trust and lower performance although the cause may be unknown (Wijesinghe, 2018). In high quality LMX relationships, performance and productivity excel, members of the dyad held higher expectations of one another, employee engagement is stronger, motivation is greater, and turnover intention decreases (Breevaart et al., 2015; Byun, Dai, Lee, & Kang, 2017; Choy et al., 2016; Kim & Koo, 2017; Sollitto, Martin, Dusic, Gibbons, & Wagenhouser, 2016). The uniqueness of individual relationships may result in variability of trust levels. *LMX differentiation* is the measure of variation in the strength and quality of dyadic relationships (Chiniara & Bentein, 2018). Uhl-Bien and Arena (2018) and Coto (2017) suggested the need to improve leadership education and development, expressing the importance of nurturing trust to develop high LMX relationships. As a result of consistent development of high LMX dyads, employers, managers, other stakeholders may experience benefits.

Checking Google Scholar on August 11, 2019, for an indication of current interest in leader member exchange, I found 43,600 results published during and after 2015, which indicated continued interest in studying what takes place between individuals. LMX researchers focus on the *relationship* rather than on the skills and capabilities of the leaders and followers, thus setting apart LMX in the literature of leadership and human resource management. In contrast, many leadership researchers considered the importance of personality traits in leadership (Chiu, Balkundi, & Weinberg, 2017; Hu & Judge, 2017). Still others examined leadership from the standpoint of context or situation (Thompson & Glasø, 2018; Wright, 2017). In a meta-analytic review of LMX research, Martin et al., (2016) observed that job performance rose in accord with the quality of the leader-follower relationship. As both a major modern type of leadership and as a style that has impact on performance, LMX theory and practice offer measurable value for business leaders and researchers.

Implicit in the role of leadership is the concept of relationship with others, sometimes referred to as followers. According to Loi, Chan, and Lam (2014), leaders and followers contribute to the quality of a relationship, leading to positive expectations on both sides of the exchange as well as a strong organizational environment of trust.

According to Trainer and Redmiles (2018), although teams can succeed without trust, trust can be strengthened to produce a positive impact on productivity. Business leaders and managers evaluate productivity and performance of individuals and teams (Coto, 2017), as they assess supervisory performance of gaining the trust of people leaders manage (Ertürk, Van den Broeck, & Verbrigghe, 2018). The productivity of virtual work relationships is affected by LMX (Guerra, 2017), demonstrating that LMX may be beneficial regardless of proximity between leaders, managers, and stakeholders.

Researchers have examined LMX in a variety of settings. Guerra (2017) studied the nonprofit sector, and Hassan and Hatmaker (2015) focused on the public sector. Other researchers examined LMX in countries outside the USA and in cross-cultural settings (Kim & Koo, 2017; Park & Nawakitphaitoon, 2018; Proto, 2016). Curnin (2018) compared the development of trust in emergency management within the utilities sector to that in military cultures and identified trust as essential for collaboration. The breadth of study populations and locations spans industries, cultures, and business sizes and structures. Antonakis and Day (2018) reported that LMX applied equally well across 23 countries, although definitions of terms, variables, and outcomes varied. According to Banks et al. (2018), the construct redundancy in the LMX literature has amassed to the point that only new variables should be researched for the sake of efficiency. One such variable that lacks breadth and depth of study is the application of LMX when leaders have some colocated followers or workers while others are remotely located. Few LMX researchers have described workplace social exchange between leaders and followers in both the traditional, colocated environments and in virtual work designs.

SET and LMX are observable in all organizational environments because work and reward are the universal bases of exchange. Colquitt et al. (2013) studied research spanning 25 years and established that corporate citizenship, performance, and belief in reciprocity are based on trust. Chernyak-Hai and Rabenu (2018) applied Colquitt's conceptual link between SET and trust, however, they questioned whether SET remained an appropriate lens for examining 21st century work relationships in new workplace settings. Chernyak-Hai and Rabenu asserted that the traditional understanding of LMX does not apply well to modern workplace designs, citing the impact of freelancers, outsourced personnel, and prevalence of knowledge workers (information workers). Workers within these groups are motivated less by mutuality (Alzghoul, Elrehail, Emeagwali, & AlShboul, 2018; Hall, 2016). Without trusted dyadic relationships, workers may be attracted to other organizations, thereby increasing attrition of talent.

I observed that trust was mentioned in the majority of research studies I have included in this literature review, named as either an antecedent or outcome of LMX relationships. According to Antonakis and Day (2018) LMX antecedents include both leader and follower characteristics, as well as interactional and contextual variables. For example, Colquitt et al. (2013) studied research spanning 25 years and established that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), performance, and belief in reciprocity were based on trust. Further, Nelson (2017) determined that trust correlated highly with the sense of belonging felt by followers (members) in LMX relationships. Liden, Wu, Cao, and Wayne (2016) argued that trust is a requirement for LMX relationships, especially high quality relationships. Loi et al. (2014) reinforced the significance of LMX practices for managers working with followers who lacked job security. Presence of LMX relationships may offset instability and uncertainty by supporting identification with the organization and nurturing trust. Not only are leader and member characteristics important, but also context and quality of interactions are significant.

Researchers describe context by identifying factors that influence behavior. Mushtaq, Abid, Sarwar, and Ahmed (2017) named several factors, including proactive support of managers, organizational support, civility, and fairness. Researchers use fairness and social justice as synonyms to link concepts as demonstrated by Jiang, Gollan, and Brooks' (2017) study of organizational trust. While OCB, performance, and reciprocity continue in tandem with justice or fairness as essential to human resource management, changes in the workplace warrant adjustment in strategic management thinking.

Changes in the workplace manifest as both contextual and interactional variables. Chernyak-Hai and Rabenu (2018) addressed both context and interaction, positing that in modern workplace environments wherein personnel may have little or no direct supervision, leaders must nurture trust just as they would in situations in which face-to-face interaction occurs. Publishing a similarly dated study, Nayani, et al. (2018) observed that face-to-face interaction was assumed in most leadership and management practices, leaving a skill gap in working with distributed workers. Lippert and Dulewicz (2017) asserted that for virtual workers to collaborate, trust is essential for the team. To explain how LMX applies in modern work environments, Chernyak-Hai and Rabenu (2018) proposed a hybrid model (Figure 2) based on the premise that the cost-benefit reciprocity of workplace relationships remains unchanged despite the complexity introduced with modern workplace designs. In any leader-follower relationship or social exchange, regardless of proximity between the two parties, reciprocity defines the exchange. However, physical proximity or distance may alter the quality of the reciprocity observed in interactions between leaders and members.

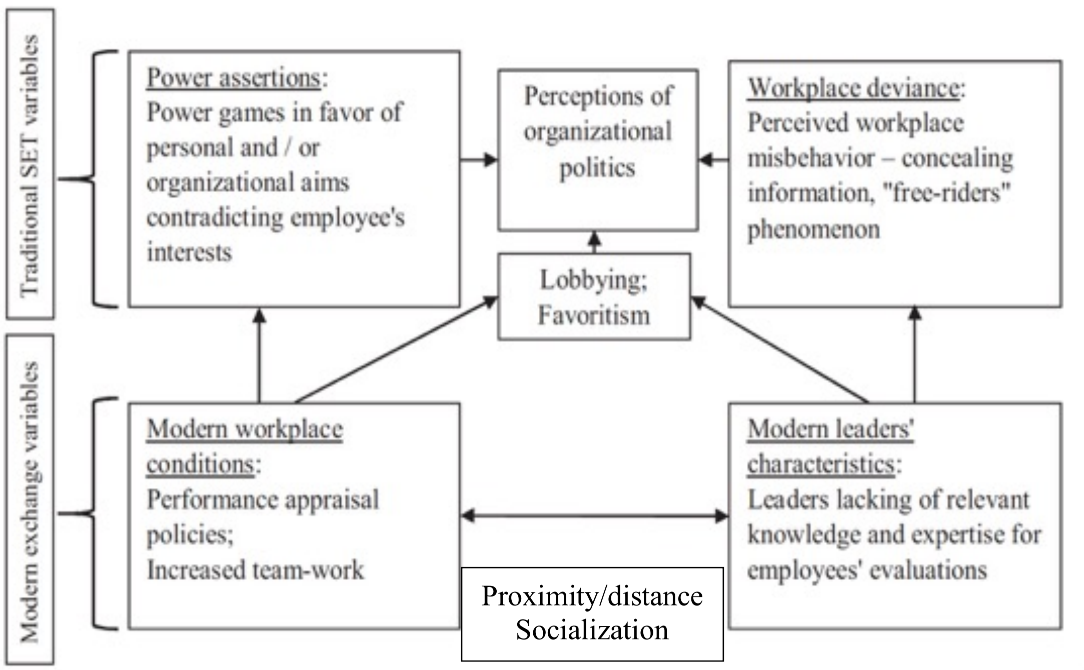

Figure 2. Social exchange theory variables. Traditional and modern variables affect organizations and now include proximity or distance and socialization factors. Adapted from "The New Era Workplace Relationships: Is Social Exchange Theory Still Relevant?", 2018, by L. Chernyak-Hall and E. Rabenu. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, p. 12. Copyright 2018 Publisher. Used with permission.

When leadership and proximity have been studied together, some researchers related distance to power and influence. Anand et al.(2018) noted that the degree of closeness within a dyad influenced performance of the follower. Anand et al. (2018) described distance in social and psychological terms and asserted that distance decreases leader effectiveness. However, they also stated that proximity affected the quality of communication in a dyad, and proximity is a physical measure of distance. Leaders and members experience the effect on trust from both physical and power distance aspects of proximity (Bakar, 2017; Chernyak-Hai & Rabenu, 2018). As modern workplace designers incorporate both colocation and virtual or distance features, leaders and managers face the need for strategies for building trust and communication regardless of proximity.

Workplace Design and Proximity

Traditionally, managers developed workplaces in buildings such as an office, factory, or warehouse. However, with the advent of information communications technologies (ICTs) and worldwide Internet access, the need to gather human capital at one address became optional. Due to diversity of workplace design and ICT, organizational leaders recognize benefits in reduced costs of realty, utilities, and parking, as well as improved recruitment and retention, inclusivity, decreased absenteeism, and lower costs of related human resource management (Choudrie, Tsatsou, & Kurnia, 2017). In these situations, workers need to develop a sense of attachment to work, regardless of the design of the workplace (van Rossenberg et al., 2018). In addition, leaders and organizations benefit by directing virtual teams for project management utilizing ICTs to support communication, decreasing the need for face-to-face presence (Udom, 2017). Now, workers and managers perform work from anywhere rather than from one colocated meeting place.

Although benefits abound with the use of virtual and mixed-design workspaces, virtual teams and leaders face challenges related to trust and the consequent building of trusting relationships when separated by distance. Dulebohn and Hoch (2017) suggested that virtual management, including trust building, is more challenging than managing in the colocated environment. In MDOs (using a blend of colocated and virtual work environments), leaders may use physical proximity to communicate more often and with richer messaging due to body language and nonverbal cues enriching the message more easily than with virtual communications (Dulebohn & Hoch, 2017). Moreover, leaders' attention to social inclusion in virtual environments differs from social inclusion when the team has shared space and face-to-face contact (Choudrie et al., 2017). Therefore, leaders and managers in mixed-design workplaces may need new skills for project and team leading in a variety of telework contexts.

Team members require trust to operate as a team, whether members are colocated or globally distributed. Henderson, Stackman, and Lindekilde (2016) described the relationship of communication and trust in development of global project teams, noting that trust is a predictive signal of workers' potential fit for virtual work. When virtual team members and leaders build trust, team members tend to have greater job satisfaction, reduced feelings of uncertainty, and improved team performance (Breuer, Hüffmeier, & Hertel, 2016; Henderson et al., 2016). Pobiedzińska (2018) related the role of trust to cooperation based on the presumed integrity of the other party and compared the ability to trust in virtual teams to colocated teams as more challenging for team members. For leaders and followers to succeed, they must recognize and use the influence of the corporate culture in which they operate (Thompson & Glasø, 2018). Zhu and Lee (2017) suggested that shared leadership in corporate cultures strongly influences the success of global virtual teams. As with colocated teams, leaders of virtual teams develop trust through four practices identified by Buvik and Rolfsen (2015). Practices include: (a) establishing integration of work practices early in team development, (b) verbalization of a shared philosophy, (c) displaying openness in communication, and (d) clarifying role expectations. Managers need to establish best work practices by quickly developing trust (Ford, Piccolo, & Ford, 2017; Germain & McGuire, 2014), and then must communicate consistently to nurture and validate trust. When managers and leaders adopt practices that emphasize communication, they build trust with tools that are not bounded by distance.

Communication and role clarity affect one another, especially in leadership roles. With role ambiguity, communication issues arise, but with role clarity, worker stress decreases (Nayani, et al., 2018). During the role making process, leaders identify knowledge, skills, and abilities of followers and develop a unique relationship with each follower (Lemenny, 2018; Seo, et al., 2018). Nayani et al. (2018) specifically observed the decreased stress and improved safety performance of distributed stakeholders. Perkins (2018) reported that increased communications and role clarity had a positive effect on the virtual workforce, leading to a culture of trust. However, Perkins noted that while classic techniques may not translate to leadership of teleworkers, the goal of developing trust applies equally in colocated and virtual work designs.

Trust vs. Trustworthiness

Many earlier researchers of trust failed to separate the terms *trust* and t*rustworthiness*, while other researchers have emphasized distinctions. Some researchers have evaluated the relationship between trust and trustworthiness in organizational settings (Kodish, 2017; Lamertz & Bhave, 2017; Yoon-Ho, Dong-One, & Ali, 2015). Kodish (2017) defined trustworthiness as (a) the experience gained over time that merits trust in another and (b) differentiated from trust. Lamertz and Bhave (2017) asserted that organizational trustworthiness related to legitimacy and trust, suggesting that trust derived in part from the trustworthiness of an organization. Yuan, Feng, Lai, and Collins (2018) added that trust affects both commitment and performance. Yoon-Ho et al. (2015) also separated the concepts of trust and trustworthiness, finding that trustworthiness comprised two parts: (a) an element of skill and capability; and (b) integrity and benevolence, a character element. Further, Yoon-Ho et al. (2015) recalled the distinction between trust and trustworthiness made by Barney and Hansen (1994). Barney and Hansen asserted that trustworthiness was a shared attribute of the partners in a dyad while trust described the relationship itself.

Many researchers have attempted to refine the definition but instead, simply use the words ascribed to Mayer et al (1995). Mayer et al. described trust as:

> the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party (p. 712).

Pobiedzińska (2018) compared the definitions used by researchers at various points in the history of trust research to show the importance and sustainability of Mayer’s definition of trust (see Table 3).

Table 3

How Trust Is Construed in Business Environments

Aspect	Description	Based on analysis by Pobiedzińska (2018)
Expectations of no harm	Expectations of results of the other party's actions under conditions of high uncertainty	Bhattacharya, Devinney, & Pillutla (2003)
Traits	Willing to wait on the other's competence, goodwill, and timing	Blomqvist & Stahle (2000)
Traits	Level to which one believes in kindness and honesty of the other	Larzelere & Huston (1980)
Evaluation of risk	Probability that the other with whom one cooperates will perform tasks and not produce harmful effects resulting in broken cooperation	Gambetta (1988)
Values	Trust in the business relationship, including the risks of computers and telecommunications; creating a bond reflecting safety, integrity, compliance, consumer rights, contracts, privacy, reputation, brand, and mutuality [of trust]	Keen (1999)
Mindset of trustworthiness	Willingness to cooperate based on the belief that the other is competent, open, caring, and responsible	Mishra & Morrisey (1990)
Transcends space and time	Cooperation in virtual organizations (within and between) rests on presumption of integrity of the other without limitations of space and time	Pobiedzińska (2018)
Evaluation of goal attainment (competence to deliver)	Subjective probability Evaluation by an organization's team collectively, whether a specified transaction will occur/be completed	Ratnasingam and Pavlou (2002)
Competence expectation	Belief in the competence of a another needed to perform a specific task	Sitkin & Roth (1993)
Reciprocity	Expecting the other will fulfill duties; will behave consistently; will act and negotiate with honesty, even in an opportunistic situation	Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone (1998)

(table continues)

Note. Definitions were collected and published in 2018. Pobiedzińska, K. (2018). The importance of trust management in a virtual organization. *Zeszyty Naukowe Wyższej Szkoły Humanitas Zarządzanie*, *19*, 231-241. doi:10.5604/01.3001.0012.0532. Used with permission.

