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Exploring how Philippine American Nonprofit Leaders Build Trust with their

Staff and Volunteers

A Dissertation by

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Brandman University

Irvine, California

School of Education

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

December 2019

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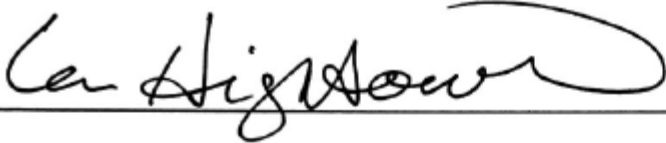
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December 2019

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ABSTRACT

Exploring how Philippine American Nonprofit Leaders Build Trust with their Staff and Volunteers

by Dominic Fernando Laureano

Purpose: Although a considerable amount of literature exists regarding leadership and trust, little research focuses on Philippine American nonprofit organizations and their leadership. The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

Methodology: This phenomenological qualitative study collected data via semi-structured interviews, participant observations, and review of artifacts. The study sample was comprised of 10 Philippine American nonprofit leaders from Southern California. Weisman's Trust Model served as the theoretical framework of the study and guided data collection and analysis. Participant interviews were recorded, transcribed, reviewed, and coded.

Findings: An analysis of the data resulted in the identification of 23 themes referenced 397 times, but unequally distributed across the five domains. Further analysis of the data yielded 12 key findings on how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers.

Conclusions: Based on the literature and findings of this study, it was concluded that the five domains are essential to building trust. Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers by engaging in the following strategies: (a) treat others with respect, provide opportunities for development, promote inclusion, and show

interest in the personal lives of others; (b) demonstrate leadership abilities and foster a collaborative environment; (c) build and maintain personal relationships and participate in shared decision-making; (d) demonstrate vulnerability, invite feedback, and be open and straight forward; and (e) have set processes and procedures for the organization and ensure mutual understanding between members.

Recommendations: Further research on how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust should be conducted with a larger sample size and broader geographic range. Additionally, it is recommended to replicate this study from the perspective of how the staff and volunteers of Philippine American nonprofit organizations build trust with their leaders and compare the differences and similarities in the strategies.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

A crisis of trust exists in today's global community (Darcy, 2010; Edelman, 2017; Eide, 2016; Friedman, 2016). Within the United States, there is a sharp decline of trust across all institutions and organizations (Covey & Merrill, 2006; Hurley, 2006). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) advised the vacuum of trust led to growing interest into the research of trust. Organizations and leaders declared now is the time to rebuild and restore the trust that has been lost (Mishra, 2013). Brower, Lester, and Korsgaard (2017) stated leaders can begin to fulfill the demand for trust by investing their time and effort into building relationships with their followers.

In the last four decades, the importance of trust in leadership was recognized and emphasized in the literature by researchers across several disciplines (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Although the vulnerability of trust can sometimes be uncomfortable for leaders, the more significant threat is to attempt to lead others in environments of distrust (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Lee, 2017; Weisman & Jusino, 2016). When people feel trusted, it creates a positive atmosphere that is beneficial to everyone in the organization (Lee, 2017). There is a demand for leadership to be more trustworthy and to work on creating trusting environments (Lipman, 2017; Llopis, 2012).

Transformational leaders are conscious change agents who encourage trust, have a clear vision, empower followers, and motivate others (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978). The study of authentic leadership and ethical leadership are still new and in their early stages of development (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Monahan, 2012; Northouse, 2016). Nevertheless, they are approaches to leadership that set a moral foundation for trust (Northouse, 2016). Additionally, McGregor's (1957) Theory X and Theory Y

provide a concept of leadership related to trust. Theory X is an interpretation of leadership devoid of trust, whereas Theory Y is a view of leadership that assumes trust (McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992; Triandis, 1984). Carnevale and Wechsler (1992) noted for individuals to trust their organizations, they must believe their organization will treat them fairly, provide support, and foster open communication. The Weisman Trust Model was built on the foundation of shared values that lead to trusting relationships (Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Research on trust and leadership benefits institutions and organizations across all fields and can add to the limited research of leadership within cultural nonprofit organizations (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001, 2002; Lampel, Lant, & Shamsie, 2000). Nonprofit organizations, in general, provide important services to many communities, such as aid to the poor, the aged, the disabled, the sick, and others in society with special needs (Weisbrod, 1988). Hung (2007) and Rosenstein (2006) asserted the main purpose of cultural nonprofit organizations is the preservation and promotion of an ethnic group's culture identity and heritage. As cultural nonprofit organizations provide important services to communities and there is a need for more scholarly research on how Philippine American organizations can succeed, it is essential to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust within their organizations (Hung, 2007; Lardizabal, 2013; Rosenstein, 2006).

Background

In this section, five areas are presented to provide background for the study. First, the decline of trust in organizations is discussed. Second, a general overview of the topics of leadership theory and trust theory are presented. Third, the theoretical framework of

Weisman's Trust Model is reviewed. Fourth, is an overview of nonprofit organizations, followed by specific sections regarding cultural nonprofits and Philippine American nonprofit organizations. Fifth, is a section discussing the gap in the literature regarding the topic of this study.

Decline of Trust in Organizations

A crisis of trust emerged in the global community (Darcy, 2010; Edelman, 2017; Eide, 2016; Friedman, 2016). Covey and Merrill (2006) advised in almost every societal institution, trust is significantly lower than it was a generation ago. Within the United States, a severe decline in trust was experienced within companies and organizations (Covey & Merrill, 2006; Hurley, 2006). According to a 2016 Gallup survey, America's average confidence in institutions is only 32%, and based on data from the Pew Research Center (2014), just 19% of the Millennial generation believe most people can be trusted (Norman, 2016). Brower et al. (2017) stated employees do not feel trusted by their managers, and managers do not feel they can trust their leaders. Mishra (2013) suggested organizations and leaders declared now is the time to rebuild and restore trust.

Researchers confirmed a significantly growing interest in the concept of trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust defines the quality of the organizational workplace, and building trusting environments is essential for an organization to be successful and achieve breakthrough results (Lee, 2017; White, Harvey, & Fox, 2016). According to Burchell and Robin (2011) and Lee (2017), a great workplace is one where the employees trust their leaders. Leaders can begin to fulfill the demand for trust by investing their time and effort into building relationships with their teams (Brower et al., 2017).

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) reported the significance of trust in leadership was recognized by researchers for at least four decades and was emphasized in numerous articles across different disciplines. A leader's every word and action have the potential to affect trust with stakeholders, either positively or negatively (Lee, 2017). The level of trust between leaders and followers can be determined by the quality of their relationships (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Lee, 2017; White et al., 2016).

Trusting others makes people vulnerable and can sometimes be uncomfortable for leaders because they believe they are expected to maintain an image of strength (Lee, 2017). However, when people do not trust their leaders, they hesitate, efficiency goes down, engagement declines, and costs go up (Brower et al., 2017; Burchell & Robin, 2011; Covey & Merrill, 2006). Although a risk exists that trust can be exploited and unappreciated by others, the greater danger is to try to lead distrustful people (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Hurley, 2006; Lee, 2017; Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Trust is reciprocal and when people feel trusted, it creates an environment that benefits everyone in the organization (Brower et al., 2017; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Lee, 2017). Trust brings out the best in people, enhances cooperation, encourages mutual growth, and allows conflicts to be resolved in a more constructive manner (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Covey & Merrill, 2006). In a high-trust workplace, managers lead cohesive teams focused on business objectives, feel respected, and find meaning in their work (Lee, 2017). The positive impacts of trust created a demand for leaders to be more trustworthy and promote environments where people build trusting relationships (Lipman, 2017; Llopis, 2012).

Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership. Northouse (2016) deemed transformational leadership emerged from the writings of James M. Burns and Bernard M. Bass. Transformational leaders are conscious change agents with a clear vision who empower followers, motivate others, and act in ways that encourage trust (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2016). However, as with any approach, Yukl (1999) advised there are strengths and weaknesses to transformational leadership. Some drawbacks of this approach are that it is often chaotic and sometimes seen as elitist and antidemocratic (Northouse, 2016). Transformational leaders are often the primary advocates for change and establish a new vision for the organization, but this can sometimes be perceived as putting himself or herself above followers needs (Northouse, 2016). Despite perceived weaknesses, transformational leadership is considered an important and valuable approach (Aga, Noorderhaven, & Vallejo, 2016; Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Crowley, 2011).

Authentic leadership. Avolio and Gardner (2005) commented authentic leadership is still in the early stages of development. There is not an agreed upon definition for authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Northouse, 2016; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). However, Northouse (2016) asserted it can be conceptualized intrapersonally, developmentally, and interpersonally. B. George (2015) and Walumbwa et al. (2008) suggested authentic leadership combines practical and theoretical approaches that cover four major components: self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing, and relational transparency.

Northouse (2016) described authentic leadership as transparent, morally grounded, and responsive to people's needs and values.

Ethical leadership. Monahan (2012) and Northouse (2016) stated ethical leadership is still fairly new and increasing in relevancy. The increase of unethical behavior in organizations and the decline of trust in institutions led to the rising interest in ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Monahan, 2012). Ethical leadership can help build organizations and societies that value ethical and moral behavior, and characterize ethical leaders as honest, caring, and principled individuals who set clear ethical standards (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Toor & Ofori, 2009). With the growing significance of ethical leadership and need for trust in organizations, there is a strong need for more research to advance leadership understanding (Northouse, 2016).

Culture and leadership. Globalization created a demand for leaders with a greater understanding of cultural diversity and cross-cultural communication (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Northouse, 2016). Organizational leaders with a global mindset are more competitive, productive, and profitable (B. George, 2015). House et al. (2004) identified six global leadership behaviors that could be used to describe how different cultural groups perceive leadership: charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous, and self-protective leadership. Their findings suggested the universally accepted characteristics of an ideal leader are a high degree of integrity, charisma, and interpersonal skill (House et al., 2004).

Trust Theory

Theory X and theory Y. McGregor's (1957) Theory X and Theory Y are theories of human behavior and motivation, and management thinking and practice. Kopelman, Prottas, and Davis (2008) stated Theory X is the assumption employees are lazy, incapable of autonomous behavior, and have little organization or problem-solving skills. Lawter, Kopelman, and Prottas (2015) advised Theory Y is the more positive view that employees experience motivation, are capable of self-direction, and can make important intellectual contributions to their work. Theory X is an interpretation of leadership devoid of trust (Triandis, 1984), whereas Theory Y is a view of leadership that assumes trust and motivates people (McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992).

Interpersonal trust. Over five decades of literature on interpersonal trust provided researchers and organizational scholars the opportunity to better understand the dynamics of cooperation, competition, and conflict (Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006). Interpersonal trust is defined as the belief held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal, or written statement of another individual or group is dependable and can be relied upon (Dirks, 1999; Rotter, 1967). Lewicki et al. (2006) stated interpersonal trust is a variable affecting all levels of human relationships and merits more investigation to gain a richer understanding.

Organizational trust. Driscoll (1978) and R. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) stated organizational trust is the willingness of an individual or group to be vulnerable to the decision-making system of another individual or group on the expectation preferred outcomes will be performed even if no influence is exerted on the system. However, for individuals to trust the organization, they must be confident the

organization will treat them fairly, provide support, and encourage open communication (Carnevale & Wechsler, 1992). Manager and employee perceptions of how ethical or unethical an organization's environment directly relates to their trust or mistrust in the organization (Hough, Green, & Plumlee, 2015). Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis, and Winograd (2000) noted several research studies showed organizations with high levels of trust were more successful, adaptive, and innovative than organizations with low levels of trust.

Weisman trust model. The Weisman Trust Model was built on the foundation of shared values (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Weisman and Jusino (2016) stated organizations build trust and relationships through shared values demonstrating a purpose beyond the bottom line. The Weisman Trust Model presents five elements of trust: competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). The nature of the model is an ascending pyramid with a base level (competence and consistency), middle level (concern and candor), and the top level of connection. Weisman (2010a) defined trust as an individuals' willingness, given their culture and communication behaviors in relationships and transactions, to be appropriately vulnerable based on the belief another individual, group, or organization is competent, open and honest, concerned, and reliable, with common values and goals.

Trust and nonprofits. Trust is central to the performance and success of all organizations (Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, Shleifer, & Vishny, 1996; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). Greiling (2007) further specified trust is of critical importance to nonprofit organizations. It is essential for the leadership of nonprofit organizations to effectively communicate and build trust in their organizations (Kearns, Livingston, Scherer, & McShane, 2015; Reid & Turbide, 2012). Kearns et al. (2015) stated nonprofit leaders

spend a vast amount of time and effort into building trust with organizational stakeholders.

Nonprofit organizations. Weisbrod (1988) stated the nonprofit sector provides important services and aid to the poor, aged, disabled, sick, and others in society with special needs. Organizations such as the American Red Cross and Red Crescent Society assist around 284 million people each year (Global Red Cross Network, n.d.). Additionally, nonprofits serve as a platform for people with a sense of social responsibility who want to give back to their communities. Ban, Drahnak-Faller, and Towers (2003) advised individuals who choose to work or volunteer for nonprofit organizations are usually motivated by a sense of public service.

The National Center for Charitable Statistics (NCCS) divides nonprofit organizations into three major categories: public charities, private foundations, and other exempt organizations. Public charities serve broad public services and provide beneficial public activities. The Internal Revenue Service (IRS) and NCCS further categorize public charities by a National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) code that defines the organization's activity or purpose. NTEE code A (arts, culture, & humanities) is one of 26 major NTEE codes of the IRS. Cultural nonprofit organizations subdivided under A codes A20 to A29. Some examples include A20 – arts & culture, A23 – cultural & ethnic awareness, and A24 – folk arts.

Cultural nonprofit organizations. Hung (2007) stated cultural nonprofits date back to the 1940s, but many were formed in the last three decades because of the increase in openness and acceptance in America. The primary purpose of cultural nonprofit organizations is the preservation and promotion of an ethnic group's cultural identity and

heritage (Hung, 2007; Rosenstein, 2006). Rosenstein (2006) stated cultural heritage organizations benefit youth, elders, immigrants, ethnic groups, neighborhoods, towns, and cities. However, despite their importance and increasing presence, many cultural groups are small with limited resources (Rosenstein, 2006)

Although trust was determined to be an important factor for organizational success (Porta et al., 1996), Shockley-Zalabak et al. (2000) asserted additional research is needed to further refine the dimensions of trust with the more complex conceptions of culture. More national cultures, including less western-oriented cultures, need to be added to the body of research concerning trust to develop a deeper understanding (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). Asian American communities focused on maintaining their culture and heritage by forming several nonprofit cultural organizations (Hung, 2007).

Philippine nonprofit organizations. Lampel et al. (2000) stated there is limited research on leadership and management in cultural nonprofit organizations. Within Philippine American communities, Lardizabal (2013) stated there is limited scholarly research available. Filipino American organizations that achieved success should document and share how they succeeded to advance the field of Filipino American studies and help other communities (Lardizabal, 2013).

Statement of the Research Problem

Trust affects the quality of every communication, interaction, and relationship (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Lee, 2017). However, despite its importance, trust experienced tremendous decline in the United States and across the globe (Darcy, 2010; Edelman, 2017; Eide, 2016; Friedman, 2016; Hurley, 2006). In almost every societal institution, trust is significantly lower than it was a generation ago

(Covey & Merrill, 2006). Furthermore, Edelman's (2017) Trust Barometer revealed the largest-ever drop in trust across institutions. Several organizations and leaders declared now is the time to rebuild and restore the trust (Mishra, 2013).

Researchers demonstrated a growing interest in the concept of trust and recognized the importance of trust in leadership (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Several benefits emerged among leaders who developed and supported a trusting organizational environment (Lee, 2017). Burchell and Robin (2011) advised team members who trust one another are more likely to encourage mutual growth, seek win-win resolutions, and resolve conflicts in a constructive manner. Furthermore, employees feel respected and valued, and find meaning in their work (Lee, 2017).

Kearns et al. (2015) and Reid and Turbide (2012) stated it is critical for leaders of nonprofit organizations to build trust with their stakeholders. Nonprofit organizations provide vital services to communities and trust is an essential factor allowing nonprofits to succeed and continue to serve society (Greiling, 2007; Weisbrod, 1988). However, despite the importance of trust to organizational success, there is limited research on trust and cultural organizations, particularly less western-oriented cultures (Porta et al., 1996; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000).

The 2010 Census stated Philippine Americans were the second largest group within the Asian American community (Hoeffel, Rastogi, Kim, & Shahid, 2012). As such, Lampel et al. (2000) stated there is a need for more research on leadership and Philippine American nonprofit organizations. Dela Cruz (2016) also asserted the distinct lack of studies from the Filipino American leadership perspective and cited a need for more research on Philippine American leaders.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

Research Questions

This study was guided by one central research question and five sub-questions. The central research question was: How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection? The five sub-questions were:

1. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using competence?
2. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using consistency?
3. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using concern?
4. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using candor?
5. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using connection?

Significance of the Problem

Trust affects the quality of every relationship, communication, project, and effort between groups and individuals (Covey & Merrill, 2006; Lee, 2017). Despite its importance, companies and organizations experienced a sharp decline in trust (Hurley,

2006). Organizations and leaders acknowledged the crisis of trust and affirmed now is the time to restore trust (Mishra, 2013). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found a growing interest in the field of trust. Furthermore, there is an increasing demand for leaders to be more trustworthy and foster environments of trust (Lipman, 2017; Llopis, 2012).

The importance of trust in leadership was recognized by researchers and highlighted in the literature of several other disciplines (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). When people feel trusted, it creates a positive environment benefiting everyone in the organization (Lee, 2017). Regarding nonprofit organizations, Kearns et al. (2015) and Reid and Turbide (2012) stated it is essential for nonprofit leaders to effectively communicate and build trust. Additionally, Shockley-Zalabak et al. (2000) advised there is a need for more research on trust in organizations with non-western oriented cultures.

To maintain and preserve cultural heritage, Asian American communities formed numerous cultural nonprofit organizations (Hung, 2007). Hung and Ong (2012) asserted Asian American nonprofits experienced rapid growth within the last two decades and noted the need for research on the sustainability and success of these organizations. Within the Asian American community, Filipino was the second largest Asian group with a population of 3.4 million (Hoeffel et al., 2012). Despite their large population, limited research exists on Philippine American organizations and there is a need for future research on how Philippine American nonprofits can be successful (Lardizabal, 2013).

Dinosa (2012) advised when there is trust between the Philippine American community and the general community, it increases morale and levels of confidence, and provides a greater chance to receive government grants and recognition by government officials, which would greatly benefit the Philippine American community. A

phenomenological study exploring how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers can help to provide additional scholarly research within the limited body of Philippine American leadership literature, and assist Philippine American nonprofit leaders to build and maintain successful organizations through trusting relationships.

Definitions

The following definitions were used in this study.

Asian American Community. Asian American, or Americans of Asian descent, refers to a person with origins from the Far East, Southeast Asia, or Indian subcontinent, including Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam (Hoeffel et al., 2012).

Candor. Candor involves communicating information in a precise manner and being truthful even if one does not want to provide such information (Gordon & Gilley, 2012; O’Toole & Bennis, 2009; Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Competence. Competence is the ability to perform a task or fulfill a role as expected (Covey, 2009; Farnsworth, 2015; Handford & Leithwood, 2013; Tschannen-Moran, 2014).

Concern. Concern is the value placed on the well-being of all members of an organization, promoting their welfare at work and empathizing with their needs. Concern entails fostering a collaborative and safe environment where leaders and members can show their vulnerability and support, motivate, and care for each other (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Livnat, 2004; Weisman, 2010a).

Connection. Connection is a shared link or bond with a sense of emotional engagement and interrelatedness (Sloan & Oliver, 2013; Stovall & Baker, 2010; White et al., 2016).

Consistency. Consistency is the confidence a person's pattern of behavior is reliable, dependable, and steadfast (Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

National Center for Charitable Statistics (NCCS). NCCS is the most comprehensive national database on nonprofit public charities. NCCS establishes a basis for measuring the size and scope of cultural heritage organizations that can be used to assess their growth and financial health (Rosenstein, 2006).

National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) Code. NTEE was developed by NCCS with collaboration of major nonprofit organizations during the 1980s and adopted by the IRS in the mid-1990s to classify nonprofit organizations.

Philippine American Nonprofit Organization. Philippine American nonprofit organizations include Filipino community cultural and arts centers, ethnic and cultural awareness organizations, festivals, and other organizations serving Philippine American interests. They primarily focus on preserving and promoting cultural traditions through a broad range of cultural, educational, and human service activities (Rosenstein, 2006).

