

## Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration

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### Abstract

Leaders have been argued to play a key role in determining organizational effectiveness across all levels (e.g., individual, team, unit) that exist within organizations. A key component in a leader's ability to be effective within such environments is the degree to which subordinates and co-workers trust him/her. Therefore, it is not surprising that researchers and practitioners alike are interested in identifying the mechanisms through which trust in leadership can be developed as well as those factors which moderate this relationship [e.g., Gillespie, N. A., Mann, L. (2004). Transformational leadership and shared values: The building blocks of trust. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19, 588–607; Kouzes and Posner, 1995; Roberts, K. H., O'Reilly, C. A. (1974). Failures in upward communication in organizations: Three possible culprits. *Academy of Management Journal*, 17, 205–215; Whitener, E. M. (1997). The impact of human resource activities on employee trust. *Human Resource Management Review*, 7, 389–404]. Despite this, research that has addressed the factors that foster trust in leaders and the outcomes of this trust has been disjointed and, as yet, no comprehensive model has been presented to systematically examine these factors. Therefore, the purpose of this article will be to present an integrative model of trust in leadership.

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Throughout time, people have been willing to reach for seemingly unachievable goals and even make the ultimate sacrifice for their leaders. For good or for evil, political and military leaders, such as Alexander the Great, Hitler, and even George W. Bush, have been able to capture the hearts and minds of their followers and have lead them dutifully into some of the most fierce battles known to man to achieve their ultimate goals. Even in sports some of the most respected and accomplished coaches such as Vince Lombardi of the Green Bay Packers and George Steinbrenner of the New York Yankees were able to take failing teams, engage their team members, and ultimately become some of the most successful sports teams in the United States. The question arises then, what is the underlying reason that these leaders were able to lead their people unquestioningly onto the field — whether combat or playing? We argue that it is that the leaders were able to garner a sense of trust from their people, regardless of the goal. When trust in the leader breaks down, however, disastrous outcomes may result. Take for instance the story of Crew Chief Dodge and his team.

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On August 5, fifteen smokejumpers and their cargo were dropped on the south side of Mann Gulch at 4:10 PM. Led by their crew chief, Dodge, they gathered their gear and started to move along the south side of the gulch to surround the fire. Based on initial ground reconnaissance, Dodge told his second in command to have the crew move across to the north side of the gulch and march toward the river along the side of the hill. Dodge rejoined the crew at 5:40 PM and took his position at the head of the line. Shortly thereafter, Dodge saw that the fire had crossed the gulch just 200 yards ahead and was moving toward his crew. Dodge turned the crew around and had them angle up the hill toward the ridge at the top. They quickly began to lose ground to the 30-foot-high flames moving toward them at 610 ft per minute (Maclean, 1992). Dodge yelled at the crew to drop their tools, and then, to everyone's astonishment, he lit a fire in front of them and ordered them to lie down in the area it had burned. No one did, they all ran for the ridge. Two people made it through a crevice in the ridge unburned. Dodge lived by lying down in the ashes of his escape fire — the remaining 13 smokejumpers died on the ridge. The Forest Service inquiry held after the fire concluded that the men would have been saved had they "heeded Dodge's efforts to get them to go into the escape fire area with him" (Maclean, 1992, p. 151).

While the example above begins to illustrate the impact that trust in leadership (or lack of trust) can have when teams are performing in high risk situations, characterized by time pressure and dynamic conditions, the impact of trust in organizational leadership can also be seen in Corporate America. Take for example, Lee Iacocca's turnaround of Chrysler that was facilitated by political skill, reputation, and the resulting trust key stakeholders placed in him to lead them forward in a different way of operating. Or the misguided trust that was placed in Enron (BBC News, 2002; Business Week, 2002) and Tyco's CEOs/CFOs (CNN.com, 2002; Securities Exchange Commission, 2002) by employees and shareholders which resulted in shareholders believing the organization was worth more than it was and resulted in tremendous loss of investment dollars.

With the recognition of the importance of trust in leadership within organizational contexts, it should be no surprise that investigation into its antecedents, as well as the proximal and distal outcomes of trust across levels, (e.g., individual, team, unit, and organization) are increasingly being examined within the broader organizational, leadership, and management literatures. Although the amount of work examining trust with respect to leadership differs across organizational levels, research has indicated its role not only as an antecedent to many valued performance outcomes, but also as a process that results from collaborative interaction between the leader and subordinates. For example, trust has been shown to have influences on processes such as communication, cooperation, and information sharing (e.g., Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2003; Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985), satisfaction with and perceived effectiveness of the leader (Gillespie & Mann, 2004), increased discretionary behaviors (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors), increased upward communication, decreased turnover (Connell, Ferres, & Travaglione, 2003; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001), and improved team (Dirks, 1999, 2000) and organizational performance/stability (Rich, 1997; Shaw, 1997).

Given its role within organizations, it is not surprising that researchers and practitioners alike are interested in identifying the mechanisms through which trust in leadership can be developed as well as those factors which moderate this relationship (e.g., Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Roberts & O'Reilly, 1974; Whitener, 1997). Despite this, research that has addressed the factors that foster trust in leaders and the outcomes of this trust has been disjointed and, as yet, no comprehensive model has been presented to systematically examine these factors. Therefore, the purpose of this article will be to present an integrative model of trust in leadership. In order to develop this model, we have leveraged the extensive research that has been conducted in the areas of trust, leadership, and trust in leadership. An emphasis was placed on identifying antecedents of trust that cross organizational levels and account for organizational context. Furthermore, while it is acknowledged that trust is a reciprocal process that exists within and across organizational levels, the current article takes a bottom-up perspective focusing primarily on trust in leadership from the perspective of the individual and team levels. Finally, selected issues related to the empirical examination of the trust construct will be discussed.

## 1. Conceptualizing trust

Trust has been identified as one of the most frequently examined constructs in the organizational literature today (Bunker, Alban, & Lewicki, 2004) and a myriad of definitions of trust have arisen. Depending on the intent of the researcher, trust has been examined as a relatively unchanging trait, a process, or an emergent state (see Table 1). In the following sections we will briefly address each of these three perspectives.

Table 1  
Conceptualizations of trust

Definition of trust	Sources
The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party	Mayer et al. (1995)
Risk or having something invested, is requisite to trust; trust is evident only in situations where the potential damage from unfulfilled trust is greater than possible gain if trust is fulfilled	Sheppard & Sherman, 1998; Deutsch, 1958
1. trust entails the assumption of risks some form of trust is inherent in all relationships	
Willingness to take risks (one of the few characteristics common to all trust situations)	Johnson-George and Swap (1982)
There must be some meaningful incentives at stake and that the trustor must be cognizant of the risk involved	Kee and Knox (1970)
Cognitive trust refers to beliefs about another's trustworthiness	Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Gillespie, 2003
Affective trust refers to the important role of emotions in the trust process	
Behavioral trust in teams is relying on another and disclosing sensitive information to another	
Accepting the risks associated with the type and depth of the interdependence inherent in a given relationship	Sheppard and Sherman (1998)
Group's trust for another: A shared belief by member's of a focal group about how willing that group is to be vulnerable to the a target group	Serva, Fuller, & Mayer, 2005; Mayer et al., 1995
Interorganizational trust is collectively held trust orientation toward the partner firm	Serva et al., 2005; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998
Mutual trust exists when two people have complementary trust for one another and when each perceives that the other is aware of his intent and his trust	Serva et al., 2005; Deutsch, 1958
Reciprocal trust is the trust that results when a party observes the actions of another and reconsiders one's attitude and subsequent behavior based on those observations	Serva et al. (2005)
Trust implies a belief that an individual will not act opportunistically or in a self-serving manner; belief of a congruence of values	Hall et al., 2004; Lewicki & Bunker, 1995
Trust (3 Facets)	Whitener et al. (1998)
1. trust in another party reflects an expectation or belief that the other party will act benevolently	
2. trust involves a willingness to be vulnerable and risk that the other party may not fulfill the expectations	
3. trust involves some level of dependency on the other party so that the outcomes of one individual are influenced by the actions of another	
Trust can be viewed as an attitude (derived from trustor's perceptions, beliefs, and attributions about the trustee based upon trustee's behavior) held by one individual toward another	
A psychological state compromising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another	Rousseau et al. (1998)
Willingness to be vulnerable	Rousseau et al. (1998)
Willingness to rely on another	Rousseau et al., 1998; Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998
Interpersonal trust: two dimensions	Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; McAllister, 1995
1. Cognitive — reflect issues such as the reliability, integrity, honest, and fairness of a referent	
2. Affective — reflect a special relationship with the referent to demonstrate concern about one's welfare	
One's willingness to rely on another's actions in a situation involving the risk of opportunism	Williams, 2001; Mayer et al., 1995; Zand, 1972
Based on individuals' expectations that others will behave in ways that are helpful or at least not harmful	Williams, 2001; Gambetta, 1998
One believes in and is willing to depend on another party	McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998; Mayer et al., 1995
Two components:	McKnight et al., 1998; Currall & Judge, 1995
Trusting intention: one is willing to depend on the other person in a given situation	
Trusting beliefs: one believes the other person is benevolent, competent, honest, or predictable in a situation	
Disposition to trust: refers to a tendency to be willing to depend on others	McKnight et al., 1998; Mayer et al., 1995

Table 1 (continued)

Definition of trust	Sources
Institution-based trust: one believes impersonal structures support one's likelihood for success in a given situation; reflects the security one feels about a situation because of guarantees, safety nets, or other structures	McKnight et al. (1998)
Personality-based trust: develops during childhood as an infant seeks and receives help from his or her benevolent caregiver resulting in a general tendency to trust others	McKnight et al., 1998; Shapiro, 1987; Zucker, 1986
Cognitive-based trust: relies on rapid, cognitive cues or first impressions as opposed to personal interactions	McKnight et al., 1998; Bowlby, 1982; Erikson, 1968; Rotter, 1967 McKnight et al., 1998; Brewer, 1981; Lewis & Weingert, 1985; Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996

### 1.1. Trust as a trait

Traits refer to individual characteristics which are generally unaffected by the environment and consequently relatively stable. As a trait, trust has been described as an individual difference called propensity to trust. Researchers have suggested that within every individual, there is some baseline level of trust that the individual is willing to extend to nearly all those with whom they interact and a general tendency to make positive attributions about others' intentions (Rotter, 1954, 1967).