Yoon-Ho et al. (2015) demonstrated the effect of trust on cost reduction, supporting Barney and Hansen's (1994) findings. Ertürk and Vurgun (2015) examined trust as a moderating variable in the issue of retention of employees, grounding observations in the context of SET. By suggesting trust in the context of SET, Ertürk and Vurgun focused on trust as the relationship and then discussed how trust affected performance and productivity. Considering differences in trust shown by women versus men, Zeffane, Melhem, and Baguant (2018) found that trust had a greater impact on women and performance.

Trust in organizations varies according to internal and external factors, and investigators have studied both categories. Chathoth, Mak, Sim, Jauhari, and Manaktola (2011) found that the formation of trust was influenced by location (political, cultural, and economic factors), internal culture, and importance placed on specific characteristics such as integrity, dependability, and commitment. Bansal (2016) reviewed trust during mergers and acquisitions (M&A) regarding dynamics within relationships. Chathoth et al. (2011) demonstrated how researchers could focus specifically on integrity, commitment, and dependability to observe the experience of trust in organizations, noting that appearance transcended location and national cultural dimensions. The findings of Chathoth et al. suggested that the phenomenon of trust may be more prevalent than observed in localized or event-specific such as organizational restructuring.

Researchers and business leaders have found trust to be of interest in specific situations. Gratz (2018) examined trust at the institutional and interpersonal levels in academic institutions. Bansal (2016) researched trust during M&A activities and noted that while trust was also important in post-M&A performance, investigators had not studied it satisfactorily. Further, Bansal posited that trust was a key determiner of success post-M&A. Although Bansal intended to understand factors that predicted trust in M&A situations, Bansal did not introduce a list of factors. By comparison, Chathoth et al. (2011) did list characteristics that could be either observed or presumed. Audi, Louoghran, and McDonald (2015) introduced a specific measure, counting the number of times the work trust in the management discussion and analysis section of annual reports. In both situations of annual audit and M&A activities, business leaders provide tangible signals regarding trust. Additionally, researchers identifying situational and personal characteristics emerged later.

By naming characteristics, researchers added information about organizational design and dynamics, as well as human personality traits and values. Baer et al. (2018) contributed situational characteristics, evaluating the perception of normality in workplace settings. Harris (2017) reviewed the literature and determined that concern, competence, integrity, and commitment were essential features for building trust. Studying the impact of trust on innovation, Hughes, et al. (2018) studied the impact of trust on innovation and observed characteristics of work behavior between team members and between leaders and followers in innovative organizations. Efforts to name characteristics enabled business leaders and researchers to discuss trust with the aim of correlating results and determining next steps in undertaking research on trust.

Research Methods and Designs for Studying Trust

Measuring trust as a business concept affecting the workplace is as challenging today as in the era prior to virtual work arrangements and MDO structures. Researchers find that even the definitions of trust are varied, although most convey the sentiment established in 1995 by Mayer et al. (Table 3). Given the many influences and characteristics associated with trust in the workplace, researchers studied its presence, loss, and potential for repair (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Ferrin, Cooper, Dirks, & Kim, 2018). Lumineau and Schilke (2018) found a relationship between organizational structure and trust that were influenced by communication of information and choices of decision making methods. Further, researchers have studied the coexistence of trust and productivity (Kaasa, 2016); trust and performance (Onyeizugbe, Orogbu, Mande, & Michael, 2018); trust and employee engagement, trust, and turnover (Barzoki & Rezaei, 2017) and similar issues. Researchers have designed quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-design studies befitting their research questions.

Both quantitative and qualitative studies are useful in measuring trust (Gillespie, 2011; Hale, Payne, Taylor, Paoletti, & Hamilton, 2018; McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011; Schuh et al., 2018). Quantitative research in which a questionnaire or other measure yields numerical results has value in that a tool can be applied in various organizations at one time or in one organization at separate times with resultant data comparable with prior data. Thus, many researchers rely on quantitative approaches exclusively or in part (Javed, Syed, & Javed, 2018). While a qualitative approach lacks production of the kind of data that appears concrete, qualitative studies offer an alternative strength (Mason, 2018). By hearing individuals' recollections of firsthand experiences with trust in an organization, investigators have gathered data from which to identify themes and connections. This analysis leads to the development of vocabulary that investigators may subsequently use in future mixed method or quantitative studies of trust characteristics.

Qualitative and quantitative researchers develop tools for measuring trust in business environments. Liden, et al. (2016) cataloged five tools developed between 1980 and 2010 for studying trust as part of LMX research. Zigrami, Nimon, and Conley (2018) used two tests of trust in stakeholders' manager or leader, including McAllister's affect- and cognition-based trust scales developed in 1995, as well as the WII-SF developed by Nimon and Zigrami (2015) to assess the intentions of stakeholders. Zigrami et al. (2018) correlated results and developed a canonical model of work intention related to trust.

Examining trust from a behavioral perspective, Hale et al.(2018) compared evaluation s of the trustworthiness in a virtual environment to examine specific versus generalized trust. Using the Institute for Public Relations' instrument measuring organizational trust, Chathoth et al. (2011) tested reliability and validity of constructs including integrity, commitment, and dependability for measuring trust in organizations. Armour (2016) adopted the survey developed by Chathoth et al. (2011) and extended the vocabulary describing the values underlying trust.

In my review of studies of trust, I compared quantitative to qualitative methods and findings, resting my proposed research on lessons learned, limitations acknowledged, and opportunities for future studies identified by prior investigators. Yin (2018) fused the value of qualitative to quantitative approaches to study, noting that qualitative studies can yield some depth of understanding. By using constructs named in quantitative studies in case study research, I may contribute to the understanding of why, how, or when a characteristic relates to trust. Dietz and Den Hartog (2006) suggested that trust research lacked a central focus and that three tracks appeared in the literature. Some researchers explored or examined trust because it occurs between and among organizations or between organizations and stakeholders, most notably the customers. The relationship between leaders/managers and staff or between colleagues is the focus of still other researchers. In other words, intraorganizational, interorganizational, and marketing comprise three areas of trust research.

Intraorganizational or individual trust is complex, having a multidimensional nature and variation based on diverse kinds and levels of work relationships (Dietz & Den Hartog, 2006). According to Bharucha (2018), honesty related to trustworthiness and was determined as essential for well-being. At the interorganizational level of trust, two or more organizations interrelate, and the complexity increases. Zaheer, McEvily, and Perrone (1998) asserted that such trust mattered and related it to performance as measured by negotiation, conflict management, and performance. Zaheer et al. (1998) separated interorganizational and interpersonal trust effects and noted that both kinds influenced performance. The similarities in demographics and decision processes support interorganizational trust which increases through reciprocal communication (Bstieler, Hemmert, & Barczak, 2017).

While the literature remains stratified as intra and interorganizational as well as customer or marketing focused, researchers in all areas share common observations. First, the study of trust is complex due to its complex, dynamic nature. Second, trust affects performance, either directly or as a moderating influence. Third, despite a large and growing body of literature, business leaders need more research on trust. Not only is trust crucial to business, but it is perhaps even more important as the virtual employee, virtual organization, and virtual customer relationship become prevalent.

Bansal (2016) designed a mixed strategy, with emphasis on quantitative survey measurement. Bansal's account of limitations informed investigators with either qualitative or quantitative design intentions. I incorporated three of his observations in my case study. Bansal noted first the impact of the s*ocial desirability facto*r ,as it could affect data collected via self-report style survey instruments as well as during interviews. Second, Bansal stated that longitudinal study of trust in organizations, especially when a major change is taking place, would provide a deeper understanding than when researchers collect data in a single period. Bansal's third limitation concerned the level and degree of participation in a study, because some participants reacted cautiously and considered information as private or proprietary. As a result, Bansal questioned whether data gained from interviews clearly explained participants' trust experience. By comparison, Harris (2017) used the dynamic narrative approach to interviewing participants about concern, competence, integrity, and commitment and identified eight practices of experienced leaders for building trust.

Leaders who invest in creating environments that personnel can trust gained in organizational productivity according to observations by Kaasa (2016). Trust building occurs one conversation, one message, at a time according to Eikeland (2015) and managers increase or decrease trust within an organization through culture, communication, and factors such as compensation. Studying labor productivity (human capital), Kaasa described the effect of social capital, the contribution trust made to social capital, and the importance in organizational productivity. According to Kaasa, the amount of trust people had in an organization was more important than the organization's reputation for quality. He evaluated firms in 24 regions throughout 24 countries in Europe to arrive at this conclusion.

Researchers have studied trust in the workplace for many decades, so much so that indexing of the literature does not show a certain time or date when the topic first came to prominence. However, in the mid-1990s, investigators experienced an active period of study and publication on the subject Mayer et al. (1995) noted that in earlier decades, trust was not as much studied as referenced in studies. Mayer et al. sought to define trust, its antecedents, and its impact by drawing from multiple disciplines to separate trust from other constructs. Researchers have referenced this important work 20,061 times as of August 11, 2019, as reported by Google Scholar, establishing the accepted definition of organizational trust as Mayer's.

For today's project managers, HR managers, and operations managers, how technology and trust intertwine in the workplace has increased in importance. Rubel, Rimi, Yusoff, and Kee (2018) determined that managers and human resource policies affect employee behavior when trust in management is high. White (2018) asked whether remote employees differed from colocated stakeholders regarding desires for relationships with managers. As virtual work arrangements become mixed with colocated work designs (mixed-design workplaces) leaders and personnel experience relationships in dyads and groups that may never meet in person. Krumm, Kanthak, Hartmann, and Hertel (2016) addressed the question of whether the experience and importance of trust varied when work occurred virtually. Specifically, Krumm et al. (2016) examined personal characteristics including the willingness to trust and trustworthiness and found varying levels of importance in virtual team productivity. In some cases, less trust was important within virtual teams than in colocated work groups (Krumm et al., 2016). For leaders and personnel in organizations to adjust to mixed-design work environments, researchers can add to the understanding of trust and its impact on performance and productivity in MDO environments.

Researchers apply the case study approach for many reasons. According to Hancock and Algozzine (2017), investigators used case studies to conduct informational interviews with the intent of understanding the experience of individuals. Yin (2018) further grounded the selection of case study design on the form of the posed question and added that researchers found the case study approach appropriate for exploration of 'how' and 'why' questions. Researchers' applications of case study for exploring the experience of leaders and managers therefore demonstrates the flexibility of the method. However, researchers could select other approaches depending upon research goals.

Researchers select the case study design for reasons related to their research questions. Creswell and Poth (2017) and Yin (2018) compared the case study with other designs and asserted that the case study was best suited for exploring relationships, because relationships are dynamic and individual. Yin (2018) remarked that researchers selected the case study approach in academic and practical settings related to management and behavior. Creswell and Poth found that by gathering data through interviews and analyzing the dialog, a researcher could identify themes. From the use of the case study approach in qualitative study, Creswell and Poth observed that researchers derived meaning by exploring the recollections of individuals, suggesting that experienced researchers accomplish this simultaneously with collection, analysis, and writing and that the process improved iteratively. Based on the literature reflecting current thinking about case study design, I based my study on a foundation that establishes credibility for conducting an in-depth inquiry about leaders' and managers' experiences.

Researchers and business leaders describe trust as beneficial to organizations and stakeholders including personnel. However, for some business leaders, the concept of trust raises concern about managing and controlling the organization so that productivity results (Avolio, Sosik, Kahai, & Baker, 2014). Högberg, Sköld, and Tillmar (2018) reviewed previous research, finding that opinions range from trust and control being interchangeable to managerial belief that control is detrimental to trust. Departing from an outdated view of trust as static or fixed, Verburg et al. (2017) focused on the dynamics of control related to employee trust and subsequently to performance, challenging the idea that trust and control mechanisms are antithetical. Verburg et al. suggested that controls could improve performance, depending upon how organizational leaders control behaviors. One element describing the environment in which leaders, managers, and even systems exert control is the nature of employee and manager relationship. Jia, Cheng, and

Hale (2017) determined that nonverbal immediacy of the manager predicted the emotions felt by the supervisee and cued the communications of dyad members. Supervisees considered communication that supervisors displayed with strong positive emotion was as supportive. As a result, communicating with managers with high nonverbal immediacy affected employee engagement.

Researchers continue to refine the meaning and application of trust as a concept for business management. Fainshmidt and Frazier (2017) defined trust in the organization as a basis for long-lived behaviors, attitudes, and social exchanges and asserted that communication, a socially interactive behavior, was vital. Social exchange, as a foundation for the climate of trust, improves not only the experience of individuals, but also the competitive advantage of the organization (Fainshmidt & Frazier, 2017; Ford et al., 2017). How persons perceive the climate, control, and communications within an organization affect the experience of trust and, consequently, the productivity and performance of individuals and the organization as a collective.

Trust research has developed over time. Presently, researchers publish studies in the *Journal of Trust Research*, a single-focus peer-reviewed publication established in 2011 (www.tandfonline.com). The journal editors defined twenty-six topical areas in six categories as their focus: (a) the nature of trust; (b) components of trust (behavioral, interpersonal, interorganizational, and institutional); (c) sources of trust; (d) life-cycle of trust (mechanisms and stages); (e) key roles; and (f) implications of trust in theory and research efforts. Reflecting on the editorial board’s conversation at a 2017 meeting, Möllering (2017) noted the transdisciplinary nature of trust research that has developed after three decades and encouraged researchers to pursue theory building and refinement of trust research methods. As of August 11, 2019, I found no articles published in the *Journal of Trust Research* in which researchers have considered the contextual impact of telework, yet considering the editor's recent update (Möllering, 2018), researchers may soon publish studies of trust in the mixed-design workplace in future issues. Moreover, I suggest contextual trust as a seventh category of study, with virtual designs and mixed-designs enumerated as topical areas therein.

Trust researchers also publish studies in academic journals other than the *Journal of Trust Research*. De Jong, Kroon, and Schilke (2017) analyzed recommendations for future trust research included by researchers of 347 articles and 111 additional articles in 58 social science journals and 31 management journals, respectively. While De Jong et al. (2017) included the recommendation of trust research from the standpoint of where it is conducted and related the location to the generalizability of results, they had no recommendations regarding research of trust management in newer work environments such as telework, virtual work, or distributed teams. The researchers comparing leadership approaches of managers and leaders in traditional and mixed-design workplaces whose works I have incorporated in this literature review may represent a trend too new to have been identified.

Transition

In the previous section, I established the parameters for this research on trust in the workplace by addressing the context of the problem and the purpose of this research project. I asserted that with the development of virtual or distant work environments as an adjunct to traditional or colocated environments, the identification of strategies used by managers and leaders to create a culture of trust adds to the knowledge of value in the new era of mixed-design workplaces. I developed a basis for a qualitative study using a case study approach so that the following discussion of the project and my research methods are grounded. I provided definitions to improve clarity and understanding, and assumptions, limitations, and delimitations to reduce the risk of misunderstanding and misapplication of information generated through this project. I presented the context of this research project through an extensive review of the literature that attributes to earlier researchers the contributions made, the limitations of the study of the topic to date, and a basis for the method and design chosen for the current study.

In Section 2, I discuss the role of the researcher, method, design, and ethical considerations. I then relate the procedures for data collection, analysis, and quality review. When discussing quality, I relate reliability and validity as measures of rigor. Once I gained organizational approvals from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), I proceeded to implementation of the research plan. In Section 3, I present the findings with consideration of the practical application, implications for social change, and recommendations for further research.