Delimitations

This study was delimited to Philippine American nonprofit leaders over 21 years of age and served in a leadership role for a Philippine American nonprofit organization in southern California for a minimum of three years.

Organization of the Study

The remaining sections of the study are organized into four additional chapters, references, and appendices. Chapter II includes a comprehensive literature review related to the need for trust in organizations, leadership theory, trust theory, the Weisman Trust Model, and Philippine American nonprofit organizations. Chapter III describes the research design, methodology, population, sample, data gathering procedures, and data analysis procedures. Chapter IV examines and analyzes the data for trends and patterns. Chapter V presents the summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the relevant literature related to the study. The review of the literature is divided into five sections. The first section examines the crisis of trust and the need for trust in communities and organizations. The second section details various leadership theories including how they address the topic of trust. The third section discusses the theme of trust and the theoretical framework of the study, including the Weisman Trust Model. The fourth section looks at nonprofit organizations and the different types of nonprofit organizations in the United States. The final section explores Philippine American nonprofit leaders in the context of trust.

Crisis of Trust

Trust in the global community has declined (Darcy, 2010; Edelman, 2017; Eide, 2016; Friedman, 2016). With trust impacting the quality of every communication, interaction, and relationship, it is essential to review the decline of trust, the demand and recognition of trust, and how trust impacts leadership (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Lee, 2017). The following section reviews pertinent research on these topics.

Decline of Trust

Since Edelman's first annual trust and credibility survey conducted in 2000, the 2017 Edelman Trust Barometer revealed the greatest decline in trust across institutions of government, business, media, and nongovernment organizations (Edelman, 2017). Covey and Merrill (2006) advised in almost every societal institution, trust was significantly lower than it was a generation ago. According to Eide (2016), the cohesion and trust between countries and societies in the global community is under threat.

Trust in the global community. Edelman (2017) stated the implications of the world-wide trust crisis are deep and widespread; half the countries surveyed lost trust in their institutions and systems. In Latin American countries such as Colombia, Brazil, Ecuador, and Peru, fewer than 10% believed people could be trusted (Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2017). In European countries, trust in their political systems was far lower than interpersonal trust between people (Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2017). Liu, Milojevic, Zúñiga, and Zhang (2018) posited low trust was associated with countries that had low participation in political discussion and thinking, low community engagement, more prejudice tendencies, and low participation in elections.

Trust levels in governments across the globe are at an all-time low of 41% and trust in government leaders themselves is even lower at 29% (Edelman, 2017). Events such as America's 2016 presidential election, Britain's vote to exit the European Union, and Italy's failed referendum worsened the doubt and mistrust in governments (Edelman, 2017; Friedman, 2018). Distrust was further exacerbated by the emergence of news and social media echo chambers that reinforced personal beliefs in a closed system that shut out opposing views and opinions (Edelman, 2017).

In addition to political and social impact, countries with low levels of trust have more financial regulations, lower economic growth, and high-income inequality (Ortiz-Ospina & Roser, 2017; Swanson, 2016). According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2011), countries with higher household incomes were strongly associated with countries with higher trust levels. However, they also found the United States had lower than expected trust rates given its high household income.

Trust in the United States. Failing levels of trust in the United States make Americans more divided than ever before (Swanson, 2016). Morgan (2014) stated the deep decline in trust affected all Americans differently. The Pew Research Center (2014) found only 19% of Millennials believed most people could be trusted, compared to 31% for Generation X, 37% for the Silent Generation, and 40% of the Baby Boomers. Despite some variability in the age ranges of generations, the Silent Generation was born between 1930-1945, Baby Boomers between 1946-1964, Generation X between 1965-1977, and Millennials between 1977-1994 (Williams & Page, 2011).

Americans' trust in the United States government and politicians is at an all-time low (C.K., 2017). The Pew Research Center (2017) reported only 15% of the United States population believed they could trust the government to do what was right most of the time. Politicians failed to deliver on their promises and show they are working in the best interests of their voters (C.K., 2017). The falling levels of trust made it difficult for Republican and Democratic politicians to agree or cooperate on public policy and they are more polarized than ever before (Swanson, 2016).

The same sentiment of distrust is also impacting the United States media (Edelman, 2017; Friedman, 2018). Edelman (2017) found the American people now view the media as a less credible source of information and rely more heavily on the news they receive from peers. Most Americans claim it is becoming harder to discern the boundaries between fact, opinion, and misinformation (Friedman, 2018). However, the severe decline of trust is not just in the government and media; distrust extends to many institutions and organizations (Covey & Merrill, 2006; Hurley, 2006; Norman, 2016).

Trust in organizations. Americans' confidence in their nation's organizations continues to fall below historical averages and remained low since 2007 (Norman, 2016). Employees do not feel trusted by their managers and managers do not feel they can trust their leaders (Brower et al., 2017; Hurley, 2006; Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Lipman (2017) stated lack of trust in leadership was the largest indicator of poor workplace performance. Distrust in management also led to increased turnover as employees left their managers (Lee, 2017).

Despite broad distrust in businesses and organizations, higher expectations to do better promoting trust remains (Harrington, 2017). Trust is a critical component of leadership and American organizations need positive role models to jump-start the restoration of trust (Morgan, 2014; Sutherland & Yoshida, 2015). Many leaders declared that now is the time to restore trust (Mishra, 2013).

Demand for Trust

The severe trust deficit led to a significantly growing interest in the concept of trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). As people and organizations become less trusting and more exposed to the negative effects of a distrustful environment, there is greater need for a resolution (Swanson, 2016). An organization with low trust often experiences wide-ranging disfunction, redundancy, turnover, bureaucracy, disengagement, and fraud (Covey & Conant, 2016). Tan and Lim (2009) and Mishra (2013) warned coworkers who do not perceive their organization or leaders to be trustworthy tend to affect other employees so they distrust in a similar manner. Gordon and Gilley (2012) also cautioned leaders to be mindful when attempting to build trust with their employees, because if leaders are insincere in their attempt to develop trust, it furthers the extent of distrust.

White et al. (2016) advised the high-stakes environments in which people live and work make building and developing trust crucial. As a leader's every word and action has the potential to affect trust, positively or negatively, leaders must be trustworthy and create environments that encourage and foster trust (Lee, 2017; Lipman, 2017; Llopis, 2012).

Importance of Trust

Trust is important because it brings out the best in people, enhances cooperation, encourages mutual growth, and allows conflicts to be resolved in a more constructive manner (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Covey & Merrill, 2006). Leaders can begin to fulfill the demand for trust by investing their time and effort into building genuine relationships with their teams (Brower et al., 2017). When people feel trusted, it creates a positive organizational environment that benefits everyone and allows the organization to be successful and achieve breakthrough results (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Lee, 2017; White et al., 2016).

When the levels of trust increase in an organization, speed and efficiency go up and costs go down (Covey & Merrill, 2006). R. Mayer and Gavin (2005) advised when employees trust their managers, they are less distracted and able to focus attention on productive output. However, it is important to note a lack of distractions does not guarantee employee performance, which is also influenced by factors such as knowledge, skill, ability, motivation, and organizational support (R. Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Nevertheless, it is still in the best interest of the organization to create and promote environments where employees trust their supervisors (Brower et al., 2017).

Given trust is reciprocal, the best way for supervisors to gain the trust of their employees is to show they trust their employees (Brower et al., 2017; Covey, 2009). Lee (2017) noted it is unlikely for employees to make the first move to trust their manager; it is up to the manager to have the courage, humility, openness, and willingness to trust first. When supervisors trust their employees, they are also more efficient because they have fewer challenges and issues to mitigate (R. Mayer & Gavin, 2005). In a high-trust workplace, managers lead cohesive teams focused on business objectives, feel respected, and find meaning in their work (Lee, 2017). Martin (1999) emphasized trust is the root of all great leadership and one means little without the other.

Trust and Leadership

In the last four decades, the importance of trust in leadership was recognized and emphasized in the literature by academics and researchers across several disciplines (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Burchell and Robin (2011) and Lee (2017) asserted a great workplace is one where employees trust the leaders of the organization. Asencio and Mujkic (2016) stated trust in leadership is faith in intentions and confidence in the actions of the leader. The level of trust between leaders and their followers is determined by the quality of their relationships (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Lee, 2017; White et al., 2016).

Trust, an important factor in successful leadership, must be earned and done so in social context (Gordon, Gilley, Avery, Gilley, & Barber, 2014). However, trusting others can sometimes be uncomfortable for leaders because it requires vulnerability (Gordon & Gilley, 2012; Sutherland & Yoshida, 2015). Many leaders believe they are expected to maintain an image of strength and are concerned their trust may be abused, manipulated,

or unacknowledged (Lee, 2017). Nevertheless, the literature showed leading others in an environment void of trust was a more significant threat to everyone involved (Burchell & Robin, 2011; Hurley, 2006; Lee, 2017; Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Trust requires the leader to influence followers by understanding and appreciating their value systems to build trust and develop genuine personal relationships (Martin, 1999).

Leadership Theory

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is one of the most prominent theories of organizational behavior in the last 30 years (Wright, Moynihan, & Pandey, 2012). Northouse (2016) said transformational leadership emerged from the writings of James M. Burns and Bernard M. Bass and was further studied and expanded upon by academics and researchers. Transformational leaders are conscious change agents with a clear vision who empower followers, motivate others, and act in ways that encourage trust (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978). Although different instruments are used to measure transformational leadership, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is the most widely used tool (Northouse, 2016).

Kieres and Gutmore (2014) noted the MLQ contains seven leadership factors; the first four factors are considered the aspects of transformational leadership, the following two are components of transactional leadership, and final element is laissez-faire leadership. The four factors of transformational leadership are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006). See Figure 1 for the seven MLQ leadership factors.

Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-Faire Leadership
Factor 1 Idealized influence Charisma	Factor 5 Contingent reward Constructive transactions	Factor 7 Laissez-faire Nontransactional
Factor 2 Inspirational motivation	Factor 6 Management-by-exception Active and passive Corrective transactions	
Factor 3 Intellectual stimulation		
Factor 4 Individualized consideration		

Figure 1. List of MLQ leadership factors. Source: Adapted from Northouse (2016).

As with any approach, Yukl (1999) advised there are strengths and weaknesses to transformational leadership. Transformational leaders inspire trust in their followers and encourage employees to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the organization (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Wright et al., 2012). Additionally, Kieres and Gutmore (2014) stated transformational leadership is associated with creativity, productivity, and commitment, and continues to evolve as it is applied and studied. However, it is important to understand the transformational approach is an experience that is challenging, messy, and chaotic, and requires intense dedication (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Hicks & Given, 2013).

Hicks and Given (2013) identified critiques regarding transformational leadership. Some drawbacks of this approach are its lack of conceptual clarity and it is sometimes seen as elitist and undemocratic. Northouse (2016) explained transformational leadership covers a wide range of activities and characteristics, including creating a vision, motivating, being a change agent, building trust, giving nurturance, and acting as a social

architect. Additionally, Northouse (2016) stated “transformational leaders often play a direct role in creating changes, establishing a vision, and advocating new directions, this gives the strong impression that the leader is acting independently of followers or putting himself or herself above the followers’ needs” (p. 179). Antonakis (2012) cautioned despite evidence transformational leadership is associated with positive outcomes, researchers have yet to established whether transformational leaders can transform individuals and organizations.

Despite perceived weaknesses, transformational leadership is considered an important and valuable approach (Aga et al., 2016; Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Crowley, 2011). Transformational leadership continues to develop and evolve as it is applied and studied in various organizational settings (Kieras & Gutmore, 2014). Asencio and Mujkic (2016) claimed when leaders display transformational leadership behaviors, it encourages their followers to develop trust in them.

Authentic Leadership

Interest in authentic leadership has grown since the early 2000s (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005). Duncan, Green, Gergen, and Ecung (2017) asserted authentic leadership gained widespread attention and continues to be studied and developed. Scholars who research authentic leadership believe the rise in corporate scandals and deceitful management practices motivated the interest in the authentic leadership (Cooper et al., 2005; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2016).

Avolio and Gardner (2005) and Walumbwa et al. (2008) stated no agreed upon definition for authentic leadership exists. However, Northouse (2016) noted authentic leadership can be conceptualized intrapersonally, developmentally, and interpersonally.

The intrapersonal perspective focuses on the leader and his or her deep sense of self, knowledge, values, and beliefs (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The interpersonal perspective emphasizes the collective process between leaders and followers (Walumbwa et al., 2008). The developmental perspective claims major components of authentic leadership are developed over a lifetime through major life events (B. George, 2015; Shamira & Eilam, 2005).

Both positive and negative features of authentic leadership appear in the literature (Northouse, 2016). Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005) found authentic leadership positively influences self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors in both leaders and followers, and it encourages self-development and personal growth. Leroy, Palanski, and Simons (2012) posited authentic leadership is related to leaders who remain true to themselves in terms of behaviors, are open to non-defensive interactions with others, are perceived as reliable, and are true to their word. However, the concept of authentic leadership is still considered in its early stages of development and requires more evidence showing how it is related to positive organizational outcomes (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Northouse, 2016).

In summary, authentic leadership is an up-an- coming area of research arising from society's need for positive and moral leadership (Hoch et al., 2016). Cianci, Hannah, Roberts, and Tsakumis (2014) cautioned modern organizations are complex environments with performance pressures and high incentives that come with moral and ethical temptations. Authentic leadership encourages and supports leaders to act in accordance with their values and build credibility to earn the respect and trust of their followers (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership, like authentic leadership, is a new construct increasing in relevance (Monahan, 2012). Researchers defined ethical leadership in different ways (G. Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan, & Prussia, 2013). However, many studies refer to Brown, Treviño, and Harrison's (2005) definition (Hoch et al., 2016; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Brown et al. (2005) defined ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (p. 120).

The moral person and the moral manager are two key elements of ethical leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008). D. Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, and Kuenzi (2012) asserted being an ethical example, being trustworthy, and treating others fairly are the moral person component. Brown and Treviño (2006) stated the moral manager aspect involves leaders making ethics an explicit part of their leadership by communicating an ethics value message and intentionally modeling ethical behavior.

The corporate world gained the most attention for ethical transgressions and is one of primary reasons for the rising interest in ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Darcy, 2010; Marcy, Gentry, & McKinnon, 2008; Monahan, 2012). To implement effective ethics and prevent unethical behavior in organizations, managers need to understand the ethical quality of the organizational environment (Kaptein, Huberts, Avelino, & Lasthuizen, 2005). Furthermore, Brown and Treviño (2006) advised leaders

need to communicate with their followers about ethics, create clear ethical guidelines, and use rewards and reprimands to ensure standards are followed.

Ethical leadership can have positive effects in an organization. Piccolo et al. (2010) posited ethical leadership was associated with greater task performance, positive follower behavior, increased productivity, and improved job autonomy. D. Mayer et al. (2012) stated ethical leadership can encourage people in the organization to relate to one another in more supportive, respectful, and fair ways. The findings from Toor and Ofori's (2009) study showed when a positive organizational environment is in concert with ethical leadership, it is more likely to produce greater leader effectiveness and increase satisfaction of employees with the leader.

On the negative side, Northouse (2016) stated the research on ethical leadership is primarily descriptive and anecdotal, so it lacks the empirical support that usually accompanies human theories of behavior. Additionally, as ethical leadership is still fairly new, few studies have directly examined the relationship between ethical leadership and ethical outcomes (D. Mayer et al., 2012). Monahan (2012) found many undefined gray areas that exist within ethical leadership, but also acknowledged new opportunities continue to grow the field of ethical leadership as several leading organizations devote time and resources to the development of the research.

Culture and Leadership

Businesses and organizations of the world are going global, and despite recent economic challenges throughout the world, the degree of globalization continues unabated (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Youssef & Luthans, 2012). The past 50 years of international business research saw an extraordinary evolution in cross-cultural

understanding (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016). Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) asserted globally competent leaders are essential to compete and succeed internationally. Globalization created the need to understand how cultural differences impact leadership and how leaders can become competent in cross-cultural awareness (Northouse, 2016). Youssef and Luthans (2012) stated cross-cultural differences presented leaders, followers, and organizations with distinct cultural challenges, both globally and locally.

No generally agreed upon definition of culture exists (Jahoda, 2012). However, the conceptualization of culture most widely accepted by the fields of anthropology and sociology is the customs, values, norms, symbols, behaviors, and commonly shared beliefs of a certain group of people (Northouse, 2016; Waterbury, 1993). Waterbury (1993) advised caution with this definition of culture because although it is expedient for the benevolent-minded, it can also be used to disparage groups of people through vulgar stereotypes. Nevertheless, society cannot abandon the term culture because it is ingrained in the common English vocabulary (Jahoda, 2012). Moua (2010) stated people must be aware of how assumptions about the world influences behavior and shapes attitudes.

Culture was the focus of several studies and in the past 30 years, a significant amount of research focused on methods to identify and classify dimensions of culture (Northouse, 2016). In the specific area of culture and leadership, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project found nine core dimensions of culture exist in different societies and six global leadership behaviors show how different groups perceive leadership (House et al., 2004). The six leadership behaviors are charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane-oriented, autonomous, and self-protective (Moua, 2010). Charismatic/value-based behavior is the ability to

inspire and motivate others based on strongly held core values; team-orientation behavior emphasizes teambuilding and common purpose among team members; participative behavior is the degree to which leaders involve others in decision-making and implementation; humane-oriented behavior highlights being supportive, considerate, compassionate, and generous; autonomous behavior refers to being individualistic, independent, and unique; and self-protective behavior is the capacity to ensure the safety and security of the group (Northouse, 2016).

Takahashi, Ishikawa, and Kanai (2012) had difficulty with the major notions of leadership as many were largely developed from the American perspective. Jung and Avolio (1999) cautioned leaders from assuming the same leadership behaviors will be interpreted similarly by followers with different cultural orientations. Based on an analysis of leadership theories and studies conducted in Japan, Takahashi et al. (2012) asserted Asian leadership practices often differ from the styles practiced widely in Western cultures. Leadership within Asian countries is thought to be influenced by communal relationships characterized by concern for one another's welfare, needs, and interests (Takahashi et al., 2012). However, a substantial amount of cultural diversity between Asian countries exists (Linden, 2012). The GLOBE project has three regional country clusters for Asia: Southern Asia, Confucian Asia, and Middle East (House et al., 2004). Southern Asian countries believe effective leaders are collaborative, inspirational, sensitive to people's needs, and concerned with status and saving face; Confucian Asian countries describe a leader as self-protective, team oriented, humane oriented, and concerned with status; Middle Eastern countries find attributes such as status and saving face important to leadership (Northouse, 2016).

Steers, Sanchez-Runde, and Nardon (2012) defined three contemporary approaches to leadership (universal, contingency, and normative), and the GLOBE project is a fitting example of the contingency approach. Culturally contingent leadership is the assumption cultures differ on specific leadership characteristics given different approaches in their conceptions of the leadership construct (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012). The universal approach considers leadership generalizable behavior regardless of cultural context, and the normative approach assumes a certain set of leadership traits common to all leaders regardless of location (Steers et al., 2012).

There is much to learn and debate regarding the concept of culture and leadership (Mendenhall, Reiche, Bird, & Osland, 2012). Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) encouraged businesses and organizations to build the pipeline of global leaders. Over the long term, organizations managed by leaders effective in cross-cultural awareness will be more competitive, productive, more profitable (B. George, 2015; Ramsey, Rutti, Lorenz, Barakat, & Sant'anna, 2017).

Trust Theory

Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X and Theory Y (Theory X/Y) were developed by social psychologist Douglas McGregor (1957) at the Sloan School of Management of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Hattangadi, 2014). McGregor's (1957) conceptualization of Theory X/Y influenced management practices for close to six decades and is one of the most well-known theories in organizational behavior (Carson, 2005; Lawter et al., 2015; Prottas & Nummelin, 2018). Prottas and Nummelin (2018) stated Theory X/Y's

popularity was likely related to its relative simplicity and emergence during positive psychology's ascendance.

Theory X managers believe employees are generally lazy, untrustworthy, incapable of autonomous behavior, disinclined to work, have little or no problem-solving skills, and lack the ability nor desire to contribute to organizational success (Kopelman et al., 2008; Prottas & Nummelin, 2018). Conversely, Theory Y managers assume employees have an instinctual motivation to perform, are capable of self-direction, hold themselves accountable, have the ability to make important decisions, and value organizational effectiveness and success (Lawter et al., 2015; Russ, 2011). Although Theory X is often considered the pessimistic leadership style, researchers assert it survived and thrived in some companies, organizations, and industries (Carson, 2005; Kopelman et al., 2012). McGregor (1957) and Kopelman et al. (2008) also acknowledged Theory Y will not be appropriate in all situations.