### 1.2. Trust as an emergent state

Trust has also been conceptualized as an emergent state. Emergent states refer to cognitive, motivational, or affective states that are dynamic and vary as a function of contextual factors as well as inputs, processes, and outcomes (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). From this perspective, trust has primarily been described as an attitude which can develop over time or very quickly (e.g. swift trust; Coppola, Hiltz, & Rotter, 2004; Iacono, & Weisband, 1997; Jarvenpaa, Knoll, & Leidner, 1998; Jarvenpaa, & Leidner, 1999) based on contextual factors and need. As an emergent state, trust can be considered as both an input as well as a proximal outcome depending on the context (see Marks et al., 2001). For example, trust in leadership may be viewed as an input to communication, but may also be viewed as a proximal outcome of the interaction a subordinate or team member has with team or organizational leaders. That said, from the perspective of an emergent state, this suggests that trust can be developed or broken due to specific interactions and be linked to specific situations. For instance, a leader may be trusted to give credit for other's work but may not be trusted to meet deadlines. This is an example of trust that emerges due to past behaviors that is very specific to certain situations and may be more tenuous over time.

### 1.3. Trust as a process

Trust may also be viewed an intervening process through which other important behaviors, attitudes, and relationships are either bolstered or weakened. For instance, employees may be willing to communicate with their leaders in general, but without the existence of trust this communication may be limited (at best) or faulty (at worst) and avoidant of information that may be personally risky (e.g., errors). Research that has conceptualized trust as a process has primarily done so under the guise of investigating the development of trust (Khodyakov, 2007), as opposed to trust in and of itself.

While acknowledging the importance of trait-and process-like definitions of trust, for the purposes of this article, trust will be viewed in a manner consistent with that of an emergent state, as defined by Marks et al. (2001). There are three primary reasons for the focus on trust as an emergent state as opposed to the trait-or process-view. First, as the overarching purpose of the article is to develop an integrative framework from which propositions related to the development of trust in leadership can be extracted taking a trait perspective does little to forward this aim. Within the current article, the interest is on the factors that are used to make a decision to trust in leadership, not the ongoing process of trust. Second, as acknowledged earlier, the trait-like perspective is describing an individual difference in the propensity to trust. This individual difference while not the primary focus of the current article will be examined as a potential moderating variable within the larger framework. Third, a process-like perspective describes a more dynamic view of trust.

Drawing from the literature (see Table 1), the key components of trust are a willingness to be vulnerable (Butler, 1991; Mayer & Davis, 1999), positive expectations that interests will be protected and promoted when monitoring is not possible (Dirks, 2000; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Read, 1962), and assessment of others' intentions, sincerity, motivations, character, reliability, and integrity (Butler, 1991; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). The literature further indicates that the willingness to accept vulnerability evolves over the course of a relationship through repeated interactions and a history of reciprocity (Baier, 1985; Govier, 1994; Jones & George, 1998; Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998; Stack, 1988). Therefore, for the purposes of the current effort, trust is defined as "a psychological state comprising of the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviors of another" (Rousseau et al., 1998; p. 395). The willingness to accept vulnerability evolves over the course of a relationship due to repeated interactions and a history of reciprocity (Baier, 1985; Govier, 1994; Jones & George, 1998; Lewicki et al., 1998; Stack, 1988). In the present case the intentions or behaviors of another that are being judged are that of the leader.

## 2. Leveraging the literature on trust

Trust not only varies in the form that it may take on (e.g., state, trait, process), it can also exist at a variety of levels within the organization. Trust can exist at the team level (i.e., between team members), leadership level (i.e., between the team member and the leader), the organizational level (i.e., between the employees and the organization), and interorganizational level (i.e., between organizations). Referring back to the idea that trust is strengthened or weakened due to the experiences, interactions, and context within which the relationship exists, trust is likely to develop differently in relation to team members, team leaders, and toward the organization as a whole. Not only do team members interact more frequently, these interactions are likely to be fundamentally different than the relationship that exists with team leaders. Further, employees are likely to develop attitudes of trust (or distrust) towards the organization through their interpretations of the policies and procedures that exist within the organization as well as their interactions with coworkers and leaders. While acknowledging the importance of trust in leadership across levels and forms the current article will primarily focus on the trust that exists between a team member and his/her team leader. Specifically, the trust that flows from the team member upward to his/her team leader will be discussed. This focus primarily reflects trust in vertical leadership as this is where most of the research has been conducted as opposed to peer-to-peer leadership (i.e., horizontal leadership).

In attempting to understand trust and the manner in which it can be promoted, researchers have sought to identify antecedents to trust. While the focus of this article is on the more narrowly defined trust in leadership, the work that has been conducted on trust as a broader construct can be used as a leveraging point. In this vein, a few of the more prominent models of trust will be briefly examined. Mayer et al. (1995) proposed one of the most well known, influential models. This model was influential in that it was one of the first to begin to truly define trust as separate from its antecedents. Developed to examine organizational trust across levels (see Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007), the importance of both the perceived characteristics of the trustee as well as the disposition of the trustor is recognized. The model proposed by Mayer et al. (1995) examined the antecedents of trust focusing on ability, benevolence, and integrity. Perceived risk and the trustor's propensity to trust moderated the relationship of trust. While the model had several strengths, a weakness was a lack of specification of the outcomes of trust.

Leveraging and extending the initial work within Mayer et al.'s (1995) model, Williams (2001) developed a model whose referent is trust within groups. Williams (2001) further delineated trust antecedents into belief and affect-based categories. Categorized under the belief component are Mayer's original three antecedents (i.e., benevolence, integrity, and ability). However, extending the original model is the addition of: (a) emotional states as an affect-based antecedent, (b) moderating role of motivation to trust, and (c) specification of a distal outcome of trust (i.e., cooperation).

Taking a slightly different perspective on trust was work conducted by Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner (1998) which delineated the antecedents to managerial trustworthy behavior and correspondingly how managerial behavior influenced employee perceptions of trust. This work specified three characteristics (e.g., organizational, relational, and individual) which impacted managerial trustworthy behavior. Of most interest to the current article is the relational portion of the model that links leader behavior (e.g., behavioral consistency, behavioral integrity, sharing and delegation of control, communication, and demonstration of concern) to employee trust perceptions and the proposed boundary conditions or moderating constructs (e.g., perceived similarity and competency, employee propensity to trust,

and task interdependence). The strength of this model lay in the recognition of cross-level phenomena that impact managerial behavior, a view of trust from the manager and employee perspectives, and the recognition that task interdependence will moderate the relationship between leader behavior and development of trust with his/her subordinates.

Frustrated by a lack of integration across the literature base, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) conducted a meta-analytic examination of trust in leadership. Representing the complexity within the literature, their framework expanded on the antecedents to trust, conceptualization of trust, and outcomes. Additionally, it examined the moderating role of direct versus indirect leadership. Specifically, their framework consisted of three antecedent variables to trust: leader action and practices, follower attributes (i.e., propensity to trust), and relationship attributes (i.e., length of the relationship). Leader action/practices were defined with constructs such as perceived organizational support, participative decision making, and unmet expectations. Interactional, procedural, and distributive justice was included under leader action practices as well as transformational and transactional leadership styles.

Outcomes of trust were also delineated by Dirks and Ferrin (2002). Outcomes were subdivided into three categories: behavioral and performance outcomes, job attitudes and intentions, and correlates. Behavioral and performance outcomes were measured organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and job performance. Job attitudes and intentions were defined as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to quit, goal commitment, and belief in information. The researchers addressed correlates as satisfaction with the leader and leader — member exchange (LMX).

While acknowledging the differences between the various models and frameworks described above, there are common themes which can be used to build the basis for an organizing framework. Across the various perspectives commonality resides in a recognition of: (a) the importance of trustor and trustee characteristics, (b) behavioral, cognitive, and attitudinal predictors of trust exist, (c) situational/contextual factors impact trust in leadership, and (d) that trust in leadership results in behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. What differs among the perspectives includes the level of detail in the frameworks as well as degree to which they include constructs from multiple levels of the organization.

While each of the above presented frameworks and models have strengths and weaknesses what seems to be missing is a contextualized model or framework with respect to trust in leadership. While most of the models and frameworks reviewed above are described within the context of individual or organizational level leadership there is a lack of an organizing framework concerning what it is that leaders do. As trust is judged against some contextualized referent it would seem that a first step would be to identify at a broad level what it is that leaders do (i.e., perspective on leadership) and then from there further contextualize behavioral markers for the various high level antecedent categories that have been proposed in past research.

### **3. Placing trust in context: examination of leadership functions**

In order to arrive at a decision to trust, individuals must compare the trust target (i.e., leader) against some referent (i.e., effective leadership). While there are many approaches to the study of leadership, each with a volume of theories subsumed within, an approach which many have found useful in providing a broad overview of what leaders do is the functional approach to leadership. Within this approach, “[the leader’s] main job is to do, or get done, whatever is not being adequately handled for group needs” (McGrath, 1962, as cited in Hackman & Walton, 1986, p. 5). Here the leader is effective to the degree that he/she ensures that all functions critical to task and team maintenance are completed. This approach to leadership is extremely relevant given the complex and turbulent environments that organizations are competing within in that it implicitly recognizes the importance of adaptation. Specifically, this approach recognizes that there is no one best way to facilitate effectiveness, but that a broad set of functions can be identified under which specific behaviors, which vary in their instrumentality across situations and levels, may be enacted.