Section 2: The Project

In Section 2, I include a restatement of the purpose of this study, a discussion of the role of the researcher in qualitative research, a profile of participants, an explanation of the research methods and design, and a review of ethical research premises. In addition, I provide details on data collection including instruments and techniques for reliable and valid data handling as well as data analysis and evaluation.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies that successful business leaders and managers in service sector MDOs use to build an organizational culture of trust. The targeted population consisted of nine service sector business leaders and managers in five service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States who have successfully built organizational cultures of trust. This region was well-suited for my study because many business leaders in this area engage in mixed-design organizational development. Implications for positive social change include the potential for leaders and managers of service sector MDOs to learn of strategies they can use to develop working conditions to foster individuals' well-being, group productivity, and enhanced organizational performance. Leaders and managers who promote trust locally and virtually may attract a larger talent pool with new employees who fuel innovation, sustain corporate productivity, and promote economic growth in local communities. Communities' residents may benefit socially from added and stable job opportunities, higher earnings, and thus, improved quality of life.

Role of the Researcher

I performed the role of the researcher by collecting data in the process of interviewing participants, then reviewing data for themes. My role as the researcher was important in that I committed to demonstrate reliability and diligence in successfully performing data collection and analysis. Describing the researcher's role in data collection, Arsel (2017) substantiated the responsibility for trustworthiness and effectiveness of interviews, noting that data collection and review occur in a nonsequential, nonlinear process guided by the researcher. To uphold the researcher's responsibility, I devised open-ended questions for primary data collection. I built a data structure that shows the progression from raw data that I collected to themes. As described by Gehman et al. (2018), the step of extracting themes from participants' comments is key to demonstrating rigor and is key to the researcher's role.

My relationship to trust in the workplace arose while completing doctoral level courses. I became familiar with the current literature concerning leadership, strategy, and human resources (HR) management. At the same time, I observed that the word trust occurred in many personal communications I had with HR professionals and other employees of Alaska-based companies. I became interested in researching trust in the workplace as a result of my academic and professional exposure. Ideally, I sought to interview business leaders with whom I had no relationships so that I could maintain an objective approach. However, in Alaska, the business community is small and participants working in the state could have known of me or I may have encountered them prior to the study. Therefore, previously known volunteers were difficult to avoid.

My solution was to provide an annotated profile of participants. I interviewed leaders who agreed to participate voluntarily. Alaska-based businesses may have offices in the Pacific Northwest, and I encountered similar situations with participants from outside of Alaska. I used the same technique for transparency about any connections with participants.

As the researcher, I was responsible for upholding ethical practices and maintaining the confidentiality of participants in the research study. According to Elo et al. (2014), the characteristics of a trustworthy researcher's study are credibility, dependability, conformity, transferability, and authenticity in all phases from preparation to reporting. Thus, in my study, I planned to adhere to these characteristics as a trustworthy researcher. Johnson (2014) noted that the researcher has responsibility for ensuring the confidentiality of participants. I received training from the NIH Office of Extramural Research and hold certificate #2427493 for completion of Protecting Human Research Participants. As trained, I adhered to the basic ethical principles including confidentiality as described in The Belmont Report (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office for Human Research Protections, 2010). I obtained informed approval from the Walden University IRB before conducting data collection. Then, I obtained informed consent from the participants.

I assured the participants that I would separate their identities from their comments, so were able to speak freely. No participant worked for me or had the potential to work for me: I am self-employed as a solo practitioner. I did not coerce participants to take part in the study, and any participant was free to withdraw from the study at any time. I upheld the do no harm or beneficence principle of the Belmont Report (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office for Human Research Protections, 2010) and provided explanations of the study to support the principle of informed consent (see Mallia, 2018). Further, I reviewed the Alaska Federation of Natives guidelines for research (University of Alaska - Fairbanks, 2006) in anticipation of some participants being Alaska Native. The steps I took to act on ethical principles protected identities and data during and after the study, as suggested by Creswell and Poth (2017).

To mitigate bias, I reflected on how my personal perspective could affect various stages of my research study and strove for transparency regarding my process and bases for forming conclusions. According to Dean et al. (2018), the researcher's personal values alter processes and analyses in qualitative studies. To avoid process bias, I presented questions to participants that aligned with the research question and the method of analysis. In addition, I avoided steering responses in a predetermined direction.

Researchers risk prejudicing their interpretations of the research findings when they fail to recognize their own biases and predispositions (Hancock & Algozzine, 2017). Hancock and Algozzine (2017) urged researchers to monitor their receptiveness and openness to the findings that reject their predetermined ideas. In response to Hancock and Algozzine's prompt, I endeavored to remain unprejudiced and monitored my receptiveness and openness to recognize biases that could sway my interpretations of the research study findings. Jon Dean (2017) asserted that researchers can apply personal reflexive analyses at multiple stages during the research, from designing to writing and then to documenting. I strove to avoid viewing data through my personal lens by engaging in personal reflexive analyses and assessing my findings and interpretations repeatedly.

In my data collection process, I included interviewing nine participants from five companies in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States, using a semistructured interview protocol. Researchers frequently use interviews when collecting case study data (Yin, 2018). Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2016) found the semistructured interview protocol effective in qualitative exploratory studies. Researchers using qualitative interviewing follow protocol to yield purposeful conversation about participants' experiences that are relevant to the research topic (Mason, 2018). I created an interview protocol, using predetermined questions to stimulate participants' recollections, documenting the process and questions for readers of my study. By developing the interview protocol in the design stage, I standardized my method of inquiry for collecting comparable data from multiple sources.

Participants

Eligibility criteria are guidelines applied before holding discussions about informed consent. Researchers develop guidelines to delineate who can take part in a study (Saunders et al., 2016). By standardizing the criteria for participation, I increased the likelihood of achieving results that were reliable and valid. Further, I used criteria to avoid enrolling persons for whom the study could present risks. Researchers define and use eligibility criteria in an ethical approach to research and as a fundamental step in developing a research model that is replicable (Greenwood, 2016). I selected research participants whose careers in management and leadership had the potential to yield insight into strategies for building organizational cultures of trust in service sector MDOs characterized by both colocated work sites and remote work environments.

Determining eligibility criteria, according to Mason (2018), guides the researcher's intention of interviewing participants whose responses generate useful and meaningful information that add to the researcher's understanding. Therefore, I used career choice and workplace design as first level criteria for eligibility, and I further refined these by type of economic sector and geographic location. In addition, I selected eligibility criteria by which to screen volunteers with consideration of Yin's (2018) suggestion to find the participants representing the cases most like my replication design. As I conducted a multiple case study project, I sought participants who experienced similar working conditions (workplace design and cultures of trust). I next described the eligibility criteria from the perspective of replication.

Participants affiliated with organizations located in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States met my first criterion for eligibility. I limited work experience to service sector MDOs found within this geographic area because the terrain and size had the potential to result in the use of MDO structures to deliver services. I interviewed business leaders and managers of both colocated and remote/virtual individuals to capture experiences of workplace trust. My goal was to gain insight into successful strategies for building organizational cultures of trust in service sector MDOs. If some participants recounted no experience of trust in service sector MDOs, my application of eligibility criteria was not in error. According to Yin (2018), contrasting results discovered in multiple case study research may yield commonalities of value to the study.

As I sought participants' ability to describe challenges and strategies in building organizational cultures of trust locally and virtually, I required that participants had accrued at least 3 years of experience as a business leader or manager in an MDO. By setting a base level of experience, I expected to interview participants who had had time to evaluate what worked in trust building. I further expected participants would reflect similarities or differences in leading teams and individuals located in physical proximity to the leader. I anticipated hearing recollections of actions taken to build trust when physical proximity was not a factor (distance or virtual work locations) as an outcome of selection factors related to geography and business sector, as well.

I further defined eligibility by participants' freedom to speak about their work experiences. If a participant feared being sanctioned by an employer, I did not seek to include the participant in this study. However, the study was about trust in the workplace, and the topic alone may have influenced the identification of volunteers who have the freedom to speak without fear. In keeping with ethical research design principle of beneficence (see U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office for Human Research Protections, 2010), I endeavored to avoid harm to participants either by coercion or by exposing them to sanctions imposed by employers and professional communities.

I intentionally excluded demographics other than years of experience as eligibility criteria. I expected to encounter breadth of diversity, given the composition of

Anchorage, Alaska. As reported by *Anchorage Daily News* reporters in 2016, students in the Anchorage School District spoke 99 languages other than English, placing the district in the lead for diversity when compared nationally. Some languages were Alaska Native languages. The Anchorage business community includes many service organizations formed and operated by Alaska Natives. In seeking volunteers, I encountered business leaders and managers of many cultures, with Alaska Native cultures predominating. My study was not comparative of cultures or other demographic factors, and yet I remained prepared to be culturally sensitive to all who participated in this study.

I used Internet presence, social media, and personal networking to inform the business community of my call for volunteer participants interested in trust in the workplace. According to Heath, Williamson, Williams, and Harcourt (2018), participants may have more trust and confidence in research affiliated with well-recognized organizations. Therefore, as an active member of the Anchorage Chamber of Commerce, the Association of Talent Development, and the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) as well as affiliating with the Anchorage Economic Development Corporation (AEDC) and the *Alaska Business Journal*, I submitted email requests for referral to business leaders known to staff of each organization. To reach the Pacific Northwest, I worked with SHRM leaders of MDOs with remote locations outside of Alaska as well as by requesting recommendations from local business persons. I consulted Rotary International leaders for assistance in gaining introductions to potential participants in Anchorage, elsewhere in Alaska, and in the Pacific Northwest. I selected the organizations named herein as the distribution of their memberships covered my targeted geographic region, and as their membership criteria pertained to the business community.

People use the Internet for gathering information and conducting business globally. Researchers using social media such as Facebook suggest that this avenue is less costly, less time consuming and more effective than traditional methods such as posting announcements (Thornton et al., 2016; Topolovec-Vranic & Natarajan, 2016; Whitaker, Stevelink, & Fear, 2017). I intended to use social media platforms such as LinkedIn, Facebook, and Twitter to create awareness of my call for participants. LinkedIn was well-designed for my purpose, because I could post calls for action in general and targeted business groups. Through some social media groups, I reached members of the associations listed above; through others, I reached unaffiliated business persons. I posted recruitment announcements on social media using the same information described as a brief (see Appendix A). In Appendix A, I showed a prototype press release/poster developed for use in newsletters and websites of the named organizations. In the press release, I listed the purpose of the study, eligibility requirements, timeline, interview methods, and contact information. In Appendix A, I also showed Twitter messages that promoted participation.

In contemporary society, the presence of a well-constructed website can be an element of confirmation that a business or organization exists, reducing perceived risk (Mohseni, S., Jayashree, S., Rezaei, S., Kasim, A., & Okumus, F., 2018) and bolstering reputation (Youness & Valette-Florence, 2017). I hosted a website with information about the study, using my experience in web development gained with small business and nonprofit customers. Website developers may incorporate dynamic tools such as blogs and linkages to popular social media to engage viewers in repeated visits. I configured the site for posting blogs that informed visitors of the progress of the study. During the recruitment stage, I posted necessary information to engender interest and to provide a presence in a large geographic area in which I could have been unknown. According to Ageeva, Melewar, Foroudi, Dennis, and Jin (2018), websites provide impression formation and management of viewers' perceptions. For this study, I used a website as a primary communication tool for recruitment and communication throughout the project. In Appendix B, I illustrate the design and architecture of the proposed website.

In Appendix C, I included wording for an initial email inquiry to potential participants. This document lacked the specific elements of the press/release/poster as its purpose was to engender interest as indicated by a preliminary response. I used the document to gain inquiries from potential volunteers. As a result, I prepared to answer followup questions about the purpose and protocol of my study.

I initially provided acknowledgment to all participants for their interest in this study. After that, through personal calls and electronic communications (email, website, and social media), I developed working relationships with persons who met eligibility criteria. Reviewing answers about location, organizational affiliation, job title, geographic location of the organization, years in the service sector, and preference of interview method, I selected respondents who met requirements for this study. I assessed individuals' capability to participate regarding time availability, freedom to speak, and experience in building cultures of trust in MDOs. To qualified individuals, I provided additional details about ethical issues such as privacy, confidentiality, and voluntariness of participation without payment. In response to inquiries, I determined suitability according to the stated eligibility criteria. According to Heath et al. (2018), participants prefer an interview method that is most convenient to them. Researchers who offer interviewees the choice of meeting by distance technology (Gilbert et al., 2017) as well as in person improve both recruitment and data collection strategies. I assessed participants' preference for interviewing electronically as an option to meeting in person. To signify selection for the study, I requested volunteers to read and sign an informed consent agreement approved by the IRB.

Research Method and Design

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies that some business leaders and managers in service sector MDOs used to build an organizational culture of trust. I used information based on evaluation of peer-reviewed literature and results of interviews conducted with nine service sector business leaders and managers in five service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States who have successfully built organizational cultures of trust. My goal was to discover what LMX management techniques have positively influenced a culture of trust when some stakeholders are colocated and others work at a distance.

Research Method

Researchers select from among three methods: (a) qualitative (b) quantitative, and (c) mixed methods (Aczel, 2015; Mason, 2018; Yin, 2018), choosing the method that supports their research purpose. I selected the qualitative method to explore leaders' approaches to trust management in MDOs. With the use of open-ended questions, I gathered data to review for similarities in themes raised by participants across several organizations. Qualitative researchers use open-ended questions and field notes to draw both participant comments and contextual data to contribute to rich, thick data (Levitt et al., 2018; Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018; Yin, 2018).

Researchers use quantitative methods to test theories by using closed-ended questions related to hypotheses (Salvador, 2016; Saunders et al., 2016) and to measure responses to surveys (Armour, 2016; Bansal, 2016). Mixed methods researchers integrate quantitative and qualitative data to support different research questions or to seek greater rigor (Mason, 2018; Molina-Azorin, Bergh, Corley, & Ketchen, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). As I explored trust in the workplace, I did not test hypotheses or use quantitative data. Accordingly, the quantitative and mixed method approaches were not suitable for this study.

Research Design

I selected the case study research design. Harrison, Birks, Franklin, and Mills (2017) defined the types of case studies by examining design decisions such as purpose, number, and objective. To meet my research objective, I selected the explanatory multiple case study (EMCS) as my specific research design. EMCS is an approach that is appropriate for purposeful studies in organizational behavior (Aczel, 2015; de Chesnay, 2015; Yin, 2018) and for collecting descriptive information (Aczel, 2015; Goudy, 2015; Madill, 2015). Using EMCS, I collected data from representatives of multiple organizations, as cross-case designs can produce richer data (Bergerød, Gilje, Braut, &

Wiig, 2018; Møller & Skaaning, 2017; Yin, 2018). Thus, I used EMCS for gathering experiences (data) that I explored to determine themes regarding managers' and leaders' approaches to trust in the workplace.

I rejected alternative approaches that do not align with my research question, including narrative inquiry, phenomenological methods, grounded theory, and ethnography. Although each method contributes specific value in qualitative research, I disqualified each based on its specific research purpose. Narrative inquiry is an approach used by researchers to gather participants' stories to develop a narrative or story (Byrne, 2017; Creswell & Poth, 2017; Franks, 2016) rather than to explore the true-to-life experiences that I sought. Using phenomenological methods, researchers describe an event and its meaning from the motivation and view of participants (Johnston et al., 2017; Louie, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). By comparison, I explored strategies to build trust in sector MDOs by recording participants' interviews and seeking themes common to their recollections.

Grounded theorists work with the intent of explaining the theory behind an event and base their results on a larger sample size (Bernard, Wutich, & Ryan, 2016; Bryant, 2017; Creswell & Poth, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016) than that used in case study research. Grounded theory offers a data-driven approach for qualitative researchers to develop theory (Woo, O'Boyle, & Spector, 2017). Although I explored trust in the workplace from the context of LMX, I avoided explaining LMX theory as the objective of my study. Ethnographic researchers use longitudinal fieldwork data gathering to improve the quality of findings which may modify or create a theory (Mason, 2018; Morse, 2016; Saunders et al., 2017). I did not determine to modify or create a new theory. Therefore, I used the EMCS method to collect data and explore themes.