Many studies on Theory X/Y indicated there is not one best management approach; rather, the best approach depends on the nature of the work and the organizational environment (Hattangadi, 2014; Kopelman et al., 2008). Additionally, Russ (2011) stated Theory X/Y are not mutually exclusive and it is possible for managers to exhibit behaviors, attitudes, and assumptions of both polarities. Further research on Theory X/Y may address the process by which employees evaluate and make assumptions about their managers and the extent to which attributions influence their managers leadership style.

Interpersonal Trust

Interpersonal trust is commonly cited as one of the hallmarks of an effective human relationship (Dirks, 1999). Over five decades of literature on interpersonal trust provided researchers and organizational scholars the opportunity to better understand the dynamics of cooperation, competition, and conflict (Lewicki et al., 2006). Borum (2010) commented interpersonal trust was defined in a variety of ways by different researchers across academic fields, but most researchers agreed trust is a combination of mainly cognitive and affective factors.

Borum (2010) defined interpersonal trust as the “willingness to accept vulnerability or risk based on confident expectations regarding another person’s behavior” (p. 1). Similarly, Dirks (1999) and Rotter (1967) defined interpersonal trust as the belief held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal, or written statement of another individual or group is dependable and can be relied upon. Rotter (1967) developed the Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS) to measure the expectancy that the word, promise, or statement of another individual or group could be relied upon. ITS consists of 25 items measuring interpersonal trust in specific groups and trust in people in general (Evans, 2016).

Age, education, and gender are demographic characteristics with inconsistent impact on levels of interpersonal trust (Rotter & Stein, 1971). Evans, Athenstaedt, and Krueger (2013) and Yamagishi et al. (2015) asserted children develop interpersonal trust as they get older and it remains fairly stable throughout their adulthood. Conversely, social groups, family, socioeconomic level, and religious organizations related to interpersonal trust levels (Rotter, 1967). For example, Rodriguez-Bailon et al. (2017)

found individuals in a higher socioeconomic level are more likely to trust the status quo, whereas individuals from a lower socioeconomic class are expectedly less trusting of current economic conditions.

Interpersonal trust is complicated, but it is essential to individuals, groups, and organizations that operate in society's complex and dynamic human environment (Borum, 2010). Lewicki et al. (2006) posited high-trust relationships mature as both parties develop a pooled interdependence and pursue joint objectives, which facilitates the growth of the relationship and richer facets of communication. Interpersonal trust is associated with positive outcomes such as nudging competitors toward becoming allies, but betrayal can also lead friends to become adversaries (Borum, 2010; Evans, 2016).

Rotter (1980) stated interpersonal trust is a variable affecting all levels of human relationships and merits more investigation to gain a deeper understanding. Borum (2010) advised it is unlikely researchers will find just one thing – biologically, psychologically, socially, or technologically – that will fully explain interpersonal trust. A phenomenon as complex as trust requires theory and research methodology reflecting trust's many facets and levels (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998).

Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman Trust Model

R. Mayer et al. (1995) found limited research in management literature focusing on trust. When creating their trust model (shown in figure 2), their goal was to integrate different bodies of literature about trust, including psychology, philosophy, economics, and management (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). Their model made an impact in several more disciplines and is cited in areas such as marketing, accounting, finance, economics, information systems, industrial engineering, political science,

communications, ethics, law, sociology, healthcare, and agribusiness. R. Mayer et al. (1995) stated ability, benevolence, and integrity were the three factors of trustworthiness and defined 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)

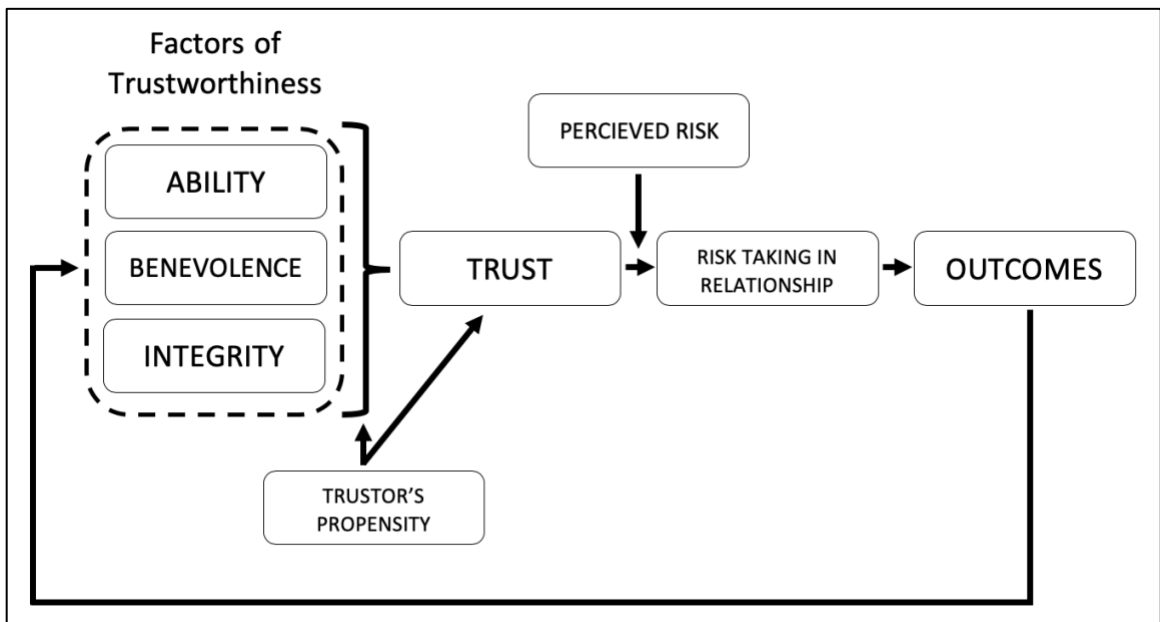


Figure 2. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman's (1995) Trust Model.

Trust is the intention to a take risk and the outcome is actually taking the risk (R. Mayer & Gavin, 2005). The model includes a feedback loop that shows the favorability of the outcomes will cause the trustor to revise and inform prior perceptions of trustworthiness. Ability is the perception a trustee has the skills, competencies, and characteristics within some specific domain of interest. Benevolence is the trustor's perception the trustee has a positive orientation to the trustor, aside from selfish profit motive. Integrity is the trustor's perception the trustee adheres to a set of principles the

trustor finds acceptable (R. Mayer et al., 1995). Each of the factors of trustworthiness has a unique and combined influence on trust (Tan & Lim, 2009).

Schoorman et al. (2007) acknowledged several developments in trust literature since their 1995 paper and noted the need for continual development. Prominent new directions in the research on trust include the role of affect and emotion, trust violations, and repair (Schoorman et al., 2007). Tan and Lim (2009) also add contextual variables such as the balance of power in a relationship, political climate in the organization, and number and type of alternatives available to the trustor are areas in need of research.

Organizational Trust

Over the past several decades, researchers conducted a great deal of research in the area of trust and increasingly recognized the importance trust plays in organizations (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Porta et al., 1996; Schoorman et al., 2007). Driscoll (1978) and R. Mayer et al. (1995) stated organizational trust is the willingness of an individual or group to be vulnerable to another party that cannot be influenced, controlled, or monitored. Researchers across several disciplines agreed organizational trust has a few important benefits (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Hough et al., 2015; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000).

Shockley-Zalabak et al. (2000) advised numerous research studies showed organizations with high levels of trust are more successful, adaptive, and innovative than organizations with low levels of trust. Paliszkiewicz and Koohang (2013) found organizational trust is the foundation for knowledge sharing and transfer among employees. Additionally, organizational trust was found to be an important determinant in employee cooperation and the overall performance of the organization (Porta et al., 1996).

For individuals to trust an organization, Carnevale and Wechsler (1992) asserted they must be confident the organization will treat them fairly, provide support, and encourage open communication. Manager and employee perceptions of how ethical or unethical an organization's environment was directly correlated to their trust or mistrust in the organization (Hough et al., 2015). In groups and organizations with high trust levels, individuals are comfortable in directing their effort toward the group task because they are not concerned about being taken advantage of by their partners (Dirks, 1999).

In the immensely competitive markets of the global society, organizations are taking advantage of any opportunity to improve the effectiveness of its people (Tan & Lim, 2009). Schoorman et al. (2007) posited the continually growing research on trust suggests there is much more to be done and several promising avenues for researchers from different fields to pursue. Many researchers developed different models to explain the concept of trust (R. Mayer et al., 1995; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000; Vodicka, 2006; Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Weisman Trust Model

The Weisman Trust Model was developed through years of research and built on a foundation of shared values (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Weisman and Jusino (2016) stated organizations build trust and relationships through shared values demonstrating a purpose beyond the bottom line. Trust is the guiding principle for all relationships and the glue holding relationships together over time (Weisman, 2010a). Similar to R. Mayer et al. (1995), Shockley-Zalabak et al. (2000), and Vodicka (2006), Weisman (2010a) believed complex concepts of trust require considering multiple factors. The Weisman

Trust Model has five elements of trust: competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection (Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

The nature of the model is an ascending pyramid with a base level of rational factors (competence and consistency), a middle level of emotional factors (concern and candor), and a top level of self-actualization (connection). Although distinct elements, the connections between the elements and what those reveal about how people expresses their values are as important as the elements themselves (Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Weisman (2010a) defined trust as a willingness, given culture and communication behaviors in relationships and transactions, to be appropriately vulnerable based on the belief another individual or group is competent, honest, reliable, and shares common values and goals. Figure 3 displays Weisman’s Pyramid of Trust.

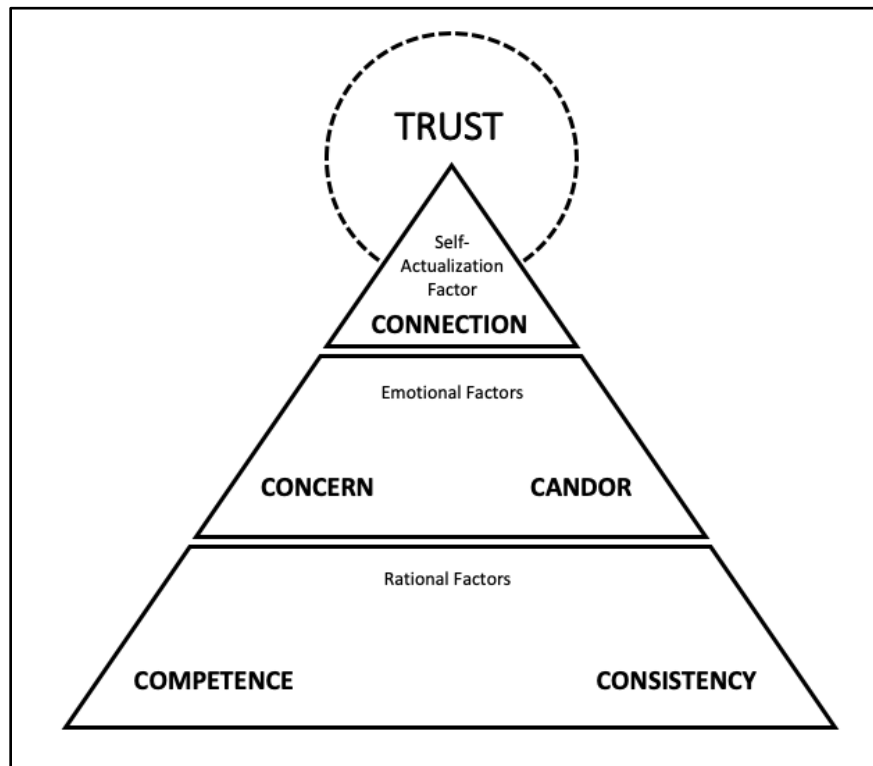


Figure 3. Weisman Trust Pyramid. Source: Weisman and Jusino (2016)

Rational Factors

The two elements comprising the foundation of trusting relationships are competence and consistency. Although competence and consistency are essential factors in forming and maintaining relationships, they are insufficient to form genuine bonds and a deep level of trust (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Additional investment is needed to further develop relationships and form a connection (Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Competence. Competence is the ability to perform a task or fulfill a role as expected (Covey, 2009; Farnsworth, 2015; Handford & Leithwood, 2013; Tschannen-Moran, 2014). From a company standpoint, Weisman (2010a) stated competence is the extent to which the brand is seen as effective. It measures a brand's quality and how the brand will survive in the marketplace by providing what people need and want (Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Consistency. Consistency is the confidence a person's pattern of behavior is reliable, dependable, and steadfast (Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Weisman and Jusino (2016) advised consistency is directly tied to organizational structure. Consistency is a measure of a company's dependability and reliability.

Emotional Factors

The middle of the pyramid is composed of the elements of concern and candor. These two emotional factors build upon the rational factors and further tighten and develop relationships (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Concern and candor are comparable to the honesty, authenticity, care, and open communication expected from trusting relationships (Weisman, 2010a; Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Concern. Concern is the value placed on the well-being of all members of an organization, promoting their welfare at work and empathizing with their needs. Concern entails fostering a collaborative and safe environment where leaders and followers can show their vulnerability and support, motivate, and care for each other (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Livnat, 2004; Weisman, 2010a). Weisman and Jusino (2016) posited concern is a measure of whether an organization or company is perceived as respecting and caring about its customers, clients, and employees.

Candor. Candor involves communicating information in a precise manner and being truthful despite not wanting to provide such information (Gordon & Gilley, 2012; O'Toole & Bennis, 2009; Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Weisman & Jusino, 2016). Weisman (2010a) also described candor as the sincerity, openness, and honesty of the information shared. Candor is a measure of how the public perceives the genuineness and transparency of an organization (Weisman & Jusino, 2016).

Self-Actualization Factor

The self-actualization factor of connection cannot happen without the support of the rational and emotional factors. Additionally, Weisman and Jusino (2016) stated the experience at the self-actualization stage must be consistent with previous levels or trust could be lost. Through time, multiple interactions, effort, and a commitment to shared values, connection can be achieved (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). At this level, trust develops to the point both parties internalize each other's intentions and wishes (Weisman, 2010a).

Connection. Connection is a shared link or bond with a sense of emotional engagement and interrelatedness (Sloan & Oliver, 2013; Stovall & Baker, 2010; White et al., 2016). Weisman and Jusino (2016) commented connection is the most difficult piece of the trust puzzle because there is no specific way to build or improve it. Connection is the extent to which the public holds common values, goals, norms, and shared beliefs associated with the organization's culture (Weisman, 2010a).

Trust and United States' Nonprofits

Trust plays a key role in the performance and success of all organizations (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Porta et al., 1996; Schoorman et al., 2007; Tan & Lim, 2009). Greiling (2007) further specified trust is a factor of critical importance to nonprofit organizations. It is essential for the leadership of nonprofit organizations to effectively communicate and build trust in their organizations (Kearns et al., 2015; Reid & Turbide, 2012). Kearns et al. (2015) observed that nonprofit leaders spend a large amount of time and effort building trust with organizational stakeholders.

Researchers hold mixed opinions over the state of nonprofit organizations in the United States. Greiling (2007) claimed nonprofits in the United States carry the burden of proving they are trustworthy. However, O'Neill (2009) argued nonprofits are doing well in terms of public opinion compared to other organizational segments of American society. Blodgett and Melconian (2012) reported nonprofits face some challenges, but encouraged nonprofit leadership to implement best practices to sustain public trust.

Nonprofit Organizations in the United States

Nonprofit organizations in the United States are primarily governed by state law as nonprofits must file articles of incorporation within state governments, not federal

(Blodgett & Melconian, 2012). Blodgett and Melconian (2012) stated the federal government's limited authority extends to the IRS because the IRS grants nonprofits a privileged tax exemption status due to the Revenue Act of 1954. Smith and Richmond (2007) posited one of the main reasons nonprofit organizations are given a special tax status is because they commit their profits or net earnings to the public benefit.

Nonprofits in the United States offer a wide range of activities and services (Greiling, 2007). Weisbrod (1988) stated the nonprofit sector provides important services and aid to the poor, aged, disabled, sick, and others in society with special needs. Organizations such as the American Red Cross and Red Crescent Society assist approximately 284 million people each year (Global Red Cross Network, n.d.). Nonprofits also employed over 14.4 million people in the United States in 2013, with many employees concentrated in the health services and education industries (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). Additionally, the nonprofit sector serves as a means for people who want to give back to their community and have a sense of social responsibility. Ban et al. (2003) advised individuals employed or who volunteer for nonprofit organizations are usually motivated by a sense of public service.

United States' Nonprofit Classifications

The National Center for Charitable Statistics (NCCS; 2016) divides nonprofit organizations into three major categories: public charities, private foundations, and other exemption organizations. Most are public charities and private foundations classified under Internal Revenue Code section 501(c)(3), which include arts, culture, and humanities; education; healthcare; human services; and other types of organizations (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). The IRS and NCCS further categorize public charities by a

National Taxonomy of Exempt Entities (NTEE) code, which defines the organization's activity or purpose. NTEE code A (arts, culture, and humanities) is one of 26 major NTEE codes, and cultural nonprofit organizations are further subdivided under codes A20 through A29. Some examples of NTEE code A include A20 – arts & culture, A23 – cultural & ethnic awareness, and A24 folk arts. Although NCCS has the most comprehensive national data on nonprofit public charities, Rosenstein (2006) cautioned the NCCS database underreports small nonprofits that receive less than \$25,000 in gross receipts annually and religious organizations because these two types of organizations are exempt from filing Form 990 with the IRS.

Cultural Nonprofit Organizations

Hung (2007) stated cultural nonprofit organizations date back as early as the 1940s, but many were formed in the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s due to the increase in openness and acceptance in the United States. Cultural nonprofit organizations include community cultural and arts centers, ethnic and cultural awareness organizations, and festivals (Rosenstein, 2006). The primary focus of these organizations is the preservation and promotion of cultural, ethnic, racial, artistic, religious, linguistic, and regional traditions and values (Hung, 2007; Rosenstein, 2006).

Bhojwani (2014) asserted cultural nonprofits are becoming increasingly important to immigrant populations because of their ability to help with English language skills and integration into American society. Cultural nonprofits support immigrant populations to become more politically active in their communities on issues such as U.S. immigration policy and the treatment of disadvantaged minority populations (Cordero-Guzmán, Martin, Quiroz-Becerra, & Theodore, 2008). Cultural nonprofit organizations are

fundamentally community-oriented, and their intent is to serve and advocate for the people they represent (Rosenstein, 2006).

Despite their importance, Rosenstein (2006) advised cultural nonprofits are often small and financially under-resourced, with the African American and Hispanic cultures being the most financially vulnerable. Hung and Ong (2012) posited Asian American nonprofits also struggle with funding and acquiring local resources due to their lack of expertise in securing public funding. Whereas older and more prominent cultural nonprofit organizations are more likely to be sustainable, the younger and smaller organizations are least likely to remain active (Hung & Ong, 2012).

Although trust was determined to be a key factor of organizational success, more research is needed to further refine the dimensions of trust with the more complex concept of culture (Schoorman et al., 2007; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000; Tan & Lim, 2009). More cultures, including less Western-oriented cultures, need to be added to the body of literature regarding trust to develop a greater understanding (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). Schoorman et al. (2007) concurred with the notion there is a considerable need for more research on how culture influences the concept of trust.

Philippine American Nonprofit Organizations

The 2010 Census stated Philippine Americans were the second largest group within the Asian American community and grew by 44% between 2000 and 2010 (Hoeffel et al., 2012). Despite their tremendous growth and increasing influence in the American community, there is still a need for more research on Philippine American nonprofit organizations and leadership (Lardizabal, 2013). Dela Cruz (2016) found a distinct lack of studies from the Filipino American leadership perspective and declared a

need for more research literature on Philippine American leaders. Filipino American organizations that achieved success should document and share how they succeeded to advance the field of Filipino American studies and help other communities (Lardizabal, 2013). Dinoso (2012) advised when there is trust between the Philippine American community and general community, it increases morale and levels of confidence, and provides a greater chance to receive government grants and recognition by government officials, which would greatly benefit the Philippine American community.