Since its inception some four decades ago, the functional approach to leadership has been tailored by a number of theorists investigating both organizational and team leadership (e.g., Fleishman et al, 1991; Hackman, 2002; Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1998; Kozlowski, Gully, Nason, & Smith, 1999; Kozlowski, Gully, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996; Salas, Burke, & Stagl, 2004; Zaccaro & Marks, 1999; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001; Ziegert, 2004). Under the functional perspective, team leadership can be described as a series of problem solving steps: diagnosing group deficiencies, taking remedial action, forecasting impending changes, and preventing harmful environmental changes or

their effects (McGrath, 1962). This conceptualization was later updated to reflect the following steps: problem identification and diagnoses, generation of solutions and implementation of a chosen solution (Fleishman et al., 1991). This process is accomplished through the leader's generic responses to social problems. These generic responses are captured in four broad categories: (1) information search and structuring, (2) information use in problem solving, (3) managing personnel resources and (4) managing material resources (Fleishman et al., 1991, see Table 2). While originally developed with regard to organizational leadership, one can imagine how this taxonomy of leadership dimensions can also be applied to individual, team, and unit level leadership.

Taking a slightly different perspective, Hackman and colleagues have examined five conditions that leaders can create to increase the likelihood that a *team* performs well. The first three of the conditions (i.e., real team, compelling direction, enabling structure) have been argued to be core conditions while the later two (i.e., supportive context, expert coaching) are enablers. A real team is one in which there is a task with some level of interdependence, clear boundaries, some degree of membership stability, and authority to manage work processes. Once this has been established, leaders ensure the team has received direction that is clear, consequential, and motivating. Finally, leaders provide the team with structural components (i.e., design of work that is motivating and empowering, functional norms, team composition) that facilitate the achievement of the direction and corresponding goal. Once core conditions have been established, creating and maintaining a supportive context (i.e., updated information, resources — educational and task related) and coaching assistance can further facilitate performance. The predominant number of these conditions, with the exception of ensuring a real team, could be argued to apply at a broad level to individuals, teams, units, or organizations.

Finally, Yukl and Lepsinger (2004) put forth a framework of flexible leadership that is relevant and ties in nicely with the functional approach through its recognition of leadership complexity and the need to be adaptive. Yukl and Lepsinger argue for leadership flexibility, balance among competing demands, and need for coordinated action by leaders across levels and situations. The framework examines how direct and indirect leadership behaviors can influence three types of work outcomes (i.e., efficiency and reliability of work processes, timely adaptation to changes in external environment, and strong human resources and relations). Moreover, situational constraints are recognized as determining which challenges are most important to be tackled at a particular time and the role of specific aspects of direct and indirect leadership behaviors. Within this framework direct leadership behaviors are categorized into task-orientated behavior (e.g., efficiency/reliability), relations-orientated behavior (e.g., building strong human relations and resources), and change-orientated behavior (e.g., timely adaptation to changes in environment). Finally, indirect leadership refers to the use of formal programs and management systems to achieve the three specified organizational outcomes noted above.

While each of the frameworks described above have a slightly different focus, each is consistent in the recognition of 1) a broad set of leadership functions and 2) the notion that the specific behaviors which underlie the functions vary in instrumentality across situations. Functional leadership theory serves to provide a broad overview of what effective leaders must ensure gets accomplished, thereby serving to set a baseline condition for how subordinates judge leader ability. However, it leaves the specification of the exact manner in which this is done to other leadership theories. For example, as seen in Hackman's work (2005), effective leaders are argued to create and sustain a supportive context. Much of the work that has been conducted within charismatic leadership, leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, and transformational leadership offers insights into the exact manner in which leaders may ensure this function is accomplished dependent on the situation (e.g., high or low LMX relationship). For example, work that has been

Table 2  
Taxonomy of leadership functions (adapted from Fleishman et al., 1991)

Dimension	
Information search and structuring	"the leader's systematic search, acquisition, evaluation, and organization of information regarding team goals and operations" (Zaccaro et al., 2001, p. 455).
Information use in problem solving	Refers to the leader use of information gained through boundary spanning activities to solve the problem at hand.
Managing personnel resources	Refers to the leader obtaining, allocating, developing and motivating personnel resources to enact the developed plan and monitor progress.
Managing material resources	Refers to the leader obtaining, allocating, and managing material resources to enact the developed plan and monitor progress.

conducted under the auspices of charismatic, LMX, and transformational leadership is all especially relevant to the leadership function of managing personnel resources, as well as the manner in which the leader may garner material resources.

#### 4. Building a framework: trust in Leadership

Based on the boundary conditions that have been set earlier in the article and a high level understanding of how trust is developed and what effective leaders do, we are now able to begin to build an integrative multi-level framework from which to examine trust in leadership. In doing so, the trust and leadership literatures were examined in order to assist in identifying behavioral and attitudinal markers under major framework categories, where appropriate. Fig. 1 depicts the result of these efforts. Fig. 1 depicts selected antecedents to trust in leadership, moderators at the individual, team, and organizational levels, as well as proximal and distal outcomes of trust in leadership. While this list is not exhaustive, the constructs included in the framework were selected as the most representative of the trust literature and serves to frame the current review. In the following pages, each component of the framework will be examined in greater detail.

##### 4.1. Antecedents

Leveraging against some of the more prominent frameworks and models developed with regard to within organization trust (i.e., person-to-person, person-to-leader, team-to-team, or person-organization) there seem to be three broad categories of antecedents which can be delineated: ability, benevolence, and integrity (see Mayer et al., 1995; Gill, Boies, Finegan, & McNally, 2005; Schoorman et al., 2007). The predominant number of antecedents proposed within the larger literature base are argued to fall within one of the above three categories (see Table 3). Moreover, a recent meta-analysis examined ten models of trust that are argued to have impacted the examination of trust (as indicated by number of citations in the citation index, see Ebert, 2007). In this review, the influence of the

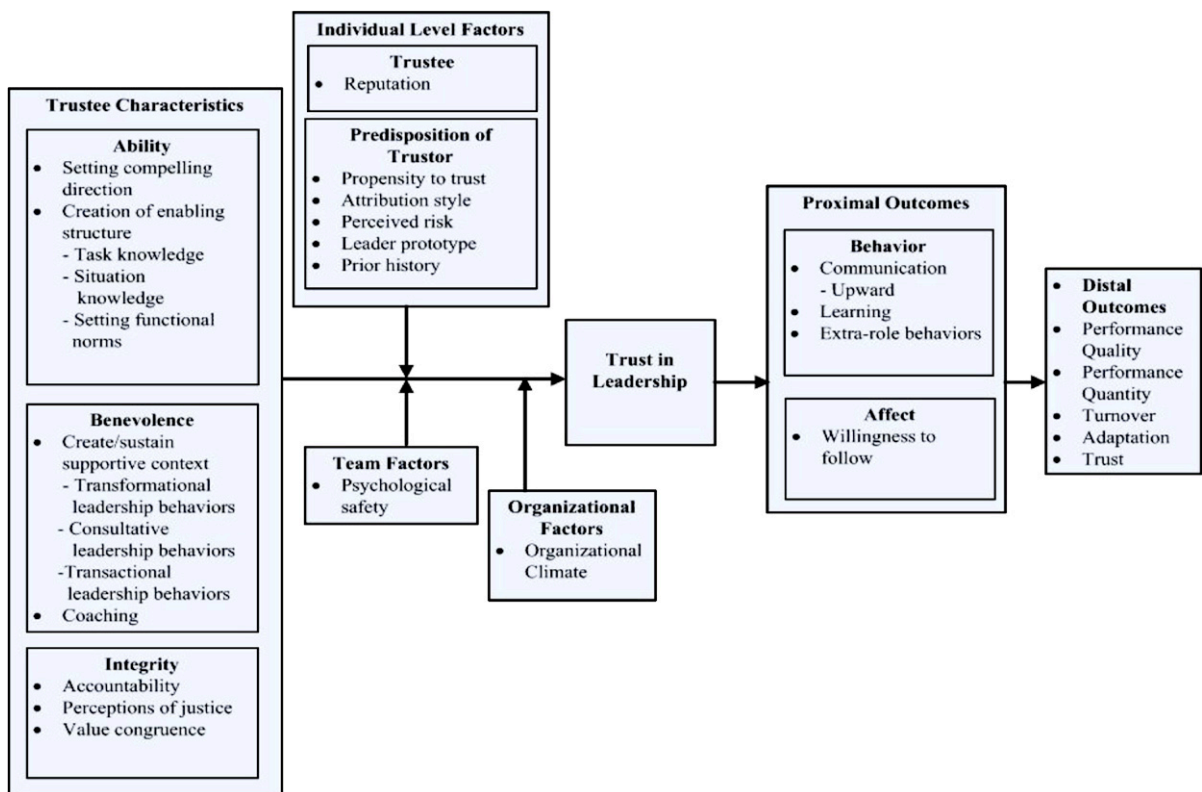


Fig. 1. Integrated multi-level framework for understanding trust in leadership.