I used planning, sample size, transparency in reporting, and triangulation to ensure data saturation. Saunders et al. (2018) asserted that data saturation is informational redundancy, or a measure of completion after which additional data collection or analysis yields no new themes when researchers adopt the inductive approach to a qualitative study. Similarly, Fusch and Ness (2015) stated that saturation is the point at which no additional data, coding, or new themes arise, but replication is possible. In addition, Tran, Porcher, Falissard, and Ravaud (2016) and Etikan, Musa, and Alkassim (2016) described nonrandom sampling, noting the use of purposive sampling to permit the addition of participants until nothing new is found. By interviewing leaders in MDOs and replicating the collection process in five unique MDOs, I anticipated reaching saturation with six to nine participants. However, I was prepared to add others should the goal of nothing new emerging been unmet, documenting the process for readers.

As a quality check in support of saturation, I planned to triangulate via member checking of the data from which themes were determined. Member checking engages participants in review of collected data (Birt, Scott, Cavers, Campbell, & Walter, 2016; Harvey, 2015; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Saunders et al., 2016). By following steps culminating in quality checking, I proceeded from planning through implementation to evaluation to ensure data saturation and achieve rigor.

Population and Sampling

I chose as the target population for this study nine leaders and managers representing nine mixed-design workplaces in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States. With this group, I explored experiences in leading stakeholders that are colocated and distant in alignment with my research focus on MDOs. I selected voluntary participants from five organizations by purposeful sampling followed by snowball sampling to enlarge the group from which I selected participants. Etikan, et al., (2016), Tran et al. (2016,) and Elfil and Negida (2017) described nonprobability sampling techniques such as purposeful sampling, used when randomization is unimportant for the study design. Researchers use purposeful sampling when the population lacks clear definition (Elfil & Negida, 2017; Etikan et al., 2016), to make a deliberate selection of participants (Zaldivar, 2018), as well as when generalizing to the population is not likely or intended (Saunders et al., 2016). Researchers perform purposeful sampling by establishing conditions with the intention of gathering data that is rich, but the process is imprecise (Palinkas et al., 2015). Researchers use snowball sampling by gaining recommendations from participants and by asking participants to tell others about the study (Akila & Priyadarshini, 2018; Emerson, 2015; Valerio et al., 2016). I used the techniques of purposeful and snowball sampling. Using purposeful sampling, I targeted persons and organizations in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States. I then used snowball sampling, asking respondents to suggest other potential participants, expecting referrals of persons and organizations having the specific characteristics I sought for the study.

Saunders et al. (2016) suggested that when the population under study is homogeneous, the sample size should be no smaller than four; in a heterogeneous population, 12 should be the smallest. Saunders et al. (2018) and Mandal (2018) also noted that researchers conducting semistructured/in-depth interviews should include between five and 12 as the minimum. For researchers using EMCS, a larger sample size does not necessarily improve the study and may in fact complicate it (Mason, 2018; Yin, 2018). Therefore, I interviewed nine participants representing five service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States, comprising a homogeneous group of leaders and managers in MDOs. Mason (2018) described the value of developing a quota target list early in the research process. I was prepared to add participants had new themes continued to emerge as the initially selected participants completed their interviews by establishing a quota target list during the planning phase.

Plans for achieving data saturation begin with the sampling plan (Hennink, Kaiser, & Marconi, 2017; Malterud, Siersma, & Guassora, 2016;), and replication logic (Yin, 2018). By selecting participants who met the criteria of location, organizational design, scope of leadership that encompasses colocated and distant relationships, and those who were willing to describe their experiences, I established a foundation for collecting rich, thick data and reaching saturation by interviewing nine representatives of five MDOs.

Leaders and managers who are experienced in working with some stakeholders who are colocated and with others who are distant (such as teleworkers) have experience that may reveal successful approaches to trust building and growth. Selecting participants who meet several criteria improves homogeneity and likelihood of achieving the research goal (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Hennink et al., 2017; Mason, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). Thus, I evaluated potential participants according to these criteria so that I gained firsthand accounts that convey rich descriptions.

I offered a choice of interview settings to participants for their convenience. I traveled to their offices or met in a quiet public location such as the local library, coffee shop, or similar meeting place depending upon their preferences. If the participant was in Anchorage, Alaska, I scheduled the Alaska Communications Business Technology Center for convenience of location, availability of private meeting rooms, and staffed assistance. Participants outside of Alaska were offered an interview when in Anchorage or visits I would make to their sites. Alternatively, participants were invited to schedule online virtual meetings. Virtual meetings are effective choices for gathering data (Gilbert et al., 2017; Heath et al., 2018; Rosenthal, 2016) and participants' choice of this format may relate to their experience with distant stakeholders. Maduka, Edwards, Greenwood, Osborne, and Babatunde (2018) described virtual leadership competencies with ICTs such as virtual meeting leading, and noted that virtual teaming requires new skills in communication and trust building. I suggested virtual meetings to all participants regardless of proximity and recorded this choice as part of my field notes.

Ethical Research

Ethical principles that apply to scholarly research include adherence to accuracy, transparency of processes and purposes, protection of rights and welfare of participants, and attribution of intellectual property (Levitt et al., 2018; Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

Researchers pay particular attention to the process of gaining informed consent to prevent coercion and misunderstanding about involvement in the event (Cocanour, 2017). In support of ethical research processes, the IRB at Walden University oversees ethical practices in all phases of doctoral student research and provides guidance specific to the school as well as to federal regulations (Harris, 2018). I abided by requirements regarding informed consent and options for withdrawal, recruitment procedures, data collection and retention, and all other aspects of doctoral research and writing. The IRB approval number for this study is 04-03-19-0011288.

After I received IRB approval, I communicated with potential participants identified through directories listing local and regional members of the Anchorage Economic Development Corporation, Anchorage Chamber of Commerce, Association of Talent Development, and the Society for Human Resource Management. LinkedIn provided lists searchable by each group as well as by keyword search of persons who listed membership as part of their profile. Research participants documented their understanding of the research and their willingness to participate by signing consent forms. I included descriptions of the purpose of my study and the nature of the workplace design with which participants must have experience. Further, I stated expectations for participants' time, engagement and compensation, and potential risks and rewards. I described how they could withdraw at any time by informing me in writing or in person with a signed statement. If participants wished to withdraw, they were informed that they would experience no negative consequences. Further, I agreed to destroy all data collected from participants who withdraw.

I described the measures I took to ensuure ethical protection. I protected identities (de-identification) and the recorded data gathered from participants who willingly participated. I maintained active records on a password-accessible computer with local storage of data and cloud-based backup that is encrypted. I provided secure storage for five years for both paper copies and electronic files as described on the consent form so that participants gain assurance of confidentiality. By making others aware of the measures taken to secure their data, researchers support greater participation by individuals (Benson, Saridakis, & Tennakoon, 2015). I protected both the personal identity and organizational identity of participants, conducting interviews in locations that protected privacy and avoided disclosure of identifying information. I protected participants from the potential of damage to professional reputation by observing their rights to privacy and confidentiality regarding personal identifying information (PII). I referred to participants as P1, P2, P3 and their organizations as Org1, Org2, Org3. If I used documents or materials made available by the participant or that I found via Internet research, I used only those items that were available to the public without restrictions on use and I redacted any PII concerning individuals as well as organizations. I identified each document with the correlated organization number.

I recruited participants individually, thereby avoiding pressure that sometimes arises when recruiting in a group setting. I intended for participants to agree or decline freely and without direct or implied coercion and therefore sought volunteers from outside of my professional circle of peers. To further assure participants, I described my position as a doctoral student and my relationship with my doctoral study committee. I verbalized my affiliation with a university and oversight by credentialed faculty to convey credibility. As indicated by Elo et al. (2014), credibility is a characteristic of trustworthy ethical research. Although I offered no gifts or monetary incentives, I offered each participant a summary of the final research report upon publication. I ensured that the study stated the Walden University IRB approval number and did not include names or other information that would reveal the identity of individuals or organizations.

I received training from the NIH Office of Extramural Research and hold certificate #2427493 for completion of Protecting Human Research Participants (PHRP). NIH examiners provide PHRP to students and researchers as a free service in support of protecting human subjects (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health, 2018). Walden University faculty required completion of this training as a requirement of the IRB in support of ethical research practices. I subscribed to the principle of beneficence as described in the PHRP, which means that I followed the principle of doing no harm to participants. In addition, I reviewed the Alaska Federation of Natives guidelines for research (University of Alaska - Fairbanks, 2006) in anticipation of some participants being Alaska Native. The steps I took to act on ethical principles protected identities and data during and after the study as suggested by Creswell and Poth (2017).

Data Collection Instruments

By personally conducting semistructured interviews and recording notes, I acted as the primary data collection instrument. Fusch and Ness (2015) defined the interviewer's role as key to the quality of the qualitative research project. This assertion has been corroborated by Mason (2018) and Yin (2018). Johnston et al. (2017) described the researcher as a participant in the interview and thus focused on the interactive nature of the researcher's role. I was cognizant of the need for observing myself and reflecting on my interactions with participants so that I did not fail to recognize the bias I introduced as the data collection instrument.

According to Bernard (2018), researchers find semistructured interviewing effective when participants are time conscious and efficiency driven. I used semistructured interviewing not only because of participants' value of time; I also selected it to align with my ontological and epistemological viewpoint. Mason (2018) suggested aligning the choice of data collection instruments with the researcher's ontological and epistemological outlook. Alignment between the researcher's outlook and the research design improves the conduct of the study (Arghode, 2012; Frost et al., 2010; Henderson et al., 2016). I sought meaning based on participants' experience as conveyed through a semistructured interview process.

Although researchers preplan the questions, they may probe with additional questions or with body language and nondirective comments (Bernard, 2018) to achieve greater depth of information (Saunders et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). I not only listened and interacted; I also took notes and audio recorded the interview, creating additional collections of data. Researchers value notes that include critical reflection and chronicle the development of the interview, as the notes reflect the developmental processes of the study (Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018; Renz, Carrington, & Badger, 2018). Researchers who record while taking notes gain auditable backups as well as data sources that can be reviewed iteratively, strengthening the validity of the study (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, I used listening, note taking, and recording in this study.

A written protocol is a detailed plan that provides a record of steps to be followed in each interview (Castillo-Montoya, 2016; Fusch, Fusch, & Ness, 2017) The protocol standardizes the interview process (Chenail, 2011). Researchers develop protocol, starting with the introduction to an interview session, discussing the purpose and organization of the session, reviewing confidentiality and privacy, and requesting permission to record and take notes so that the participant gains confidence in the process (Durdella, 2019; Phillippi & Lauderdale, 2018; Rosenthal, 2016). I rehearsed and followed a written protocol (see Appendix D) which included the scripted pre- and post-comments as well as the interview questions.

To enhance reliability and validity, I included steps in the protocol (see Appendix D) regarding the methods by which I collected data. I took notes manually after requesting permission of the participant and indicating my intention to safeguard the data. Using an audio recording app for the iPhone, I captured a sound recording that was later transcribed electronically, reviewed while I referred to my notes, and then reviewed by the participant for accuracy. Participants reviewed data collected and transcribed for accuracy, building greater trust in the research project (Birt et al., 2016; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Mason, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). By collecting data with these tools, I captured information that participants reviewed by transcript review and member checking.

Although pilot testing improves reliability of an instrument and protocol (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker, 2019; Guirguis et al., 2018; Zingg et al., 2016), I substituted the experience gained during the interview process, documenting flaws that altered either the protocol or the instrument. Further, I engaged experts for review of the interview questions to improve reliability and requested interview rehearsals with experienced researchers. University faculty serve as experts for research studies, providing experienced oversight and guidance (Durdella, 2019; Saunders et al., 2016). Expert validation entails seeking review by others whose experienced-based viewpoints may alert the researchers to weaknesses that may be refined before data collection or other instruments are used (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Working with faculty of Walden University, I gained the benefits of expertise in qualitative research.

Data Collection Technique

Researchers collect evidence from interview participants to yield insights based on personal views and explanations (Yin, 2018). I conducted personal interviews for this purpose. Using the semistructured style with open-ended questions allows researchers to engender open conversation in keeping with the purpose of an explanatory case study (Mason, 2018; Møller & Skaaning, 2017; Yin, 2018). Yin (2018) described the explanatory case study as one in which the researcher seeks to find how a condition occurred. I sought insight into how trust establishment and development occur. My research design was an EMCS as I included multiple cases. Participants from five service sector MDOs recounted real-life experiences during semistructured interviews from which I identified common themes.

Researchers acknowledge several disadvantages of collecting data via personal interviews. Data collected by other researchers provide a secondary source of information. Barnes, Dang, Leavitt, Guarana, and Uhlmann (2018) described challenges with the use of secondary sources when conducting intraorganizational studies, noting that only a small percentage of organizational behavior studies include references to secondary sources. Such data are collected independent of the question or participants identified in a research study and include company reports, studies produced by other researchers, and mediated sources. However, social media has yet to be fully sourced (Barnes et al., 2018). In studying trust in the workplace, I collected documents such as values and mission statements, policies and correspondence that discussed trust, trust research, and breaches of trust, if such documents existed and were discoverable. Discoverable documents were found online within company websites. To supplement internally generated documents, I consulted the literature for insights about the successful strategies leaders and managers have taken for trust development, maintenance, and repair (Hale et al., 2018; Kharouf & Lund, 2018; Lewicki, Elgoibar, & Euwema, 2016; Liden et al., 2016). I used data provided by Connelly, Crook, Combs, Ketchen, and Aguinis (2018), and Martin et al., (2016) for comparison with themes expressed in the data collected from my participants. By evaluating themes identified in secondary sources in comparison with the themes voiced by participants in my study, I determined if there is general agreement on trust in workplaces.

As provided in Appendix D, the protocol included discussion points I covered routinely. I followed the process as outlined, beginning with the preinterview processes such as ensuring that the participant was comfortable, had no questions, and was aware of the ethical guidelines I followed to protect privacy, confidentiality, and safety when conducting human research (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office for Human Research Protections, 2010). Further, to attain fidelity, researchers must base interviews on open-ended questions asked of willing participants (Levitt, Motulsky, Wertz, Morrow, & Ponterotto, 2017). I used the interview protocol for these reasons.

Researchers engage in conversation to build trust (Castillo-Montoya, 2016), especially at the beginning of the interview. By conversing prior to asking the questions developed as the semistructured framework, I built rapport with each participant as suggested by Dilley (2000), Mason (2018), and Saunders et al., (2016). Once I established rapport with the participant, I followed the protocol (see Appendix D), asking the questions as stated. Further, to attain fidelity, researchers must base interviews on open-ended questions asked of willing participants (Levitt et al., 2017). Probing for clarification yields added information through the flexibility offered by the semistructured format of interview (Bernard, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). Therefore, I asked questions to elicit in-depth information. Further, I observed and documented nonverbal communications as participants communicated them. Nonverbal cues affect trust in organizational relationships (Dulebohn & Hoch, 2017; Jia et al., 2017) as well as communication in interview dyads (Mondada, 2018). Therefore, I noted movements, nonverbal expressions, and other behaviors.

To close the interview, I again engaged in conversation to convey gratitude for participation and then stated the next steps I would take, still following the protocol (see

Appendix D). By alerting participants to the need for member checking, I established expectations and an anticipated time line. However, researchers repeat the interview process until nothing new emerges (Fusch & Ness, 2015), a step unrelated to a preset number of interviews anticipated to achieve data saturation. Therefore, participants were assured that I would inform them of progress.

Participants were permitted to review the transcripts of their interviews electronically. However, because some may have preferred in-person appointments, I offered to hold a second interview. In both cases, I explained the format of my notes and asked that they provide feedback. Participants assess completeness and accuracy, validating the record of data collection (Birt et al., 2016; Mero-Jaffe, 2011; Yin, 2018). Member checking strengthens validity of the research (Birt et al., 2016; Koelsch, 2013; Thomas, 2017). In addition to asking for transcript evaluation, I asked participants to review the report in which I documented the main points and themes I found in their data.