Philippine Americans

Although it is sometimes assumed Asian Americans share homogeneous cultural norms and values, variance exists within the ethnic groups of this population (Kim, 2009). Thus, a need exists to explore the diverse experiences within the Asian American community given emerging research showed Asian Americans are a heterogeneous group (Museus & Maramba, 2011; Nadal, 2011). The history of the Philippines is distinctive from other Asian countries partly due to the 400 years of Spanish colonization and the more recent American colonization that ended in 1946 (Buena Vista, Jayakumar, & Misa-Escalante, 2009; Nadal, 2011).

Philippine Americans are a unique blend of Eastern and Western cultures because of the history of Spanish and American colonization and the proximity of the Philippines to surrounding Southeast Asian countries (Abinales & Amoroso, 2005). The Philippine American population in the United States often form loosely knit organizations with a purpose of maintaining a sense of family, which is important to Filipino culture (Tyner, 2006). As many Filipino families are recent immigrants, younger generations of Philippine Americans have a strong sense of needing to repay their elders for the

opportunities they were given (Nadal, 2011). The largest populations of Philippine Americans can be found in California, Hawaii, Illinois, Texas, and Washington (Hoeffel et al., 2012).

Conclusions

The review of literature revealed a pervasive crisis of trust throughout the global community, and the current socio-political climate of the American society only helped to further agitate the challenges regarding trust. The strong sentiment of distrust in governments, media, financial institutions, and companies blurred the lines between fact, opinion, and targeted misinformation. Researchers and academics agree now is the time to restore trust and there is a demand for leaders to start the movement by being more trustworthy. Additionally, there is growing interest in the concept of trust and the importance of trust in leadership.

The leadership theories explored in this literature review shared a common theme of trust. Transformational leaders are conscious change agents who encourage trust. Authentic leaders act in accordance with their values to build credibility and earn trust. Ethical leaders help people to relate to one another in supportive, respectful, and trustworthy ways. However, there is still more to understand and develop within these leadership theories. Authentic leadership and ethical leadership are still new constructs, and although transformational leadership has been a prominent theory for the last three decades, it is a messy and chaotic process difficult to implement.

Trust is such a complex concept researchers developed different definitions and models to understand factors that influence trust. Trust is essential to the performance and success of an organization. By understanding the elements of trust, leaders believe they

can develop and foster a positive environment contributing to organizational growth. The Weisman Trust Model has five dimensions of trust: competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

This study is significant because it builds off the theories of leadership and trust to explore the phenomenon of how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers. The Philippine American population is the second largest Asian group in the United States and they continue grow in numbers and influence. Although there is considerable literature regarding leadership and trust, there is little research focused on Philippine American nonprofit organizations and their leadership.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides an explanation of the research methodology and reviews the rationale for the selected methodology. First, the purpose statement and research questions are presented to revisit the foundation of the study. Second, the chapter addresses the research design of the study and explains why a qualitative phenomenological approach was appropriate for describing and exploring how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers. Third, the chapter then identifies the population and sample, followed by a description of the instrumentation used. Fourth, the chapter discusses the data collection, data analysis, and limitations of the study.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

Research Questions

This study was guided by one central research question and five sub-questions. The central research question was: How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection? The five sub-questions were:

1. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using competence?
2. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using consistency?

3. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using concern?
4. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using candor?
5. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using connection?

Research Design

This study used a qualitative phenomenological research design to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers. The design of a study is based on what provides the best answer to the research questions, and a good study is designed to yield the most credible and adequate answer (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The approaches to research are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. Qualitative and quantitative are different approaches to research but share core values and a commitment to systemic inquiry, matching methods to questions, detailed reporting of procedures, and acknowledgment of limitations (Patton, 2014). Patten (2009) stated it is appropriate to use quantitative methods when the type of logical reasoning used is deductive, whereas it is fitting to use qualitative methods when the nature of the research is exploratory. A mixed methods study combines the characteristics of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Patton (2014) advised the practical application of qualitative methods develops from the power of observation, openness to understanding, and inductive analysis. Qualitative research was appropriate for this study because the purpose and research questions sought a holistic understanding. Compared to quantitative, qualitative research

does not start with a hypothesis or prediction; rather, qualitative methods proceed from words and explicit statements to a summary or generalization (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) identified five main qualitative approaches: ethnography, case study, phenomenological, grounded theory, and critical studies. The phenomenological approach was selected as the most appropriate research approach for this study. Patton (2014) posited a phenomenological study focuses on descriptions of what people experience and how they experience it. The phenomenon under study may be an emotion, experience, relationship, program, organization, or culture (Patton, 2014). For this research, the phenomena studied was the trust relationship between Philippine American nonprofit leaders and their staff and volunteers. Phenomenological researchers typically conduct in-depth interviews with informants directed toward understanding their perspectives on everyday lived experiences with the phenomenon (Coughlan, Cronin, & Ryan, 2007; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

The researcher participated in a thematic research group composed of five faculty members and 15 doctoral students. The thematic research group collaborated to create an interview protocol consisting of 10 open-ended interview questions addressing the purpose and research questions of the study. The five faculty members served as experts and guided the process. Once the interview protocol was completed, each doctoral student conducted a pilot test to check for bias and receive critique on their interview process.

The research process began by identifying a research problem and conducting a literature review to examine the foundation of the phenomenon. A purpose statement and

research questions were created to focus the study and align it with the study's theoretical framework: Weisman's Trust Model. These elements helped inform the research design. The phenomenological approach provided the most adequate approach to answer to the research questions. Data were collected and analyzed, and the results were shared once themes were extrapolated. Conclusions were then interpreted from the study's findings.

Population

A population is a large group that conforms to specific criteria and to which researchers intend to generalize the results of a study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2014). The general population for this study was Philippine American nonprofit organization leaders in the United States. These leaders commonly hold the title of president, chair, executive director, program director, or a similar designation within their respective organizations. As of 2009, Hung and Ong (2012) indicated there were more than 2,000 Asian-American nonprofit organizations in the 10 largest metropolitan areas: Boston, Chicago, Dallas, Detroit, District of Columbia, Houston, Los Angeles, New York, Philadelphia, and San Francisco. According to the Philippine Consulate General's office of Los Angeles, California, there were 154 southern California Philippine American organizations registered with their office as of January 2015. The Philippine Consulate General's office of Los Angeles oversees southern California, Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico.

The target population is a more refined group of individuals with specific attributes of interest and relevance as compared to the general population (Asiamah, Mensah, & Oteng-Abayie, 2017). For the researcher to manage the study, a smaller, target population of Philippine American nonprofit leaders located within southern

California was used because researcher was born, raised, and currently lives in southern California. The findings from this study may be generalized, to an extent, to the broader population of Philippine American nonprofit organization leaders in southern California.

Sample

A sample refers to a group of participants drawn from the larger population from whom data are collected (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Qualitative research seeks to capture information-rich narrative from a small sample (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2014). Although a smaller sample size limits generalizability, it can provide a greater depth of understanding of the phenomenon (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The goal is to gather detailed accounts of the participants' lived experience and reflect on their meaning (Grossoehme, 2014).

Nonprobability sampling techniques of purposeful sampling, convenience sampling, and snowball sampling were used for this study. Nonprobability sampling lacks random selection from a population (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Unlike probability sampling where participants have an equal chance of being selected, nonprobability sampling chooses participants because they are accessible or meet preestablished criteria and characteristics (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Saumure & Given, 2012). Patten (2009) stated researchers who use purposeful sampling strategically select individuals they believe will be good sources of information. Purposeful sampling was appropriate for this study because it produces in-depth information central to the purpose of the research.

Convenience sampling involves the selection of individuals based on availability or convenience (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). For convenience, financial, accessible,

and practical purposes, the researcher narrowed the study to Philippine American nonprofit leaders located in southern California. According to the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, 10 counties comprise southern California:

- Imperial County
- Kern County
- Los Angeles County
- Orange County
- Riverside County
- San Bernardino County
- San Diego County
- San Luis Obispo County
- Santa Barbara County
- Ventura County

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) described snowball sampling, also called network sampling, as “a strategy in which each successive participant or group is named by a preceding group or individual” (p. 327). The researcher asked each participant to recommend others who fit the profile of the study to attain the required number of sample participants. Patten (2009) stated qualitative research almost never tests for statistical significance and, thus, does not need large sample sizes. Qualitative research concentrates on acquiring a sample size dependent of on the volume of information needed to address the purpose of the study and research questions (Patton, 2014). A sample size of 10 participants was considered appropriate for this study. Figure 4 presents the narrowing of the population to the sample size used in this study.

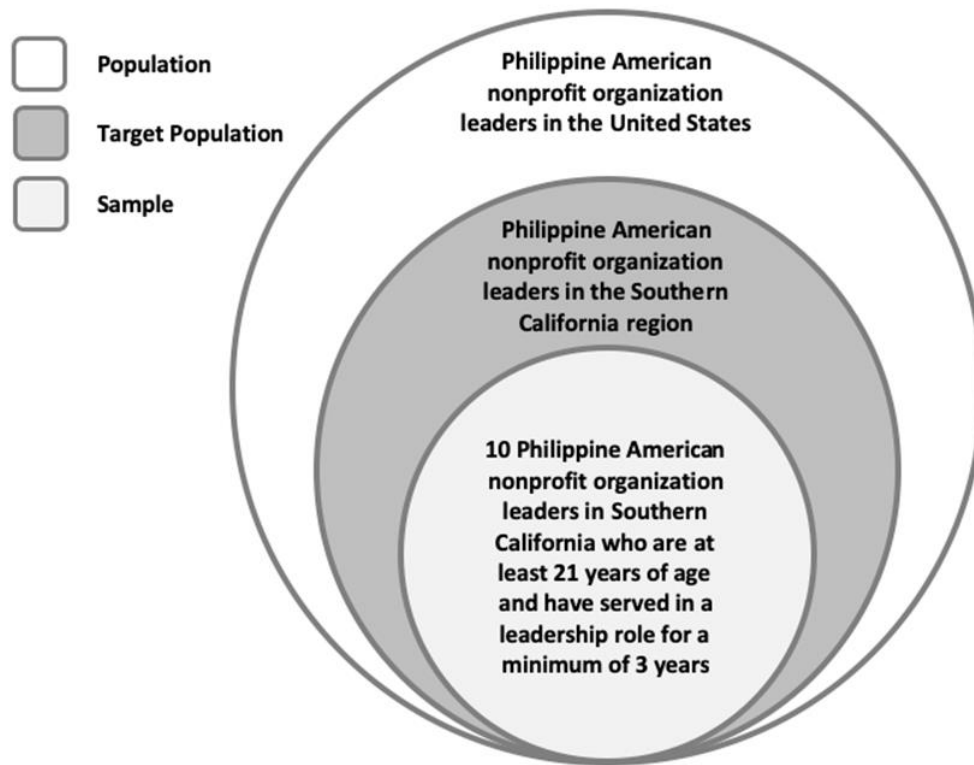


Figure 4. Population and sample.

Instrumentation

The researcher is the primary instrument in qualitative research (Patton, 2014). A few strategies can be used to collect data for a qualitative study, including questionnaires with open-ended items, interviews, observations, and review of artifacts (Coughlan et al., 2007). Interviews and participant observation are the most used methods of data collection in qualitative studies. Interviews are characterized as structured, semi-structures, or unstructured. Structured interviews consist of a pre-determined set of questions that must be asked in the same order and may not be altered or changed by the interviewer. A semi-structured interview uses a script of pre-determined but allows the interviewer to ask probing or follow-up questions to gain additional information or for

clarification. An unstructured interview may provide some initial broad questions linked to the purpose of the study, but may flow in any direction based on the responses of the interviewee (Coughlan et al., 2007).

This study used a semi-structured approach with open-ended interview questions. This approach minimizes variation, allows for consistency, and facilitates organization (Patton, 2014). Although this approach limits the ability to ask questions outside the interview protocol, probing questions can be used to gain further clarification and a more in-depth understanding of the participant's response (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Development of Interview Questions

The researcher collaborated with the thematic research group and five faculty members to develop an interview protocol of 10 open-ended interview questions to address the purpose and research questions of the study. Probing questions were also generated to enhance the interview process and obtain a greater understanding from the participants. The interview questions were based on the five elements of Weisman's Trust Model: competence, consistency, candor, concern, and connection. Each variable had two interview questions and at least one probing question.

The thematic research group and faculty were divided into teams based on their population. Four students and two faculty were on the superintendent team, six students and one faculty were in the principal team, and five students and two faculty were on the organizational executive team. The organizational executive team was further separated to where three students were assigned to one faculty member and the other two students were assigned to the second faculty member. Altogether, the thematic research group consisted of four teams of students and faculty.

Each team was assigned one of the five Weisman Trust Model variables, except for the principal team that was assigned two variables. The four teams were tasked with creating at least three interview questions and at least one probing question for each variable. After each team developed an initial draft of interview and probing questions, all the students and faculty met to critique, provide recommendations for improvement, and select the two questions used for each variable. Each team revise their interview and probing questions based on the feedback from their fellow students and faculty. The faculty members served as the expert panel and ensured the interview and probing questions avoided overly complicated language and aligned with the research questions.

After the interview questions were complete, a pilot test (or field test) was required as a check for bias in the procedures, interviewer, and questions. All 15 students conducted a field test of the interview questions with an individual who met the criteria of their population but would not be a participant in the study. An expert observer with experience in conducting and collecting data from qualitative interviews also participated in the field test. The interviewee and expert observer both provided feedback on the researcher and interview process.

Validity

Validity is often defined as the extent to which an instrument measures what it intends to measure (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) advised validity within qualitative research refers to the extent to which interpretations have mutual meanings between the participants and researcher. The validity of this phenomenological study was increased through several strategies: content validity,

participant language and verbatim accounts, multiple researchers, mechanically recorded data, participant review, and multimethod strategies.

Content validity. This type of validity measures how well the items developed provide an adequate and representative sample of all the items that might measure the phenomenon of interest (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Content validity usually relies on the judgement of experts in the field (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). The five faculty members leading the thematic research group served as an expert panel. They enhanced the validity by guiding the development of the interview and probing questions.

Participant language and verbatim accounts. This strategy ensures interviews are phrased in language participants can understand without social science terminology (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). During the development and critique of the interview questions, the expert panel advised the thematic research group teams to avoid overly complicated language so participants would be able to clearly understand the questions. The final version of the interview and probing questions were approved by the teams and expert panel of faculty.

Multiple researchers. The use of multiple researchers enhances the validity of a study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Under the guidance of five faculty members, the researcher collaborated with 14 other researchers to develop the interview questions. The thematic research group had several meetings to ensure the interview questions aligned with the study's purpose and research questions. The 15 researchers established the definitions of the variables, created the interview questions, revised the interview questions, field tested the instrument, and conducted the interviews.

Mechanically recorded data and participant review. The researcher audio recorded all interviews with a primary digital recording device and a backup digital recording device. The interviews were transcribed and the transcript was sent to the participant for review. Participants were requested to edit any information from the interview data for accuracy.

Multimethod strategies. This strategy allows for the triangulation of data across different inquiry techniques (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Most qualitative research uses multiple data collection techniques and selects one as the primary method (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The central data collection strategy of this study was the interviews and artifacts were collected to contribute to the triangulation process.

Reliability

Reliability is a concept often used to evaluate quantitative research, but is used in all types of research (Golafshani, 2003). The essence and core of reliability in qualitative research lies within consistency (Leung, 2015). M. George and Apter (2004) stated the reliability of qualitative data can be addressed by triangulation, audit trails, and member checks. Intercoder reliability is also frequently used in qualitative researcher to enhance reliability (MacPhail, Khoza, Abler, & Ranganathan, 2016).

Triangulation. Triangulation is the process by which more than one source is used for data collection and analysis (M. George & Apter, 2004). The primary data collection method for this study was interviews, and artifacts were reviewed to help identify themes and patterns across different sources of data.

Audit trail. An audit trail is the documentation of how researcher decisions were driven by the interpretation of the data (M. George & Apter, 2004). Another researcher

should be able to understand what was done and the rationale (M. George & Apter, 2004; Grossoehme, 2014). Chapter III details the methodology and analytical procedures of the study and chapter IV provides a narrative description of the findings to allow other researchers to understand why decisions were made based on the data collected.

Member checks. This strategy has participants review the data to determine if it is an accurate representation of their experience or attitudes (M. George & Apter, 2004). The researcher recorded all interviews with an audio recorder. Once the interviews were transcribed, the transcripts were sent to the participant for review and to ensure the accuracy of the data collected.

Intercoder reliability. Intercoder reliability assesses the agreement between multiple coders for how they assign codes to text segments of data (MacPhail et al., 2016). This strategy is important to qualitative research because it reduces researcher bias and helps provide sound interpretation of the themes and patterns in the data. There are many ways the intercoder reliability process can be conducted, “but at a minimum the researcher has to create a representative set of units for testing reliability and the coding decisions must be made independently under the same conditions” (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2002, p. 590). An external coder, with a doctorate degree and experience in qualitative research, double-coded 10% of the data from this study and a level of .80 agreement was set prior to coding. Lombard et al. (2002) advised a level of agreement of .80 or greater was acceptable in most exploratory studies. The coded themes from the external coder represented 82% agreement with the researcher, thereby establishing intercoder reliability.

Data Collection

The primary data collection method of this phenomenological study was semi-structured, open-ended interviews. Observations were also conducted and artifacts collected, where possible, to contribute to the triangulation of the data. Patten (2009) stated semi-structured interviews were widely used in qualitative research to collect data. Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (2010) stated interviews were the mainstay of phenomenological research. The purpose of this study was to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders built trust with their staff and volunteers using the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection. Given the intent of a phenomenological study is to describe and interpret the experiences of participants, this data collection method aligned with the purpose of this study.

Human Subject Considerations

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) advised, “research should never result in physical or mental discomfort, harm, or injury to the participants” (p. 119). The Brandman University Institutional Review Board (BUIRB) approved the study’s design (Appendix A) and interview protocol (Appendix B) before the commencement of data collection. The researcher also completed the National Institutes of Health (NIH) web-based training course *Protecting Human Research Participants* (Appendix C). Once the appropriate approvals were received, study participants received an email inviting them to participate in an interview. The email included a formal letter of invitation (Appendix D), the *Research Participant’s Bill of Rights* (Appendix E), an informed consent form (Appendix F), and a consent agreement for audio recording (Appendix G). The email invitation included an introduction of the researcher with contact information, an

overview of the purpose of the study, the estimated time commitment to participate in the study, and a statement regarding the voluntary nature of the study.

The signed consent forms were held in a secure location by the researcher. The identities and organizations of the participants were known only by the researcher and dissertation chair. Pseudonyms were used to protect the identity and privacy of the participants and their respective organizations. The audio recordings of the interviews were securely stored on a password protected electronic device and were only accessible by the researcher and the dissertation chair. The audio recordings were destroyed after the interviews were fully transcribed. Any identifying hardcopy information or electronic information, including signed consent forms and transcripts, were stored for three years after which they were securely shredded/discarded or deleted.

Interview Process

All interviews were conducted face-to-face or through internet video calls. Preference was given to face-to-face interviews as this method allowed the researcher to better perceive any nonverbal cues. The researcher began the interview with a brief introduction, summary of the purpose of the study, and review of the consent forms. The participant was reminded about privacy protections, estimated time frame, and voluntary nature of the interview, and given the opportunity to ask questions or seek clarification. The audio taped portion of the interview commenced after the consent forms were signed and all questions from the participant were addressed.

Two audio recording devices were used to record the interviews. The primary audio recording device recorded high-quality audio. The voice recorder on a mobile phone was used as a backup device in case any issues occurred with the primary. The

researcher took notes during the interviews to record important insights and nonverbal communication not otherwise documented by the audio recording. The first part of the interview had the participant review the five domains of trust as noted in Weisman's Trust Model and provide their thoughts on these domains. After, the researcher asked the prepared interview questions and probing questions to encourage the participant to share more in-depth information. Once the interview was complete, the researcher thanked the participant for his or her time and allowed the participant a moment to share any final thoughts for the interview.

The audio recordings were transcribed by a professional transcription service. Once complete, the transcripts were first reviewed by the researcher to ensure the accuracy of the transcription. Next, the transcripts were sent to the participants through email for review. Participants were given the opportunity to edit or modify their responses to enhance the accuracy of the data. If a participant requested a change to the transcript, the request was documented and the transcript edited. After transcripts were reviewed by participants and the researcher, they were coded and for analyzed themes.