Table 3  
Comparison of factors impacting trust

Authors	Focus	Propensity	Ability	Benevolence	Integrity	Additional constructs
Butler (1991)	Managerial trust	No	Competence	Loyalty, openness, receptivity, availability	Consistency, discreetness, fairness, integrity, promise, fulfillment, Reliability, openness	No
Mishra (1996)	Trust in organization Trust in leadership	No	Competence	Caring, openness		No
Sitkin and Roth (1993)	Trust in organization	No	Ability	No	Value congruence	No
Whitener et al. (1998)	Managerial trustworthy behavior	Propensity to trust	Communication, Sharing and delegation of control, perceived competence	Demonstration of concern	Behavioral consistency, behavioral integrity, perceived similarity	Task interdependence
Williams (2001)	General trust/ groups	Motivation to trust	Ability, affect	Benevolence, affect	Integrity, affect	Organizational context (competition), in-group/ out-group membership
Dirks and Ferrin (2002)	Trust in leadership	Propensity to trust	Unmet expectations, Perceived organizational support	Interactional justice, perceived justice, participative decision making, transactional leadership, distributive justice, transformational leadership, unmet expectations, perceived organizational support	No	Length of relationship, Direct/indirect leadership

categorization of ability, benevolence, and integrity can be seen in the prevalence of the citation of the original Mayer et al. (1995) article (i.e., CI: 344). Therefore, the three broad antecedent categories originally proposed by Mayer et al. (1995) will be used as an initial organizing scheme within which to discuss antecedents (see Fig. 1). These broad-based antecedents will be further delineated based on evidence from the literature with regard to the specific behavioral indicators that followers will look for in order to make judgments in determining trust in leadership.

#### 4.1.1. Ability

Ability has been defined as, “that group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence with some specific domain” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 717). In order to further delineate the behaviors that may serve as markers for a leader’s ability from a subordinate’s standpoint the nature of leadership must be first briefly examined (i.e., what is it that effective leaders do). Drawing from Hackman’s (2002) functional approach to leadership it is argued that the degree to which the leader ensures there is compelling direction and an enabling structure the leader will be viewed as effective and are behavioral markers of leader ability. While these conditions (i.e., compelling direction and enabling structure) were originally proposed within the context of team leadership, it can be argued that the two conditions delineated above serve as markers of a leader’s ability across organizational levels (individual, team, unit, organizational). The manner in which these conditions will serve as behavioral markers of leader ability and thereby impact trust in leadership will be briefly discussed.

*4.1.1.1. Setting compelling direction.* Leaders who provide compelling direction ensure that employees perceive their tasks and goals as challenging, clear, and consequential (Hackman, 2002). Ensuring that compelling direction is provided not only focuses employees on the correct tasks and goals, it also energizes and motivates followers because the outcomes are perceived as valued and consequential (Hackman, 2002), goals serve as opportunities for personal growth, and team members are held accountable (Hackman & Walton, 1986). In order to set compelling direction,

leaders must have developed a level of situation awareness and a clear understanding of the team task, team capabilities, and the environment (i.e., contextual information) in which they are performing.

While the setting of direction has not explicitly been examined as it relates to follower's trust in leadership, there is ample evidence that clear, engaging direction has an impact on individual, team, and organizational performance (see Ginnett, 1993; Bell, 2007; Zaccaro, 2001; Messick & Roderick, 1995). Moreover, in examining a variety of the leadership behaviors which have been found to promote trust, the ability to set clear direction is embedded within many of those behaviors (see work on transformational leadership).

**Proposition 1.** *The setting of clear, compelling direction will influence trust in leadership as it will be seen by subordinates as an indicator of leader ability.*

*4.1.1.2. Creation of enabling structure.* A second set of behaviors that serve as behavioral indicators of a leader's ability or competence is the creation of an enabling structure for the organizational unit. Enabling structure includes 1) design of the work and resource allocation, 2) core norms of conduct within the team, and 3) team composition (Hackman, 2002; Fleishman et al., 1991). When leaders fail to provide adequate structure for how work is to be performed, and resources are to be allocated, team members may perceive the leader as 'out of the loop,' unorganized, or generally ineffective.

Leaders may be seen as effective to the degree that functional norms are promoted. Functional norms which encourage team adaptability, self-correction and learning, and open communication further reinforce perceptions of leader competence by helping the team and its members leverage the synergy and diversity of resources that often exist within teams. Furthermore, norms such as the above contribute not only to perceptions of leader ability, but may also relate to views of leader benevolence in that they are indicators of follower or team development processes.

**Proposition 2.** *The leader's development of functional norms will contribute to follower perceptions of leader ability and benevolence and, in turn, impact trust in leadership.*

Finally, team composition in terms of size, diversity of knowledge, skills, and perspectives can serve as an enabling structure. The degree to which leaders are able to manage team composition to ensure the best combination of skills and knowledge exist within the team may also be viewed as a marker of leader ability because he/she must possess task and situational knowledge and because team successes are often considered a reflection of leader effectiveness.

**Proposition 3.** *The degree to which a leader can effectively create and manage team composition will influence trust in leadership by serving as an indicator of leader ability such that the leader has the knowledge to be able to select and match individuals with relevant KSAs.*

#### *4.1.2. Benevolence*

Benevolent leaders are those that are perceived to genuinely care about their subordinates and convey authentic concern in relationships (Caldwell & Hayes, 2007). In turn, subordinates that perceive their leaders as benevolent are also more likely to reciprocate this care and concern by being motivated to work harder, persist longer, and engage in extra-role behaviors (i.e., OCBs), even when there is no extrinsic reward. Using this evidence and leveraging against the theoretical framework of functional leadership theory and the work of Hackman (2002), it is argued that actions indicative of provision of expert coaching and the establishment of a supportive context (i.e., design of reward systems, information systems, and training opportunities/educational system) may lead subordinates to judge their leader as benevolent. The influence of benevolent behaviors, specifically expert coaching and creation of a supportive context, on trust in leadership are discussed below.

*4.1.2.1. Provision of expert coaching.* The role of leaders in the development and coaching of team members and the influence of this development on individual, team, and organizational performance has been receiving increasing attention in the literature (DuToit, 2007; Hackman, 2002; Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Kozlowski et al., 1996; Morgan, Harkins, & Goldsmith, 2005). While a variety of coaching approaches have emerged, DuToit (2007) argues that common among all is an assumption of responsibility for nurturing and leveraging the talent within organizational members. The focus on nurturing argues for its place within the benevolence category.

Coaching has been defined as, “direct interaction with a team intended to help members make coordinated and task appropriate use of their collective resources in accomplishing the team’s work” (Hackman & Wageman, 2005, p. 269). Theorists (e.g., Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Kozlowski et al., 1996) have begun to argue that coaching and employee development is an important role that leaders hold over the life of the team. As can be expected, the coaching role evolves across a team’s life span. Early in a team’s development, coaching functions may focus on development of team member effort (i.e., motivational in nature). Towards the midpoint of a team’s life span, leader coaching becomes more consultative in nature thereby ensuring the implementation of accurate performance strategies. Finally, later in a team’s life span coaching is more educational in nature as the focus is on development of knowledge and skill. Despite the increased interest in coaching and conceptual ties to perceptions of benevolence, there has been a lack of research to examine its direct impact on trust in leadership.

**Proposition 4.** *Expert coaching provided by the leader will be perceived by subordinates as an indication of benevolence and concern for their welfare thereby contributing to greater trust in leadership.*

*4.1.2.2. Supportive context.* Also supporting the role that leaders can occupy not only in coaching, but in building a supportive context are several types of leadership behaviors that are typically categorized as falling within one of three leadership styles (i.e., transformational, consultative, transactional). It is argued that through building a supportive context for followers leaders may be seen as benevolent through facilitating the perception of caring and concern.

*4.1.2.2.1. Transformational leadership.* While many styles of leadership have been examined in relation to trust in leadership, perhaps the most prevalent is that of transformational leadership. Dirks and Ferrin (2002) conducted a meta-analysis and found empirical support for the relationship between specific transformational behaviors and trust in leadership. This type of leadership adopts an approach, whereby leaders facilitate followers’ efforts to solve complex problems while concurrently developing subordinates so they are more prepared to address future problems (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Butler, Cantrell, & Flick, 1999). Burns (1978) argues that these leaders focus on transforming followers motivational states to higher level needs, such as self-actualization. Therefore, it should come as no surprise that the behaviors that fall within this style of leadership (e.g., charisma, intellectual stimulation, inspiration, individualized consideration, Bass, 1999) may be viewed by followers as indicators of leader’s benevolence. Leaders that show respect and concern for their followers, by understanding individual strengths and weaknesses, are viewed as trustworthy (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000; Gillespie & Mann, 2004). Furthermore, leaders who are capable of developing their followers by providing them new perspectives and creative solutions to novel problems are able to demonstrate commitment and development — additional signs of benevolence. In fact, followers express a deeper level of trust if they view their leaders as more supportive and caring.

**Proposition 5.** *A leader’s use of transformational leadership behaviors will positively impact subordinate’s trust in leadership by increasing perceptions of leader benevolence.*

*4.1.2.2.2. Consultative leadership.* While often grouped within transformational type behaviors, consultative leadership has also shown a positive relationship to trust in leadership (see Korsgaard, Schweiger, & Sapienza, 1995). Results of a study by Gillespie and Mann (2004) indicated that consulting team members was one of three factors (i.e., consulting team members, communicating a collective vision, sharing common values) which predicted 67% of the variance in team members’ trust towards leadership. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) make a similar conceptual argument in that leaders can gain trust from their followers by consulting with them on important decisions and valuing their opinions by letting it impact outcomes. Consultative leadership cultivates trust because it allows followers to have autonomy and provides opportunities to voice opinions and concerns. Because consultative leadership looks to followers for input, they feel valued and appreciated which influences trust.

