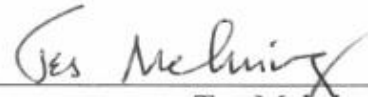


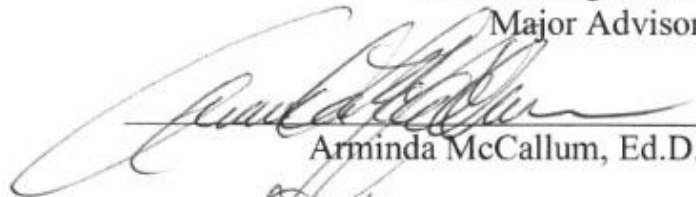
**The Army's Requirement to Build Trust: Self-Perceptions of Army Civilians
Attending Army Management Staff College Courses**

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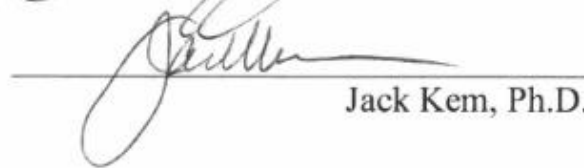
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Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership



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Abstract

At the time of the current study, leaders from a wide variety of institutions were struggling with the issue of building trust within their organizations. Army civilian leaders were no exception. Despite numerous leadership theories, Army doctrine, and two prominent annual personnel surveys, nearly one-third of Army leaders struggle with building trust within their organizations. This study investigated the extent the Army Management Staff College (AMSC) resident course students perceived they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust while attending one of the three resident AMSC courses. Additionally, the study investigated the effect of respondents' enrollment in one of the three AMSC resident courses, the impact of prior military service, length of Army civilian service, gender, and generational status on respondents' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust. The study's survey was based on the Army doctrine's Builds Trust leadership competency. One and two-sample *t* tests, and one-factor ANOVAs were used to test the hypotheses. The results indicated that AMSC students perceive they meet the Army's requirement to build trust. Additionally, the study indicated male AMSC students' Builds Trust Survey scores were higher than female students' scores, but both male and female students indicated they perceive themselves as consistently modeling the build trust leadership requirement. There were no statistically significant differences related to level of AMSC course (basic, intermediate, advanced), prior military service, length of Army civilian service, or generational status. The study's results provide evidence that AMSC students finishing one of the three resident courses perceive they are modeling behaviors that build trust as required by Army doctrine. The results of this study corroborate the Army's approach to

leadership is consistent with the body of work associated with building trust. Finally, the study expanded the current understanding of building trust as a leadership competency.

Dedication

To Dana, thanks for your commitment, encouragement, and the occasional kick in the pants.

Acknowledgments

Dr. Tes Mehring and Dr. Peg Waterman for their time and diligence. Dr. Tom and Dr. Jack for the inspiration. My many AMSC directors and colleagues, and my CGSC teaching team for sticking with me throughout the years. My fellow veterans whom we owe a great debt. My parents whom I owe my life. My sons and their families for understanding. My wife for her love and devotion. Finally, my God whom I trust.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Secretary of State Colin Powell (2003) shared, “Trust is the essence of leadership” (p. 1) while addressing a leadership conference. Trust is an essential element of effective leadership and “is most beneficial if it pervades the organization and is found at all levels from top leadership to supervisors and frontline employees” (Starnes, Truhon, & McCarthy, 2010, p. 8). Despite what is taught and known regarding trust in a leader, some leaders continue to struggle with building and maintaining trust within their organizations. The lack of understanding can cause leaders to abandon so-called ‘soft skills’ such as trust during times of crisis or when things start to unravel and go wrong. To that end, Senge (as cited in Smith, 2011) posited the following, “Diagnoses of what went wrong inevitably focused on strategic errors and operational breakdowns but rarely trace sources upstream to relationships that failed to generate the deep trust...that demanding circumstances required” (Foreword section, para. 4). This study explored how Army Management Staff College (AMSC) students perceive they meet the Army’s requirement for leaders to build trust.

Background

For over 50 years, multiple disciplines have researched and studied the connection between trust and leadership (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Theories such as charismatic leadership (Weber, 1947), servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970), and Graen and Uhl-Bien’s (1995) leader-member exchange (LMX) have highlighted the merits of trust in leaders. Similarly, trust is evident in the transactional leadership theory (Burns, 1978). Bass (1985) stated trust is essential to transformational leadership. Bass and Riggio

(2006) stated, “leaders gain follower trust by maintaining their integrity and dedication...being fair in their treatment...and demonstrating faith in followers by empowering them” (p. 43). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) proposed that the trust in leader literature generally differentiates trust from two perspectives: *relationship-based* which centers on the leader-follower relationship and *character-based* which highlights the follower’s perception of the leader’s character.

Over a century ago, Ernest Shackleton demonstrated relationship-based and character-based perspectives as he led the crew of the ill-fated ship *Endurance*. Reflecting on his story, Harvard Professor Nancy Koehn provided this insight, “Give me someone whom I trust, whom I believe in, who represents an ideal, an objective greater than himself, greater than the transactional, greater than the self-interested. Shackleton is all about that” (as cited in Potier, 2004, p. 5). Not surprisingly, Shackleton’s relationship-based leadership approach was unconventional for the early 1900s. During this era, leaders were looking primarily for highly qualified and skilled crewmembers. Shackleton looked for compatibility of crewmembers in addition to their skillsets. As the ship sank and the epic survival story unfolded, the evidence of the trust his crew had in him and his trust in the crew became apparent. The crew’s trust appeared to be rooted in the relationships Ernest Shackleton established, as well as his character, as noted by his granddaughter Alexandra Shackleton (2002),

Leadership was a two-way thing for him. It wasn’t a case of men following him just because he was the leader; he was devoted to them. It was a reciprocal, very close relationship...He handled them by knowing all members of the expedition very well, their strengths and their weaknesses. There was no discord in his

expedition. He also was not very keen on distinctions of rank. He could and often did do any job on an expedition, however menial, and his men knew that. It was a relationship of such mutual trust that it worked out very smoothly even though at the time it was quite unusual for an officer to talk on equal terms with his men. (p. 1)

Shackleton's story exemplifies an extraordinary example of relationship-based trust, but Army leaders cannot rely solely on relational trust, they need to demonstrate character-based trust, as well.

Joshua Chamberlain is an excellent example of character-based trust. The scholar turned Army officer was a leader of character (Shaara, 1974). Chamberlain's Civil War fame was immortalized in Shaara's book, *The Killer Angels: A Novel of the Civil War* (1974) and in the movie, *Gettysburg* (Maxwell, 1993). Weart (2016) shared the following background and insight into Chamberlain's character,

Raised from a modest life in the small town of Brewer Maine...chose the professions of ministry and academia filling in the post...at Bowdoin College during the tumultuous 1850s. As the Civil War broke out...Chamberlain felt the impulse to serve based on his belief in preserving the union and his moral conviction against the institution of slavery... the Governor of Maine...offered him the rank of Colonel in the Maine volunteers...Chamberlain declined...Believing he needed to gain experience and knowledge of the military profession, Chamberlain's uncommon act of humility set a tone for the remainder of his service. (p. 1)

Wear (2016) continued, describing how Chamberlain's character ultimately built trust within his unit,

During the march from Maryland to Pennsylvania...Chamberlain's 20th Maine Regiment received over 120 mutineers from the 2nd Maine...Given the orders to shoot any man who did not follow his command...Chamberlain relied on his sense of dignity for others...refusing to shoot the mutineers...appealed to their needs and reminded them of their cause...This moment served as a galvanizing force for the 20th Maine...all but 6 of the 120 men...joined the 20th's ranks and proved pivotal at the impending engagement on Little Round Top. (p. 2)

The trust that Chamberlain built with the soldiers of the 20th Maine was tested when he led the fateful bayonet charge which repulsed a Confederate assault at a crucial point and time at Little Round Top during the Battle of Gettysburg (Ruggero, 2010). Ruggero (2010) captured the essence of Chamberlain's character-based and relationship-based trust that he had built as a leader, "Chamberlain's men were willing to step up...in the heat of battle because they trusted him. Trust is something we develop over time by making small deposits when people learn they can rely on us" (p. 1). At the end of the war, Chamberlain was selected to receive the surrender of Lee's Army of Northern Virginia at Appomattox Courthouse (Price, 2017). He carried out the mission with the same notable character as he had demonstrated over the years while leading in combat,

As the 20,000 Confederate Soldiers paraded by to turn over their arms...