Artifacts

Artifacts are tangible manifestations that describe an individual's personal experience, knowledge, and values (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The researcher collected artifacts for this study to add to the data collected by the interviews. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) stated artifacts from modern-day groups and institutions can include personal documents, official documents, or objects. The researcher collected artifacts from participants, their organization's website, and any other public sources in which participants contributed and submitted documents or objects. Artifacts included

presentations, social media sites, written communications, handbooks, agendas, vision statements, newsletters, pictures, and videos. The data collected from the artifacts were reviewed and coded for patterns and themes.

Observations

Observation, a mainstay of qualitative research, is a way for researchers to see and hear the natural environment of participants (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The purpose of observational data is to “describe in depth and detail the setting that was observed, the activities that took place in that setting, the people who participated in those activities, and the meanings of what was observed from the perspectives of those observed” (Patton, 2014, p. 331). Additionally, Patton (2014) stated the descriptions should be factual, accurate, and thorough without extraneous or unrelated information. By observing the research site in a natural setting, the researcher should gain a richer understanding of the phenomenon being studied (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2014). The data collected from the researcher’s observations were analyzed and coded for patterns and themes.

Data Analysis

In qualitative research, data analysis is the process by which raw data are transformed into a final description, narrative, or themes and categories (Coughlan et al., 2007). This study used inductive analysis, which McMillan and Schumacher (2010) cited as the most used method of analysis in qualitative research. The process of inductive analysis begins with data and then categories, patterns, and themes are developed based on the data (Patton, 2014). The common procedure for inductive analysis adheres to the following steps: (1) data are collected and documented, (2) data are coded, (3) themes

and patterns are identified, and (4) findings are presented (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2014).

Collecting and Documenting Data

Qualitative data analysis is an ongoing, fluid process that can occur during different stages of the data collection process (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The researcher may begin to identify possible themes and patterns during the interviews and has the flexibility to adjust the interview questions to adapt to emerging discoveries (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patton, 2014). However, for this study, the instrumentation was not modified or adjusted in any way. All participants were subject to the same interview questions and probing questions to minimize bias and enhance the validity of the study. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed, and the researcher reviewed the transcripts for any errors and then allowed the participants to review the transcripts for accuracy.

Coding the Data

The formal coding and categorizing process began after the data were fully transcribed and reviewed. A preliminary review of the data was conducted to identify segments of text. Data segments are units of relevant information that are typically one to three sentences (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The data segments were analyzed and assigned codes. Codes are words or phrases that give meaning and value to the data segments (Patton, 2014). The researcher arranged the codes and examined their frequency to identify common themes and patterns in the data.

Themes and Patterns

The first step of inductive analysis is the identification of themes (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Major and minor themes emerged from the data once similar codes were grouped together. The researcher used the theoretical framework of the study, Weisman's Trust Model, to guide the process of identifying themes. After the establishment of themes came the identification of patterns. Researchers must reexamine and scrutinize the data to find relationships among the themes. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) stated "the ultimate goal of qualitative research is to make general statements about relationships among categories [themes] by discovering patterns in the data" (p. 378).

Presentation of Findings

The narrative presentation of evidence and visual depiction of data are features of qualitative research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The narrative can be framed differently due to varying qualitative research designs. In phenomenological studies, textual descriptions are used to describe a lived experience of what happened and how the experience occurred (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This study presented the findings with direct quotations from participants to accurately frame the lived experiences.

Limitations

It is important to be open and clear about a study's limitations and to report the natural limitations and weaknesses of the researcher's perspective (Patton, 2014). The limitations of this study included the researcher as an instrument, limited generalizability, the interview format, limited time, small geography, and limited number of observations.

The researcher took steps to address the study limitations, but acknowledges no research is without limitations.

Researcher as an Instrument

The subjective nature of qualitative inquiry and the researcher's role as the primary instrument for data collection makes qualitative research more prone to bias compared to quantitative research (Patton, 2014). The purpose of the study was to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers using the five domains of trust. However, the researcher is a member of a Philippine American nonprofit organization and carries a preconceived notion of this phenomenon. To reduce the impact of researcher bias, a pilot interview was conducted with an expert observer. The expert observer provided feedback for improvement and helped the researcher minimize the impact of potential bias.

Generalizability

The small sample size of a phenomenological studies prohibits the generalizability of the findings (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Patten, 2009; Patton, 2014). However, phenomenological research does not seek to generalize results to a larger population; instead it seeks to understand the lived experience of the participants and the meaning behind the phenomenon (Patton, 2014). In qualitative research, the sample size is dependent on factors such as the purpose of the study, data collection strategy, and participant availability (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Interview Format

The semi-structured interview format limited the researcher to the predetermined questions with little deviation from the set protocol. In addition to the potential bias of the

researcher, interviews are also susceptible to participant bias (Patton, 2014). Face-to-face interviews do not allow for anonymity and participants may feel uncomfortable in sharing certain details and withhold information. To help the participant be more relaxed and open during the interview, the researcher took time before the interview to converse with the participant and establish rapport.

Limited Time

A phenomenological study collects in-depth data through interviews geared toward understanding lived experiences (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Such interviews are usually extensive and require a great deal of time with participants to understand how and what they experience (Patton, 2014). Participants were informed the interview would take approximately 45 to 60 minutes. Although the researcher was limited to the amount of time spent with each participant, additional sources of data such as artifacts and observations were used to address this limitation.

Small Geography

Philippine American nonprofit leaders who participated in the study were all from organizations in the southern California region. The researcher narrowed the study to southern California for practicality and to limit travel expenses. Restricting the research to a convenient geographic region allowed the researcher to use established networks to invite participants to the study. However, narrowing the geography of the study also reduced the number of qualified participants who contributed to the research.

Limited Number of Observations

Although observations were used to enhance the study and triangulate the data, observations were only conducted with 3 of 10 participants. Some of the organizations

were not active during the data collection phase of the study (i.e., they did not have any meetings or events scheduled), so it was not possible to observe the Philippine American nonprofit leaders in their natural setting. Additionally, some of leaders declined to be observed and only provided artifacts to support the data.

Summary

This chapter presented the research methodology of the study and provided the rationale for the selected methodology. The purpose statement and research questions were revisited, and the research design of the study was reviewed to explain why a qualitative phenomenological approach was appropriate for describing and exploring how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers. The chapter then identified the population, sample, and instrumentation. Lastly, the chapter discussed the data collection, data analysis, and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER IV: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS

This qualitative phenomenological study used The Values Institute (TVI) trust framework, which includes the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection, to explore and determine the trust-building strategies Philippine American nonprofit leaders use with their staff and volunteers. Chapter IV begins with the purpose statement and research questions. The chapter then presents an overview of the research methodology and data collection procedures, population, sample, demographic data, and presentation and analysis of the data. Lastly, the findings of each research question and key findings are presented.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

Research Questions

This study was guided by one central research question and five sub-questions. The central research question was: How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection? The five sub-questions were:

1. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using competence?
2. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using consistency?

3. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using concern?
4. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using candor?
5. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using connection?

Research Methods and Data Collection Procedures

This study used a qualitative phenomenological research design to describe and explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers. The researcher collected data via in-depth interviews, observations, and review of artifacts. The interviews served as the primary data collection method, and the observations and artifacts were used to help identify themes and patterns across different sources of data.

The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with 10 Philippine American nonprofit leaders in southern California. The interview consisted of 10 questions and related probing questions developed by a team of 15 peer researchers. The questions were based on the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection. Each domain had two interview questions and at least one probing question. Nine interviews were conducted face-to-face and one interview was conducted through a video call. The interviews lasted between 74 and 93 minutes with an average length of 78 minutes. The interviews were recorded, professionally transcribed, and reviewed by the researcher and the participant. Participants were given the opportunity to edit their responses to ensure that their ideas and thoughts were accurately conveyed.

A total of three observations were conducted with permission of study participants. The observations lasted between 2-3 hours and occurred at their organization's natural setting. Observations included meetings and organizational events facilitated by the participant. The researcher recorded field notes during and immediately after the observations.

Artifacts were collected before the interview, the day of the interview, or after the interview. A total of 53 artifacts were obtained from participants. The artifacts included emails, presentations, planning documents, programs, publications, flyers, organizational websites, mission and vision statements, meeting agendas, notes, personal communications, and social media posts.

Population

The population of this study was Philippine American nonprofit organizations leaders in the United States. This population was further narrowed to a target population of 154 Philippine American organizations and their corresponding leaders located in southern California. These leaders commonly hold the title of president, chair, executive director, program director or a similar designation within their respective organization.

Sample

This study used nonprobability sampling techniques of purposeful sampling, convenience sampling, and snowball sampling. The study sample was purposefully delimited to Philippine American nonprofit leaders over 21 years of age who served in a leadership role for a Philippine American nonprofit organization in southern California for at least three years. The study was narrowed to the region of southern California due to its accessibility and convenience to the researcher.

An initial list of prospective participants was recommended by a Philippine American nonprofit leader in the researcher’s network. The researcher’s network contact sent personal introductions to the potential participants on behalf of the researcher. If the sample criteria were met, the participant was sent a formal invitation to participate in the study. After participants completed their interview, they were asked if they could recommend any other Philippine American nonprofit leaders who would be willing to participate in the study. A sample size of 10 participants was considered an appropriate size for the purpose of this qualitative study.

Demographic Data

The data for this study were reported without reference of any individual or organization to protect confidentiality. Of the leaders who participated in the study, 60% were female and 40% were male. Participant leadership experience in their respective organizations ranged from 3 to 28 years, with an average of 10 years. Furthermore, 70% of the participants were from organizations with 50 or more members (Table 1).

Table 1

Demographic Data of Study Participants

Participant #	Position	Gender	Number of Members	Years of Experience
1	President	Female	100 - 149	3
2	Co-President	Male	50 - 99	5
3	President	Female	10 - 49	3
4	Program Director	Male	100 - 149	28
5	Chair	Female	50 - 99	7
6	President	Female	100 - 149	12
7	President	Male	10 - 49	4
8	Executive Director	Female	50 - 99	23
9	Chair	Male	10 - 49	11
10	Executive Director	Female	50 - 99	4

Additionally, the qualifying sample criteria are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Sample Criteria

	Participant Number									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Philippine American nonprofit leader	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Over 21 years of age	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Served in a leadership role for a Philippine American nonprofit organization in Southern California for at least 3 years	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Presentation and Analysis of Data

This section of the study presents a detailed analysis of the data collected. Data were obtained from the lived experiences of 10 Philippine American nonprofit leaders in southern California through interviews, observations, and review of artifacts. The study findings are presented within the framework of the five domains of trust (competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection) and aligned with the central research question and sub-questions of the study.

Inductive analysis was used for this study. The researcher uploaded the interview transcripts, field notes, and artifacts into NVivo, a qualitative data analysis program. Based on the researcher’s familiarity with the data, initial themes were identified in the data. NVivo was used to organize and code data, and consolidate trends into larger themes. Findings emerged based on the frequency of each code.

Validity

Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) defined validity as the extent to which an instrument measures what it intends to measure. Validity was established in this study

through several strategies: content validity, participant language and verbatim accounts, multiple researchers, mechanically recorded data, participant review, and multimethod strategies. The use of different data collection methods allowed the researcher to triangulate the data and further enhance the validity of the study.

Reliability and Intercoder Reliability

The essence and core of reliability in qualitative research lies within consistency (Leung, 2015). Reliability was established in this study through the following strategies: triangulation, audit trail, member checks, and intercoder reliability. MacPhail et al. (2016) stated intercoder reliability assesses the agreement between multiple coders for how they assign codes to data text segments. An external coder reviewed and analyzed 10% of the interview data, with an agreement standard of at least 80%. Intercoder reliability was established with the external coder with 82% agreement.

Research Question and Sub-question Results

An analysis of the 10 interview transcripts, three observations, and 53 artifacts yielded 23 themes unequally distributed across the five domains. Consistency, candor, and connection each had four themes, competence had five themes, and concern had six themes. Figure 5 shows the distribution of themes for each of the five trust domains.

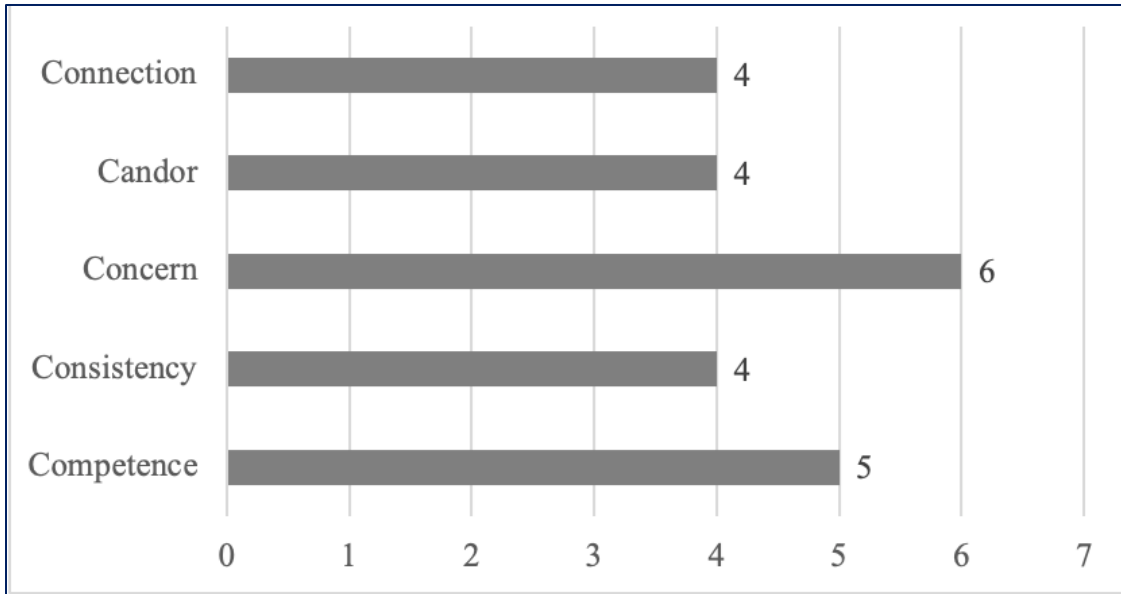


Figure 5. Number of themes for each trust domain.

A total of 397 references were recorded from the data. Concern had the highest number of references with 120 (30% of coded data). Connection had the second highest with 83 (21%), followed by competence with 77 (19%), candor with 62 (16%), and consistency with 55 (14%). Figure 6 displays the frequency distribution across the trust domains.

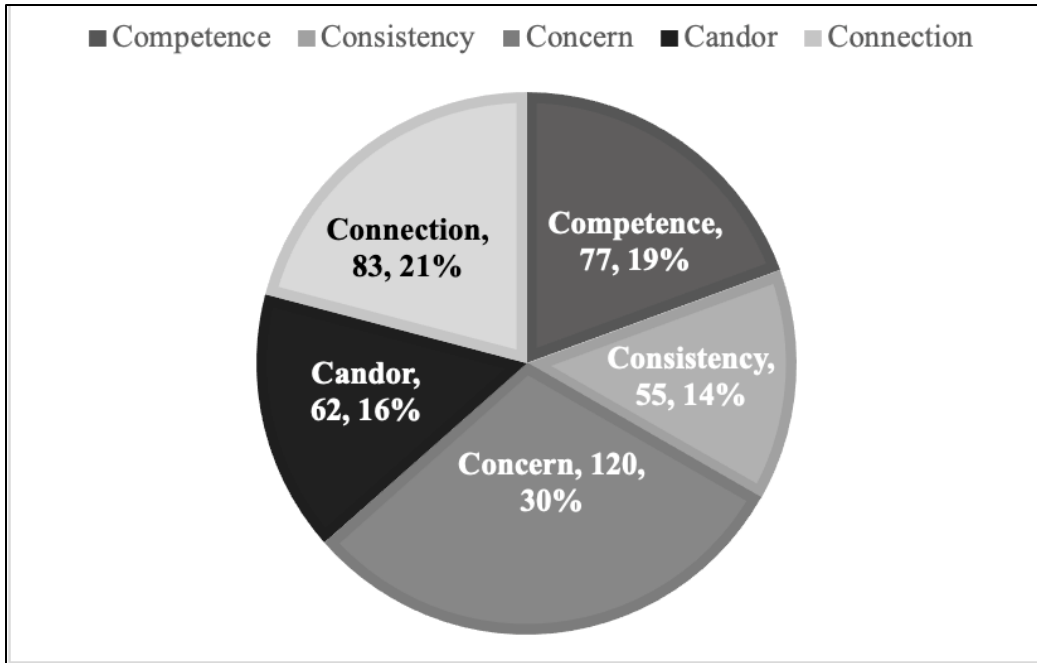


Figure 6. Frequency distribution of trust domains.

The following sections provide an analysis of the data arranged according to the domains with the greatest number of themes and references.

Concern

Concern was defined as the value placed on the well-being of all members of an organization, promoting their welfare at work, and empathizing with their needs. Concern entails fostering a collaborative and safe environment where leaders and members are able to show their vulnerability, and support, motivate, and care for each other (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Covey & Merrill, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Livnat, 2004; Weisman, 2010a). As indicated in Table 3, six themes associated with the trust domain of concern were generated from the data analysis. These themes were referenced 120 times by the study participants.

Table 3

Themes related to Concern

Themes	Interviews	Interviews (n)	Observations	Artifacts	Frequency
Treating Others with Respect	23	10	3	2	28
Providing Opportunities for Development	11	7	5	9	25
Promoting an Inclusive Environment	19	7	1	2	22
Showing Interest in the Personal Lives of Other	10	6	3	6	19
Being Available and Adaptable	10	7	4	0	14
Being Transparent and Admitting Mistakes	9	5	0	3	12

Treating others with respect. Treating others with respect was the most common theme for Research Sub-Question 3 and the entire study, referenced 28 times. In the interviews, this theme was referenced 23 times and by all 10 study participants. It was referenced three times in the observation field notes and in two artifacts. Anderson-Ackerman and Anderson (2010) stated organizations are comprised of human beings, and the members of the organization want and deserve to be treated with respect, concern, and gratitude for their contributions to the organization’s success and viability. Participant 1 described a situation in which she had to mediate an argument between two individuals. She understood there was an age difference between the members and their “respect values were different.” She listened to different points of view and expressed her respect for both individuals. She helped them understand “no matter what point of view you have, you’re still trying to accomplish the same goal.”

Participant 6 said it was important to treat staff and volunteers with respect even when they were not performing to the best of their ability. She advised, “Everyone has

something going on in their life and they may not want to share it.” She also expressed it was not appropriate “to call [someone] out on something they’re not doing well” or if “they failed at something.” She recalled a situation in which she worked with a staff member who was underperforming. The participant took the time to understand how she could support the individual to be more successful in the future.

Philippine American nonprofit leaders also demonstrated their respect by showing appreciation. A common form of appreciation was offering food and sharing a meal with others. Participant 9 described how they always fed their volunteers after every event. He explained they will “meet at a restaurant and just feed them all.” Participant 5 reflected on a time her team accomplished one of their large goals for the year. She invited everyone to her house and had lunch together to celebrate. Participant 10 explained how she went to all her staff and volunteers to “[make] sure that they eat.”

In two out of the three observations, participants were observed expressing a Philippine gesture of respect to elders often referred to in Tagalog as *mano po*. Participants 1 and 3 pressed their forehead to the back of an elder’s hand as a sign of respect to the elder and as a way of asking for their blessing. From the artifacts, Participant 6 conveyed her respect and gratitude for her staff and volunteers by publicly expressing her appreciation in social media posts and by highlighting accomplishments in email and newsletters.

Providing opportunities for development. This theme was referenced 25 times across the three forms of data. For the interview data, it was referenced 11 times by seven participants. It also was referenced five times in the observations and nine times in the artifacts. Kieres and Gutmore (2014) indicated leaders who care about their followers

should provide them with opportunities to grow personally and professionally. Participant 2 spoke of how he provided opportunities for development whenever their organization had a new event. He looked for “volunteers who may want to lead and share the event.” He explained he prefers to “allow them to take the ball and run with it, while [he] oversees and provides support.” He expressed excitement when he sees their “talent come to light.”

Participant 4 emphasized his desire to provide opportunities for growth from a holistic point of view. He stated their leadership helped “transform staff and volunteers, so we have to think about all the holistic needs of their lives.” He wanted them “to be better people through a multidisciplinary approach.” Several of the Philippine American nonprofit leaders indicated it was important for them to provide opportunities for development to train future leaders of their organization. Participant 4 acknowledged “a lot of senior staff have been with [the organization] a long time.” He was “opening up opportunities for newer staff to be involved” to “keep the organization moving forward.”