**Proposition 6.** *The use of consultative leadership will be positively impact subordinate’s trust in leadership by increasing perceptions of leader benevolence.*

*4.1.2.2.3. Transactional leadership.* Consistent behavior displays commitment and predictability, which are two attributes associated with promoting trust between leaders and followers. In line with this position several researchers have found positive relationships between transactional leadership behavior and trust in leadership (see Butler et al.,

1999; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2004). Transactional leadership style and the behaviors contained within are built on dyadic exchanges that are perceived as just because there is a clear focus on consistent fulfillment of reward contingencies and exchange relationships (Burns, 1978; Shamir, 1995). When followers perceive justice exists within the transactional nature of the leadership behaviors which are subsumed within this class (i.e. contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception) this leadership style may be viewed as an indicator for leader benevolence. That is, the provision of recognition and reinforcement that is contingent on performance demonstrates caring.

Despite the support for the influence of transactional leadership style on the development of trust in leadership, there has been mixed support for these assertions (e.g., Bass, 1985; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1990). In fact some suggest that transactional leadership behaviors do not inspire levels of trust in the leader (Bass, 1985; Jung & Avolio, 2000). It may be that while transactional leadership styles promote consistency, perceptions of justice, and reduce ambiguity within the leader-member relationship needed to develop trust, it does not inspire the subordinate to go above and beyond the tasks laid out by the leader. This willingness to perform extra-role behaviors is discussed later in this article, but is one of the key behaviors desired when developing trusting relationships. Thus, while there is empirical support for this leadership style as effective we argue that this may not be the most efficacious style in comparison to alternative styles (i.e., consultative or transformational) when leaders seek to accomplish more through their team.

**Proposition 7.** *Transactional leadership, when viewed as consistent, just, and a reduction of ambiguity in the leader-member relationship, will contribute to the leader being seen as fair and benevolent which, in turn, engenders trust in leadership.*

#### 4.1.3. Integrity

A number of researchers (e.g., Lieberman, 1981; Sitkin & Roth, 1993; Butler & Cantrell, 1984) have linked leader integrity to the trust held by their subordinates for their leaders. In relation to trust, integrity has been defined as, “the trustor’s perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles that the trustor finds acceptable” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 719). There are two distinct components of this definition: (1) trustee (i.e., leader) consistently following a set of principles, and (2) degree to which that set of principles is deemed morally correct by the trustor (i.e., subordinate). Mayer et al. (1995) argue that integrity is judged by examining previous behaviors, reputation, the similarity between the leader’s behaviors and the subordinate’s internal beliefs, and the consistency between words and actions.

Integrity is an important component because if followers feel that their leaders cannot be trusted, they will spend less effort on performance and expend more energy documenting performance and finding workarounds. Studies show that when people are *required* to monitor the behavior of another individual, trust in that individual diminishes (Strickland, 1970; Hall, Blass, Ferris, & Massengale, 2004). When leaders’ are perceived as dishonest and lacking integrity, subordinates will not commit to achieving goals set forth by the leader due to fears of vulnerability. However, if followers believe their leaders to have a great deal of integrity, they will be more inclined to engage in riskier behavior such as divulging information. Divulging information is a reciprocal exchange process beginning with small investments and eventually developing into revealing what may be more personally costly information. When the initial decision to share knowledge is made there is no guarantee of the appropriate return; therefore, the trustee must trust in other person to reciprocate and disclose information as well. According to Whitener (1997), this is known as the norm of reciprocity — two parties feeling a sense of obligation and being motivated to reciprocate (e.g., divulging information). As people exchange information, they prove themselves worthy and a sense of trust expands. What follows are a few of the behavioral indicators which may be used by subordinates to judge the integrity of the leader.

**4.1.3.1. Accountability.** Accountability refers to an obligation that people will be held responsible for their actions. Therefore, there is a reward/punishment component aspect of accountability. Within an organization, accountability refers to a set of shared expectations that people will behave in a particular fashion; hence, it is viewed as the glue that holds the social structure together. Accountability can be generated through internal and external mechanisms. For example, internal accountability focuses on a person’s willingness to accept responsibility. Leaders who are consistently accountable for their actions may be viewed as having a higher level of integrity and trusted to stand by their actions. Alternatively, external accountability is based upon outside, situational factors (e.g., monitoring). Accountability can be regulated through informal (e.g., social norms and culture) and formal (e.g., monitoring employees and

performance assessments) mechanisms. Formal accountability measures are put in place by the organization to guarantee compliant employees.

In the literature, accountability is further subdivided into process versus outcome (Siegel-Jacobs & Yates, 1996; Hall et al., 2004). Process accountability refers to responsibility for procedures used during decision making, whereas outcome accountability focuses on outcomes flowing from the decision-making (Adelberg & Batson, 1978; Hall et al., 2004). It has been suggested that placing an emphasis on outcome accountability may entice leaders to engage in risky, unethical behavior. Take for instance, Enron executives that were held accountable only for stock prices by their stakeholders. These executives who were highly trusted eventually engaged in unethical behavior to ensure that the outcomes they were held accountable for were met (i.e., stock prices). Thus, a culture that promotes low accountability and high trust will facilitate inappropriate, unethical behavior due to more autonomy over discretion and reduced behavioral responsibility. In conclusion, leaders that hold themselves personally accountable for their actions and that are formally held accountable for their decision-making processes are likely to be perceived as having more integrity and as more trustworthy.

**Proposition 8.** *Perceptions of leader accountability will facilitate subordinate trust in leadership by increasing perceptions of integrity.*

*4.1.3.2. Perceptions of justice.* The strain of research conducted in the area of justice has been extensive. In general the literature suggests that people want to be treated fairly and consistently and that this leads to trust (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Greenberg, 1990; Greenberg, 2003; Schminke, 1990). Justice has been subdivided into three areas, each of which has been examined in conjunction with trust in leadership. These areas of organizational justice include: procedural (policies and procedures enacted consistently) (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), distributive (rewards and promotions given in a consistent manner) (e.g., Kim & Mauborgne, 1991), and interactive (people are treated with and communicated with respect) (e.g., Ayree, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Korsgaard et al., 1995; Sapienza & Korsgaard, 1996; Schweiger & Sandberg, 1991) justice. Fairness is perceived when leaders consider others' viewpoints, restrain personal biases, and explain the decision making process including providing adequate feedback (Whitener, 1997). With regard to procedural and distributive justice, employees can be assured that certain behaviors will lead to certain outcomes regardless of personal opinions or biases that may be held within the organizational setting. This reduces ambiguity in the relationship between the subordinate and leadership and increases the perception of trust. For example, it is important to employees that supervisors not only distribute outcomes (e.g., raises or promotions) fairly, but also that procedures (e.g., job assessments and performance appraisals) to allocate outcomes are fair. When the leader fails to enact policies in a just way or provide rewards in a manner that appears to be inconsistent, trust will deteriorate as this provides evidence regarding the integrity of the leader. Furthermore, interactional trust relates to the degree to which leaders communicate with subordinates in a manner that provides respect and dignity. That is, leaders that promote interactional justice while having to enforce policies and procedures (e.g., demotion, termination) do so in a way that allows the subordinate privacy and dignity as opposed to embarrassment in front of his/her teammates. This engagement in interactional justice promotes not only the perception of integrity and benevolence, but also the trustworthiness of the leader. Therefore, fairness will enhance a sense of trust among supervisors and employees. Additionally, the perception of being fair is beneficial because employees will be inclined to reciprocate with an increase in performance and a better attitude.

**Proposition 9.** *Perceptions of justice in leader action will engender higher levels of subordinate trust due to increased perceptions of integrity as compared to leaders whose actions are seen as unjust.*

*4.1.3.3. Value congruence.* Values have been defined as, "internalized attitudes about what is right and wrong, ethical and unethical, good or bad, important or unimportant" (Rokeach, 1979, as cited in Lau, Liu, & Fu, 2007, p. 326). Due to the moral component, it would be expected, and the literature has shown (e.g., Govier, 1997; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Sitkin & Roth, 1993), that the degree to which there is value congruence between leader and follower values the greater likelihood the leader will be viewed as having integrity and correspondingly trusted. Specifically, Govier (1997) argues that a key basis of interpersonal trust is the belief that a referent other has common values and actions will be guided by the morality contained within those values. Empirical support by Jung and Avolio (2000) found that value congruence was positively related to trust in leadership ( $r = .57$ ). Additional support is found in the work of Zussman (1997) who reported that one of the stated reasons for a lack of trust in government were that policies did not reflect one's own

beliefs and values. While the focus of this study was trust in government as opposed to trust in leadership, government may be viewed as a level of leadership. Additionally, literature bases such as social identity and self categorization also provide an indirect argument for the degree to which follower's perceive value congruence with their leader as creating stronger ties and attributions which cause the similar other to be seen in a positive light (see also Heider's balance theory, Crandall, Silvia, N'Gbala, Tsang, & Dawson, 2007).

**Proposition 10.** *The degree to which subordinates perceive value congruence with their leader will positively impact trust in leadership as the leader is seen to be more like them.*

#### 4.2. Moderators

In the prior sections, a number of antecedents to trust were identified and discussed. In conjunction with the specified antecedents, a number of constructs exist that may moderate the relationship between the identified antecedents and the decision to trust the leader. Specifically, eight constructs have been identified that may act as moderators. In keeping in line with the cross-level nature of the review, moderators have been identified at the level of the individual trustor (i.e., propensity to trust, attributions, leadership prototypes, perceived risk, and prior history), trustee (i.e., leader reputation), team (i.e., psychological safety), and organization (i.e., organizational climate). What follows is a brief discussion of these moderators. Much like the trust antecedents, this is not an exhaustive list of moderator variables, but rather is a select number that are frequently discussed in the trust literature.