Chamberlain gave the...command of "carry arms" to salute Confederate's service and gallantry in battle...historians credit this gesture as the launching point for the country's healing process toward reconciliation...a man of deep religious and

moral conviction, Chamberlain placed high value on the dignity of human life and...preserving the Union. His unquestionable character forms the foundation for his more celebrated virtues. (Weart, 2016, p. 2)

Clawson (1999), drawing on the leadership lessons from Chamberlain's story stated, "Truth telling, promise keeping, fairness, and respect for the individual are an essential foundation for creating an environment...trust and respect that build on top of that foundation are essential for insuring a voluntary response to leadership initiative" (p. 147).

The multiple perspectives about the importance of trust in leaders are not lost on our nation's Army. The Army's leadership doctrine clearly states the requirement for both military and civilian leaders to build trust with their teammates. The Army's leadership manual, *Army Doctrine Publication 6-22: Army Leadership (ADP 6-22)* (2012c) specified, "Soldiers trust their leaders. Leaders must never break that trust, as trust is the bedrock of our profession" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c, Foreword section). Building on that theme, *ADP 6-22* included a summary of the leadership competency of "Builds Trust" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d, p. 6-7) with the following, "Trust enables influence and mission command. When high levels of trust exist, people are more willing and naturally accepting of influence and influence is more likely to occur in multiple directions" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e, p. 6-7). This competency is comprised of the following leader behaviors: "sets personal example of trust, takes direct actions to build trust, and sustains a climate of trust" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e, p. 6-8).

Concurrent with the emphasis on building trust, the Army adopted the philosophy of mission command which enhances communication, empowerment, and trust within organizations (Odierno, 2012). Around the same time the Mission Command philosophy was adopted, the Chief of Staff of the Army reiterated that trust is “the bedrock of our honored profession” (Allen & Braun, 2013, p. 73). With this proclamation came three perceived threats to trust in the Army: misunderstanding and the inability to discuss the frameworks surrounding trust, trust between cohorts of the Army profession and within its members of the Army, and finally, violations of public trust.

Army Regulation 600-100, *Army Profession and Leadership Policy*, (U.S. Department of the Army, 2013) specified, “the Army strengthens trust by confirming the professional development of Soldiers and Army Civilians and the readiness of organizations” (p. 3). The AMSC is responsible for the Army Civilian Corps’ (ACC) members’ professional leadership development - leader development, which is grounded in the same leadership doctrine as that of their military counterparts. The AMSC provides leadership development as a part of its basic, intermediate, and advanced courses. The two-week resident Basic Course introduces the ACC’s direct-level leaders to the fundamentals of leadership such as communication, problem solving, critical thinking, and team building (AMSC, 2017). The resident three-week Intermediate Course prepares participants for direct and organizational leadership levels. “Students enhance their leadership abilities and develop skills to manage human and financial resources, displaying flexibility and resilience with a focus on the mission” (AMSC, 2017, para. 2). The four-week resident Advanced Course focuses on the enterprise and strategic level of leader development. The focus is, “...on Army Civilians skilled in

leading a complex organization in support of national security and defense strategies; ...inspiring vision and creativity; implementing change; and managing programs” (Army Management Staff College, 2017, p. 1).

Statement of the Problem

Army doctrine, numerous theorists, and research and empirically-based literature have pointed to the necessity of creating trust and development of character qualities that convey trust in order for leaders to more effectively lead organizations. Yet the 2016 Federal Employees Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) (Office of Personnel Management, 2016) and 2016 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) survey (Center for Army Leadership, 2016) indicated that nearly one-third of Army leaders struggled with building trust within their organizations. Any breach of trust is unfortunate and costly, resulting in lost productivity and potentially the loss of talent from Army organizations. In addition, loss of trust also has a negative impact on the Army’s ability to conduct its mission and to properly care for its members. General Robert Cone (2011) stated,

If our trust is lost with the American people, the repercussions on the institution will take years to overcome. If our trust as leaders is lost with our subordinates, we cannot effectively lead and will ultimately fail in our mission. (p. 6)

Despite the research, doctrine, and leadership theories that emphasize the requirement for leaders to build trust, stories of Army leaders’ inappropriate and immoral behavior continue. The result is a gap in trust leaving subordinates disheartened by the senior leaders’ behaviors (Glonek, 2013). Research has suggested there are several potential contributing factors that cause subordinates to lose trust in a leader or an organization.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) stated, “five types of behavior that impact trust including behavioral consistency, behavioral integrity, participative decision-making, communication, and demonstrating concern....In short, trust in leadership appears to be associated with a well-established set of leadership actions and behaviors” (p. 18).

The Army has recognized the importance of trust in leaders and adopted Builds Trust as a leadership competency in its leadership doctrine. At the time of this research, the AMSC had not studied the Army’s doctrinal leadership competency of “Builds Trust” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d, p. 6-7) in Army civilians attending its resident courses.

Purpose of the Study

The first purpose of this study was to investigate the extent the AMSC resident courses students perceived they meet the Army’s requirement for leaders to build trust while attending one of the three resident AMSC courses. The second purpose was to examine any differences among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students’ perceptions of meeting the Army’s requirements for leaders to build trust. The third purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of prior military service on students’ perceptions of building trust. A fourth purpose of the study was to examine whether length of ACC service impacted students’ perceptions of the requirement to build trust. The fifth purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of gender on students’ perceptions of a leader’s requirement to build trust. The final purpose of the study was to examine whether generational membership impacted students’ perceptions of a leader’s requirement to build trust.

Significance of the Study

This study focused on the necessity for Army leaders to build subordinates' trust in their leaders and organizations. Second, it provided insight into the level of awareness and internalization of the Army's leadership requirements model by Army civilians attending resident AMSC courses. The results of this study should be of interest to all leaders within the Army and in particular to leaders of Army civilians. In addition, the results of this study should be of interest to researchers studying the perceptions of the necessity for leaders to build trust, Army instructors and course administrators, Army doctrine writers, and most importantly, the individuals attending AMSC courses.

Delimitations

Lunenberg and Irby (2008) stated that delimitations are "boundaries set by the researcher on the purpose and scope of the study" (p. 134). A delimitation of this study was that it focused on individuals who are completing AMSC courses and variables that may have impacted their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust. A second delimitation was that the research emphasized Army leadership doctrine, as it serves as the primary underpinning of all AMSC courses. Non-Army leadership theories were not used in the development of the Builds Trust Survey (BTS).

Assumptions

Lunenburg and Irby (2008) stated, "assumptions are postulates, premises, and propositions" (p. 138) which are accepted and necessary for research. This study was conducted with the following assumptions in mind:

- 1) The respondents understood the principles contained in the Army's leadership doctrine.