Three of the nine artifacts collected showed opportunities for leadership positions. One of the artifacts from Participant 7 highlighted the need for younger volunteers to run for leadership positions. In one observation, Participant 3 was presenting the upcoming events for the year and encouraged members to join the committees for the events. For the more senior members, she requested they take the lead on a committee or support a new member to take the lead.

Promoting an inclusive environment. This theme was referenced 22 times across the interviews, observations, and artifacts. It was referenced 19 times by seven participants in the interviews, once in the observations, and twice in the artifacts. Lee

(2007) stated organizations with a diverse and inclusive work environment are more successful than those that do not promote diversity and inclusion. Participant 7 described how he facilitated and encouraged conversation between members. He advised mixing “people up by gender, experience, or age” so they “develop a rapport with one another and hopefully be able to kind of trust one another and see each other’s perspectives.” In a similar fashion, Participant 4 described,

We’re trying to create a space where were able to make people feel comfortable to share what their perspectives are, what their concerns are, and what their issues are. That comes from just creating a safe place for communication. It is safe for them to share their feelings and we also have to listen to them.

Participant 5 spoke of how she promoted an inclusive environment by ensuring everyone felt included. She reflected on a meeting where their members were discussing a new event for the organization. She knew “some people will talk and some people won’t.” She looked at the “people who were not saying anything” and said, “I know you have a genuine interest in this, what do you think about it?” She wanted to ensure those who were less talkative were not overshadowed and included in the discussion.

Similarly, in one of the observations, Participant 3 ensured each person had the opportunity to share his or her opinion on each agenda item. An artifact from Participant 2 was the ground rules for their organization’s board meetings, which indicated meetings were a safe space where topics were to be discussed in a respectful manner.

Showing interest in the personal lives of others. This theme was referenced 19 times in the data. For the interviews, it was referenced 10 times by six of the participants,

and it was referenced three times in the observations and six times in the artifacts.

Burchell and Robin (2011) advised when leaders understand the personal lives of their followers, they develop a relationship and gain a better understanding of how the personal lives of their organizational members impact their work. While describing his personal philosophy, Participant 2 discussed why he likes learning about the personal lives of his members and how it helps him better work with them, saying,

One of the things that I've always told myself jokingly is that if you're going to work with people, then it seems like you're going to be dating them. You have to get to know them. You can't just be all about work.

"Here's your task list, do it." So, to be able to know how to motivate them and how to better work with them, you have to know their personality and their personal life.

Likewise, Participant 6 relayed "understanding their [member's] family dynamics, their personal interests, as well as career interests, helps [her] really understand how to engage with them more." Participant 4 showed interest in the personal lives of his members by attending their celebrations. He stated, "A lot of volunteers graduated last year, so a lot of them are inviting me to their graduation parties or graduation ceremonies." He advised it was important for him to "be there for them in a personal and also a professional level."

In all three of the observations, the Philippine American nonprofit leaders demonstrated their interest in the personal lives of their members. Before the start of Participant 3's meeting, everyone was conversing and catching-up on each other's personal lives. The participant was unable to speak with everyone. However, she spoke

with a several people regarding their families and shared updates regarding her own family. One of the artifacts collected from Participant 10 was a flyer for an art show. The participant understood art was a personal interest of one her members. She helped the member setup an art show for his artwork at the organization's building for a few days.

Being available and adaptable. This theme was referenced 14 times across the three forms of data. During interviews it was referenced 10 times by seven participants; it was referenced four times during observations and not referenced in the artifacts. When leaders are available and flexible, followers feel safe, supported, and encouraged to communicate openly (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon, & Ziv, 2010). Participant 1 indicated their organization's members knew they could go to her any time. She "always reminds them that [she is] always available by e-mail, text, or in-person." Their organization lacks dedicated facilities, so it can sometimes be challenging to meet with members outside of scheduled events and meetings. However, she explained they will "meet at a coffee shop and talk one-on-one if [they] need to."

Participant 6 recalled a time when two of her staff members needed to step down from their lead committee positions. The participant stated the members approached her after a meeting and expressed "it just wasn't working for them anymore." The participant listened to their concerns and relayed to them, "It's okay if life changes," and allowed them to respectfully resign. Although the participant was saddened by her staff members resignations, she also emphasized this was also "an opportunity for other folks that are interested in doing more to be able to step up."

All three participants observed displayed how they were available and adaptable leaders. The field notes from Participant 4 showed how he was unexpectedly approached

by an outside community member regarding a project they were working on together. The participant was already on his way to a different task, but took time to speak with the community member and listen to her concerns. He then scheduled time for them to communicate later in the day.

Being transparent and admitting mistakes. This theme was referenced 12 times in the data. It was referenced nine times during interviews by five participants; although it was not referenced during observations, it was referenced three times in the artifacts. Moua (2010) stated successful leaders need to create transparent environments where they can openly practice and learn from their mistakes. Participant 1 shared a time when she made a mistake with her organization's announcements. She described sending regular updates to members regarding organizational events, "but it was only on Facebook and I forgot that not everyone has Facebook." She accepted responsibility for the mistake and informed members updates would be sent through multiple platforms "so that everyone gets it."

Participant 6 expressed understanding some members keep their guard up "because they want to keep a professional image." She agreed being professional was important, but within nonprofits, "the more transparent and authentic you are, the more relatable you are as a person." The participant discussed how she leads by example by "showing that it is okay to show up as yourself." She states it makes her members "feel comfortable, confident, and open to share who they are."

Although this theme was not seen in the observations, it was referenced in three of the artifacts. One artifact was an email to Participant 9's organization regarding a miscalculation on their fundraising goal. Due to his miscalculation, he overestimated how

much progress they made on their fundraising goal. He accepted responsibility for the error, apologized, and provided the correct calculations.

Competence

Competence was defined as the ability to perform a task or fulfill a role as expected (Covey, 2009; Farnsworth, 2015; Handford & Leithwood, 2013; Tschannen-Moran, 2014). As indicated in Table 4, five themes associated with the trust domain of competence were generated from the data analysis. These themes were referenced 77 times by study participants.

Table 4

Themes related to Competence

Themes	Interviews	Interviews (n)	Observations	Artifacts	Frequency
Demonstrating Leadership Abilities	11	8	6	7	24
Fostering a Collaborative Environment	13	9	2	4	19
Supporting Growth and Development	7	4	4	5	16
Providing and Maintaining a Clear Purpose	4	3	1	8	13
Acknowledging Personal Limitations	5	4	0	0	5

Demonstrating leadership abilities. Demonstrating leadership abilities was the most common theme for Research Sub-question 1, referenced 24 times. In the interviews, this theme was referenced 11 times by eight study participants, and it was referenced six times during observations and in seven artifacts. Weisman and Jusino (2016) advised competence is the ability to provide what people want and need. In Philippine American nonprofit organizations, the staff and volunteers want to achieve the vision and mission of the organization. Leadership is the process by which an individual can help and

influence a group of people to achieve their common goal, such as achieving the vision and mission (Northouse, 2016).

Reflecting on her experience as a new leader, Participant 1 was eager to demonstrate her leadership abilities right from the start. She wanted to come into her new position with ideas for “policies, structure, and format” so she could “prove [herself] to the existing leadership.” Participant 5 demonstrated her leadership abilities through leading by example. She stated if I do “a good job myself, even at the smallest tasks, and have high expectations for myself, the [members] know I expect the same from them.” Similarly, Participant 6 wanted to demonstrate her leadership abilities by showing her members her strong work ethic and dedication to the organization. This participant indicated,

I’m out there doing the work with them. Whether it’s getting the center pieces put together, making sure our golfers have everything they need, welcoming people, or signing people in. I’m not just here to shake hands and kiss babies. I’m here to do the work with you and make sure that the event is a success though my contributions as well.

Philippine American nonprofit leaders also utilized their professional experience to demonstrate leadership abilities. During an observation of an organization’s event, Participant 1 was approached by several people at once asking questions at the same time. The participant advised her prior experience in her professional career and knowledge of her organization allowed her to gain control of the situation and effectively address all questions and concerns.

Fostering a collaborative environment. This theme was referenced 19 times across the three forms of data collected. For the interview data, it was referenced 13 times by nine of the participants. It also was referenced two times during observations and four times in the artifacts. Bass and Riggio (2006) posited contemporary approaches to leadership focus more on creating and establishing collaborative relationships and sharing power with followers. Participant 4 stated the idea “everybody should have a say is very Filipino.” He stated the Filipino culture is “highly relational and highly participatory.” When describing the format and structures of their organizational meetings, the same participant advised he “encourages people to participate in any way, shape, or form.”

Participant 5 fostered a collaborative environment by seeking a better understanding of the skills and abilities of her staff. When working on a project or event with a new staff member, she “asks key questions along the way so [she] knows what their skills are.” Then, after considering her own abilities, she determines “how [they] can blend and be successful together.” Participant 2 fostered a collaborative environment by ensuring members knew about and were invited to all board meetings. From the artifacts provided, he showed how the board meeting times and locations were in the organizational newsletter and email communications. At events, he told members they are welcome to attend and “once the notes are approved by the board, they’re open for everyone to see and read.”

The observation field notes for Participant 3’s organizational meeting displayed how she encouraged collaboration among members. The participant wanted members to generate new and creative ideas for lesson plans. Members were split into groups during the meeting and asked to share their experiences and develop innovative lesson plan ideas

that would encourage student participation. The small groups then presented their ideas to the larger group and they created one consolidated list for members to reference and use.

Supporting growth and development. This theme was referenced 16 times across the interviews, observations, and artifacts. It was referenced seven times by four participants in the interviews, four times during observations, and five times in artifacts. Weisman and Jusino (2016) explained growth comes from efforts designed for sustainability and deepening relationships. Participant 3 described her experience with a staff member who did not like to lead projects because she lacked confidence and was “shy because of the language barrier.” The participant explained after the completion of the project, the staff member “was thankful because she saw that she can actually do something big like that.” The participant expressed the experience “made [them] trust each other more.”

Similarly, Participant 2 encouraged members to participate in areas playing to their strengths. The participant recalled a conversation with a member and said, “You’re good with publicity and outreach, maybe you want to see if you can help out with the summer outreach?” He said, “For us, it’s really important that [our members] are engaged” because “they’re our future.” In a different organization, Participant 6 supported growth and development by acknowledging and recognizing members for their work. She said,

I really try not to take credit for anything because it’s the members that do a lot of the heavy lifting. Together, the work gets done, and I really like to highlight them and their contributions. I think it motivates other members to want do more.

The artifacts and observations also relayed the theme of supporting growth and development. One of the artifacts submitted by Participant 4 was a PowerPoint presentation of a leadership training he conducted with his staff. The participant recently attended a leadership conference and wanted to share the knowledge he gained with his staff. He encouraged his staff to participate in similar experiences and invited them to attend future conferences and events. Participant 1 was observed encouraging a younger member to lead the practice warm-ups. The participant advised trying to give any opportunity possible to allow younger members to lead.

Providing and maintaining a clear purpose. This theme was referenced 13 times in the data collected. During interviews, it was referenced four times by three participants. Furthermore, it was referenced once during observations and eight times in the artifacts. Purpose, along with shared vision and values, becomes the foundation on which members in an organization align and move as a united whole into the future (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010). Participant 4 advised,

Where vision is required, the leaders and staff, we can do that because that's our role, vision and leadership. We've got to provide that for our members because they look to us. What's the purpose? What are we doing here in [this organization]? Why is it important?

Participant 9 discussed how he provided and maintained a clear purpose in their decision-making process. When he and his staff made decisions for the organization, he indicated, "It really comes down to what you're trying to decide and how much [you] identify with what you're trying to do." Additionally, he expressed, "It all comes down to

how to basically explain what your goals are, what short-term objectives there are to meet a long-term goal.”

More than half (60%) the participants provided artifacts displaying the vision and mission of their respective organizations. This theme was referenced more in the artifacts than interview data. The artifacts also showed the process by which members created or revised the vision and mission of their organization. The artifacts included meeting agendas and notes that described the process participants and members went through. One artifact from Participant 5 showed a side-by-side comparison of the old and new vision and mission of the organization. It also indicated the reasoning and justification for the change.

Acknowledging personal limitations. This theme was referenced five times in the interviews by four participants, but not found during observations or in artifacts. Being vulnerable as a leader is accepting not having all of the answers and not controlling all the process and outcomes (Anderson-Ackerman & Anderson, 2010). Participant 2 spoke of an experience where he tried to do everything in a project himself. He struggled with “knowing what [he] could do and what [he] could not do.” He stated, “it took some time for me to learn how to delegate properly.”

Participant 6 acknowledged her personal limitations with awareness of her own skills and abilities. She stated she “presents [herself] as someone who does not have all the answers.” She understood “board members that have been on the board longer” are “a wealth of knowledge.” She described everyone in the organization had different strengths and weaknesses.

Connection

Connection was defined as a shared link or bond where with a sense of emotional engagement and interrelatedness (Sloan & Oliver, 2013; Stovall & Baker, 2010; White et al., 2016). As indicated in Table 5, four themes associated with the trust domain of connection were generated from the data analysis. These themes were referenced 83 times by the study participants.

Table 5

Themes related to Connection

Themes	Interviews	Interviews (n)	Observations	Artifacts	Frequency
Building and Maintaining Personal Relationships	20	8	4	3	27
Listening and Showing Appreciation	10	6	8	3	21
Establishing a Shared Purpose and Values	16	6	0	4	20
Participating in Shared Decision Making	12	7	1	2	15

Building and maintaining personal relationships. Building and maintaining personal relationships was the most common theme for sub-question five, referenced 27 times. In the interviews, this theme was referenced 20 times by eight study participants. It was referenced four times during observations and in three artifacts. Caldwell, Hayes, Karri, and Bernal (2008) stated building stronger personal relationships was essential to creating trust and improving a leader's credibility within the organization and society. Participant 7 emphasized the importance of food in building and maintaining personal relationships with his members, sharing,

I'm a firm believer in that, from a cultural perspective, food is one of those gateways to build connections. Some people think of it as a kind of food fiesta, but food from a cultural standpoint is something that really connects people together and sets the foundation of commonality with one another.

Similarly, Participant 3 emphasized the importance of food and developing relationships in informal settings. She stated she “brings food all the time” to their meetings and events. She also noted she and other members in the organization will “watch the same concerts” and “go to events related to Filipino culture and tradition.” She described how their meetings flowed more easily now that everyone was more comfortable with each other.

Participant 1 recalled the time she first became president of her organization. She wanted to build relationships with the long-standing board members and leaders, so she “scheduled one-on-one meetings” to “get to know them and they could get to know [her].” She wanted them to know how much she valued them and to learn from them.

In all three observations, the participants demonstrated how they built and maintained personal relationships with their members. At the end of their meeting, Participant 4 was talking to a member about the date of his daughter's baptism and adding it to his calendar. At the same time, he was inviting the member and his family to his daughter's birthday party. One of the artifacts collected from Participant 6 was a flyer for the organization's karaoke night. The participant explained the event served as a night for members to bond, build relationships, and fundraise for the organization.

Listening and showing appreciation. This theme was referenced 21 times in the study data. It was referenced 10 times in the interviews by six participants, and

referenced eight times during observations and three times in artifacts. Transformational leaders listen to their followers, value them, and make them feel like an integral part of the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Participant 1 described a time when she was communicating with her staff regarding one of the organization's goals. She advised the staff, "It's not going to happen in one year. It's not going to happen in two years. This is probably a five, maybe 10-year plan." She told them she could not "get there without [them]" and relayed she "wanted and valued their opinions." The participant encouraged all of them to "speak up and share their ideas."

Participant 4 understood most of his organizational members were volunteers and tried to show he "really values everybody's contributions." He made it a point to listen to and validate their concerns. He said, "Giving thanks and recognizing people's effort" provides them with the "energy that [they] need to keep going."

In the observational notes, Participant 1 was providing closing remarks at an event and updating the membership on upcoming meetings and events. For one of the events, the staff needed more details and clarification on the performance. The participant listened to their questions, addressed their concerns, and thanked them for leading the performance. One of the artifacts referenced was the website of Participant 3's organization. They have a page for awards and recognitions to recognize the hard work of their members. Another artifact from the same participant was a newsletter that also recognized member accomplishments.

Establishing a shared purpose and values. This theme was referenced 20 times in the data. For the interviews, it was referenced 16 times by six of participants. It was not referenced in the observations, but was referenced four times in the artifacts.

Weisman and Jusino (2016) posited shared values and purpose within an organization builds long term trust, loyalty, and relationships. Participant 1 advised she ensures all members are aware of “the values of the organization,” so they understand how their “programs support their values.” She advised the purpose of their organization “is to create a space where [members] can learn about the Filipino culture.” She encouraged members to “make sure that whatever programming [they] do goes back to that purpose.”

Participant 4 highlighted the importance of a shared purpose and values across generations. He indicated they are “trying to make [the shared values] more explicit as [they] move forward to the next generation.” The participant stated he and other leaders are maturing, and a transitional process was important for their organization to “continue as a non-profit, mission-based organization for generations to come.”

Two of the four artifacts collected were minutes from meetings, from Participants 8 and 5, that displayed how the Philippine American nonprofit leaders re-established a shared purpose and values with their members. The organizations had an existing shared purpose and values; the meetings were an exercise to ensure the members understood and agreed with the shared purpose and values of the organization.

Participating in shared decision making. This theme was referenced 15 times across the interviews, observations, and artifacts. It was referenced 12 times by seven participants in interviews, once during observations, and twice in the artifacts. When followers are involved in the decision-making process, they know they are valued and do their best to ensure the success of the organization (Lee, 2017). Participant 1 explained how she actively sought to understand the different views of her membership, saying,

It's very important for me to get their feedback and opinions. I want them to speak up. I encourage them to speak up. I say that it's okay to disagree but let me also know why you disagree. We have good conversations and so forth around that. Sometimes I will agree with them and say "You've got a good point. You know what? I'm good with that. Let's go with your idea."

Similarly, Participant 8 advised giving the staff members "a chance to participate at all times" and "include them in the decision-making process." She explained trying to "not be judgmental" and "fair with any suggestions or comments." The participant stated it helped their meetings run more smoothly.

During one of the observations, Participant 3 encouraged members to share their opinions about the various proposals they were voting on. She emphasized their opinions were valued and important to the process. One of the artifacts collected was an email communication between Participant 5 and one of her board members. The board member had missed the meeting and she wanted to make the board member understood what he missed and had the opportunity to express his opinion.

Candor

Candor was defined as communicating information in a precise manner and being truthful despite not want to provide such information (Gordon & Gilley, 2012; O'Toole & Bennis, 2009; Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Weisman & Jusino, 2016). As indicated in Table 6, four themes associated with the trust domain of candor were generated from the data analysis. These themes were referenced 62 times by the study participants.

Table 6

Themes related to Candor

Themes	Interviews	Interviews (n)	Observations	Artifacts	Frequency
Demonstrating Vulnerability and Inviting Feedback	21	8	0	2	23
Being Open and Straightforward	15	10	0	2	17
Being Accessible	9	8	3	0	12
Maintaining a Safe Environment	8	5	1	1	10

Demonstrating vulnerability and inviting feedback. Demonstrating vulnerability and inviting feedback was the most common theme for Research Sub-Question 4, referenced 23 times. In the interviews, this theme was referenced 21 times by eight study participants. It was not referenced during observations, but was referenced twice in the artifacts. Lencioni (2002) posited the most important action a leader must take to build trust is to demonstrate vulnerability and risk losing face in front of team, so members will be encouraged to take the same risk themselves. Participant 3 recalled a period in which she was the leader of the organization, but also the youngest member. She said at the time, “most of [her board] were 20 years plus older than [her].” She acknowledged “there were some things [she] did not know yet and was not experienced in.” The participant, although in a higher-ranking leadership position, demonstrated vulnerability and “respectfully listened to their feedback.”

Participant 6 demonstrated vulnerability and invited feedback from her board when she felt her professional career had impacted her ability to successfully perform as the leader of their organization. She explained,

I felt like I was more busy than normal with my day job and I wasn't able to engage as much with the board. So, during one of our last board meetings in December, I owned up to it and acknowledged that I was a little more MIA because I was traveling a lot and I started a new role at work that demanded a little bit more of my time. This prevented me from really being the leader.

She discussed how the board appreciated her honesty and provided her with feedback on how she could approach the situation differently in the future. She also recalled how they began to share the challenges they had that year as well.