##### 4.2.1. Trustor characteristics

**4.2.1.1. Propensity to trust.** Trust is based on the interpersonal relationships that exist between two or more individuals. For this reason, the decision to trust occurs in the presence of the individual differences of each party within the interpersonal relationship. Two individual differences that may most influence decisions to trust are propensity to trust and attribution processes. In both cases, individual differences in cognitive processing of information influence what information and the weight each piece of information is given in the decision to trust. Specifically, propensity to trust is the general willingness to place faith in others' reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and good intentions. Propensity to trust impacts the information that is salient (i.e., strengthens ones' belief in the trustworthiness of others; Kosugi & Yamagishi, 1998) and how the information is processed when deciding to trust (Yamagishi, Kikuchi, & Kosugi, 1999). However, this reciprocal relationship might have more to do with the recall of different events (high trusters recall positive events and low trustors recall negative events) upon which the attributions are based (Bradbury & Fincham, 1990; Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001).

**Proposition 11.** *Individual propensity to trust will moderate the relationship between the antecedents to trust and trust in leadership.*

**4.2.1.2. Perceived risk.** One constant in nearly every definition of trust is the perception of vulnerability (e.g., Dirks, 2000; Rousseau et al., 1998). Yet, perceived risk and vulnerability are ignored as an "understood" component of trust in the workplace. In the workplace this vulnerability may come in the form of risk to ones' reputation, opportunity for promotion/compensation, and continued employment. The need for trust is further increased when there is uncertainty inherent in the relationship (e.g., leaders' motivations are unknown) (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Thus, if considered together the perceived risk (and need for trust) that an employee experiences on a day-to-day basis while interacting with his/her team leader is the degree to which the successful performance of a task is important (either to the organization or personal employability or reputation) and the degree to which the relationship between the team member and the leader is ambiguous. As discussed in the prior sections of this article, uncertainty within the relationship can be expected to decrease over time through repeated interactions. As the leader and team members interact over time, an understanding of the leader's competence, benevolence, and integrity will be uncovered and the pathway to trust is developed.

Despite the reduction of ambiguity regarding the interpersonal relationship with the team leader, the perceived risk due to the importance of the task and perceived vulnerabilities remain. Within the team setting, team members become vulnerable to each other when they must rely upon each other to complete team tasks, especially as the importance of

the shared task increases (Dirks, 2000; Rousseau et al., 1998). Assuming all team members have shared priorities for task completion (i.e., all have mutual goals and negative outcomes for failed tasks) the perceived risk as it relates to the team decreases. Similarly, as team members begin to interact and share their views of the task and responsibility, trust is likely to be bolstered. From the perspective of the leader, teams are often reliant on the leader for resources, information, and support in order to complete their tasks. For this reason, team members are vulnerable to their leaders and this vulnerability necessitates the development of trust. It is expected, therefore, that as more risk is experienced within the team (e.g., task ambiguity, importance of the task), trust in the team leader will become increasingly important in reaching the desired outcomes (e.g., reduced turnover, increased communication).

**Proposition 12.** *Individual perceived risk will moderate the relationship between the antecedents to trust and trust in leadership. As the degree of perceived risk increases more of the leader characteristics will be taken into account in making the decision to trust, as compared to situations where perceived risk is low.*

**4.2.1.3. Attributions.** Attribution “goes beyond an objective description of an event and seeks to explain or examine the reasons why the event occurred” (Rempel et al., 2001, p. 60). Much like the propensity to trust influencing the information that is made salient, people often fall victim to fundamental attribution error. Fundamental attribution error is the idea that individuals tend to assign internal responsibility for others’ behaviors (e.g., she comes to late work because she is lazy) instead of considering external causes for behavior (e.g., she is late because she has three children to get to school in the morning). Through the tendency to make fundamental attribution errors, the information that most closely supports the attribution will be attended to and serve to fulfill expectations. Furthermore, it has been shown that the manner in which individuals make attributions vary across cultures (see Morris, Menon, & Ames, 2001; Norenzayan & Nisbett, 2000; Choi, Dalal, Kim-Prieto, & Park, 2003).

**Proposition 13.** *Individual attributions will moderate the relationship between the antecedents to trust and trust in leadership. Team members who have a tendency towards assigning internal as opposed to external responsibility for a leader’s behavior will be less likely to trust the leader when unexpected events happen, regardless of the actual cause.*

**4.2.1.4. Leadership prototypes.** The mental models that individuals hold with respect to characteristics of effective leadership may also moderate the relationship between identified antecedents and the decision to trust the leader. Specifically, the leadership prototype that one holds will moderate the relationship between ability/competence and the decision to trust. While often not specifically tied to the trust literature there has been a wealth of research conducted on how leadership prototypes (i.e., individual perceptions of leader effectiveness) vary across individuals and cultures. House et al. (1999) found that (a) charismatic/value based and team-orientated leadership styles are universally endorsed, (b) humane and participative styles are nearly universally endorsed, and (c) self-protective and autonomous styles are culturally contingent (House et al., 1999).

Researchers have also identified: (a) 21 leader attributes and behaviors that are universally viewed as contributing to effective team leadership, many of them falling under the global dimension of charismatic leadership (see Den Hartog, House, Hanges, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1999), (b) eight attributes viewed as negative (e.g., loner, noncooperative, nonexplicit, dictatorial), and (c) 35 that were culturally contingent (e.g., cautious, risk-taker, independent, formal, sensitive). Others have also found evidence for the idea that different cultures have various “prototypes” of what constitutes effective leadership (e.g., Bass, 1997; Sarros & Santora, 2001). Moreover, many of the leadership behaviors examined within these works have been shown to be related to trust in leadership (see section on benevolence). For more information the reader is referred to House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004) and Chhokar, Brodbeck, and House (2007).

**Proposition 14.** *Individual team members are likely to have varying mental models concerning what the characteristics of effective leadership are; these mental models (prototypes) will interact with leader characteristics to determine trust in leadership. To the degree to which there is a match between leadership prototypes and exhibited leader characteristics trust in leadership will be strengthened.*

**4.2.1.5. Prior history.** The last trustor characteristic which will be discussed is prior history with the leader. From a theoretical standpoint it is easy to imagine that the degree to which one has a prior history with the leader will impact

the decision to trust. Prior interaction and its outcomes (e.g., positive or negative) will be integrated into an individual's mental model pertaining to that leader. Extracting from the literature on team cognition and mental models, it has been argued that mental models are the cognitive mechanisms through which individuals understand the world (Johnson-Laird, 1983; Wickens, 1984). Moreover, these cognitive representations are difficult to change once formed and allow understanding of current action as well as prediction of future action. Similar to reputation, prior history with a leader, will color how present interactions are viewed.

Along with the literature on mental models, one can examine leader-member-exchange (LMX) theory to envision how prior interaction might impact one's future perceptions. LMX recognizes that leaders often have differential relationships with subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Tesluk & Gerstner, 2002). Thereby, relationships and actions will be differentially interpreted. Most recently, the argument has been made that LMX should be viewed as a system of interdependent dyads where the focus is on examining how differentiated dyadic relationships combine and interact to form larger systems and affect outcomes (see Tesluk & Gerstner, 2002). The differential relationships are argued to result in various dyadic interactions between the leader and subordinates that result in in-group and out-group memberships. In-group membership is characterized by high quality LMX relationships between leader and followers, whereas the converse is true for out-group membership. High quality LMX relationships are argued to be characterized by mutual respect, loyalty, trust and behaviors that extend outside the employment contract, the converse is true of low quality LMX relationships (Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000). Therefore, it would be expected that individuals or team members who have a prior history characterized by high quality LMX relationships with the leader are likely to view leaders as more benevolent and having more integrity than those individuals who either have low quality LMX relationships or have no prior history of interaction. It should be noted that while we have used a functional leadership approach to frame this article, we argue that the quality of the relationship between the leader and his/her leader is an important moderating variable in the trust one holds for the leader. This link between relationship quality and perception of trust in the leader is closely tied to one's perception that the leader fulfills the leadership prototypes held internally, but also the attributions the subordinate is likely to make about the leader's actions and intentions based on the quality of the relationship that exists between them.

**Proposition 15.** *Prior history between subordinate and leader will moderate the relationship between the antecedents to trust and trust in leadership. Prior history with the leader can serve as a substitute for many of the behavioral markers identified within the leader; thereby serving to strengthen or decrease the relationship between leader characteristics and trust in leadership depending on the nature of the prior interactions.*

#### 4.2.2. Trustee (leader) characteristics

**4.2.2.1. Leader reputation.** While many leader characteristics were identified as antecedents under the competence category, it is argued here that leader reputation acts primarily in a moderating role as it has been argued to be a substitute for personal interactions (Hall et al., 2004). In the trust literature, reputation is known as a combination of the salient characteristics of accomplishments (Ferris, Jagannathan, & Pritchard, 2003). Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky, and Treadway (2003) define leader reputation as “the perceptual identity of a leader as held by others that serves to reduce the uncertainty regarding expected future behavior of that leader...” (as cited in Hall, 2004, p. 518). Reputation reveals information about a leader's ability and morals. Reputation will impact the degree of trust, monitoring, and accountability standards (Hall et al., 2004). Possessing a high reputation facilitates trust among followers and leaders and is associated with a greater degree of autonomy and discretion. In addition, a positive reputation will influence the likelihood that followers will perceive leader intentions in a positive light and serves as a heuristic to guide decision making (Tyler & DeGoey, 1996; Hall et al., 2004). Leaders with credible reputations will often receive some latitude on their decision making even without personal interactions or direct observations.

A leader's reputation will depend upon context and will be defined based upon his/her social network. In turn, it will impact self-esteem, social identity, individual behavior, and social interactions (Hall et al., 2004). Because leader reputation is situation specific, it is possible for leaders to have several reputations where specific behaviors can be expectant based upon environmental context. Reputation will be strengthened as more interactions occur and behavior reinforces reputation; however, if behavior is inconsistent with reputation, it will become redefined and expectations will diminish. Because reputation is considered to be a valuable asset, people are not necessarily willing to behave inappropriately at the risk of damaging it especially if development was a lengthy process.