- 2) The respondents understood the questions and associated terminology used in the BTS.
- 3) The order of the questions on the BTS did not impact the participants' responses.
- 4) The data were analyzed accurately and represented the perceptions of the participants.

Research Questions

This quantitative study focused on AMSC students' perceptions of the extent they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust. The Army's primary leadership manual summarized the leadership competency Builds Trust as, "Leaders build trust to mediate relationships and encourage commitment among followers. Trust starts with respect among people and grows from common experiences and shared understanding" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d, p. 6-8). The competency is divided into three components: "sets personal example for trust, takes direct actions to build trust, and sustains a climate of trust" (p. 6-8). Six research questions guided this study:

RQ1. To what extent do AMSC students perceive themselves as meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust?

RQ2. To what extent is there a difference among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students' perceptions of their meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust?

RQ3. To what extent is there a difference between AMSC students who have prior military experience and AMSC students without prior military experience in their perceptions of their meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

RQ4. To what extent is there a difference between AMSC students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian in their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

RQ5. To what extent is there a difference between female and male AMSC students' perceptions of their meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

RQ6. To what extent is there a difference among the Baby Boomer generation, Generation X, and Millennial generation AMSC students' perceptions of their meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

Definition of Terms

This section provides terms and definitions used throughout the study to enable the reader clarity and understanding. Locke, Spirduso, and Silverman (2013) believed that researchers should define terms to aid those individuals outside the field of study in understanding words that go beyond the regularly used language.

Army Civilian Corps (ACC). According to the U.S. Department of the Army (2012a), "The Army Civilian Corps provides the complementary skills, expertise, and competence required to project, program, support, and sustain the uniformed side of the Army. Title 5, USC, governs the Army Civilian Corps" (p. A-3).

Army Profession. According to the U.S. Department of the Army (2015a), the Army profession is comprised of, "a unique vocation of experts certified in the ethical design, generation, support, and application of landpower, serving under civilian authority and entrusted to defend the Constitution and the rights and interests of the American people" (p. 1-2).

Army Management Staff College (AMSC). According to the AMSC (2017) it, “educates and develops the Army Civilian Corps for leadership and management responsibilities throughout the Army and serves as Executive Agent for the Army CES” (para. 1).

Baby Boomer. Individuals born between the years of 1946-1964 are identified as the Baby Boomer generation (Zickuhr, 2010).

Civilian Education System (CES). The AMSC (2017) described the CES as, “a progressive and sequential leader development program that provides enhanced educational opportunities for Army Civilians throughout their careers” (para 2).

Generation X. Individuals born between the years of 1965-1976 are referred to as Generation X or Gen X (Zickuhr, 2010).

Millennial. Individuals born between the years of 1977-1992 are referred to as Millennials (Zickuhr, 2010).

Organization of the Study

The study is comprised of five chapters. Chapter 1 introduced and provided background on trust in leadership. This chapter defined the problem, stated the purpose of the study as well as the significance, delimitations, research questions, key terms, and organization of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature relating to trust in leadership. Chapter 3 presents the research design, selection of participants, measurement, data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and limitations. In Chapter 4, the data analysis and the results of hypothesis testing are presented. The final chapter provides a summary, findings related to the literature, and conclusions including implications for actions and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

Trust is an essential component of leadership and has been referred to as “the bedrock” of leadership by a former Chief of Staff of the Army (Allen & Braun, 2013, p. 73). There is abundant literature, theories, and research on the topic of trust resulting in multiple definitions depending on the academic discipline (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Greenleaf, 1970; House, 1976; Northouse, 2013; Weber, 1947; Yukl, 2006). Most authors have agreed that developing trust in leaders is essential for the creation of high performing teams. “When a leader speaks it is important to be able to have confidence in the honesty, truthfulness, and sincerity of the words. This is the essence of trust” (Mineo, 2014, p. 1). Leaders of Army civilians must continue to work toward creating and maintaining trust throughout the organization and with the American people (Allen & Braun, 2013). The Army’s leadership doctrine specifically addresses trust in its leadership competency “Builds Trust” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d, p. 6-7). The literature review will define trust, review the small number of builds trust leadership models, summarize how varied leadership theories have defined trust, review how trust is defined in Army leadership doctrine, and describe Federal and Army surveys that have addressed Army civilian trust in leadership.

Defining Trust

The study of trust has become popular in the last 50 years, but a common definition is elusive. Webster succinctly defined trust as, “the assured reliance on the character, ability, strength, or truth of someone or something” (Trust, 1995, p. 1344). Academia struggles for clarity when attempting to define trust,

Trust...tends to be somewhat like a combination of weather and motherhood; it is widely talked about, and it is widely assumed to be good for organizations. When it comes to specifying just what it means in an organizational context, however, vagueness creeps in. (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975, p. 497)

Organizational studies have viewed trust through the lens of the interaction of people in the same organization. Trust that develops relationships or friendships has been studied by psychology and sociology researchers (Castaldo, 2007). McLeod (2015) described trust from a philosophical perspective and stated that trust is dangerous and involves risk. McAllister (1995) examined the cognitive and affective nature of trust. He stated that cognition-based trust centers on the reliability and competence of the one being trusted. Affect-based trust, according to McAllister (1995), centers on relationships and reciprocity found within the relationship. Additionally, Starnes et al. (2010) characterized trust as basic, simple, blind, and authentic. These authors believed the latter leads to productive relationships. The Army doctrine stated trust is the, “assured reliance on the character, ability, strength, or truth of someone or something” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c, p. 2). The Army also described trust as, “reliance upon others, confidence in their abilities, and consistency in behavior” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d, p. 6-7). Bass (2008) specifically addressed the topic of trust in leaders, Trust of followers in the leader is linked to the leader’s esteem. Strongly related to trust in the leader is the leader is the follower’s perception of competence, caring, integrity, and willingness to serve others. Also important are the leader’s accuracy and consistency in communication that explains decisions in simple,

easily understood language. Perceived authenticity is likely to make a difference as well. (p. 262)

Bass's thoughts and themes are found throughout leadership theory and Army doctrine.

Theoretical Framework

Research to discover a specific theoretical framework or models associated with building trust resulted in minimal results. Blanchard (2013) stated, "Trust is built through the intentional use of specific behaviors that, when repeated over time, create the condition of trust" (p. 2). His ABCD model (2013) introduced four behaviors needed to build trust or to be considered trustworthy: able or competent, believable or integrity, connected and caring, and dependable or reliable. Mineo (2014) reviewed two well known leadership models looking for connections to trust building and found no specific mention of building trust as a requirement for leadership. Addressing the absence of trust within one of the models Mineo (2014) stated,

There are three broad activities that make up their model: Vision, Alignment, and Execution. This model, like most other models, speaks to multiple activities, including creating clarity, creating a sense of urgency around leadership undertakings, providing the opportunity for dialogue, and being inspirational. All of these are admirable actions but can they happen without trust in the leader who is attempting to champion the philosophies of Vision, Alignment and Execution or any other set of leadership attributes? (p. 2)

Due to the absence of a specific builds trust theoretical framework or an appropriate builds trust model, the current study focused on prominent leadership theories and Army doctrine's descriptions of trust.

Trust as a Part of Leadership Theories

In past decades, many have theorized what makes a good leader. A study of trust in leadership would be incomplete without reviewing theories of leadership to capture how well known leadership theorists viewed trust. The role of trust in various leadership theories including charismatic, servant, leader-member exchange (LMX), transactional, and transformational will be presented in this section.