One of the artifacts provided by Participant 2 was a yearly feedback survey he and other leaders of their organization sent to their membership. The survey asked members to anonymously evaluate the performance of their leaders and requested feedback on how to improve.

Being open and straightforward. This theme was referenced 17 times in the data collected. For the interviews, it was referenced 15 times by all 10 participants. It was not referenced in the observational data, but found twice in the artifacts. In respect for privacy of others, it was not always possible to be transparent. However, as a leader, it was still important to model behaviors such as being honest and straightforward, when feasible, to foster an open working environment (Burchell & Robin, 2011).

Participant 1 described a situation in which the organization did not obtain a grant that primarily pays for their instructional staff. She advised she "had to have that conversation with teachers and let them know that even though we're currently paying this much, we've got to reduce it down to this." She allowed the teachers to voice their

concerns and told them it was completely fine if they needed to step away from their teaching role due to the lack of funding. Additionally, the participant explained she was “transparent with the parents as well” and told them fees would be increasing for the upcoming year due to the loss of the grant. She said because she was open and straightforward with the organization, they were able to generate a solution to “balance out the loss.” The membership organized a fundraiser that helped to mostly mitigate the absence of the grant for that year.

Participant 8 also stated how she was open and straightforward about the finances of the organization. She said she tries “to let [members] know what is going on with the board” and be “transparent about the budget because [they’re] always struggling.” She expressed she always tries to “be honest with them about the financial struggles” because, in the past, she claimed members felt “like they weren’t being told the truth about the state of the organization.”

Participant 10 explained how she was sometimes “perceived as being too honest” and sometimes “they’re not ready to hear that much honesty.” However, she noted she would rather communicate with people openly instead of people misunderstanding her. She stated because they communicate openly, “they understand that it’s not a personal attack but rather constructive criticism.”

One of the artifacts collected from Participant 9 was their organization’s income and expense budget that was shared in a newsletter they sent to members. The participant wanted members to be aware of where funding was coming from and where it was being spent.

Being accessible. This theme was referenced 12 times across the interviews, observations, and artifacts. It was referenced nine times by eight participants in the interviews, and three times during the observations, but not referenced in the artifacts. Blanchard, Olmstead, and Lawrence (2013) stated leaders responsive to their organizational members do not always need to immediately fulfill their request, but being accessible and acknowledging the requests shows reliability and builds trust. Participant 7 discussed how he lives outside of southern California, so he flies to southern California “once or twice a month, if needed, to be available for monthly meetings and organizational commitments.” He explained how it is a personal commitment he made given they allowed him to continue to be the leader of their organization.

Participant 3 showed how she was accessible by explaining how her staff has her “cell phone and personal number.” She said they can also contact her via email, Facebook, or other avenues as needed. She noted she may be too open, but no one had taken “advantage of it in any way, so it is okay.”

In all three of the observations, participants demonstrated how they were accessible to staff and volunteers. Participant 1 displayed her accessibility by always ensuring a staff member knew where she was if she had to step away. Many people relied on her for information and direction, so she wanted to ensure they knew how to find her if needed.

Maintaining a safe environment. This theme was referenced 10 times across the three forms of data collected. For the interview data, it was referenced eight times by five of the participants. It also was referenced once during observations and once in the artifacts. Leaders must create and maintain environments where diversity is encouraged

and conflicting values can be safely expressed and explored through dialogue (Moua, 2010). Participant 7 described how he maintains a safe environment when staff is discussing a sensitive or difficult issue. He noted, “People don’t want to be outed or share something that may be unpopular.” He explained he has everyone complete anonymous cards and “see where the discussion, votes, or people come in.” He believes anonymity can help people “feel that they can be open and honest.”

Participant 4 shared a situation in which he and his fellow staff members were having challenges with a new staff member. He relayed how they “allowed that person to really just share in a non-judgmental way.” Together, they “created a safe communication space for them” to discuss how they could support the new staff member.

The one observation for this theme occurred during Participant 3’s meeting. The participant reviewed the ground rules for the meeting and ensured everyone understood the meeting was a safe and confidential environment. The one artifact collected was the ground rules and guidelines of Participant 2’s organization, which showed how they maintained and encouraged a safe environment.

Consistency

Consistency was defined as the confidence a person’s pattern of behavior is reliable, dependable, and steadfast (Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Weisman & Jusino, 2016). As indicated in Table 7, four themes associated with the trust domain of consistency were generated from the data analysis. These themes were referenced 55 times by study participants.

Table 7

Themes related to Consistency

Themes	Interviews	Interviews (n)	Observations	Artifacts	Frequency
Having a Set Process and Procedure	13	6	2	3	18
Checking for Mutual Understanding	14	8	1	1	16
Being Available and Reliable	12	6	2	1	15
Remaining Calm and Professional	4	4	2	0	6

Having a set process and procedure. Having a set process and procedure was the most common theme for Research Sub-Question 2, referenced 18 times. In the interviews, this theme was referenced 13 times by six study participants, referenced twice in the observation field notes, and three time in the artifacts. Standardized procedures and instructions are expected to limit uncertainty and establish stability within an organization (D. Anderson, 2016). Participant 5 shared how having a set process and procedure for meetings helped with consistency, saying,

For meetings, there has to be an agenda. A roadmap for me and for those participating in the meeting. Minutes, and reports after meetings, help to ensure understanding and accountability, especially when you note an action item. Before I develop the agenda, I write down the purpose of the meeting and what I hope to accomplish.

Participant 2 stressed the importance of a set process and procedure for communication. He made clear when it was appropriate to text, call, or send an email. The participant also wanted his staff to understand how to use different kinds of

communication depending on the “level of urgency and importance of the of the communication.” For example, “they established that if it’s not stated in the email what time you should be replying, assume that you reply within 24 hours.”

Participant 1 explained how having a set process and procedure helped her with a staff member who was missing deadlines due to a medical condition. The staff member requested assistance in holding herself accountable, so the participant helped by setting up “her calendar so that she has reminders,” and informed the staff member that “if [she] is not getting these invoices by a specific date, then that’s [her] cue.” The participant explained she “does not like to micromanage,” but because of the staff member’s medical condition, “she wanted to double-check” her work.

One of the artifacts provided was a template agenda Participant 5 uses to frame meetings. Each line item included a space for the topic, information, action, and expected results. In the observational field notes, Participant 3 was recorded referencing the organization’s bylaws during a meeting to explain to their voting process.

Checking for mutual understanding. This theme was referenced 16 times across the three forms of data collected. For the interview data, it was referenced 14 times by eight participants. It also was referenced once in the observations and once in the artifacts collected. One of the most valuable disciplines any team or organization can adopt is to take a few minutes to ensure everyone is on the same page and clearly aligned (Lencioni, 2002). Participant 1 described how she often follows up to confirm a clear understanding of her message and expectations, saying,

Just be as clear as possible on what we’re doing, even if it means repeating. “Do you guys understand this e-mail?” “Let me know what you

just heard.” So, that there’s a clear communication, and that there isn’t any confusion. My goal is, when we have a conversation, I want you to be able to walk away and say, “I understood what we just talked about.”

Participant 2 shared how it was important for members to understand how the organization fit into each of their lives. He stated, “some people put [our organization] as number one, but for some, they’ll put school or work, and that’s okay.” He recognized they are a volunteer organization and people have different priorities. He believed this process helped them prioritize organizational events and tasks. He advised to have a clear and shared understanding of “where a task ranks in [their] lives.”

During an observation, Participant 4 was teaching a short lesson and checked for understanding by asking members if they could reiterate certain parts of his lesson. The participant also engaged some of the members in a discussion so he could gain new insights. The artifact provided was Participant 5’s email conversation with one of her board members about an agenda item for an upcoming meeting agenda for which they disagreed. However, they wanted to be on the same page for the meeting. They each made certain concessions and ultimately agreed on a plan that worked for both.

Being available and reliable. This theme was referenced 15 times across the interviews, observations, and artifacts. It was referenced 12 times by six participants in the interviews. Additionally, it was referenced twice in the observations and once in the artifacts. Leaders should make themselves available to their members, stand by them, and provide them with support (Northouse, 2016). Participant 2 recalled an event in which his staff members were confronted by an angry family. He explained the family was first “talking to staff” but then “they started shouting at them.” The participant “personally felt

that [he] had to step in” and relieve his staff members from the escalated situation. His intention was “to de-escalate and do damage control, but at the same time, try to save [his] staff.”

Participant 7 shared a moment in which the organization’s facility was damaged by heavy rains. The participant was not in the area at the time, but his staff and volunteers still relied on him for guidance and direction. He provided support “by phone and talking with everybody.” The participant said that event, although difficult for the organization, also helped to show members “[he] took the job seriously.”

During one observation, Participant 1 was approached by several members who had questions regarding practice schedules, meetings, and upcoming events. The participant listened to and addressed each member’s concerns, and where possible, redirected members to another staff member who could better assist them.

Remaining calm and professional. This theme was referenced six times in the study data. It was referenced four times during the interviews by four participants. It was also referenced twice during observations but not referenced in the artifacts. Leaders who have a clear sense of their values and principles before they encounter difficult situations are better prepared to keep their bearings and calmly navigate through tough decisions and dilemmas (B. George, 2015). Participant 8 recalled a time she had to terminate a staff member without prior notice. The participant explained “the whole staff was affected by it” and “there was a lot of feedback from the staff.” She noted “a lot of them were angry, a lot of them were hurt, or they were scared about their own positions.” The participant “called everybody into a staff meeting” to address their questions. She emphasized it was

important for her to remain professional throughout the entire ordeal as “terminations are always difficult, especially when you have to let them go the day of.”

In one observations, Participant 3 had to resolve a disagreement between two members during a meeting. The participant called a break to speak with each of the members individually and then together. She remained calm and professional throughout the entire interaction. After the members came back from the break, the two individuals involved in the fight apologized for their actions to the other members and the participant continued the meeting.

Key Findings

A total of 23 themes were identified through the review and analysis of the interview transcripts, observational field notes, and artifacts. Further analysis of the themes produced 12 key findings of how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers using the five domains of connection, concern, candor, competence, and consistency. The key findings were determined by the following criteria:

- The theme was referenced by at least 80% of study participants
- The theme had a minimum of 15 coded references

The themes included in the key findings and qualifying criteria are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8

Summary of Key Findings

Domain	Themes	% of Participants	Frequency
Concern	• Treating Others with Respect	100%	28
	• Providing Opportunities for Development	90%	25
	• Promoting an Inclusive Environment	80%	22
	• Showing Interest in the Personal Lives of Others	90%	19
Competence	• Demonstrating Leadership Abilities	80%	24
	• Fostering a Collaborative Environment	90%	19
Connection	• Building and Maintaining Personal Relationships	100%	27
	• Participating in Shared Decision-Making	90%	15
Candor	• Demonstrating Vulnerability and Inviting Feedback	80%	23
	• Being Open and Straightforward	100%	17
Consistency	• Having a Set Process and Procedure	80%	18
	• Checking for Mutual Understanding	80%	16

Summary

The chapter began with review of the purpose statement, research questions, and methodology. This phenomenological study examined data from 10 interviews, three observations, and 53 artifacts to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection. An analysis of the three data sources yielded a total of 23 themes and 397 references. Further analysis of the themes produced 12 key findings describing how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers using the five domains of Weisman's trust model.

CHAPTER V: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter V presents a summary of the study research. The chapter begins by revisiting the purpose statement, central research question, sub-questions, methodology, population, and sample. Then, the major findings for each of the five trust domains and unexpected findings are discussed. Next, the researcher draws conclusions and outlines the implications for action. Lastly, the chapter concludes with recommendations for further research and concluding remarks and reflections.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

Research Questions

This study was guided by one central research question and five sub-questions. The central research question was: How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection? The five sub-questions were:

1. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using competence?
2. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using consistency?
3. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using concern?

4. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using candor?
5. How do Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using connection?

Methodology

This study used a qualitative phenomenological research design to describe and explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers. Data were collected from 10 participants via in-depth interviews, observations, and review of artifacts. In-depth interviews were the primary data collection method and observations and artifacts were used to triangulate themes and patterns. The recorded interviews were professionally transcribed and verified by the study participants for accuracy. The interview data were then coded and analyzed for emerging themes.

Population and Sample

The population of this study was Philippine American nonprofit organization leaders in the United States. The target population of the study was 154 Philippine American organizations and their corresponding leaders located in southern California. The 10 study participants were delimited to Philippine American nonprofit organization leaders over 21 years of age and who served in a leadership role for a Philippine American nonprofit organization in southern California for at least three years.

Major Findings

This study identified 12 major findings through the review and analysis of data from interview transcripts, observational field notes, and review of artifacts. The themes

meeting the following criteria were determined to be major findings: (a) the theme was referenced by at least 80% of the study participants, and (b) the theme had a minimum of 15 coded references. The domain of concern had four major findings and the domains of competence, connection, candor, and consistency each had two major findings. The major findings included:

Concern

1. Treating Others with Respect
2. Providing Opportunities for Development
3. Promoting an Inclusive Environment
4. Showing Interest in the Personal Lives of Others

Competence

5. Demonstrating Leadership Abilities
6. Fostering a Collaborative Environment

Connection

7. Building and Maintaining Personal Relationships
8. Participating in Shared Decision Making

Candor

9. Demonstrating Vulnerability and Inviting Feedback
10. Being Open and Straightforward

Consistency

11. Having a Set Process and Procedure
12. Checking for Mutual Understanding

Unexpected Findings

Three unexpected findings resulted from this study. First, themes related to being available and accessible were identified in three of the five trust domains: concern, candor, and consistency. However, availability and accessibility were not determined to be a major finding. Second, the findings of this study do not support the ascending pyramid nature of Weisman's Trust Model (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). The frequency of the five domains of trust were distributed in an unequal manner not representative of a pyramid. Third, the impact of Philippine American culture on trust was unexpected.

Available and Accessible

Gordon and Gilley (2012) advised one universal approach to building a relationship with followers was physical presence and a genuine interest in followers. Furthermore, one of the 10 conditions of trust suggested by Butler (1991) was availability of the leader. However, despite the importance of availability and accessibility, none of the themes related to a leader's availability and accessibility were determined to be a major finding in this study.

Three themes related to being available and accessible. The domain of concern had the theme of being available and adaptable, the domain of candor had the theme of being accessible, and the domain of consistency had the theme of being available and reliable. When combined, they were referenced 41 times across the three forms of data, 31 times in the interviews, nine times in the observations, and once in the artifacts.

Although being available and accessible was referenced across three different domains, none of individual themes met the criteria to be a major finding. However, all 10 study participants referenced the idea of being available or accessible in interviews.

Despite slight distinctions between the three themes, the overall idea was Philippine American nonprofit leaders should demonstrate supporting their membership by being there when members need them.

In the domain of concern, availability was expressed by actively listening to members and ensuring they felt safe and comfortable in the organization. For the domain of candor, accessibility was expressed by providing staff and volunteers with different lines of communication to reach the Philippine American nonprofit leader. Lastly, with the domain of consistency, this was demonstrated by simply being available when expected. Although none of the three available and accessible themes were a major finding, there is merit to this unexpected finding due to the unanimous agreement across study participants and the high combined frequency with which it was referenced.

Weisman's Trust Pyramid

The nature of Weisman's Trust Model is an ascending pyramid. The foundation of the pyramid are the rational factors of competence and consistency, the middle of the pyramid is the emotional factors of concern and candor, and the top-level is the self-actualization factor of connection. Weisman's Trust Pyramid was developed on the basic principles of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The base-level rational factors form the relationship then the emotional factors further tighten and deepen the relationship. Then, with the support of the rational and emotional factors, a connection can be achieved.

Although Weisman's Trust Pyramid suggested a development process in which an individual built on the foundational rational elements to more complex factors, the data from this study does not support this theory. The references to the five domains of trust were distributed unequally in a manner unreflective of a pyramid model. The rational

factors of competence (77) and consistency (55) were referenced 132 times, accounting for 33% of the data. The emotional factors of concern (120) and candor (62) were referenced 182 times, comprising 46% of the data. The self-actualization factor of connection was referenced 83 times accounting for 21% of the data. Figure 7 provides a visual representation of trust domain frequencies in the pyramid format.

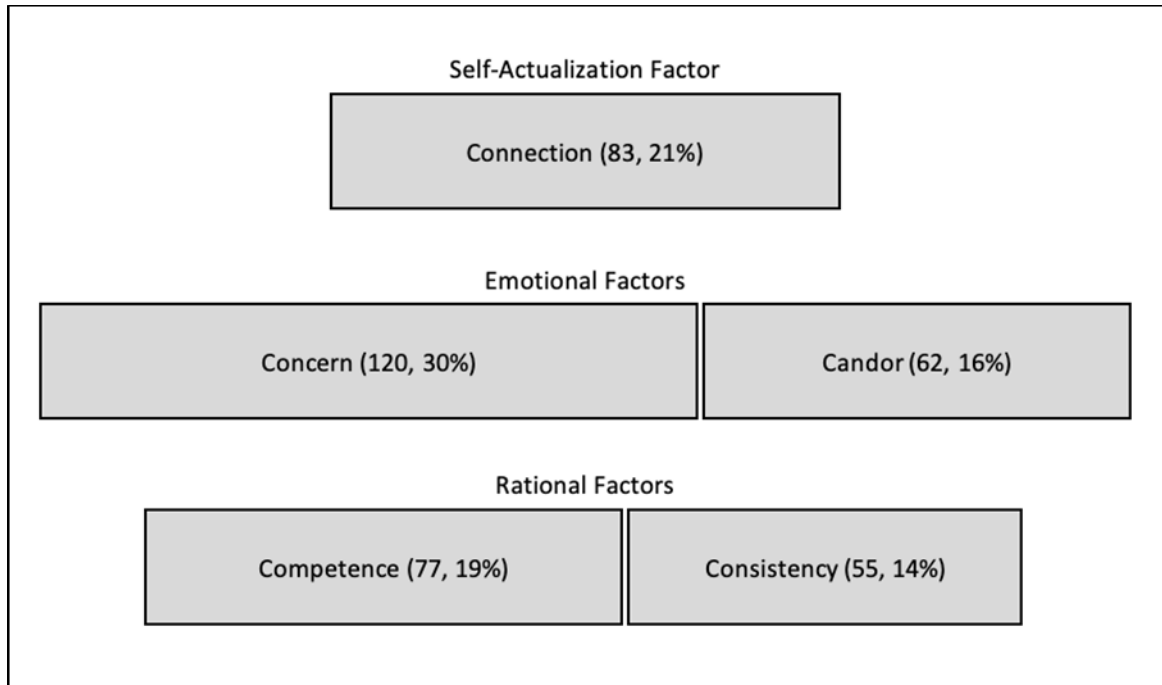


Figure 7. Visual representation of the frequencies in a pyramid format.

Impact of Philippine American Culture on Trust

The findings of this study showed the emotional factors of concern and candor were referenced more frequently than the rational factors of competence and consistency. House et al. (2004) advised countries in the Southern Asian region, such as the Philippines, can be characterized as countries demonstrating strong family loyalty and concern for their communities. The impact of Philippine American culture provides one possible explanation as to why the emotional factors were more frequently referenced as

trust building strategies by study participants. The Philippine American community is more relationally oriented than analytically oriented.

Conclusions

The conclusions describe strategies Philippine American nonprofit leaders use to build trust with their staff and volunteers using the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection. The following section presents conclusions based on the major study findings and supported by the literature.

Concern

Based on the study findings and literature, it was concluded Philippine American nonprofit leaders who want to build trust with their staff and volunteers must treat others with respect, provide opportunities to grow and develop, promote a safe and inclusive environment, and show interest in the personal lives of their members. All 10 study participants agreed treating others with respect was essential in building trust.

Hemsworth, Muterera, and Baregheh (2013) found transformational leaders treat their followers with respect and provide feedback for growth. Additionally, Philippine American nonprofit leaders who support an inclusive environment built trust and increased the success of their organization. This aligned with Lee (2017) who stated organizations with a diverse and inclusive environment are more successful.

Showing interest in the personal lives and development of members was important to building trust because it demonstrated the Philippine American nonprofit leader was invested in their staff and volunteers. Kieres and Gutmore (2014) advised leaders who care about their followers should provide them with opportunities to grow both personally and professionally. In turn, leaders hope their members are invested in

the success of the organization. Participant 2 indicated it is important for the members to be engaged because they were the future of the organization.