Reputation is shaped through a complex interaction of several proponents. Hall et al. (2004) propose human capital as a contributing factor. Human capital is individual worth established by knowledge, skills, and credentials generated from investments attributed to education and training (Becker, 1975; Schultz, 1960; Snell & Dean, 1992; Hall et al., 2004). Credentials, such as educational degrees and the institution from which the degree was received will impact human capital, especially if the institution is top tiered. In addition to human capital, social capital also composes leader reputation. Whereas human capital focuses on individual characteristics, social capital is the combination of social relationships, goal orientations, and trust (Dess & Shaw, 2001; Hall et al., 2004) and based upon social networking and resources that are available to leaders due to their relationship with others (Bouty, 2000). In other words, individuals with more personal contact and mutual trust were granted access to resources. Social capital, along with human capital, facilitates reputation. Reputation in turn impacts trust, which ultimately affects accountability.

**Proposition 16.** *Leader reputation will moderate the relationship between the antecedents to trust and trust in leadership. Leader reputation, when good, may serve to offer a few idiosyncratic credits providing leaders with the benefit of doubt if their actions are slightly below expected standards for trust.*

#### 4.2.3. Team characteristics

4.2.3.1. *Psychological safety.* Team psychological safety has been defined as the shared belief that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking (Edmondson, 1999). It reflects a team climate where interpersonal trust and mutual respect are present such that well intentioned actions will not lead to punishment. Within such a climate it has been argued that team members will feel free to question suggestions and decisions (Burke, Stagl, Salas, Pierce, & Kendall, 2006), including those of the leader. Furthermore, research has suggested that this type of climate is a foundation for individual and team learning. While it has not been examined in relation to trust in leadership, Edmondson (2003) found that team leaders could develop psychological safety within the team through interpersonal activities which serve to motivate the team and illustrate the importance of all members' inputs and downplay power differences. To the extent that the leader encourages a team climate characterized by psychological safety it is argued that they will be seen as more benevolent and potentially as having more ability in that they are consultative and not threatened by suggestions from team members.

**Proposition 17.** *Psychological safety will moderate the relationship between the antecedents to trust and trust in leadership such that when the team climate is characterized by the perception of psychological safety it will further increase the strength of the relationship between leader characteristics and trust in leadership. The presence of psychological safety may also compensate for some leader characteristics.*

#### 4.2.4. Organizational characteristics

4.2.4.1. *Organizational climate.* When examining the relationship between the team leader and a team member, it is important to remember that their relationship does not exist in a vacuum. In fact, it exists in a huge assortment of external context (e.g., organizational climate) that can influence the degree to which trusts exists. The climate within an organization is relatively stable and enduring and influences employees' behavior through the perceived values of the organization (Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968). As an example, leaders are often the individuals that are responsible for enacting many of the policies and procedures that are handed down through the organization. Human resources activities (e.g., hiring procedures, compensation, training; Pfeffer, 1999) have been found to not only influence employee's job satisfaction, commitment, and effort, but also the trust that employees have for the organization (Gould-Williams, 2003; Whitener, 1997).

Organizational policies and procedures may also signal to team members how trusted they are by the organization (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994; Iles, Mabey, & Robertson, 1990) by allowing employees to use their discretion of how to meet organizational goals (Arthur, 1994). Often the leader will be evaluated not only on the fairness of the enforcement of policies and procedures (i.e., procedural justice), but will be personified as the initiator of the policies. Conversely, when leaders fail to enforce the promises that the policies and procedures offer (e.g., fairness in promotion decisions) trust will be diminished (MacNeil, 1985). Thus, even when the leader may not be involved in the development of the policies, the mere fact of enforcing the policies may contribute to him/her being considered less trustworthy. Related to

this, the supportiveness of the organizational climate is also likely to influence trust in leadership. In organizational climates where individuals are respected, are not treated as scapegoats, and are encouraged to discuss errors (i.e., interactional justice), team leaders will reciprocally receive respect and be perceived as more trustworthy.

**Proposition 18.** *Organizational climate will moderate the relationship between the antecedents to trust and trust in leadership.*

#### 4.3. Outcomes of trust in leadership

A number of outcomes have been identified as stemming from a trusting relationship between the team leader and team members. In this section, four outcomes will be discussed. These outcomes are discussed from the perspective that trust is the process by which certain behaviors occur as a result. This differs from the perspective that trust is the final outcome or goal. Although there are potentially other outcomes that result from trusting relationships between team leaders and subordinates, the outcomes discussed herein are those that have received the most theoretical and empirical support and are likely to be the most meaningful to organizations.

##### 4.3.1. Proximal behavioral outcomes

**4.3.1.1. Communication.** Earlier in this article, communication was discussed as an important input variable in developing trust with a subordinate. Zand (1972) and others have suggested that teams that do not trust do not share information, are not open for discussion, and are less effective at problem solving. When team leaders are open to discussing decisions and requesting input from subordinates, trust will develop. Based on social exchange theory, when leaders engage in communication and share information with subordinates, the subordinates are likely to reciprocate by communicating more often and openly with superiors on a variety of topics.

Communication from subordinates is important for a number of reasons. For instance, communication from lower ranks is likely to assist team leaders in understanding what is working and what is not working within the team to make needed adjustments or understand when teams do not perform as well as they could. By encouraging and integrating communication and input from lower ranks, the team leader has the benefit of additional insight from those who are likely to be performing the task and may identify new approaches for future performance. However, sharing information often brings up a feeling of vulnerability (Argote, Gruenfeld, & Naquin, 2001). People are also more likely to share vital information making them vulnerable when trust is present in a relationship. If trust is lacking, people may even withhold information which would hinder the flow of information and could diminish performance. In fact, people are actually prone to lie when trust is not present. In a study conducted by Mayer et al. (1995), benevolence was inversely related to the motivation to lie.

Luckily, trust has been found to facilitate knowledge sharing (Abrams, Cross, Lesser, & Levin, 2003; Levin, Whitner, & Cross, 2006; Mayer et al., 1995). Taken together, by creating a sense of trust towards the team leader, communication lines will be opened up to transmit needed information to lead to innovation, error remediation/prevention, and an ever growing and reciprocated sense of trust between the team leader and the subordinate. Another benefit of trust is that not only has it been found to open up the communication pathway, trust promotes a desire to interact and even enhances satisfaction with communication.

**Proposition 19.** *Trust in leadership will facilitate communication and open communication of current work processes.*

**4.3.1.2. Organizational citizenship behavior.** Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been described as any behavior that is not prescribed by an individual's job description and is directly or indirectly beneficial to the organization (Organ, 1990; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Although there is some debate as to what should be considered OCB, some examples of OCB are staying late to finish a presentation, chatting with a coworker who is distraught over a personal problem, and mentoring new employees in the norms of the organization. While none of these things are formally required by the organization or job description, all of these behaviors will assist in removing barriers to performance and thereby indirectly or directly benefit the organization. OCBs are also important because of the impossibility of describing every possible job task that an employee may need to perform in the course of their employment (Katz, 1964). Thus, OCBs may be one way to ensure that employees are willing to perform additional

tasks rather than rigidly following a job description. A similar argument was discussed earlier in this article in relation to transformational leadership styles in that trust in leadership will expand the willingness of the subordinate to get the job done but also go above and beyond.

The occurrence of OCB is found to be associated with leaders treating employees with fairness and trust (Ferres, Travaglione, & Connell, 2002; Pillai et al., 1999). It has been suggested that when trust is established, employees are more willing to go above and beyond the required tasks because a relationship has been developed (Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993) and because people often feel indebted to others for assistance or gifts (i.e., norm of reciprocity; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987; Greenberg & Frisch, 1972). In a sense, by leaders performing the behaviors required to develop trust (e.g., sharing information, including employees in decisions) a sense of reciprocity may develop such that employees naturally engage in OCBs. Taken together, when leaders take the time to develop a trusting relationship with team members, team members will be more committed to the team and more willing to perform tasks that are outside the normal realm of tasks in order to ensure the team succeeds.

**Proposition 20.** *Trust in leadership will facilitate extra-role behaviors (i.e., OCB).*

*4.3.1.3. Learning.* As leadership involves at a minimum a dyadic exchange, the literature on team learning will be examined to illustrate how trust in leadership can promote learning at both an individual and team level. Edmondson (1999) argues team learning occurs when relatively permanent changes occur in the behavioral potential of the group as a result of group interaction activities through which members acquire, share, and combine knowledge. Knowledge in this sense is gained through the testing of assumptions, discussing differences openly, forming new routines, and adjusting strategies in response to errors (Edmondson, Bohmer, & Pisano, 2001).

Engaging in learning is an activity which puts individuals at interpersonal risk. In order to learn from others individuals must be willing to take and incorporate feedback which can be deemed as involving a degree of personal risk. Trust in leadership has been shown to increase knowledge sharing which is a key component of learning. Moreover, while not explicitly examined in this article, it is reasonable to expect that when the leader is trusted, due to perceptions of ability, benevolence, and integrity, it will facilitate subordinates willingness to integrate new knowledge/feedback obtained from the leader into existing cognitive structures.

Dechant, Marsick, and Kasl (1993) note team learning can be delineated into four phases: fragmented, pooled, synergistic, and continuous. Most relevant to the present argument that trust in leadership can promote learning are the later phases (i.e., pooled, synergistic, continuous). For example, during the pooled phase knowledge begins to become shared among interacting partners. In order for this phase to happen, individuals must feel free to share information. Research has indicated that when members do not trust they do not share information and are not open for discussion (Zand, 1972). Others have also shown that trust facilitates knowledge sharing (Abrams et al., 2003; Levin et al., 2006; Mayer et al., 1995), a first step to learning in collaborative settings. While information is begun to be shared at this stage of learning, there is little attempt at integration so reframing of cognitive structures tends to happen at an individual level (i.e., not for the collective as a whole). However, during the synergistic phase of learning, dialogue, collaborative inquiry, and experimentation facilitate the changing of schemas. All three of these activities are dependent on sharing information which often brings up feelings of vulnerability (Argote et al., 2001). Similar arguments can be made for how trust in leadership may facilitate the last phase of team learning, continuous.