Charismatic leadership theory. Weber (1947) introduced the religious concept of charisma or a ‘divinely inspired gift,’ as he studied how authority related to leaders and their followers. Weber (1947) described charisma and charismatic leaders as possessing,

a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities...It is recognition on the part of those subject to authority which is decisive for the validity of charisma. This is freely given and guaranteed by what is held to be a ‘sign’ or proof, originally always a miracle, and consists in devotion to the corresponding revelation, hero worship, or absolute trust in the leader. (pp. 357-358)

House (1976) observed that leaders with charisma are, “capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers” (p. 1). House continued, “The term charisma, whose initial meaning was ‘gift,’ is usually reserved for leaders...able to cause followers to accomplish outstanding feats” (p. 1). Burns (1978) reminded us that charismatic or heroic leaders often arise during a profound crisis of trust, “Heroic leaders - in contrast with leaders who are merely enjoying popular favor – usually arise in societies

undergoing a profound crisis. Existing mechanisms of conflict resolution have broken down...in short a crisis in trust” (p. 244). Trice and Beyer (1986) summarized the charismatic leadership theory with five necessary components: an extraordinarily gifted person, a crisis, a radical solution, followers who believe they are transcendentally linked to the extraordinary person, and repeated validation of the extraordinary person’s gifts (as cited in Bass, 2008). According to Conger and Kanungo (1987), a charismatic leader’s trust is extraordinary trust similar to reverence. Additionally, the authors addressed the cost to build trust for charismatic leaders,

The higher the personal cost or sacrifice for the common good, the greater is the trustworthiness of leaders. The more leaders demonstrate that they are prepared to take high personal cost for achieving the shared vision, the more they are charismatic in the sense of being worthy of complete trust. (p. 642)

Yukl (2006) extended the discussion of the importance for charismatic leaders to build trust,

Leaders are more likely to be viewed as charismatic if they make self-sacrifices, take personal risk, and incur a high cost to achieve the vision they espouse. Trust appears to be an important component of charisma, and followers have more trust in a leader who seems less motivated by self-interest than by concern for followers. (p. 250)

Servant leadership theory. One might argue that the concept of servant leadership or one who serves his followers dates to biblical times. The Bible’s Old Testament introduced a young shepherd boy named David, who modeled serving and shepherding as the King of Israel, “And the Lord said to you, ‘You will shepherd my

people Israel, and you will become their ruler.’ ” (2 Samuel 5:2, New International Version). The New Testament directly addressed the role of the servant leader, “The greatest among you will be your servant. For those who exalt themselves will be humbled, and those who humble themselves will be exalted” (Matthew 23:11, New International Version). Additionally, the New Testament offered this example of servant leadership,

Jesus called them together and said, “You know that those who are regarded as rulers of the Gentiles lord it over them, and their high officials exercise authority over them. Not so with you. Instead, whoever wants to become great among you must be your servant, and whoever wants to be first must be slave of all. For even the Son of Man did not come to be served, but to serve, and to give his life as a ransom for many.” (Mark 10: 42-45, New International Version)

The current theory or philosophy of servant leadership is attributed to an essay written by Greenleaf (1970). The author shared the following insights on servants as leaders,

The servant-leader is servant first... It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is a leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions... A servant-leader focuses primarily on the growth and well-being of people... While traditional leadership generally involves the accumulation and exercise of power by one at the “top of the pyramid,” servant leadership is different. The servant-leader shares power, puts the needs of others first and helps people develop and perform as highly as possible. (p. 1)

Simmons (2011) stated servant leadership produces an “affect-based trust, which is trust based on an emotional bond to the leader because people believe the leader genuinely cares and is concerned about their welfare.” Hollis (2015), connecting servant leadership and building trust, shared,

To serve and to lead may be two separate entities but a strong leader is able to master both; serve employees by leading them to practice the same qualities that would merit trust. Gaining the trust of others comes from your personal character... (p. 1)

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory. Leader-member exchange theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) is focused on the interactions or exchanges between the leader and the follower. These interactions are also known as a “dyadic relationship” (Northouse, 2013, p. 162). Northouse stated that good leader-member exchanges create more satisfied followers who accomplish more and achieve success for the organization. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991) suggested leadership develops in three phases: the stranger phase, the acquaintance phase, and the partnership phase. During the mature partnership phase, “relationships experience a high degree of mutual trust, respect, and obligation toward each other” (Northouse, 2013, p. 167). Additionally, Davis and Bryant (2009) concluded that within LMX, “trust, and performance are reciprocally related and mutually reinforce each other over time” (p. 515).

Transactional leadership theory. Burns (1978) described transactional leadership as, “leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another...Such relationships comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers” (p. 4). Transactional leadership is divided into two factors, contingent reward,

and management-by-exception (MBE). Contingent reward is an “exchange process between leaders and followers in which effort by followers is exchanged for specified rewards” (Northouse, 2013, p. 195). MBE is a management style involving correction and reinforcement and is either active or passive (Northouse, 2013). Addressing the issue of trust in transactional leadership, Bass (2008) cautioned, “Unless it can be tightly controlled by habit, contract, law, rules, norms, and regulations, such collaboration requires trusting relationships to be effective” (p. 258). Transactional leadership is often connected to and contrasted with transformational leadership (Northouse, 2013).

Transformational leadership theory. Burns (1978) described ‘transforming leadership’ as,

More complex...more potent...recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower...looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result...is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers to leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. (p. 4)

Northouse (2013) stated, “Transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms people...involves an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected” (p. 185). Bass (1985) continued Burns’ earlier work and codified the continuum between transactional and transformational leadership theories. Bass and Avolio (1994) determined transformational leadership was comprised of four factors: “idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individual consideration (IC)” (p. 112). The four ‘I’s’ of transformational leadership were combined with transactional leadership’s contingent

reward and MBE to form a new model, the Full Range of Leadership (Bass, 2008, p. 624). The model placed transformational leadership on the left side of a continuum, transactional leadership at the midpoint, and the absence of leadership or laissez-faire leadership on the right side of the continuum (Northouse, 2013).

Of course, leadership theory is moot without a leader of sound character. The transformational leadership theory proposed people follow leaders who demonstrate trust and honesty. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), “Transformational leaders gain trust by maintaining their integrity and dedication...in their fair treatment of followers, and by...empowering them.” (p. 43). The additive factor, idealized influence, highlights the role of trust found in this theory (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Idealized influence describes leaders as strong models of ethical and moral conduct and followers who want to emulate and trust their leaders (Northouse, 2013). Simmons (2011) shared these transformational leadership characteristics,

Transformational leadership is characterized by having a compelling agenda of high performance and change and providing clear structure to help team members pursue the agenda. Transformational leadership was found to affect cognition-based trust, which is trust based on the belief that the leader is competent, responsible, reliable, and dependable. (p. 2)

Yukl (2006) stated the following about transformational leadership, “the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect towards the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they were originally expected to do” (p. 262).

Trust as a Part of Army Leadership Doctrine

Trust is vital to the function of the Army and is considered foundational to Army leadership. The Army defined trust as, “assured reliance on the character, ability, strength, or truth of someone or something” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012a, p. 2-2). In the Army’s culture, trust is demonstrated in numerous ways from a private trusting the squad leader to maneuver the squad effectively to the paratrooper trusting the parachute rigger to correctly pack a parachute to a deploying soldier trusting the Army civilian to update pay and allowances. Trust is multifaceted and includes: trust between soldiers, trust between soldiers and their leaders, trust between soldiers and Army civilians, trust among soldiers, their families, and the Army, and trust between the Army and the nation (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012a). The importance of trust is evident throughout Army doctrine.