Researchers experience both strengths and drawbacks of semistructured interviewing (Jamshed, 2014; Mason, 2018; Moser & Korstjens, 2017). Researchers using unstructured interviews may collect rich data but find that the process is time consuming. Semistructured interviews are more efficient (Jamshed, 2014) and useful for collecting richer data when adding probing questions (Bernard, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). I conducted semistructured interviews to meet the research objectives while valuing participants' time and to maximize depth in the data via probing questions.

Many researchers strongly recommend performing a pilot test prior to collecting data (Ary et al., 2019; Guirguis et al., 2018; Zingg et al., 2016) to increase reliability and to refine the interviewer's technique (Doody & Doody, 2015). For this study, I did not conduct a pilot study. However, expert validation improves reliability (Durdella, 2019; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Saunders et al., 2016) and I used expert validation by consulting more advanced faculty and mentors.

I intended to achieve reliability and validity using member checking (Harvey, 2015; Marshall & Rossman, 2016) and continuation of data gathering (described by Fusch & Ness, 2015) until data saturation was apparent. Then, in writing the report, I included details of how I assessed participant eligibility and selection. I utilized multiple sources of information vis a vis data triangulation (described by Fusch et al., 2017), collecting data from representatives of several organizations, and extracting themes from each.

Data Organization Technique

When planning for data organization, researchers are guided by ethics to secure and protect data. Researchers must protect data collected and created during and after the study through secure storage (Mason, 2018; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office for Human Research Protections, 2010). In addition, researchers must plan to securely maintain the data and chain of evidence (Durdella, 2019; Mason, 2018). I plan to control access to information recorded in documents and other media throughout the active period of this study and thereafter. I secured paper and electronic files including logs, journals, transcripts, and related documents in a locked, fireproof cabinet in a secured office in Anchorage, Alaska.

My online storage was provided by a firm that secures access for physician practices and clinics, financial professionals, and other small businesses. According to de la Torre-Díez, Garcia-Zapirain, and López-Coronado (2017), individuals are at risk for blackmail, marketing, and fraud, requiring attention to data security and privacy. Describing cloud-based systems, de la Torre-Diez et al. (2017) related the use of multilayer architecture for data protection. Further, Talesh (2018) described the risks inherent in data protection and described the requirements to gain cyber insurance. I have contracted an insured firm, DanTech Services, Inc. to maintain password protected online files accessible via encrypted access throughout the research period and for a minimum of five years following the completion of this study. DanTech Services, Inc. provides multiple layers of protection and is insured against data loss. My digital files included logs, journals, field notes, recordings, transcripts and analyses of interviews, and project management files.

To protect participants from the potential of harm, I observed participants' rights to privacy and confidentiality by coding personal identifying information (PII). Using a labeling system to maintain chain of evidence while deidentifying files, I stored data with identifiers and names redacted. Durdella (2019) recommended separately storing identifiable and coded data. Therefore, I referred to participants as *P1, P2, P3* and their organizations as *Org1, Org 2, Org3*. If participants referred to other persons or places, I assigned a random code and redacted names. Durdella suggested that random coding of data should be explained in a separate document that couples the code with actual identifying information. I separately stored the file documenting the key that links participants with their data and their references to other persons and places in my safe.

I securely stored data, establishing a minimum period of five years post-completion as described above for physical documents and digital files. Data security protects participants' privacy (Adashi, Walters, & Menikoff, 2018) during and after the active period of the research study. According to Thorogood (2018), increased data collection has led to increased attention to security and privacy. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services requires data storage for three years at minimum and longer if required by an investigator's institution (Protection of Human Subjects: IRB Records, 2018). I established an agreement to retain records securely for five years in accordance with the policies of Walden University, after which materials will be destroyed.

Data Analysis

Researchers collecting data in qualitative studies encounter the challenge of abundance when conducting analysis of nonnumerical data (Salmona & Kaczynski, 2016). At the same time, researchers pursue collection of sufficient data for studies to result in sound outcomes (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Mandal, 2018). Researchers therefore use multiple sources of data in qualitative studies (Yin, 2018) and employ triangulation to increase credibility (Morse, 2015). Basing his perspective on the seminal works of Denzin (2012), Mandal (2018) noted that with triangulation, researchers can gather data from multiple sources and consider multiple viewpoints in conducting analyses that consequently are valid. I applied methodological triangulation, relying on data collection from multiple organizations to reduce bias that could occur by investigating a lone source. Methodological triangulation includes use of field notes (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe, & Neville, 2014; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Phillippi and Lauderdale (2018) added that field notes provide contextualization and inform data analysis. I developed field notes while I observed participants' emotions, relationships of statements to worksite location, and statements of similar themes expressed by participants different MDOs.

In credible projects, researchers nonselectively incorporate all the collected data in the process of data analysis. Marshall and Rossman (2016) emphasized the systematic nature of analysis procedures and Mason (2018) related systematic processes to transparency in support of quality research. In case studies, researchers evaluate data concurrently with data collection (Green & Thorgood, 2018; Yin, 2018; Yu, Chawla, & Simoff, 2016) in an iterative cycle of data analysis. I followed a systematic procedure for thematic (content) analysis of the data based on an iterative cycle. Aligning my study with this tradition, I identified commonalities in responses during the interview process and concurrently refined my approach to data gathering.

Like Saunders et al. (2018), many researchers agree on the definition of saturation as a stopping point (Constantinou, Georgiou, & Perdikogianni, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016; Tran et al., 2016). Constantinou et al. (2017) evaluated studies illustrating the procedures of determining saturation, noting three main techniques. Constantinou et al. (2017) described an approach based on the number of interviews and related amount of data collected. Thus, to reach data saturation, I first determined the sample size that fostered the opportunity to explore sufficient interview data. I used Fusch and Ness's

(2015) planning approach. However, I found that calculating a sample size to reach data saturation was inexact. Researchers may add to the sample size if the discovery of new themes does not cease within the interview data initially gathered for the study (Saunders et al., 2016; Saunders et al., 2018; Yin, 2018).

For data saturation to support the rigor of a study, researchers demonstrate transparency in reporting how they planned to reach saturation (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). O'Reilly and Parker (2013) stated that to attain transparency, researchers must provide sufficient detail about data collection and analysis. I assessed saturation by incorporating multiple evaluations of the data ranging from broad coding to pattern coding, and then evaluation of themes. According to Yin (2018), pattern coding or matching meets a high standard for case study analysis. In EMCS research, patterns relate to the how or why of the research purpose (Yin, 2018). I therefore sought patterns regarding processes of developing and maintaining trust in mixed-design workplaces.

Constantinou et al. (2017) developed a comprehensive process called the Comparative Method for Themes Saturation (CoMeTS). Researchers can adopt CoMeTS when interviewing homogenous groups. CoMeTS has three steps for determining the saturation of themes, starting the process at the time of the first interview and achieving saturation over time. Once researchers following CoMeTS observe that generation of themes mentioned by a minimum of two participants has ceased, they perform tests to counter order-induced error (Constantinou et al., 2017). I evaluated data first in the order of collection, and then by mixing the order according to the CoMeTS method to increase reliability.

I used Dedoose 8, a computer assisted/aided qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS). Researchers use CAQDAS to improve trustworthiness and transparency in qualitative research, since the data and the processes of analysis may be audited (Durdella, 2019; Yin, 2018). Researchers also use CAQDAS to efficiently organize, store, and browse data (Durdella, 2019). Dedoose features include data organization, coding, query, visualization, and analysis tools of benefit to social science researchers (Silver, 2012).

To ensure that saturation occurred in my study, I incorporated three steps: (a) interviewing a minimum of nine participants representing five organizations, a quantity suggested in case study research by Mandal (2018); (b) categorizing all themes mentioned by a minimum of two participants, evaluating data while they were collected so the process was iterative; and (c) avoiding the order-induced error that is based on the sequence in which interview data accumulates. Mandal noted that bias of social science researchers might overshadow the participants' responses. To mitigate the potential for bias in my study, I used CoMeTS along with reflexivity in the data analysis process.

Researchers engage in reflexive thinking to offset or acknowledge bias (Arsel, 2017; Dean et al., 2018; Durdella, 2019). Therefore, I reviewed both process and data reflexively, knowing that as both the data collection instrument and the analyst, I had to be cautious about influencing the outcomes. I included evaluation of how I could confound the results through personal bias when writing the report. Additionally, I explicitly documented my process of data analysis, writing with transparency so that readers can replicate my process (see Appendix E).

I correlated key themes with the literature about trust in the workplace and with LMX, the conceptual framework of this study. I determined secondary source themes. By reviewing the literature, researchers gain awareness of themes as well as research methodologies that may apply to their projects (Durdella, 2019; Ryan & Bernard, 2003; Yin, 2018). Researchers position their knowledge in relation to the documented knowledge by reviewing the literature (Lingard, 2018). I performed an extensive literature review of trust and LMX and continued to review for new publications throughout the data analysis stage. Using this technique, I enhanced my knowledge of a priori themes that might apply to the data analysis.

Reliability and Validity

In quantitative research, reliability and validity measures of quality traditionally include four indicators: Dependability, credibility, transferability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Researchers consider these terms to be tied to rigor as well as tools such as triangulation through member checking and use of many data sources (Amankwaa, 2016; Smith & McGannon, 2018). Smith and McGannon (2018) advocated for a newer approach based on adoption of eight universal benchmarks for measuring quality: (1) substantive focus or topic, (2) rich informational rigor, (3) sincerity, (4) credibility, (5) resonance, (6) contribution significance, (7) ethics, and (8) meaningful coherence. Researchers lack one standard of research quality, as evidenced by the variety and number of terms used to describe a standard, even if Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria are best known and longest standing. In qualitative research, researchers attempt to demonstrate reliability and validity but face the unmeasurable nature of criteria such as Lincoln and Guba promoted.

Morse (2015) advocated the use of traditional terms of measurement (generalizability, rigor, reliability, validity), despite the popularity of Lincoln and Guba's (1985) terminology, reestablishing the link between data saturation and its purpose, validity. Researchers return to validity and reliability as trusted components of quality. When describing reliability of quantitative research, researchers describe the replicability of the methodology and consistency of obtaining results (Ary et al., 2019; Leung, 2015; Noble & Smith, 2015). Quantitative researchers therefore refer to validity as appropriate selection of the data, its collection, and its analysis, and the accuracy of the findings. In other words, validity describes how well the instruments measure what the researcher intended to assess (Leung, 2015; Noble & Smith, 2015; Watson, 2015). By establishing their approach to reliability and validity, researchers communicate commitment to achieving rigor through ethical practices in qualitative research (Amankwaa, 2016.) I expressed my commitment by describing reliability and validity.

Reliability

In qualitative research, researchers assess reliability as dependability according to the Lincoln and Guba (1985) model. Leung (2015) described reliability as generally tested through comparative and refutation techniques while Yin (2018) specifically applied reliability to case study by prescribing repeated study of the same case rather than by substitution of comparative data. However, Morse (2015) asserted that replication is neither necessary nor desirable in qualitative research as it destroys induction. I did not conduct a pilot test because pilot testing would have been a form of repeated study. Doody and Doody (2015) asserted that pilot testing improves the skill of the researcher; however, I accepted the concerns of Morse and Yin as offsetting that value for EMCS. I sought dependability measures through other techniques.

Yin (2018) asserted that the act of documenting the case study procedures addresses reliability. Therefore, I addressed dependability by documenting the data collection and data analysis protocols (Appendix D and Appendix E). According to Castillo-Montoya (2016), consideration of reliability measures begins with preparation: Interview questions must align with the research question and should be presented conversationally. I selected interview questions supporting the purpose of my study and received peer-review to evaluate the alignment. As noted in the data collection protocol (Appendix E), I established rapport and proceeded with a conversational manner of interviewing.

As I noted in the protocols, I employed both transcript review and member checking so that participants assessed my accuracy in reflecting what they presented and what I extracted as themes. I requested participants' reviews of transcripts soon after interviews took place; after collecting interview data from all participants, I scheduled member checking of my evaluation and analysis. Researchers use member checking as a measure of reliability (Harvey, 2015; Morse, 2015; Smith & McGannon, 2018); therefore, I used it to strengthen dependability as well as credibility. Further, as noted in Appendix E, I engaged in reflexive thinking to evaluate researcher bias and I attempted to separate my personal assumptions by bracketing during data collection and analysis.

Johnston, et al., (2017) defined bracketing as a method of suspending personal beliefs to focus on the participants' perspectives. The use of bracketing, according to Sorsa, Kiikkala, and Åstedt-Kurki (2015) provides researchers with skill for interviewing nonjudgmentally. Chen (2015) added the concept of requiring researchers to retain interest in the participants' experience while maintaining a disconnected view instead of evaluating participants' comments from the standpoint of the researcher's previous experience or knowledge.

Validity

Morse (2015) listed multiple strategies that uphold the credibility component of validity, including development of thick, rich narratives provided by an adequate number of participants; reflexivity to assuage or reveal researcher bias; and triangulation via member checking. As Marshall and Rossman (2016) and Fusch and Ness (2015) defined member checking, the process provides participants with the opportunity to edit the researcher's data capture. Morse argued against member checking, noting that with other types of research, participants do not have access to changing the data. Nevertheless, I conducted both transcript review and member checking for the purposes of credibility. Kornbluh (2015) suggested that researchers establish trustworthiness through member checking when the process is meticulously applied.

Transferability relates to generalizability, that is, the application of findings from one study to different situations or populations (Elo et al., 2014; Green & Thorgood, 2018; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). To aid readers in understanding the usefulness of my research findings, I attempted to accurately describe the limits of my sample and described participants in terms of geography, demographics, and industry segment.

Korstjens and Moser (2018) described confirmability as a feature sought by readers who may want to use findings of a study. In other words, confirmability is a measure of the researcher's neutrality (Durdella, 2019; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). I based my findings in the data rather from conjecture. To convey confirmability to readers, researchers create an audit trail that can be consulted (Johnston et al., 2017). I based my findings in the data, rather than from conjecture, and I provided an audit trail of the data by writing with transparency throughout the report. The use of CAQDAS tools provides researchers with credible audit tools (Antoniadou, 2017; Durdella, 2019; Yin, 2018). I used Dedoose, a CAQDAS, to manage data and serve as my audit tool in support of confirmability.

Data saturation is key to validity in qualitative research. Saunders et al., (2018) asserted that data saturation is widely held as essential to the quality of qualitative research. However, Mandal (2018) echoed the sentiment of many researchers in asserting that as a concept, saturation in research lacks definitive description. Constantinou et al., (2017) contended that theme saturation is more cogent than data saturation. Both terms refer to quality measures for qualitative research. Yin (2018) listed four criteria related to data collection and analysis for judging research designs: (1) construct validity, (2) internal validity, (3) external validity, and (4) reliability. To achieve construct validity, I used multiple cases as sources. In addition, I engaged participants in transcript review and member checking. Use of transcript review and member checking are well accepted in support of construct validity (Heale & Twycross (2015); Mason, 2018; Smith & McGannon, 2018; Yin, 2018).

To achieve internal and external validity, researchers use both research design and data analysis techniques (Leung, 2015; Salvador, 2016; Yin, 2018) In design, I used replication logic by sampling multiple organizations. Yin (2018) described the technique of replication logic in multiple case studies as beneficial to validity. Yin also supported the achievement of internal validity by analyzing data using thematic analysis and pattern matching. I performed these evaluations. Use of Dedoose aided my capture of the process leading to explanation building, too.

Yin’s (2018) concept of validity rests on a four-step design test. Yin and others suggested that developing a documented case protocol, a database, and an audit trail are key to the performance of reliability in data collection (Amankwaa, 2016; Clark, Birkhead, Fernandez, & Egger, 2017; Durdella, 2019). Researchers review evidence including raw data, transcripts, journals, and field notes that are audit trails (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017). I collected evidence including transcripts, journals, field notes, and thematic analysis processing by using Dedoose software. I have provided protocol (Appendix D and Appendix E) to demonstrate commitment to the criterion of reliability so that readers may be assured of the quality of this study.