**Proposition 21.** *Trust in leadership will facilitate learning.*

#### *4.3.2. Distal behavioral outcomes*

*4.3.2.1. Organizational/team performance.* Performance, regardless of whether at the team or organizational level, relates to the quantity and quality of the products produced by the team or organization. Many have argued that trust in leadership leads to both higher team and organizational performance (Argyris, 1964; Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Likert, 1967; McGregor, 1967; Zand, 1972). Related to leadership, trust affects team and organizational performance because employees are more willing to carry out the tasks and strategies set out by the leader, suspend questions or doubts about the team, and work towards a common team goal (Dirks, 2000). Or, as seen in Costa, Roe, and Taillieu (2001), team members are more cooperative. In addition, when team members do not trust

their leader, more time will be spent monitoring the leader's actions as well as documenting personal performance to protect oneself as opposed to performing important team tasks (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). In the previous sections of this article, it has also been argued that trust in leadership is likely to lead to increased communication, increased OCBs, and a reduction of turnover intentions. Taken together, affecting any or all of these variables is likely to directly or indirectly improve the team and/or organizational performance. In fact, Dirks (2000) found a strongly significant direct correlation between trust in leadership and both past performance and expected performance of the team in the future. As teams deal with greater uncertainty in their environment or tasks, trust in one's team leader becomes even more influential of team performance (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999).

**Proposition 22.** *Trust in leadership will facilitate performance quality.*

**Proposition 23.** *Trust in leadership will facilitate performance quantity.*

**4.3.2.2. Turnover.** Undesired turnover occurs when an employee that is productive and beneficial to the organization chooses to voluntarily leave the organization. This type of turnover can have huge financial implications for an organization due to the cost of recruiting and training employee replacements, lost productivity, and loss of unique knowledge and skills held by the employee leaving the organization. Two factors that are highly related to turnover intent are trust and justice. When an employee does not feel like his/her supervisor is looking out for the subordinate's best interest and is likely to exploit any vulnerability, trust does not exist in the relationship. Davis et al. (2000) argue that when supervisors create a trusting environment within their team, employees feel safer and are more loyal to the organization.

Justice exists when employees feel they are treated fairly and equally. A sense of justice becomes more salient in situations in which there is a power discrepancy (i.e., team leader versus team member) (Lind & Tyler, 1988). In general, trust indirectly affects turnover intentions through perceptions of justice and fairness (Brashear, Manolis, & Brooks, 2005; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006). Specifically, trust correlates with higher levels of justice (Tyler, 1989) and justice is related to a reduction in turnover intentions (Roberts et al., 1999). Thus, when leaders fail to gain the trust of their employees, employees are likely to seek other job opportunities.

**Proposition 24.** *Trust in leadership will decrease turnover.*

#### **4.3.3. Affective outcomes**

**4.3.3.1. Willingness to follow.** The study of leadership is most often approached from the vantage point of the leader; however as leadership is about influence it's an exchange relationship that involves at least two people. Rarely are questions of leader effectiveness framed in terms of followership, yet the willingness to follow is an important determinant of leader effectiveness. Therefore, while not explicitly examined within much of the literature on trust in leadership, it is argued that followers who trust leadership (i.e., leaders are perceived as capable, benevolent, and possessing moral integrity) will be more likely to follow the guidance of those leaders and work towards goal attainment.

**Proposition 25.** *Trust in leadership will facilitate followership.*

In concluding this discussion of the potential outcomes of trust between the team leader and his/her subordinates, it is important to acknowledge that trust is not the entire answer. In all cases, there is a great deal of research that has provided evidence that factors other than trust also impact the decision for an employee to communicate with his/her leader, leave the organization, and perform at maximum capability. However, the intent of this section was to show that trust does have an important and unique impact on outcomes that are important to the organization.

In the following section, a number of issues regarding the measurement of trust will be discussed. This section is included in this article because in reviewing the trust literature, a number of methodological issues regarding the measurement of trust were identified. In this section, measurement issues are briefly discussed in an effort provide some 'food for thought' for future researchers. We argue that it is important to draw attention to these issues so that as future research is conducted to test the model proposed herein the methodological issues in the measurement of trust can be addressed. We have limited this discussion to the issues of survey measurement and the aggregation of individual trust measurement to the team-level.

## 5. Measurement issues

Throughout the study of trust and related constructs, researchers have overwhelmingly relied on traditional surveys to gather evidence to support or refute the importance of trust. This over-reliance is crucial to the interpretation and meaningfulness of the empirical research for three reasons. One reason is that trust is an affective construct that may vary considerably depending on context and experiences as opposed to an objective reality (Mayer et al., 1995). That is, it is commonly conceded that while some believe that individuals have a baseline propensity to trust upon which all relationships begin, factors such as the policies and procedures external to the dyad, prior experiences between the individuals, and even the perceived similarity (e.g., gender ethnicity, credentials) between the trustor and trustee can impact reported levels of trust. As such, by measuring trust through traditional surveys, researchers are only gathering a snap shot of trust at the time of data collection. At times, this is appropriate. However, more emphasis should be placed on the dynamic nature of trust and the conditions under which the research findings presented will hold true.

A second reason that traditional surveys may be problematic is because trust perceptions may not be shared by the trustor and the trustee (Mayer et al., 1995) due to variability in the interpretations of context and experiences. This is especially the case when individuals are in different places within a hierarchical relationship in the organization. From the perspective of a leader and subordinate, individuals in the workplace constantly evaluate implicit messages of trust and trustworthiness through overt behaviors and attitudes such as delegation, information sharing, perceived quality of the relationship, and reward/feedback given (Brower et al., 2000). Given this, examination of the mutuality of trust ratings has provided evidence that asking the supervisor how much he/she trusts a subordinate and asking that subordinate how much the supervisor trusts him/her may result in little overlap. This can be problematic if researchers do not first consider whose perspective is of interest and whether convergence of ratings is meaningful. The third reason that traditional surveys may be faulty in measuring trust is because humans appear to have poor insight into their decisions to trust coworkers and assume rational decision-making processes are acting (Sims, Fritzsche, & Salas, 2003). Thus, using traditional measures of trust, it may be difficult to make sense of and gain a deeper understanding of the trusting relationship that exists within a team or department.

The second measurement issue we will address in this article and that must be considered in future trust research is the leap from dyadic measurement of trust to multi-member groups and teams. The vast majority of trust research has examined the influence of trust within dyads. In addition, much of this research has been limited to mix-motive conflict situations in which dyads must decide to cooperate or compete. In modern research, however, much richer experimental designs are emerging. Additionally, researchers have begun to argue that solely focusing on dyads is less practical to understanding behaviors in the workplace due to an increased reliance on teams. In response to the need to examine trust at the team level, however, most researchers aggregate individual scores by taking mean trust scores from surveys to examine general perceptions of individuals regarding teammates and leaders. This is also problematic because, as can be expected, the trust held for one team member may be significantly higher (or lower) than trust for another team member. This varying level of trust, while potentially important to overall team functioning, is often lost through aggregation which uses a mean index. Thus, new approaches to measurement are needed.

## 6. Concluding comments

In this article, a review of the antecedents, moderators, and outcomes of trust in leadership have been provided. It is hoped that by using the organizing framework of competence, benevolence, and integrity some clarity is offered regarding the issues which are receiving empirical attention and existing gaps. Further, attention is drawn to a subset of measurement issues related to trust research. It is hoped that with this increased attention, researchers may consider alternative research methodologies and leverage the additional insight gained into trust relationships to provide theoretical advances and practical solutions. Two issues that require future examination include further expansion of trust research from dyads to team settings (i.e., three or more individuals) and an assessment of whether the components of trustworthiness (competence, benevolence, and integrity) are equally important in trusting outcomes.

The issue of expanding the trust research to team settings stems from the fact that individual perceptions can be influenced both directly and indirectly by those whom they regularly interact with. For instance, the work attitudes literature has discussed the fact work attitudes of others can be contagious (e.g., Barsade, 2004; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994). That is, attitudes of close coworkers can influence the attitudes of each other. Applying this to trusting attitudes, it is important to begin to examine the interaction of teammates in the development

of trusting attitudes in order to better understand trust. Thus, trust attitudes may be directly influenced through informal discussions among team members regarding events, policies/procedures, and perceptions to ultimately develop a shared trusting attitude towards the leader. In addition, trust in leadership may be indirectly influenced through passive observation of how the leader treats and interacts with other team members. For instance, if the leader is observed treating other team members with integrity and benevolence, the team member may develop more positive trusting attitudes in regards to the leader without directly interacting with the team leader.

The second issue requiring further examination is whether all three components of trustworthiness are equally necessary. In the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) literature, which some researchers have suggested is similar to trust research (Brower et al., 2000), it has been argued that certain components of the LMX (i.e., affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect) may be absent or lacking but still result in overall positive ratings of LMX (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). At this point in the examination of trustworthiness, it is unclear whether the same is true. Thus, future researchers should begin to examine the relative importance and necessity of the three components of trustworthiness.

In conclusion, it is hoped that we have not only provided some clarity to constructs commonly examined in trust research but has also piqued the interest of researchers in expanding the methodologies used and some of the potential weaknesses that currently exist in our understanding of trust in the team settings.

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