In 1948, the Army published *U.S. Department of the Army Pamphlet 22-1: Leadership*, and used elements of trust to describe the first prerequisite of leadership, character,

the keystone and the bedrock. Your men must have absolute confidence in your good character. Your word must be your bond. They must know that you would not be false in honor, duty, or country under any circumstances. (p. 1)

Additionally, this publication described the responsibility of military leadership as twofold, “accomplishment of his mission and his duty to his men” (p. 1). The essence of the 1948 document is still found in the Army’s current definition of leadership, “...the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation to

accomplish the mission and improve the organization” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e, p. 4-7).

In 2012 the Army introduced *Army Doctrine Publication 1: The Army (ADP 1)* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012a). *ADP 1* reinforced the concept of trust as a foundation for the Army profession. *ADP 1* borrowed from Webster’s definition of trust, “assured reliance on the character, ability, strength, or truth of someone or something” (p. 2-2). Three years later, *Army Doctrine Reference Publication 1: The Army Profession (ADRP 1)* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015a) introduced the essential elements of the profession: trust, honorable service, military expertise, stewardship, and esprit de corps. The manual continued with this reminder, “The members of the Army Profession, Soldiers, and Army Civilians, create and strengthen the Army culture of Trust” (p. Foreword section). *ADRP 1* described external and internal trust. External trust, “is the confidence and faith that the American people have in the Army to serve the Nation ethically, effectively, and efficiently. It is the bedrock of our relationship with society” (p. 3-1). Internally, the Army professionals rely on the character, competence, and commitment of other Army professionals. Army professionals are evaluated and certified by these criteria,

Character: dedication and adherence to the Army Ethic, including Army Values, as consistently and faithfully demonstrated in decisions and actions.

Competence: demonstrated ability to successfully perform duty with discipline and to standard.

Commitment: resolve to contribute honorable service to the Nation and accomplish the mission despite adversity, obstacles, and challenges. (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015a, p. 3-2)

Failing to meet the standard causes distrust and there is a greater loss of trust if those failures are not addressed by leaders (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015a). Lastly, *ADRP 1* stated that adherence to the Army ethic is the source of both internal and external trust for the Army profession (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015a).

In 2012, after a decade of continuous combat operations, the US Army reviewed all aspects of its leadership doctrine. The result was the introduction of revamped and categorized publications, including *Army Doctrine Publication 6-22: Army Leadership (ADP 6-22)* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c) which provided an overview of leadership. That same year, the Army introduced *Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-22: Army Leadership (ADRP 6-22)* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e) which delved deeper into the leadership concepts introduced in the smaller *ADP 6-22*. *ADP 6-22* reinforced the foundational qualities of trust in a leadership context and introduced additional aspects of trust such as its role in influence, relationships, and in the Army's leadership requirements model (LRM) (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c). The LRM is comprised of three main leader attributes: character, presence, and intellect. These three leader attributes are combined with three main leader competencies: leads, develops, and achieves. Specifically, *ADP 6-22* introduced 'Builds Trust' as an element within the Leads competency and established a clear connection to the Army's command philosophy of Mission Command. The more comprehensive *ADRP 6-22* described the Army's leadership doctrine in greater detail, including the role of trust. The *ADRP*

specifically introduced Army civilians with the three levels of leadership: direct, organizational, and strategic (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). *ADRP 6-22* provided additional detail to the builds trust competency, but *Field Manual 6-22: Leader Development (FM 6-22)*, (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015c) provided even greater detail.

FM 6-22 provided Army professionals with a guide focusing on developing themselves and others as leaders who are, “adaptable...able to achieve mission accomplishment in dynamic, unstable, and complex environments. Properly designed...programs develop trusted leaders of character, competence, and commitment” (p. 5-1). *FM 6-22* is, “extraordinarily sophisticated...founded in sound psychological research and psychiatric theory...” (Gourguechon, 2017, p. 1). Drawing from *FM 6-22*, Gourguechon stated, “trust is fundamental to the functioning of a team or alliance in any setting...” (p. 1). Additionally, *FM 6-22* advised leaders to, “shape the ethical climate of their organization while developing the trust and relationships that enable proper leadership” (p. 5-1). The *FM 6-22* clearly laid out the standard for Builds Trust and directed that a leader, “establishes trust by demonstrating respect to others and treating others in a fair manner. Uses common experiences to relate to others and build positive rapport. Engages others in activities and sharing of information that contribute to trust” (p. 6-6). The *FM 6-22* introduced the three components of the builds trust competency, “sets personal example for trust, takes direct actions to build trust, and sustains a climate of trust” (2015c, p. 7-10). Additionally, this document provided indicators of strengths and needs, underlying causes of mistrust, and suggested feedback, and further study for each component.

Ultimately, properly developed leaders encompass all the leadership competencies and attributes. Competencies and attributes that develop leaders who build trust with subordinates and others, and which are foundational to effective teamwork are essential for the application of Army's command philosophy titled, mission command (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). The principles of mission command emphasize communication, empowerment, and trust.

In addition to the previously described leadership manuals, the U.S. Department of the Army introduced the principles of mission command in *Army Doctrine Publication 6-0: Mission Command* (2012b) and *Army Doctrine Reference Publication 6-0: Mission Command* (2012d) in an effort to capitalize on leadership lessons learned during this period of extended combat and the complexity of the operational environment. While the term mission command was new, "the principle of trust--mission command's guiding principle--has been followed by successful leaders for centuries" (Sharpe & Creviston, 2013, p. 1). A former Chief of Staff of the Army used communication, empowerment, and trust within organizations to describe mission command (Odierno, 2012) and emphasized trust as the "bedrock" (Allen & Braun, 2013, p. 73) of the profession. This contrasted with the trappings found in the legacy command and control methods used by the Army. Army doctrine described six interrelated principles of mission command: "builds cohesive teams through mutual trust, create shared understanding, provide a clear commander's intent, exercise disciplined initiative, use mission orders, and accept prudent risk" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b, p. 2). Ultimately, all six elements work together to build effective teams that produce accomplishment of stated expectations.

Focusing on the Mission Command's building teams through mutual trust, the U.S. Department of the Army (2015b) introduced *Army Technical Publication 6.22.6, Army Team Building*. The Army's approach to teambuilding is viewed as a continuous process following three stages: forming, enriching, and sustaining. Building teams with mutual trust is a critical aspect of the Army's need to form effective teams to, "complete tasks, achieve objectives, and accomplish missions" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b, p. iv). According to the U.S. Department of the Army, "A key to effective teamwork is the cooperative or coordinated effort of individuals acting together as a group or in the interests of a common goal. Teamwork is built on mutual trust and commitment to the team" (p. 1-2). Each stage continues to emphasize the need to build trust. In the formation stage, the leader sets the tone and guides the team so that, "members begin to build trust, understand how to collaborate, and learn to communicate effectively" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b, p. 1-3). During the enrichment stage, commitment to the team continues to increase and members feel more a part of the team. This is accomplished when "increased trust and commitment... becomes more cohesive" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b, p. 1-3). The sustainment stage finds leaders trusting their teams more, and team members are empowered. These effective teams are characterized by trust among teammates and members capable of predicting each other's actions, as they quickly accomplish the mission to a high standard.

The U.S. Department of the Army (2017) released *Training Circular 6-22.6: Employee Engagement (TC 6-22.6)*. *TC 6-22.6* provided leaders of Army civilians an integrated doctrinal guide to complement Army leadership doctrine and to help increase team members' commitment to the organization and the mission. While leaders and

organizations contribute to employee engagement, "...the employee determines the level of engagement they possess" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2017, p. 1-1). *TC 6-22.6* provided a model for employee engagement, which depicts the nesting of five progressive factors: mission, organizational, work unit, employee, and work. Mission factors include aligning with the vision and applying a service ethos. Organizational factors focus on good communication, providing appropriate processes, and adequate resources. Work unit factors address the trust and support, respect and fairness, and teamwork found in the organization. The factor labeled work looks at the task and the level of autonomy given to the employee. Four of the *TC*'s six chapters address the above-mentioned factors in detail and provide techniques to assess strengths, address team improvement areas, and sustain success at each level of the model.