Transition and Summary

In Section 2, I reviewed the purpose and process of my study of trust in the workplace. First, I established my role as both the researcher and the primary data collection instrument in this study. Then I described eligibility and characteristics of desired participants in light of the intended research question, and I outlined strategies of getting access and establishing working relationships with participants. I provided evidence of previous researchers' studies referenced in making decisions that framed my study. With the method, design, and sampling framework established, I explored ethics of research and defined my commitment to conducting an ethical study.

I described the data collection instruments as both myself and the interviews I have conducted, then outlined the data collection technique for interviews. I then addressed techniques for data organization and security of data during the study and for the five years after the study. Finally, I focused on data analysis, providing an overview that illustrated the logic and sequence of my process. Not only did I describe the process by which I discovered themes in the data; I also described quality measures. As a result, future readers may be able to replicate my study as well as understand the limitations of its scope and findings. To end Section 2, I described how I addressed dependability, credibility, transferability, and confirmability as indicators of reliability and validity.

In Section 3, I reoriented the reader to the purpose of this study and summarized the findings. I then provided detailed discussion of the themes identified in exploring the research question and related these findings to those in peer-reviewed literature, tying my findings to LMX, the conceptual framework of this study. I addressed how my findings may support or dispute the extant literature. I provided observations of three action items: (a) implications for social change, (b) recommendations for action, and (c) recommendations for further research. To complete this section, I concluded with statements and then attached (in appendices) the forms and other tools that readers might find useful in future studies.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore successful strategies that business leaders and managers in service sector MDOs used to build an organizational culture of trust. The study population consisted of nine business leaders and managers representing five service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States who successfully built organizational cultures of trust. I collected data via semistructured interviews supplemented by review of organizational documents. I identified four primary themes supporting trust development: (a) generating ongoing multidirectional communications, (b) valuing mistakes as learning moments, (c) observing trust responses regardless of leader/follower proximity, and (d) relying on ICT. Interviewees described indicators of trust building, including meetings and regular communication with individuals, use of technology to provide channels for audio, video, and written communications, programs for career development that resulted in promotions and retention of personnel, and development of a culture that promoted learning in place of disciplinary action when errors were made. The findings of this study may benefit managers and leaders in MDOs to adapt trust building behaviors from colocated to remote worker relationships, strengthening employee engagement and productivity, improving quality of work-life for personnel and sustainability for residents who might seek career opportunities as well as contributing to community viability.

Presentation of the Findings

The research question for this study was as follows: What successful strategies have business leaders and managers in service sector MDOs used to build organizational cultures of trust? To explore this question, I analyzed interview data manually and with the use of Dedoose, a CAQDAS program by which I noted commonalities among responses from nine participants, leading to themes. I identified four predominant themes supporting trust development and maintenance: (a) generating ongoing multidirectional communications, (b) valuing mistakes as learning moments, (c) observing trust responses regardless of leader/follower proximity, and (d) relying on ICT. Throughout the process, participant identification characteristics were suppressed, and I used codes (P1, P2, etc. and Org1, Org2, etc.) for people and organizations to maintain privacy and anonymity. I found that participants' recollections supported concepts identified in LMX studies in which lived experiences influenced trust development and maintenance. All leaders and managers participating in this study provided recollections of strategies to build and maintain cultures of trust. However, no participant was familiar with LMX or SET, the conceptual framework for this study. The findings of this study may offer leaders and managers insight into strategies that are aligned with LMX for development of cultures of trust in mixed-design workplaces.

Following my research protocol, I collected data from nine leaders and managers in five service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States who successfully built organizational cultures of trust. I called for participants by posting in LinkedIn and by networking with members of the Society for Human Resource

Frieder Management, the Association for Talent Development, and other local professional organizations. By using the snowball technique, I gained multiple representatives from two of the five MDOs. With each potential participant, I reviewed the purpose and design of the study via phone conversations, emailed information, and in-person conversations. Each person asked clarifying questions which I answered. To those who consented to participated, followed with emailed copies of the consent form previously approved by the Walden University IRB. In emails to participants, I included suggestions for times and dates for the interview. Participants each selected a location that met with their convenience or suggested that we conduct the interview via ICT. As a result, I conducted four interviews at participant offices and five interviews by telephone.

Participants' choice of in-person versus telephone interviews appeared to relate to proximity during the data collection period. Participants selected ICT for interviews when traveling or if they were stationed in the Pacific Northwest. Several Alaska-based participants opted for telephone interviews for their convenience. Since all participants represented MDOs routinely using forms of remote communications, I noted the choice as aligned with familiarity with ICT options. One participant initially suggested interviewing by videoconferencing but then determined that a voice communication channel was better suited for her schedule and location.

I completed all interviews within a 3-week period. After each event, I developed and emailed transcripts for each participant's review, thereby conducting the transcript review as a quality check. All participants remarked on their use of filler words such as ah, uh, and um, words I elected to retain in the transcript as notations on their thinking processes and interest in the questions. Two participants responded with minor changes to the transcripts, revising them to clarify the points they were making during the interview. Each participant responded via email at this stage. I asked each participant for supporting documents they could share with the public. I received several images of posters used in team development, a reference to an internal communication concerning training on trust to be scheduled at a participant's company, and copies of mission/vision/values statements. One participant noted that the organization was revising their mission/vision/values statement and that nothing was available to the public at the time. However, I gathered this information via the Internet immediately after meeting with participants. During the interviews, I developed field notes in which I captured the sentiment of the participant. Participants displayed sentiment through body language as well as by vocal sounds.

Participants were invited to review my interpretation of their input via member checking. I received no corrections. I thanked them and then answered their questions regarding the anticipated completion and publication of the study. I reminded participants of their agreement to secure publicly available resources related to the organizational culture such as mission statements, values, training materials, and other items pertaining to their successful strategies for building trust.

Most participants' websites featured mission statements, core values, and principles that described company culture. The mission/vision/values statements appeared on pages intended for career postings and other hiring information for recruitment of new employees. Ongoing communications with participants enabled me to generate additional reminders about documents. I made these in person, by telephone, and by email messages. Finally, I reminded participants of the website (see Appendix B) describing the progress of the study (www.workplacetrust.com) and that I had offered to report completion of all milestones.

Participants supported the importance of communication and personal connections to trust building, factors I described in the findings of my study. These factors are described in much of the literature on LMX and SET as published over the last 30 years (Pellegrini, 2016). Leaders and managers participating in my study exhibited characteristics contributing to performance and productivity through a culture of trust. Although no participant indicated familiarity with LMX or SET, all made references to communications and personal connections with stakeholders in both colocated and remote environments. (Table 4). From the analysis of participant interviews and secondary data, I concluded that the successful strategies applied in the participating mixed-design workplaces reflected the concepts of LMX and SET, the conceptual framework used in my study.

Table 4

Codes Used in Evaluating Interviews of Participants

Code	Total
Challenges/problems*	79
Communication actions	21
Building personal connections*	50
Calling attention to something	13
Empowerment	16
Face-to-face*	30
Feedback	17
Listening/hearing	31
Meeting*	43
Seeing one another	32
Seeking input	23
Surveying	7
Talking	24
Training opportunities	17
Writing notes	3
Follower consequences	12
Fear/ no fear of consequences	21
Have an impact	11
Great quotes	17
ICT	11
Email	5
Other	10
Sharing portals	4
Telephone calls	12
Texting	2
Video 1-to-1 meetings	19
Video group meetings	10
Indicators of trust	4
Intention to stay	8
Morale	17
Performance	40
Productivity	11

(table continues)

Code	Total
Leader behaviors	
Awareness	4
Expectations communicated*	38
Giving credit that's due	14
Hiring talent	8
Intention of leadership	63
Peer sharing	12
Promoting	3
Rewarding	8
Role modeling	23
Training	20
Vulnerability*	45
Learning moments	18
Taking criticism well	2
Proximity specific	0
Co-located	9
Mixed near/remote	51
Remote	35
Values	21
Agreement	5
Commitment	11
Dignity	12
Fairness	26
Openness	56
Reliable	9
Respect	54
Total use of codes	1173

Note: Both the categories (in bold) and specific terms were used in annotating the data. The category term was used if the specific terms did not apply at this stage of evaluation. Coding of the data resulted in 1173 incidents. All participants mentioned items marked with an asterisk (*), denoting specific focus on the importance in building trust in MDOs.

I evaluated responses as coded with 10 code categories and 48 subcategories based first on the process of seeking patterns in the data. I coded 1173 incidents of wording or intention. Initially, I reviewed transcripts in the order of the interviews. I then scrambled the order multiple times and conducted repeated reviews. By evaluating transcripts regardless of order, I decreased the potential for bias that I could have introduced when coding comments according to the order of the interviews. I used the CoMeTs procedure for determining data saturation with nine interviews completed.

I next considered the data from the view of concepts found in the literature of LMX and the literature that gave rise to it (SET), workplace design, and trust. As part of this review, I examined participant responses for themes not found in the literature. I found none: Participants expressed ideas and experiences similar to one another. Participants' expressions paralleled concepts described by scholarly researchers, as well.

I used Dedoose to visualize the experiences described by participants. Using Dedoose tools, I reduced the categories of comments to four themes. I titled the four themes as (a) Generating Ongoing Multidirectional Communications, (b) Valuing Mistakes as Learning Moments, (c) Observing Trust Responses Regardless of Proximity, and (d) Relying on ICT. I will present each theme with a description of observed similarities as well as pertinent quotes gleaned from participants' transcripts.

Theme 1: Generating Ongoing Multidirectional Communications

The frequency and nature of communications became apparent early in the process of data analysis as participants each described their styles of informing, listening to, and supporting followers in-person and through a variety of ICTs. According to Reiersen (2018), trust develops through repeated interaction, is sustainable when the participants are trustworthy, and becomes a quality based on norms. When team members develop norms for communication (such as the direction, the frequency and the expectations for choice of technology), trust and performance become stronger (Henderson et al., 2016). Study participants reported scheduled and informal (conversational but unscheduled communication) events. Participants also described being available, engaging with voice and video, and listening as contributing factors to trust building. One participant described the use of an office robot that rolled into headquarter offices when a remote worker wanted to talk. Another described the importance of making a telephone call rather than emailing or texting. All participants volunteered that the frequency of communications contributed to trust by being natural, timely, and not limited to communications around problems or disciplinary issues.

Participants also stressed that communicating face-to face was equally important in building trust locally as well as remotely when describing methods to interact with their teams. All nine participants specifically spoke of face-to-face or in-person communications as something each used or desired if it has been lacking. P4 stated, “When you’re not face-to-face with that individual, no matter how hard you try, there’s still that layer of distance” that face-to-face communication overcomes. P4 applied this realization to colocated as well as remote relationships.

P9 described the value of traveling so that remote stakeholders and senior leadership meet in person, saying

> One way was organizing town hall events where we can...bring the CEOs out and give a status update on the organization. One of the main complaints that you get from the remote locations is they don’t feel like they’re part of the group ... nobody spends any time with them.

P9 contextualized this statement, noting that 'trial and error' was how the strategy of trust building was learned at the MDO. P6 described changes in face-to-face communications over the years. In P9's organization, a mobile robot simulated "those hallway conversations and 'hi-yas, and how'd your weekend go" interactions. P8 stated outright, "I prefer to meet with people in person" as a strategy for building trust.

In a systematic review of 265 studies conducted over 15 years, Gibbs, Sivunen, and Boyraz (2017) found that effects of technology use on virtual teams yielded mixed results and use of more sensory technologies were more strongly related to team bonding. The experience of the leader using the robot, and experiences of leaders using video conferencing aligned with Gibb's observation of increased bonding. Two participants representing two organizations stressed the importance of traveling to remote sites and creating personal bonds with stakeholders on-site. According to P9, visibility of leadership at all levels is essential, as "getting [leaders] out there to the field, to the remote locations" conveyed respect and interest in seeking input. P9 remarked on the importance of personal bonding by meeting stakeholders informally such as over breakfast prior to meeting formally in team settings.

P9 touted the value of one-on-one conversations as a method to convey interest in the individual. Fodor, Fleștea, Onija, and Curșeu (2018) described multiparty systems (MPS) as social systems combining several organizational units joined to collaborate. Fodor et al. (2018) explored trust in MPS, emphasizing the dynamic of who trusts whom by illustrating the lifecycle of trust building among stakeholders. According to the findings of Fodor et al., trust development occurs according to a predictable sequence. As noted by P1 and P9, the sequence begins with leaders and managers making personal connections with stakeholders.

Once interpersonal trust developed, P1 and P9 expanded directionally with and between stakeholders by communicating their expectations, sharing values, and role modeling behaviors. As a result, communications and cohesion became more apparent up, down, and laterally. Susskind and Odom-Reed (2019) noted that performance and trust correlated in studies of global teams and that exchange of information through various forms (face-to-face, conference calls, email, and other forms of ICT) increased when team members had role models whose communications were effective. All nine participants described communications in their organizations and provided examples spanning colocated and remote locations, treating the topic as a common concept. However, their illustrations provided specific details. P6 described traditional forms of communication including meetings, email, and writing thank you notes to stakeholders, noting,

> I share board meeting information in staff meetings ... I often put an email together to explain what I said in more details so that they have the information in writing that they heard ... I write lots of personal notes sometimes to everybody in the entire agency ... because we've won a piece of business or something like that.

P6 also described innovative use of ICTs including a robot that moved by command of a remote stakeholder to the office of a leader or manager at the colocated site and the impact it had as a local, visual representative of the distant worker. P6 stated,

> We also bought a Beam robot, which is basically a stand with a computer on top and they [stakeholders] can ... operate it remotely so that they can drive it around the office, and they can then have those hallway conversations.

By strengthening relationships through ongoing communications, leaders and managers develop levels of trust that exceed the economic bonds of pay for work. As described by P6, communications that are multidirectional (and not always at the behest of the senior member of a team) tend to create relationships. Leaders and managers achieve relational bonds that are observed in LMX to foster greater social exchange (Sparrowe, 2018).

All nine participants in this study described methods by which they nurtured relationships, such as recognizing stakeholders personally, regardless of distance or proximity. Additionally, participants provided secondary sources such as mission statements, organizational values, and related documentation regarding communications based on respect. Two participants (P8 and P9) described earlier career experiences during which they worked at a distance, commenting on the importance of personal connections, and each related their observations to their organization's mission statement.

P8 recited the values verbatim from the mission statement, relating the core principles by which all interactions should be measured. P9 similarly spoke of relationships with all stakeholders and commitment to effective communications. The experience of P8 and P9 prior to placement in the office with colocated staff, their ability to quote statements of mission and values, and their valuation of face-to-face communications, and their communications with stakeholders were aligned. As P1 remarked, “You can't do business without trust. And you can't work [for someone] without it either.”

Theme 2: Valuing Mistakes as Learning Moments

In high trust interactions, interdependency among participants is crucial. At times, stakeholders are dependent upon leaders and managers for clarity of goals, direction, and even correction if performance is off target. According to Barratt and Smith (2018), technology can be a barrier when leaders and managers must address stakeholders’ performance. However, participants in this study described situations in which they provided feedback and counseling equally to colocated and distant stakeholders.

When asked about performance and trust or productivity and trust, all participants described a values orientation to counseling and directing. Participant P8 described alignment between personal values and organizational values and applied the values of respect, dignity, and fairness in guiding stakeholders’ actions. P8 summarized the approach as “just being just thoughtful ... about the way we conduct ourselves and treat each other.” To illustrate, P8 related experiences of working remotely prior to working at headquarters in a colocated environment. By exhibiting respect, P8 felt that leaders and managers created openness and decreased fear so that when an issue had to be addressed, both parties opted to create an opportunity for improvement rather than a judgement.

Henson and Beehr (2018) noted that stakeholders’ behaviors and performance relate to LMX more directly than do self-esteem and stability. Observations made by participants supported the concept of the quality of the exchange, enhancing stakeholder buy-in regardless of location. Even so, several felt that in-person conversations were more effective in disciplinary situations when trusting relationships existed. Although ICTs provided a sense of face-to-face conversation, managers and leaders preferred in-person talks when possible.