Competence

Based on the study findings and literature, it was concluded Philippine American nonprofit leaders committed to building trust with their staff and volunteers should demonstrate their abilities as a leader and foster a collaborative organizational environment. For many of the study participants, demonstrating their leadership abilities meant leading by example and using their prior experiences to guide the organization. Regarding fostering a collaborative environment, many current leadership approaches place more emphasis on creating and maintaining a collaborative relationship with followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Connection

Based on the study findings and literature, it was concluded Philippine American nonprofit leaders build a culture of trust in their organization by engaging in building and maintaining personal relationships, and involve members through shared decision-making. Caldwell et al. (2008) posited building strong personal relationships was essential to creating trust. To several of the Philippine American nonprofit leaders, building and maintaining a personal relationship meant sharing a meal with others. Participant 7 expressed food was one of the gateways to building a connection. Shared decision-making was another important trust building strategy for Philippine American nonprofit leaders. Followers involved in the decision-making process felt they were valued and strived to make the organization successful (Lee, 2017).

Candor

Based on the study findings and literature, it was concluded Philippine American nonprofit leaders foster an environment of trust by demonstrating vulnerability, inviting feedback, and being open and straightforward with their members. Lencioni (2002) explained followers are more open to trusting their leaders and being vulnerable if they see their leaders displaying the same behaviors. For Philippine American nonprofit leaders, being open and straightforward with their staff and volunteers often involved being transparent about finances. As with many cultural nonprofit organizations, it is often difficult to maintain sources of funding. The participants explained their staff and volunteers appreciated when the organization was honest about income and expenses.

Consistency

Based on the study findings and literature, it was concluded Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust through set processes and procedures for their organization, and ensure everyone is on the same page. Amare (2012) posited having a standard operating procedure for an organization cultivates transparency, provides efficiency, avoids uncertainty, and ensures safety and stability. Checking for mutual understanding and ensuring everyone in the organization is on the same page also helped limit confusion within the organization. Clear communication and established channels of communication were important to many the Philippine American nonprofit leaders.

Implications for Action

Trust in leadership is imperative to the relationship between Philippine American nonprofit leaders and their staff and volunteers. This study provided an opportunity to explore what Philippine American nonprofit leaders perceive as the most important

strategies to building trust with their staff and volunteers through the five domains of competence, consistency, concern, candor, and connection. The research and findings of this study provided implications for Philippine American nonprofit leaders to put into action to build and maintain trust.

The implications for action from this study can be utilized by overarching Philippine American nonprofit organizations and Philippine American associations where leaders gather to share information and best practices. Disseminating these trust building strategies to leaders in the Philippine American community will allow trust to further grow and develop. There is an opportunity for the Philippine American community to advance the training and development programs for their leaders.

Concern

Concern was the most frequently referenced domain in the study. Philippine American nonprofit leaders strongly believe concern is essential to building trust. The findings of this study showed concern involves respect, inclusivity, and interest in the growth and personal lives of others. Thus, the following are implications for action for Philippine American nonprofit leaders:

1. Participate in an emotional intelligence survey, such as Bradberry and Greaves' (2009) *Emotional Intelligence Appraisal*, to continually increase self-awareness and development as a leader
2. Express gratitude and provide recognition for the work and dedication of staff and volunteers
3. Provide opportunities for staff and volunteers to attend trainings, workshops, coaching, and conferences that allow them to develop themselves personally

and professionally

4. Develop and maintain a leadership succession planning program to ensure the continual success of members and the organization
5. Organize opportunities for staff and volunteers to gather and socialize outside the organization to promote a more inclusive environment
6. Communicate with staff and volunteers about their personal interests and life outside the organization and share personal stories to find common ground
7. If invited, attend personal events such as birthdays, graduations, weddings, and funerals

Competence

The findings of this study related to the domain of competence showed Philippine American nonprofit leaders who demonstrate their leadership abilities and foster a collaborative organizational environment build trust with staff and volunteers.

Accordingly, the following implications for action are recommended for Philippine American nonprofit leaders:

1. Participate in academic and professional activities to continually develop leadership abilities and apply the concepts learned to leading the organization
2. Coach, mentor, and provide opportunities for potential leaders in the organization to experience leadership roles
3. Facilitate an assessment tool, such as Roth's (2007) Strengths Finder assessment, so members have a better understanding of their personal abilities and those of their peers

4. Provide opportunities for staff and volunteers to participate in collaborative projects and committees

Connection

The findings in this study regarding the domain of connection indicated Philippine American nonprofit leaders who build and maintain personal relationships and participate in shared decision-making develop trust with staff and volunteers. Therefore, the following implications for action are recommended:

1. Schedule one-on-one informal meetings with different staff and volunteers to better understand their views of the organization and their personal lives outside the organization
2. Interact and genuinely engage with members on social technology platforms and/or communication applications
3. Share a meal with staff and volunteers on an individual basis or in a group setting
4. Develop and maintain decision-making processes that allow members from all levels of the organization to participate and voice their opinions

Candor

The findings of this study showed candor is essential to building trust. Philippine American nonprofit leaders who demonstrate vulnerability, invited feedback, and are open with their staff and volunteers can create an environment of trust. The following implications for actions are recommended:

1. Implement an annual leadership performance evaluation and accountability system where membership can openly or anonymously provide feedback, and

assessments such as the Transformational Leadership Skills Inventory (Larick & White, 2012) can be used to collect and analyze feedback from staff and volunteers

2. Share and be transparent about the finances of the organization and allow staff and volunteers to understand the expenses of the organization and the sources of income
3. Communicate potential changes to the organization and the rationale, and allow staff and volunteers time to understand the changes and share their opinions

Consistency

The findings of this study showed Philippine American nonprofit leaders believe consistency is important to building trust. Organizations with set processes and procedures and leaders who ensure mutual understanding within the organization build trust with their staff and volunteers. Hence, the following implications for actions are recommended:

1. Maintain a reliable meeting and events calendar and ensure staff and volunteers are given ample notice of any adjustments
2. Create a set process for organizational meetings and ground rules that guide how members should conduct themselves and interact during the meetings
3. Display visual reminders of the organization's mission and core values
4. Revisit the mission, vision, goals, and values of the organization on an annual basis to ensure alignment across the organization

Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the findings and limitations present in this study, the following recommendations for further research are suggested:

1. The sample of this study consisted of 10 Philippine American nonprofit leaders from 10 different nonprofit organizations in southern California. It is recommended this study be replicated with a larger sample size and broader geographic range.
2. This study focused on the perceptions of Philippine American nonprofit leaders and trust building strategies used through the five domains of trust. It is recommended to replicate this study from the perspective of the staff and volunteers of the organization and explore the strategies they use to build trust with leadership.
3. This study used a qualitative approach to explore the trust-building strategies of Philippine American nonprofit leaders. It is recommended a mixed methods study be conducted to provide further depth of understanding of how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers.
4. The findings of this study showed availability and accessibility were present in three trust domains: concern, candor, and consistency. It is recommended similar studies be conducted further exploring each individual trust domain and their relevant strategies. The findings of those studies should be compared with this study to determine if availability and accessibility are significant to building trust.

5. The findings of this study did not support the pyramid nature of Weisman's Trust Model (Weisman & Jusino, 2016). It is recommended a study be conducted exploring different arrangement models of the five domains of trust with varying types of organizations to determine if more relevant frameworks can be developed.
6. This study was limited to Philippine American nonprofit leaders. It is recommended this study be replicated with leaders from different cultural backgrounds to explore whether trust-building strategies differ from leaders of other cultural nonprofit organizations.
7. The primary data source for this study was in-depth interviews with Philippine American nonprofit leaders. Additionally, a limited amount of time was spent observing three of the study participants. It is recommended a case study be conducted and compared with this study to explore any significant differences in the findings.
8. The data collection phase presented unique experiences and artifacts due to the nuances and characteristics of Philippine American culture. It is recommended researchers studying cultural organizations first gain a fundamental understanding of the culture they are studying.

Concluding Remarks and Reflections

I have a great love and respect for my Philippine American heritage. Being Philippine American is an integral part of my identity and helped shape who I am. I knew when I started this dissertation journey, I wanted to find a way to contribute to the literature on Philippine Americans and give back to the culture that gave so much to me.

As I engaged in research on trust leadership, I attained a deeper understanding of the current state of our society and the urgent need for more trust. Furthermore, the literature revealed there is limited research on Philippine Americans and the topic of trust. I planned to learn and explore the topic of trust while filling in some of the gaps in the Philippine American literature. I hope Philippine American nonprofit leaders and the greater Philippine American community find value in the findings of this study and use the identified strategies to build environments of trust that spread with the people who engage in them.

In my own personal development, this dissertation process helped further mature me as a leader and embrace the transformational change that started at beginning of the Ed.D. program. It was challenging and at times chaotic, but I am grateful for where this experience brought me and the auspicious future it brings. Although I always valued trust, I have only now started to appreciate it from a scholarly lens. I recognize trust can be difficult, messy, and confusing, but it is vital. Trust is how relationships are developed and without the continual presence of trust, relationships would be unable to grow. I have a greater appreciation for the trust others bestowed upon me, and I am more consciously aware of when I trust someone and what that means to our relationship. Our society may appear to at a disadvantage with the low levels of trust and the challenges inherent when building trust. However, the literature and findings of this study showed the simplest of strategies, such as expressing gratitude, engaging in collaboration, sharing a meal, being open, and communicating, are the building blocks of trust. As I conclude my dissertation journey, I hope to share the knowledge and experiences I learned with others in my personal and professional life.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



Dominic Laureano <dlaurean@mail.brandman.edu>

BUIRB Application Approved As Submitted: Dominic Fernando Laureano

1 message

MyBrandman <my@brandman.edu>

Fri, Feb 1, 2019 at 8:34 AM

Reply-To: webmaster <webmaster@brandman.edu>

To: dlaurean Student <dlaurean@mail.brandman.edu>

Cc: "Hightower, Len" <whightow@brandman.edu>, buirb <buirb@brandman.edu>

Dear Dominic Fernando Laureano,

Congratulations, your IRB application to conduct research has been approved by the Brandman University Institutional Review Board. This approval grants permission for you to proceed with data collection for your research. Please keep this email for your records, as it will need to be included in your research appendix.

If any issues should arise that are pertinent to your IRB approval, please contact the IRB immediately at BUIRB@brandman.edu. If you need to modify your BUIRB application for any reason, please fill out the "Application Modification Form" before proceeding with your research. The Modification form can be found at the following link: <https://irb.brandman.edu/Applications/Modification.pdf>.

Best wishes for a successful completion of your study.

Thank you,

Doug DeVore, Ed.D.

Professor

APPENDIX B – INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Introduction

My name is Dominic Laureano and I the Residency and Fee Coordinator at the University of California, Riverside. I am also a Doctoral Candidate at Brandman University in the area of Organizational Leadership. I am a part of a team conducting research to determine what strategies leaders use to build trust with their organizational stakeholders.

I am conducting interviews with Philippine American Nonprofit Leaders. The information you provide, along with other leaders, will help to provide an understanding of the strategies that Philippine American Nonprofit Leaders use to build trust with their staff and volunteers, and will add to the body of research currently available.

The questions I will be asking are the same for everyone participating in the study. The reason for this is to guarantee, as much as possible, that the interviews with all participating leaders will be conducted in the same manner.

Informed Consent

I would like to remind you any information that is obtained in connection to this study will remain confidential. All of the data will be reported without reference to any individual(s) or any institution(s). After I record and transcribe the data, I will send it to you via e-mail so that you can check to make sure that I have accurately captured your thoughts and ideas.

Did you receive the Informed Consent Form, Consent Agreement for Audio Recording, and Brandman Bill of Rights I sent you via e-mail?

Do you have any questions or need clarification about any of the documents?

We have scheduled an hour for the interview. At any point during the interview you may ask that I skip a particular question or stop the interview altogether. For ease of our discussion and accuracy I will record our conversation as indicated in the Informed Consent and Consent Agreement for Audio Recording.

Do you have any questions or concerns before we begin the interview?

Here are five elements of trust that research suggests are necessary in a high-quality trust environment. Looking at these, would you agree that these are all important?"
(display on a 3 x 5 card)

Connection

1. Connection is about creating positive relationships & rapport with others. How have you developed positive relationships and rapport with your staff and volunteers?

Prompt: How do you see the establishment of positive relationships and rapport as contributing to trust with your staff and volunteers?

2. In what ways have you developed shared values with your staff and volunteers?

Prompt: How do you see the establishment of shared values as contributing to trust with your staff and volunteers?

Concern

3. Research shows that leaders develop trust when they care for the well-being of their staff and volunteers. Tell me about some of the ways that you show you care for your staff and volunteers and their wellbeing.

Prompt: How do you share yourself with your employees?

4. What are some of the ways you create a collaborative environment for your staff and volunteers?

Prompt: Can you provide some examples of how you make teams feel safe to dialogue in a collaborative environment?

Prompt: How do you manage failures among staff and volunteers in the organization?

Candor

5. The literature for trust indicates that leaders who communicate openly and honestly tend to build trust with their staff and volunteers. Please share with me some ways that have worked for you, as the leader of your nonprofit, to communicate openly and honestly with your staff and volunteers.

Prompt: Can you describe a time when you perceived your communication with staff and volunteers to have contributed to developing trust?

6. Two characteristics for a transparent leader are accessibility and being open to feedback. Please share some examples of how you demonstrate accessibility and openness to feedback.

Prompt: How would you describe your feedback strategies for staff and volunteers? Can you give me some examples?

Competency

7. The literature for trust indicates that leaders who demonstrate competence by fulfilling their role as expected establish credibility and develop trust with their staff and volunteers. Can you describe a time in which you feel your competence as a leader may have contributed to developing trust?

Prompt: Please share some examples in which you feel you established your credibility within your role as a leader.

8. Competent leaders value the expertise of others and invite participation of team members to solve problems through shared decision making. Please share some ways that have worked for you as the leader of your nonprofit organization to invite participation of staff and volunteers in decision making.

Prompt: Can you describe a time when you perceived your staff and volunteers' participation in decision making to have contributed to developing trust?

Consistency

9. What are some of the ways that you model leadership that is reliable and dependable?

Prompt: How do you establish expectations that help you to lead your staff and volunteers in a way that is dependable?

10. Can you provide an example of a crisis situation when your leadership was dependable and steadfast and developed trust with your staff and volunteers?

Prompt: How do you ensure that your message to staff and volunteers is consistent and true during a time of crisis?

Thank you much for your time. If you would like, when the results of our research are known, we will send you a copy of our findings.

Additional Possible Probes for any of the interview questions:

1. "Would you expand upon that a bit?"
2. "Do you have more to add?"
3. "What did you mean by..."
4. "Why do think that was the case?"
5. "Could you please tell me more about..."
6. "Can you give me an example of ..."
7. "How did you feel about that?"

APPENDIX C – NIH CERTIFICATION



APPENDIX D – LETTER OF INVITATION

Dear *Potential Study Participant*,

My name is Dominic Fernando Laureano and I am a doctoral candidate in Brandman University's Organizational Leadership program. For my dissertation, I am exploring how Philippine American nonprofit leaders building trust with their staff and volunteers using the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

The intent of this e-mail is to introduce myself and ask if you would be willing to participate in my study to offer your perspective on my research topic. Participation in the study would require a 45 to 60 minutes individual interview at a time and location that is convenient for you.

If you agree to participate, please know that the interview will be completely confidential. A coding system will be used so that no names will be attached to any notes, recordings, or transcripts from the interview. With your consent, the interview will be audio-recorded, and the audio-recording will be destroyed once the interview has been transcribed. All information will remain in locked files accessible only to the researcher and no other individuals will have access to interview information. You will be free to stop the interview and withdraw from the study at any time. I am available by e-mail or phone to answer any questions you may have. My dissertation chairperson, Dr. Len Hightower, will also be available if you have questions or concerns (e-mail: whightow@brandman.edu).

It would be an honor to hear about your experiences and perspective regarding building trust with staff and volunteers. I know that your time is valuable and I greatly appreciate your consideration of my request.

Kind Regards,

Dominic Fernando Laureano
Doctoral Candidate, Brandman University
e-mail: dlaurean@mail.brandman.edu
phone: ###-###-####

APPENDIX E – PARTICIPANT’S BILL OF RIGHTS



BRANDMAN UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Research Participant’s Bill of Rights

Any person who is requested to consent to participate as a subject in an experiment, or who is requested to consent on behalf of another, has the following rights:

1. To be told what the study is attempting to discover.
2. To be told what will happen in the study and whether any of the procedures, drugs or devices are different from what would be used in standard practice.
3. To be told about the risks, side effects or discomforts of the things that may happen to him/her.
4. To be told if he/she can expect any benefit from participating and, if so, what the benefits might be.
5. To be told what other choices he/she has and how they may be better or worse than being in the study.
6. To be allowed to ask any questions concerning the study both before agreeing to be involved and during the course of the study.
7. To be told what sort of medical treatment is available if any complications arise.
8. To refuse to participate at all before or after the study is started without any adverse effects.
9. To receive a copy of the signed and dated consent form.
10. To be free of pressures when considering whether he/she wishes to agree to be in the study.

If at any time you have questions regarding a research study, you should ask the researchers to answer them. You also may contact the Brandman University Institutional Review Board, which is concerned with the protection of volunteers in research projects. The Brandman University Institutional Review Board may be contacted either by telephoning the Office of Academic Affairs at (949) 341-9937 or by writing to the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Brandman University, 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA, 92618.

APPENDIX F – INFORMED CONSENT

TITLE:

Exploring how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with their staff and volunteers

RESPONSIBLE INVESTIGATOR:

Dominic Fernando Laureano

PURPOSE OF STUDY:

You are being asked to participate in a qualitative research study conducted by Dominic Fernando Laureano, a doctoral student from the School of Education at Brandman University. This study is being conducted for a dissertation in Organizational Leadership. The purpose of this phenomenological research study is to explore how Philippine American nonprofit leaders build trust with staff and volunteers using the five domains of competency, consistency, concern, candor, and connection.

PROCEDURES & ACKNOWLEDGEMENT:

By participating in this study, I agree to participate in an individual interview. The interview will last approximately 45 – 60 minutes and will be conducted in-person or by internet video call.

I understand that:

- a) There are minimal risks associated with participating in this research. I understand that the Investigator will protect my confidentiality by keeping the identifying codes and research materials in a locked secure location that is available only to the researcher.

- b) The interview will be audio recorded. The recordings will be available only to the researcher, the professional transcriptionist, and dissertation chairperson. The audio recordings will be used to capture the interview dialogue and to ensure the accuracy of the information collected during the interview. All information will be identifier-redacted and my confidentiality will be maintained. Upon completion of the study all recordings will be destroyed. All other data and consents will be securely shredded or fully deleted.

- c) The possible benefit of this study to me is that my input may help add to the research regarding trust and Philippine American nonprofit organizations. The findings will be available to me at the conclusion of the study. I understand that I will not be compensated for my participation.

d) If I have any questions or concerns about the research, I know that I can contact Dominic Laureano at dlaurean@mail.brandman.edu or by phone at ###-###-####; or Dr. Len Hightower (Dissertation Chairperson) at whightow@brandman.edu.

e) My participation in this research study is voluntary. I may decide to not participate in the study and I can withdraw at any time. I can also decide not to answer particular questions during the interview if I so choose. I understand that I may refuse to participate or may withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. Also, the Investigator may stop the study at any time.

f) No information that identifies me will be released without my separate consent and that all identifiable information will be protected to the limits allowed by law. If the study design or the use of the data is to be changed, I will be so informed and my consent re-obtained. I understand that if I have any questions, comments, or concerns about the study or the informed consent process, I may write or call the Office of the Vice Chancellor of Academic Affairs, Brandman University, at 16355 Laguna Canyon Road, Irvine, CA 92618, (949) 341-7641.

I acknowledge that I have received a copy of this form and the "Research Participant's Bill of Rights." I have read the above and understand it and hereby consent to the procedure(s) set forth.

Printed Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date

APPENDIX G – AUDIO CONSENT AGREEMENT

Consent Agreement for Audio Recording

I give my consent to allow audio recording during the interview, and for those records to be reviewed by people involved in the study. I understand that all information will be kept confidential and will be reported in an anonymous manner, and that the audio recording will be erased after the interview has been transcribed. I understand that a copy of the interview transcript will be sent to me via e-mail once the audio recording has been transcribed. I understand that I may review and correct the interview transcripts as necessary. I further understand that I may withdraw this consent at any time without penalty.

E-mail address for Interview Transcript

Printed Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date

Signature of Principal Investigator

Date