TC 6-22.6 addressed the relationship between communication and trust, "Trust is the basis of open communication" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2017, p. 3-3).

TC 6-22.6 also specified, "communication fosters trust and trust facilitates communication" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2017, p. 3-3). The work unit factors chapter expands on the importance of building trust,

In the most effective organizations, leaders display high levels of integrity, strength of character, and support for employees. When this occurs, employees trust in leadership and are more likely to be engaged in their work. Trust is essential to all effective relationships and building trust is an Army leadership competency. Demonstrating care and support for follower well-being reinforces a positive organizational climate and builds trust. One way to support employees

and foster trust is to ensure leaders are aware of employee needs and show this by advocating for their needs and being considerate of their well-being. (p. 4-1)

Federal and Army Surveys Addressing Army Civilian's Trust in Leadership

The annual Federal Employees' Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) (Office of Personnel Management, 2018) was designed to, "measure employees' perceptions of whether, and to what extent, conditions characteristic of successful organizations are present in their agencies" (p. 1). The FEVS results provided government agencies valuable insights into their civilian workforce (p. 1). Although the FEVS is administered by the Office of Personnel Management (OPM), the Army's senior leadership reviews and considers the information collected to inform future personnel decisions (U.S. Department of the Army, 2016). The U.S. Department of the Army 2016 survey showed that trust, while showing some improvement over the past years, remains an issue in the Army Civilian Corps. In response to the survey statement, "I have trust and confidence in my supervisor" (Office of Personnel Management, 2017, p. 153), over 36% of respondents did not agree with the statement. Similar results were found in the Army's annual leadership survey.

The CASAL reinforced the FEVS' findings. The 2016 CASAL (Center for Army Leadership, 2016) study, inquiring about the principles of mission command, stated, "The principle with the most room for improvement is Building Effective Teams through Mutual Trust. Less than two-thirds of civilian leaders are rated effective at building effective teams (63%) and at the competency Builds Trust (65%)" (Center for Army Leadership, 2016, p. vii). The authors of the survey suggested additional observations about the relationship between toxic or counterproductive leadership and building trust,

Counterproductive leadership behaviors tend to be assessed as more frequently occurring at the first line supervisor level of leadership than at higher levels.

Analysis of subordinates' ratings shows that civilian leaders who effectively Build Trust, demonstrate Sound Judgment, and demonstrate Empathy are least often perceived to demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors.

Counterproductive leadership behaviors run contrary to the Army Values and strain bonds of trust in organizations. Subordinates report low levels of trust in civilian leaders whom they perceive to demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors, and assess these leaders as less effective in trust-building behaviors.

Civilian leaders who engage in a combination of counterproductive behaviors are perceived as having adverse effects on command climate; the cohesion, discipline, and capability of the teams and work groups they lead; and the work quality, engagement, and morale of their followers. (Center for Army Leadership, 2016, p. vii)

The report reinforced trust as an essential aspect of leadership, "Trust is a key factor that strongly contributes to civilian leader respondent satisfaction with the quality of leadership in units and organizations" (p. 30).

Summary

The leadership literature and research reinforce the necessity for leaders to build trust within their organizations. The literature review concentrated on trust in leadership and building trust by reviewing the definition, leadership theories, Army leadership doctrine, and surveys which examined trust in leadership. While previous research has included Army civilians, no studies were found that investigated how Army civilians

perceive themselves as meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust. In addition, no studies examined how course level (basic, intermediate, advanced), prior military experience, work experience, gender, or generational status impacts AMSC students' perceptions about meeting the Army requirement for leaders to build trust. Chapter 3 describes the research design, selection of participants, measurement, data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and limitations.

Chapter 3

Methods

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the extent that AMSC resident course students perceive they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust. The study explored the differences in student perceptions across the three resident AMSC courses: basic, intermediate, and advanced. Additionally, the study examined the impact of prior military service, length of Army civilian service, gender, and generational status differences in how students perceived they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust. This chapter describes the research design, selection of participants, measurement, data collection procedures, and data analysis and hypothesis testing. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the study.

Research Design

The current study involved the use of a quantitative methods research design. According to Creswell (2009), quantitative research is characterized by experimental design or by survey design. For this study, a survey design was deemed most appropriate. Creswell further explained survey design and its results, "A survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. From sample results, the researcher generalizes or makes claims about the population" (p. 145). The AMSC students' perceptions of the extent they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust was the dependent variable for the study. The independent variables were: the course the student was attending (Basic, Intermediate, Advanced), military service (prior military service, no military experience), length of Army civilian service (less than 10 years, 10

years or more), gender (female, male), and generation status (Baby Boomer, Generation X, Millennial) of AMSC students.

Selection of Participants

The population for the current study included all students who were attending AMSC resident courses at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas ending in October through early November 2018. During this time 232 students attended one of the three resident AMSC courses offered at AMSC. All 232 students were invited to participate in a voluntary survey.

Measurement

There are many surveys that assess leadership qualities. Some are general while others assess traits and behaviors associated with specific theories. No surveys were found that specifically addressed the Army's builds trust leadership competency (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). As a result of the lack of an existing survey, the researcher developed the *Builds Trust Survey* (BTS) (Appendix A) to measure the level Army civilians perceived they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust. Army doctrine, specifically the LRM, found in *ADP 6-22* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012c), *ADRP 6-22* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e), and *FM 6-22* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015c) requires all Army civilians to build trust. *ADRP 6-22* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e) divided the leadership competency, Builds Trust, into three components: sets personal example of trust, takes direct actions to build trust, and sustains a climate of trust.

The BTS is comprised of two parts. Part 1 consisted of 12 questions derived from three components and nine subcomponents of the builds trust competency. The

researcher purposely constructed the survey to reflect current Army doctrine which is the foundation of the AMSC's curriculum. The purpose of Part 1 of the BTS was to provide a Builds Trust score for each respondent based on the responses to the 12 doctrinally based questions. Scoring corresponded with the levels depicted in the Likert type scale in Part 1 of the BTS: 1 equals low which means the respondent rarely models the competency, 2 equals moderately low which means the respondent inconsistently models the competency, 3 equals moderate which means the respondent generally models the competency, 4 equals moderately high which means the respondent consistently models the competency, and 5 equals high which means the respondent is a role model of the competency. The score for each question ranged from 1 to 5 points, depending on the level the respondent selects. The total score on the BTS ranged between 12 and 60.

The questions in Part 1 of the survey were derived from the Army's doctrinal LRM and specifically the "Builds Trust" (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012d, p. 6-7). competency. The researcher compared the Dirks and Ferrin (2002) five behavioral types found in trust relationships with leaders with the components and subcomponents of the Builds Trust competency. The five behavioral types include the following: behavioral consistency (BC), behavioral integrity (BI), participative decision-making (PDM), communication (C), and demonstrating concern (DC). Table 1 shows the alignment with the Dirks and Ferrin (2002) five behaviors (BC, BI, PDM, C, and DC) and the Army's Builds Trust leadership competency, the competency's components and subcomponents, and the corresponding BTS survey question.