LMX relationships are based on social exchange (Frieder, 2018), and when participants described how they reframed errors and mistakes as opportunities to improve performance, they demonstrated the application of social exchange values such as respect, dignity, and openness. P2 described "creating a culture that where it is okay to make mistakes and it's okay to own up to the mistakes ... not having a culture of blaming" as key to retaining stakeholders in remote and colocated situations. Although P2 suggested that working with remote stakeholders presented challenges they overcome when meeting in-person, the use of video conferencing aided in reading nonverbal messages. As a result, P2 could adapt messages that supported sharing the responsibility to correct an error and improve future performance. P7 described a "strategy of trust is remembering that the outcome was a focus on the good outcomes." P7 thus provided a strategy useful in MDOs that contributes to a stakeholder perception of fairness and support even when working remotely.

Theme 3: Observing Trust Responses Regardless of Proximity

Awareness of leaders and managers surfaced in participant responses as key to observing signs of trust, a skill that increased the effectiveness of working with stakeholders at a distance. Trainer and Redmiles (2018) suggested that revealing personal information both signaled trustworthiness and built trust in work group exchanges. Awareness and acknowledgement were key signals between parties (Trainer & Redmiles, 2018). In LMX, awareness and acknowledgment by leaders and managers take many forms. As described by P3, "... our senior leaders talk to us and we submit questions in advance ... really open[s] up communication and trust because we know exactly what our challenges are as an organization all the way from the top."

The fact that senior management sought input from all levels and all locations of the MDO conveyed acknowledgment. Noting the relationship of acknowledgement to trust building, P4 added,

> And there is this tension in the divide ... rural and urban and perhaps even, you know, ethnicity, but as well, just cultural ways of being - you know, expectations are different. And, what may be true in a work group in [the colocated space] is not necessarily true in an office in the remote locations. I think ... there's the emotional element of creating trust.

As LMX is grounded in SET, P4's statement is particularly relevant to trust building in MDOs by virtue of observing the affective (feeling) element of communication in successful relationship development. P7 remarked on the cost of not considering feelings and emotion, stating "Um, yeah, my emotions, my way and manner sometimes get in the way and you try to do your best, but sometimes your best isn't your best and that can erode trust." By acknowledging and understanding the emotional part of communications, leaders and managers and stakeholders develop personal connections as part of trust building.

The theme of seeking input surfaced in responses of all participants in this study. Participants expressed thoughts about input sought within the MDO as well as from stakeholders outside of the company. As described by P1,

> First thing we did was we did surveys after the training was conducted and then started seeing what was the common issue that people are bringing up. So, if they think that they didn't have a say in it, we then involved them in that conversation. So, we did feedback after every training session.

According to P5, input was sought from stakeholders outside of the company as well as within so that “delivering fairly consistent expectations of their performance in our environment and then going back and delivering on that in a small scale” was actionable. P8 stated, “It's definitely [that we] have to build trust and you have to maintain that trust and ask constantly, okay, how are we doing? Are we seeing, are we treating everyone with dignity and respect?”

P9 noted that one way of seeking input “was organizing town hall events where we can have the opportunity to bring the [leaders] out and give a status update on the organization.” P9 thus described two steps: Seeking input and implementing a strategy thereafter. P9 communicated by vocal inflection that the implementation was as essential to trust building as was the ack of seeking ideas and involvement.

While discussing leader/follower interactions, P5 pointed to two illustrations posted on the wall. Each poster had become a shared symbol of stakeholders and leaders through frequent reference. P5 related use of the posters when talking with colocated and remote stakeholders as a way of offering and accepting trust. On one poster, the illustration could be seen as two different objects. The leader sought input from stakeholders, asking them to name the object, then name the other object, ending with comments that both perceptions were correct. P5 explained,

> But the point of that story is you and I can look at the exact same picture and potentially seek more than one thing ... I use this as a story to talk about how we need to pause for a moment before we get angry or upset or frustrated with a member or a team member and we need to pause and see if maybe we turn that same information on its side or we ask a follow-up question that maybe we could see it through a different lens and see it from the other person's perspective.

In this statement, P5 not only spoke of seeking input from but also of respect for stakeholders. Although P5 was not familiar with LMX, P5's body language of leaning forward, establishing direct eye contact, and making nonword comments communicated agreement with LMX as a description of the behaviors that supported trust development within P6's team.

Theme 4: Relying on ICT

Technology has changed the way business is transacted. Technology can disrupt trust (Hacker, Johnson, Saunders, & Thayer, 2019) as well as support trusting relationships (Maduka, et al., 2018). All participants in this study described the importance of ICTs in MDOs. P6 noted the need for training for managers and supervisors regarding skill in using various forms of ICTs, along with the need for ongoing exploration of modern technologies such as sharing portals. As described by P1,

> I think that it's [ICT] really increased the overall trust within the department because now when you're looking at somebody, you can actually see if they have a true understanding of what you're saying. You can check for understanding, you can check for agreeance [*sic*] in that video piece and then we can actually turn around and start asking questions that people who are in the room could [react to].

When listing a variety of interactive software programs, P6 emphasized the value of ICT, saying, “Well, I think it's critical, not only with, with, with both teams [colocated and remote] - you know, we have gotten so much more into technology.”

Participants used a variety of technologies, and multiple forms were used by all organizations that were represented by study participants In Table 5, I showed the relationship between kinds of ICTs and participant references to their use in colocated spaces as well as for communication with remote stakeholders.

Table 5

Internet Communication Technologies Mentioned by Participants

Kind of ICT	Colocated use	Distance use
Chat spaces such as Slack, Team	x	x
Email	x	x
Share portals such as DropBox, Google Docs, Trello	x	x
Telephone conferences	x	x
Texting	x	x
Video calling/meetings (group) such as Zoom		x
Video meetings (one to one) via conferencing, robots, Facetime, Zoom		x

Note. Selection of Internet communication technologies (ICTs) differentiated participants in some cases. To maintain anonymity, specific ICTs and participants/organizations are not paired.

According to Hamad (2018), ubiquity of ICTs simplifies knowledge-based business operations without regard for the location of stakeholders. Participants in this study used ICTs within colocated spaces as well as with remote locations with the exception of video meeting technologies. All participants referred to the use of ICTs for both colocated and remote site information transfers. In fact, P2 described the use of ICTs as a substitute for personal visits, noting, "I think like one of the first things that we do is try to create, you know, the personal connections with the people that we work with, you know, whether it is in person or whether it is virtual." P6 described in-person conversations as valuable, especially when the person or the topic is initially difficult, and that even when both parties are co-located, reliance on ICTs may prevail.

In MDOs, managers and leaders may use ICTs regardless of proximity. Use of ICTs supports social presence and trust building, but use should be balanced, according to Levin (2018). When in-person communications can take place, leaders and stakeholders may develop a richer sense of trust and understanding. Describing a difficult situation, P6 recalled, “the person is here in the building, nobody likes to go and do it in person. ...When I go and talk to this person, I don't have the same [negative] feeling, you know?” P9 also described the value of personal meetings, especially when conducted in the organization’s remote locations, remarking that,

> I think that it really comes down to ... having the leadership being more visible with the workforce. So that's one of the things that I really focused on, whether it is my level at a manager/director level or all the way up to the CEOS over the organization - ensuring that you're getting them out there to the field, to the remote locations and seeing the employees on the ground. So that's one of the things I really focused on pretty heavily.”

P9 described the balance as a leadership technique of combining ICTs and in-person communications as the strategy for building trust. P2 communicated the same perspective, as shown in quotes provided above describing use of ICTs in place of personal visits. As P3 stated,

> And so building trust with those individuals, it's important to make sure that you don't forget them ... And when we have meetings together to include them remotely, ... and as much as you can, having them come to visit us [or having us] coming to visit them.

Applications to Professional Practice

Leaders continue to apply LMX and SET tenets in the 21st-century workplace, even though they may be unaware of their approach. For commerce to take place, leaders and managers require a foundation of trust as to provide products and services. To make transactions with external stakeholders such as customers, community members, potential hires, and governmental agencies internal stakeholders trust that a fair trade is forthcoming. The participants in my study recognized the importance of trust as a foundation for ongoing interaction, supported by their lived experiences as leaders and managers. Further, the same individuals explored methods that transcended the barrier of proximity in building cultures of trust.

Trust as a basis for business transactions is highly valued, especially between leaders and followers, or managers and team members (Smith, 2019). Thompson and & Glasø (2018) suggested that the effectiveness of organizational change initiatives may be measured by organizational trust and trust in the supervisor, as described by the LMX model of leadership. As the participants in my study enthusiastically described successful strategies for building trust, they offered insights on the changing role of leaders and managers who managed both colocated and distant followers. Given the constancy of change in 21st century businesses and economies, effective change and strong trust are important to leaders of organizations that are transforming to mixed-design workforce structures, motivating those leaders to seek models developed by peers.

Hacker et al. (2019) extolled trust as a solution for integrating virtual teams.

When some or all of a workforce is remote, managers encounter challenges in communication dynamics, proficiency in the use of ICTs, and trust building that includes developing group identity, shared meanings, and behavioral norms (Hacker, et al., 2019). I interviewed participants who described trust building in terms of all of these factors and whose successful experiences provide models for leaders and managers in MDOs.

Subsequently, I examined secondary source documents reflecting the cultures of the organizations, finding weak to strong alignment with interviewees' perspectives. Organizational focus on trust appeared to tie directly to the expression of mission, vision, and values for all participants in this study. As noted by Bowen (2018), mission and vision statements are usually grounded in organizational culture and express the core values that guide organizational decision making. Bowen posited that when an organization's behavior is values-driven, trust grows with and between stakeholders. Documented expressions of mission, vision, and values reinforce the culture of trust, whereas organizations with mission statements that lack a tie to stated values may have limited ability to adapt to change. The experience of participants in my study aligns with Bowen's premise.

In participants' cases wherein company mission and values statements were weak, participants described projects to develop new statements. Where statements were strong, companies prominently displayed them on employment/career pages within their websites, conveying an awareness of the desirability a trust-based culture has to job seekers. Managers and leaders seeking peer insight on trust building and organizational strength may observe the trend among participants in this study to place importance on the visual and accessible manifestation of organizational culture. Participants' commitment to develop and protect strong statements that reflect the core values of their organizations may inform readers of an important step in creating a trust-based culture when colocated socialization is limited. Reviewing peer business leaders' strategies may engender the readers' commitment to the effort required for building trust-based cultures.

I searched for newly published research on trust in the workplace to determine if my findings might, over time, continue to merit the attention of leaders and managers. Based on the small sample of nine participants in five service sector MDOs in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States, the findings of this study may bring value to leaders and managers seeking models of how to improve trust in the workplace. As mixed workplace design continues to proliferate, and as the talent pool extends globally without geographic boundaries, managers and leaders prepared for the challenge of connecting personally with remote workers. Further, managers and leaders in both colocated and distant locations must strive to be fair and equal regardless of stakeholder proximity.

Related to the challenge caused by variable proximity, managers and leaders now and in the future will encounter a plethora of ICTs. Managers and leaders may be confounded when determining which ICTs are most effective in trust building. Selection, procurement, installation and use of ICTs consume time and money. Managers and leaders find value in matching ICTs best suited to each situation for the cost. The management question becomes one of which measures to assess that will achieve trust building and maintenance. The metrics of trust are not as concretely measured as are the financial and other quantifiable variables. Therefore, leaders and managers may find the recollections of this study's participants beneficial when considering how to measure trust in their own workplaces.

As suggested by my analysis and findings, leaders and managers are most effective in trust building when they can (a) observe trust responses, (b) respond to performance errors by reframing them as learning opportunities, and (c) devote effort to generating consistent two-way communications. In organizations that support the development of leaders and managers, offering training related to these three strategies can positively affect the productivity and performance of leaders and managers, stakeholders, and the organization at large.

In MDOs, leadership development should include a greater emphasis on the role of trust as well as on the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) found in leaders and managers who excel at trust building. Addressing a specific category of KSAs, trainers must develop communication skills related to use of ICTs. ICT management meshes tightly not only with understanding trust conceptually, but also with developing the KSAs to actuate effective forms of communication without regard to proximity. As illustrated by the lived experience of participants in my study, when managers and leaders achieve trust building that is not defined by location or proximity, organizational resilience in the presence of hiring and talent management challenges may offset competitive, economic, and other situational threats to performance.

Implications for Social Change

Leaders and managers espousing corporate social responsibility and looking for tangible improvements to individuals, communities, organizations, institutions, cultures, or societies seek change strategies. They may consider the findings of my study applicable to social change through mindful behaviors. Based on the results of this study, leaders and managers may apply ideas identified as successful in building and maintaining trust. Leaders and managers need new skills to sustain quality and profitability, especially as workplace design shifts to more remote and mixed-design models. Applying the strategies expressed by participants in my study may help business leaders as well as stakeholders. Leaders may find evidence of the need for integration of newer ICTs as they read participants' comments on the value of seeing as well as hearing one another in ongoing series of communications. When leaders of companies support ICT strategies for teamwork, documentation, and daily social interaction, distance becomes less of a barrier for leaders and workers. Used well, ICT enables development of leader/follower trust relationships.

Individuals and Social Change

Social changes benefiting individuals range from the intangible to the concrete. When trust is a core value, and values are prized in organizations, stakeholders are affected. Enjoyment and satisfaction experienced in working in a values-based culture are acknowledged by many (Bowen, 2018) and followers' preferences have been linked to leaders' LMX characteristics (Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017). When organizations focus on trust and make a visible commitment, individuals seeking employment gain a clearer perspective on the environment they will enter.

As stakeholders, employees and potential hires also engage with organizations as customers, evaluating the organizations' ability to deliver goods and services that are satisfactory. Trust between individuals as customers and the organizations from which they seek goods and services leads to enhanced satisfaction. In a study of customers' perceptions of electronic services, Beldad, de Jong, and Steehouder (2010) found that the individual's level of trust affects the buying decision and the decision to remain a customer. Individuals prefer to feel safe and to trust that others will not cause them harm either as customers as employees.

As with online buying decisions, individuals who work remotely are similarly affected by the need to trust leaders and managers in mixed-design workplaces. Organizations whose representatives maintain a culture of trust are therefore more likely to engage and satisfy individuals, leading to improved wellbeing and work-life balance (Grant et al., 2013). According to participants in this study, stakeholders, leaders, and managers who trust one another feel valued and personally recognized.

Communities and Social Change

Communities represent a collective as defined by sociologists as a separate entity from the individuals within it (Hallahan, 2005). As described by Breidahl, Holtug, and Kongshøj (2018), when members of the community hold shared values, they promote trust and solidarity. Communities in which organizations promote LMX-based trust may experience stronger identity as well as sustainable economic development. In short, when trust in the workplace is evident, communities develops a reputation as economically sound, desirable places to work and live.

Communities in which businesses are headquartered may continue to recruit, grow, and support jobs when leaders and managers can connect with stakeholders who possess required KSAs. However, not all communities include residents with talents needed for its businesses to flourish even when the community is considered a good place to live. Therefore, by supporting MDOs in which trust is strong, managers and leaders may help small communities maintain jobs leading to financial viability locally as well as remotely. This social change is particularly important in Alaska and portions of the Pacific Northwest region of the United States and is clearly illustrated by villages on the Aleutian Islands of Alaska. When small companies can thrive in a village that is connected via ICT to talent worldwide, the village becomes a place for families to stay and work. Many Alaska Native organizations envision strong communities in rural Alaska, and the findings of my study may provide concepts of value to leaders and managers seeking strategies for sustainability by affecting social conditions through building trust in the workplace.

Organizations, Institutions, and Social Change

Trust among stakeholders in the workplace has social change benefit at the organizational and institutional level. Macht and Davis (2018) described trust as a positive habit influencing production of quality products. Consumers respond to quality of products and services (Boonlertvanich, 2019) in both physical and ecommerce transactions and gain an impression of the trustworthiness of organizations. Over time, by building a culture of trust within the organization, leaders and managers create a values-based foundation which is apparent to customers. Business leaders recognize the relationship of customer loyalty and economic behavior (Reiersen, 2018) and may benefit by applying the findings of my study to foster workplace trust. By applying strategies described by participants in my study, leaders and managers may influence social change at the organizational and institutional level as measured by financial performance as well as customer loyalty.