Part 2 of the BTS focuses on five demographic questions: course attending, veteran status, number of years of Army civilian service, gender, and generation. The

first demographic question asks respondents to select the AMSC course they are attending: basic, intermediate, or advanced. The second demographic question requires participants to respond yes or no to whether they had prior military experience. Demographic question three asks the respondents to mark either fewer than 10 years or 10 or more years of Army civilian service. The fourth question asks the respondents to select their gender: female, male, or no response. Finally, respondents identify their birth year range: prior to 1946, 1946-1964, 1965-1976, 1977-1992, and after 1992. The response to this question allowed the researcher to determine which generational cohort each respondent belonged to: Baby Boomer (1946-1964), Generation X (1965-1976), or Millennial (1977-1992) as described by Zickuhr (2010). The researcher included 'prior to 1946' and 'after 1992' responses to allow every respondent the opportunity to answer every question on the BTS.

Table 1

Builds Trust Components and Subcomponents – Dirks and Ferrin Behaviors

Builds Trust Components and Subcomponents	Five Behaviors	Item
Sets personal example for trust ^a	BC, BI, PDM, C, DC	1
Is firm, fair, and respectful to gain trust	BC, BI, C, DC	2
Assesses degree of own trustworthiness	BC, BI	3
Takes direct actions to build trust ^a	BC, BI, PDM, C, DC	4
Fosters positive relationship with others	BC, C, DC	5
Identifies areas of commonality (understanding, goals, and experiences)	PDM, C, DC	6
Engages other members in activities and objectives	PDM, C, DC	7
Corrects team members who undermine trust with their attitudes or actions	BC, BI, C, DC	8
Sustains a climate of trust ^a	BC, BI, PDM, C, DC	9
Assesses factors or conditions that promote or hinder trust	BC, BI, C, DC, PDM	10
Keeps people informed of goals, actions, and results	BC, BI, C, DC	11
Follows through on actions related to expectations of others	BC, BI, C, DC	12

Note. BC = behavioral consistency; BI = behavioral integrity; PDM = participative decision-making; C = communication; DC = demonstrating concern. Adapted from “Trust in Leadership: Meta-analytic Findings and Implications for Research and Practice,” by K. T. Dirks and D. L. Ferrin, 2002, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, pp. 611-628.

^a Denotes the three primary components of the Builds Trust competency.

Lunenburg and Irby (2008) stated, “Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure” (p. 181). Nine AMSC faculty members reviewed the BTS to ensure validity. The faculty who reviewed the BTS survey were selected based on their expertise in Army leadership doctrine, operational experience, and understanding of AMSC course curriculum. All of the selected reviewers were experienced instructors with more than 20 years of military and Army civilian service. Five of the reviewers were directors within the AMSC. Two of the reviewers were

former senior leaders in the Center for Army Leadership. One reviewer was serving in the military and was a graduate of both the AMSC Advanced course and the Army's Intermediate Level Education course. Lastly, one reviewer was a retired military officer with over two decades of academic experience in business colleges and at the AMSC. The faculty members confirmed that the survey represented the doctrinal concepts associated with Builds Trust.

For an instrument to be valid it must be reliable (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). "Reliability is the degree to which an instrument consistently measures whatever it is measuring" (p. 182). Cronbach's alpha was calculated to determine the internal consistency across the 12 items. The Cronbach alpha was developed,

...to provide a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale: it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. Internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept and hence it is connected to the inter-relatedness of the items within the test. Internal consistency should be determined before a test can be employed for research or examination purposes to ensure validity. (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011, p. 53)

The value of alpha increases when items in a survey or test are correlated. The use of alpha comes with cautions. The length of the test can impact the internal consistency, the value of alpha can be lower if the test is too short. Additionally, the alpha value is for a particular group of respondents. Investigators calculate alpha or some other measure of reliability every time the test or survey is administered (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

To determine the reliability of the BTS, the survey was administered to 40 AMSC staff and faculty. The researcher selected respondents from all teaching and staff

departments, and all respondents were graduates of at least one AMSC course or a military equivalent. Many had completed both courses. The staff and faculty respondent breakout by department included the following: staff - five participants; distance learning – four participants; basic course – three participants; intermediate course – 12 participants; and advanced course – 16 participants. The BTS was administered to each of the 40 staff and faculty participating in the reliability study. A total of 39 completed surveys were returned. Three of the 39 were invalid due to missing one response per survey and the remaining 36 included responses for all 12 questions. The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) software was used to calculate the Cronbach alpha score for the BTS. The BTS was determined to be reliable, using the Cronbach alpha method, with an alpha of .85, which is considered to be within the acceptable .70 to .95 range (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to data collection, a Proposal for Research was sent to the Baker University Institutional Review Board on September 12, 2018. A letter of approval was received on October 23, 2018 from the Baker University Institutional Review Board (Appendix B). An additional Proposal for Research was submitted to the Army University's Institutional Review Board on October 23, 2018 to ensure the research was in compliance with Department of Defense directives. Army University's letter of approval was received on October 24, 2018 (Appendix C). The researcher provided the BTS to the AMSC Quality Assurance Office for input into its digital survey instrument, Verint. All students attending resident AMSC courses ending in October through early November 2018 received an email which contained a link to the BTS during the final week of their

respective courses. The email addressed the voluntary and anonymous nature of the survey, and informed participants that completion of the survey was evidence of their consent for the researcher to use their information (Appendix D). The participants were given 12 days to complete the survey. AMSC instructors reminded students to complete the surveys as a part of end of course activities. Additionally, the AMSC Quality Assurance Office emailed reminders to the students to complete the BTS.

Students enrolled in the AMSC's basic, intermediate, and advanced courses which began on October 15, 2018, were the respondents for the BTS. The BTS was emailed to Basic Course students on October 24, 2018 and remained available through November 4, 2018. Intermediate Course students were emailed the BTS on October 31, 2018 and remained available through November 11, 2018. The Advanced Course students were emailed the BTS on November 7, 2018 and remained available through November 18, 2018. The final BTS was emailed to a second Basic Course cohort on November 14, 2018 and remained available through November 25, 2018. The data were downloaded by the AMSC using the Verint software on the date the final survey closed. The data were retrieved from the AMSC Quality Assurance office and then transferred into SPSS software for data analysis.

Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

Data were analyzed using the SPSS software. The following research questions, hypotheses, and hypothesis testing directed the study:

RQ1. To what extent do AMSC students perceive themselves as meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust?

H1. AMSC students perceive themselves as meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust.

A one-sample *t* test was conducted to test H1. The sample mean was tested against a null value of 36. The level of significance was set at .05.

RQ2. To what extent is there a difference among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust?

H2. There is a difference among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust.

A one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test H2. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement to build trust, was AMSC students' level of course enrollment (Basic, Intermediate, or Advanced). The level of significance was set at .05.

RQ3. To what extent is there a difference between AMSC students who have prior military experience and AMSC students without prior military experience in their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H3. There is a difference between AMSC students who have prior military experience and AMSC students without prior military experience in their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to test H3. The mean perceptions sample for students with prior military experience and students without prior military experience were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

RQ4. To what extent is there a difference between AMSC students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian in their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H4. There is a difference between AMSC students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian in their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to test H4. The mean perceptions sample for students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

RQ5. To what extent is there a difference between female and male AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H5. There is a difference between female and male AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to test H5. The mean perceptions sample for female AMSC students and male AMSC students were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

RQ6. To what extent is there a difference among Baby Boomer generation, Generation X, and Millennial generation AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H6. There is a difference among Baby Boomer generation, Generation X, and Millennial generation AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H6. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement to build trust, was generation (Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennial). The level of significance was set at .05.