Cultures, Societies, and Social Change

Economic developers discuss sustainability as tangible (Epstein, Buhovac, Elkington, & Leonard, 2017). In Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States, policymakers' discussions often relate to continuation of cultures and societal units such as villages and lifestyles supported by livelihoods. Hacker (2015) described culture as the shared values beliefs that distinguish an organization and noted that change is an ongoing process. Describing how values become features of a culture or society, Schwartz and Sortheix (2018) noted that people seek security and benevolence in their environments. Schwartz and Sortheix related preservation of society to personal choice of cooperative behaviors such as engaging in productive work and holding others as morally equal. Leaders and managers who believe in the tangible relationship between personal choice and sustainability of culture may gain insights from the experience of participants in this study. In addition, leaders and managers may find successful strategies that impact sustainability by nurturing trust.

Recommendations for Action

Leaders and managers who want to strengthen performance, productivity, and other positive outcomes in organizations with mixed-designed working relationships may find the results of my study useful. Leaders and managers who desire to have trust as strong with remote workers as with colocated workers may find my study useful if they are seeking to know how other leaders have achieved results. My recommendations resulting from this study are: (a) align leadership behaviors with company values; (b) develop communications to strengthen team performance and productivity; and (c) remain up to date with changes in ICT, incorporating technologies that enable face-to-face communications regardless of proximity.

Leaders and managers should align their behaviors as a first step in strengthening trust in the workplace. At the organizational level, leaders and managers can act to align LMX behaviors with company values as a means of increasing trust and investing in sustainability. Applying LMX, leaders and managers can improve relationships via attending to employee attitudes, stimulating positive motivation, and guiding successful team interaction (Bauer & Erdogan, 2016). By developing positive and aligned mission, values, and vision statements that communicate the importance of both attitudes and actions, leaders and managers create symbols. Symbols are the manifestation of culture (Foster & Botscharow, 2019). As indicated by participants in my study, referring to the shared values within an organization reinforces the culture’s agreed-upon attitudes and motivation.

The second recommendation is to develop communication patterns with team members using the messages that symbolize an organization's culture, especially its values. According to Ghazinejad, Hussein, and Zidane (2018), leaders and managers administer teams by developing relationships with team members through effective communications. Coto (2017) linked LMX-style communications between leaders and followers, adding that leaders can change communication patterns to affect performance. Participants in my study related their use of listening skills coupled with the communication of shared values to improved trust in their teams. Readers of my study will find examples upon which to model their trust building actions.

As a third recommendation, leaders and managers should adopt new ICTs to reduce the distance of remote stakeholders. Further, leaders and managers should continuously learn about new ICTs, especially those offering face-to-face communications and robust channels of messaging. Participants in my study described the use of video-based tools such as robots, Zoom, and other ICTs, more offerings come to market with regularity. Participants also mentioned tools such as Trello, Slack, and Microsoft Teams for visual collaboration. When leaders and managers adopt and effectively use ICT tools, the team work experience of remote stakeholders is more like that of colocated stakeholders and may be more rewarding to all. Hacker et al. (2019) investigated the relationship of virtuality and team trust, finding that technologies that carried both voice and visual content enabled trust development, especially in initial stages of team formation. Hacker et al. also noted the value in facilitating collaboration and trust building regardless of team member location and that the quality of outcomes increased in teams with high trust. The participants in my study described better performance and productivity in mixed-design teams when ICTs combined sight and sound to reinforce trust among stakeholders.

Leaders and managers in all economic sectors may find value in recommendations drawn from service sector MDOs reviewed in this study. I will communicate with members of the scholarly and business leader populations for interest in findings from my current research when presenting at conferences, in the classroom, and through written publications that will range from blog posts to articles. Both scholars and business leaders may find value in my study as members of both groups engage in leadership and management training. By incorporating aspects of my research, trainers and educators may broaden leadership training to include trust building as a skillset. Managers of MDO teams may find the conclusions useful for training, as well as for identifying tools and skills for incorporating ICTs for trust building.

Initially, I will share the study results with participants by disseminating a summary and an offer to receive the complete document. Then I will write and post results in blogs available to contemporaries in the human resources and executive management fields. For the 2020 Alaska State SHRM conference, I will submit a proposal to present on trust in the workplace. I also will offer a presentation for the Anchorage SHRM organization. I will offer a presentation to the Anchorage Chamber of Commerce Speakers' Bureau and Young Professionals group, as well. I plan to offer a presentation for members of area Rotary Clubs, as Rotarians' interest in values and workplace considerations align well with my topic. For business management students, I will prepare lectures for the classroom and SHRM student chapter meetings and will continue to update these presentations by remaining current with the literature.

Recommendations for Further Research

In this study, I identified three limitations which researchers may wish to reexamine for additional areas of research: (a) participants' choice of either face-to-face or distance interviews, (b) participants' concerns about organizational policies or concerns about confidentiality of information, and (c) participant's geographic limitation to Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States. Future studies in which researchers compare the method of interview (in-person and by distance technology) could be insightful, particularly if mixed-design workplace participants are sought. Some studies that compare the processes of data collection that are face-to-face with telephonic and video conferencing methods should be undertaken to determine if the collection process conflates results, since participants in the current study may have self-selected dependent upon their comfort with ICT.

Participants' concerns for organizational constraints and confidentiality surface in most studies but might present less restriction under other conditions. Participant concerns might present less restriction in studies of mixed-design workplaces at which they were formerly employed. In other studies, researchers could address organizational culture as portrayed in published documents such as mission statements, policies and procedures, and related signs or symbols. Researchers identifying successful and unsuccessful environmental effects on performance, productivity, and innovation could extend the literature that indicates trust is essential to successful outcomes.

Researchers who work without the geographic limitations found in my study may add to the literature by studying the United States as a whole or examining multiple countries or global regions for differences. As the present study was confined to Alaska and the Pacific Northwest region of the United States, other studies should be considered that include participants from this region as well as throughout the United States. In a global study, researchers' focus on cultural norms would be particularly valuable.

Exploring the relationship of managers and leaders with staff and other stakeholders is a limitless area for research. To improve business practices in an era of mixed-design workplaces and the need to develop trust-based cultures regardless of proximity, more research is needed so that successful strategies may be described for adoption by business leaders. One other area of research that could add value would be examination of my research question from the viewpoint of stakeholders in place of managers and leaders. As further study is conducted, researchers will provide business leaders with guidance that managers of staff, contractors, teams, and projects may find beneficial. Additional research may also inform managers and leaders concerning company goals, supporting healthy workplace environments, and improving the wellbeing of communities in which human resource talent resides.

Reflections

My years of experience in personnel and project management included the era of all stakeholders gathering in one building and extended to the era of mixed-design environments. Adjusting from one to another provided me with experiences that bias my understanding of successful strategies for building, nurturing, and repairing trust in both colocated and remote work situations. Additionally, I am a strong advocate of computer and Internet technologies and have enjoyed adoption of tools that have made communications over distance richer and more satisfying. Because I advocate for ICT, my zeal introduces bias, as ICT-oriented managers and leaders may be more attracted to my study as they, too, seek ways of using new technologies to improve outcomes in the workplace, for workers, and in the communities from which they employ talent.

The Walden University faculty's expectations for academic professionalism challenged me to extend myself throughout the program. As a result, my thinking skills were sharpened, as were my attention to detail, focus on clarity in writing, and thoroughness of following concepts throughout long documents as I have developed the study. I found a balance between planning, based on what I projected would take place, and adapting, based on a changing perspective as I completed each step in the process and undertook the next one.

In short, reading short studies and examining even deeper studies of others do not completely prepare one to conduct a study that has academic rigor. Only first-hand experience can produce those skills. I have developed confidence that will allow me to consider research opportunities relating to trust in the workplace and I believe that I now have the critical thinking skills required to perform research independently. Based on interaction with both the participants and professionals in my community who did not participate, I believe I have defined a topic of interest to business leaders and managers and that I can make ongoing contributions by examining trust building strategies from other perspectives.

Conclusion

As workplace design becomes more variable and inclusive of remote locations for stakeholders at both the manager/leader level and the staff level, the challenge to create trust-based working relationships grows. The percentage of persons telecommuting has been growing during the 21st century (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019), and telecommuters are but one type of remote worker. Estimates of remote work expressed in professional business blogs and articles may not be grounded in research, but they convey the state of current business practice. Mixed-design workplaces and remote work are increasing.

Given the fast-paced growth of mixed-design workplaces, trust as an essential factor for commerce has become more difficult to build and maintain. When managers and leaders employ trust building methods that are successful, they may positively influence organizational cultures so that talent retention is increased (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015), performance and productivity are improved (Brown et al., 2015; Musacco, 2000), and innovation is strengthened (Clegg, Unsworth, Epitropaki, & Parker, 2002; Hughes, et al., 2018). Therefore, researchers studying successful models of trust in the missed design workplace may provide the tools needed to recruit and retain productive and innovative talent supporting organizational sustainability.

Participants in this study recounted their experiences in working with personnel both locally and remotely, describing strategies they found successful in nurturing cultures of trust. Participants described interpersonal communications and technologies to which they ascribed benefit. I used LMX as the conceptual framework by which to consider participants' views of ways in which they built and nurtured trust in both local and remote situations. Leaders and managers in MDOs will benefit from employing the tools and strategies described in this study. As managers' and leaders' focus on trust in the workplace matures, their ability to maintain strong working relationships with remote as well as colocated stakeholders will advance. Organizations and institutions, communities, individuals and even society stand to benefit from knowing successful strategies for trust building in the workplace, irrespective of where work takes place.

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Appendix A: Press Release/Poster/Tweets for Recruitment of Participants

PARTICIPANTS NEEDED FOR
RESEARCH IN *Trust in the Workplace*

We are looking for volunteers to take part in a study of
managers; and leaders' observations of trust
in service companies with personnel
in both home office and remote locations

As a participant in this study, you would be asked to:
participate in a short interview regarding development and maintenance of trust
between leaders and individuals who report to leaders. The purpose
is to identify successful practices.

Your participation is **entirely voluntary** and would take up approximately
20 – 30 minutes of your time in one interview with a possible follow-up session of
equal length. By participating in this study, you will help us to
improve leadership training in organizations
with some personnel in local settings while other personnel work remotely.

In appreciation for your time, you will receive
of the results of this study.

To learn more about this study, or to participate in this study,
please contact:

Principal Investigator:
Mary M. Rydesky
Doctoral candidate, Walden University
[redacted]*@waldenu.edu*

This study is supervised by: [redacted]waldenu.edu

This study has been reviewed by the Walden University Research Ethics Board.

Twitter Messages

Tweet 1: Managers, see workplacetrust.com to volunteer for study on Trust in the Workplace

Tweet 2: Interested in trust in the workplace? Managers, participate in a research study! workplacetrust.com

Appendix B: Website Mockup

Appendix C: Initial Call For Participant Interest

Good morning/afternoon. The purpose of my call/email is to invite you to participate in my research about the experiences of managers and leaders who work in organizations with personnel in a home office as well as dispersed (remote/distant) locations. The purpose of my study is to gain a better understanding of developing and maintaining trust in the workplace. I believe that with your service sector experience in the Pacific Northwest and Alaska, you would contribute greatly to the study. Would you have an interest in participating in this research?

The findings of this study may provide future leaders and other stakeholders with better approaches to developing and maintaining trust when personnel are both colocated and distant. I refer to this as mixed design workplace. Many leadership researcher and trainers describe in-person management or virtual management practices, but few address both. As mixed design workplaces increase in number, best practices for mixed design workplace management becomes more valuable. The results of my study would add to the body of knowledge for leadership of modern service industry organizations with both local and distant team members.

In addition to the benefit for leaders and their organizations, results may prompt social change by improving leader-member interactions for all members, thus decreasing the desire for attrition while equalizing the experience of affiliation and value of participation. Understanding of strategies useful for building workplace cultures of trust may lead to fostering working conditions that nurture individuals' well-being, group productivity, and enhanced organizational performance, thereby catalyzing economic growth in their communities as well as increasing job opportunities, higher earnings, and improved quality of life.

If you would be interested in being a part of this study or would like additional information, please reply to this email. Thank you in advance for your consideration.

(signature)
Mary M. Rydesky, doctoral student at Walden University
Anchorage, Alaska
[redacted]waldenu.edu

Appendix D: Interview Protocol

1. Introduction and welcome to participant.
2. Verify consent and signature on form, answer participant's questions.
3. Confirm understanding that interview is being recorded by gaining permission to record.
4. Activate recording device.
5. Repeat my name and participant's name.
6. State start time and purpose of discussion. Thank participant for taking part in the study. Set expectations for length and number of questions.
7. Ask question #1; follow through to final question.
    a. What strategies do you use to build organizational cultures of trust?
    b. How did you identify these strategies to build organizational cultures of trust?
    c. What challenges did you encounter in the implementation of strategies to build organizational cultures of trust locally and virtually?
    d. How did you overcome these challenges?
    e. How do you assess the effectiveness of strategies for how your organizational culture of trust affects performance locally and virtually?
    f. What additional information regarding strategies for building an organizational culture of trust would you like to share?
8. Close interview and discuss member checking with participant with potential timeframe.

9. Thank the participant for interest in the study and offer access to published study if desired.
10. Confirm/offer the participant has contact information for follow up questions and concerns.
11. End session.

Appendix E: Data Analysis Protocol

1. Enter field notes into database on the day of the interview (within 24 hours)
2. Transcribe the recording of the interview (within 24 hours)
3. Code the data for emerging themes (broad coding) and add notes to database
4. Contact participants to review transcripts for accuracy within one week of the interview (transcript review)
5. Communicate my report of findings (broad coding) to the participant within two weeks of interview (member checking)
6. Record changes, additions, or acceptances of Steps 4 and 5
7. Visually and digitally compare interview notes of participants (pattern coding) after three interviews are completed to ascertain common thematic references
8. Continue Step 7 after each additional interview until no new themes appear
    a. Tools for visual check: Tag Crowd and Wordle
    b. Tool for digital check: Dedoose
9. Submit the data to CoMeTS for evaluation when nine interviews are completed, entered by order of interview to assess data saturation
10. Resubmit the data by random entry to control for researcher bias
11. If data saturation is not evident, interview additional participants
12. Compare responses of participants from the same organization
13. Compare responses by organization
14. Review field notes for additional insights
15. Distill data into groups of concepts to refine themes by describing recurrent patterns
16. Create a coherent summary of this exploration
17. Proceed to the writing of the final report

Appendix F: Letters of Permission

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Karolina Pobiedzińska [redacted]@gmail.com>
Wednesday, November 14, 2018 at 11:17 PM
Mary Rydesky
[redacted]

You replied to this message on 11/15/18, 3:13 AM.
This message is flagged for follow up. Start on Wednesday, November 14, 2018. Due by Wednesday, November 14, 2018.

Hello Mary,
Thank you for your email! It's very nice that you found my article interesting.
Of course you can use my results. The quotation you indicated looks OK, you can put it into your work. I will be honored, thank you.

It would be very nice if you would send me a PDF of your thesis when you finish it. I will read with pleasure.

Thank you for your interest, good luck in further work!

Greetings from Poland!
Karolina

czw., 15 lis 2018 o 08:20 Mary Rydesky <[redacted]waldenu.edu> napisał(a):

> Hello,
> I hope your English is better than my ability to use your language! I discovered your article on trust and would like to show your table from pages 233-234 as part of my dissertation/doctoral study. May I have permission? I will show this attribution below the table:
>
> Note: Definitions were collected and published in 2018. Pobiedzińska, K. (2018). The importance of trust management in a virtual organization. *Zeszyty Naukowe Wyższej Szkoły Humanitas Zarządzanie*, *19*, 231-241. doi:10.5604/01.3001.0012.0532
>
> Thank you very much for your excellent work! My study is on Trust in the Workplace and I would be honored to credit you.
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> *Mary M. Rydesky*