Limitations

According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), "Limitations are factors that may have an effect on the interpretation of the findings or on the generalizability of the results" (p. 133). The generalization of the study results was potentially limited by the following:

- 1) The study relied on self-reported data. Human nature may lead respondents to inflate or deflate their abilities to build trust when self-reporting (Dunning, 2005).
- 2) There are a small number of first-generation citizens and foreign national or host nation Army civilians attending AMSC courses who are English as a Second Language (ESL) speakers. The current study did not examine whether being an ESL speaker had any impact on interpretation of BTS questions or responses.

Summary

Chapter 3 included a summary of the methodology used in the current study. This chapter contained a description of the research design, selection of participants, measurement, data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and the limitations of the study. The fourth chapter provides the descriptive statistics and the results of the hypothesis testing.

Chapter 4

Results

The current study's purpose was to examine AMSC students' perceptions that they meet the requirement to build trust as described in the Army's leadership requirements model (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). Additionally, the study investigated the effect of respondents' enrollment in one of the three AMSC resident courses, the impact of prior military service, length of Army civilian service, gender, and age on respondents' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust. This chapter provides the descriptive statistics, results of the hypothesis testing, additional analyses, and a summary.

Descriptive Statistics

A link to the BTS was emailed to the 232 students attending one of the three AMSC courses (Basic, Intermediate, Advanced) during October and November 2018 at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Of the 232 students, 107 voluntarily responded to the BTS for a 48% response rate. Twenty-two students were attending one of the two basic courses conducted during this timeframe, 40 enrolled in the intermediate course, 43 were from the advanced course, and two students elected not to identify which course they attended. More veterans than non-veterans participated in the survey with 59 military veteran respondents, 47 with no military experience, and one did not respond. When asked about total years of Army civilian service, 45 answered they had fewer than 10 years of service, 61 indicated 10 or more years of experience, and one did not respond. Regarding gender, 40 females and 65 males responded to the survey, and two did not respond. The largest generational representation was from Generation X with 53

respondents born between 1965 and 1976. The lowest generational representation was 22 respondents from the Baby Boomer generation which is comprised of individuals born from 1946 to 1964. Thirty millennials, which is comprised of respondents born between 1977 and 1992, responded to the BTS. No respondents were born prior to 1946 and one was born after 1992.

Hypothesis Testing

Six hypotheses were tested based on six research questions. One and two-sample *t* tests, and one-factor ANOVAs were used to test the hypotheses. The six research questions, hypotheses, analysis, and the results of the hypothesis testing are provided in this section.

RQ1. To what extent do AMSC students perceive themselves as meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust?

H1. AMSC students perceive themselves as meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust.

A one-sample *t* test was conducted to test H1. The sample mean was tested against a null value of 36. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the one-sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the sample mean and the null value, $t = 13.290$, $df = 106$, $p = .000$. The sample mean ($M = 49.29$, $SD = 7.19$) was higher than the null value (36). AMSC students perceive themselves as consistently modeling behaviors the Army includes in the builds trust leadership competency. H1 was supported.

RQ2. To what extent is there a difference among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust?

H2. There is a difference among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust.

A one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test H2. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, perceptions of the degree to which participants model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust, was the course the student was attending (Basic, Intermediate, Advanced). The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the analysis indicated no statistically significant difference between at least two of the means, $F = 0.581$, $df = 2, 102$, $p = .561$. See Table 2 for the means and standard deviations for this analysis. No follow-up post hoc was warranted. There is no difference among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students' perceptions of the degree to which they model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust. H2 was not supported.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Results of the Test for H2

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Basic	47.68	8.44	22
Intermediate	49.65	7.37	40
Advanced	49.40	6.28	43

RQ3. To what extent is there a difference between AMSC students who have prior military experience and AMSC students without prior military experience in their perception of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H3. There is a difference between AMSC students who have prior military experience and AMSC students without prior military experience in their perception of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to address H3. The two sample means were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two-sample *t* test indicated no statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -1.544$, $df = 104$, $p = .126$. The sample mean for respondents with no military experience ($M = 48.04$, $SD = 7.05$) was not different from the sample mean for respondents with military experience ($M = 50.20$, $SD = 7.25$). There is no difference between AMSC students who have prior military experience and AMSC students without prior military experience in their perception about the degree to which they model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust. H3 was not supported.

RQ4. To what extent is there a difference between AMSC students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian in their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H4. There is a difference between AMSC students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian in their perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A second two-sample t test was conducted to address H4. The two sample means were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two-sample t test indicated no statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -0.690$, $df = 104$, $p = .490$. The sample mean for students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian ($M = 48.69$, $SD = 7.79$) was not different from AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian ($M = 49.67$, $SD = 6.80$). There is no difference between AMSC students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian in their perceptions of the degree to which they model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust. H4 was not supported.

RQ5. To what extent is there a difference between female and male AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H5. There is a difference between female and male AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A third two-sample t test was conducted to test H5. The two sample means were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two-sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -2.244$, $df = 103$, $p = .027$. The sample mean for female students ($M = 47.45$, $SD = 8.34$) was lower than the sample mean for male students ($M = 50.62$, $SD = 6.07$). See Table 3 for the means and standard deviations for this analysis. Male students' perception of the degree to which they model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust is higher than their female classmates. However, it should be noted that the average BTS score for males and the

average BTS score for females differed by 3.17 points. Both of these scores indicate that participants rated themselves as consistently modeling the behaviors associated with the builds trust leadership competency. H5 was supported.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for the Results of the Test for H5

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Female	47.45	8.34	40
Male	50.62	6.07	65

RQ6. To what extent is there a difference among Baby Boomer generation, Generation X, and Millennial generation AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust?

H6. There is a difference among Baby Boomer generation, Generation X, and Millennial generation AMSC students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust.

A second one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H6. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, AMSC students' perceptions of the degree to which they model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust, was generation (Baby Boomer, Generation X, Millennial). The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the analysis indicated no statistically significant difference between at least two of the means, $F = 0.456$, $df = 2, 102$, $p = .635$. See Table 4 for the means and standard deviations for this analysis. No follow-up post hoc was warranted. There is no difference among Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennial generation students'

perceptions about the degree to which they model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust. H6 was not supported.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the Results of the Test for H6

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Baby Boomer	50.64	5.22	22
Generation X	48.91	7.78	53
Millennial	49.27	7.30	30

Additional Analyses

After reviewing the SPSS frequency tables and charts for the first 12 BTS questions, the researcher observed the BTS mean score for question 8 was lower than the BTS scores for the other 11 questions. See Table 5 below. Question 8 asked, “To what level do you correct team members who undermine trust?” The researcher conducted additional analyses to determine if the mean score for question 8 was statistically lower than the mean scores of the other 11 questions.

Eleven additional two-sample *t* tests were conducted. The results of the two-sample *t* tests revealed a statistically significant difference between the mean BTS score for question 8 ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .96$) and the mean scores for 10 of the other 11 remaining questions’ BTS scores ($p = 0.000$) (See Table 5). For all questions except question 10, the responses were significantly higher than the responses for question 8. The difference between the responses to question 10 and question 8 was not statistically significant even though the responses to question 10 were slightly higher than those to 8.

Table 5

Hypothesis Tests Comparing BTS Question 8 Responses ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .96$) with all Other BTS Question Responses

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
1	4.23	0.76	5.445	.000***
2	4.26	0.77	5.665	.000***
3	4.04	0.82	3.667	.000***
4	4.15	0.56	4.758	.000***
5	4.40	0.75	6.897	.000***
6	4.19	0.75	5.065	.000***
7	4.21	0.81	5.077	.000***
9	4.12	0.70	4.643	.000***
10	3.83	0.93	1.883	.061 [†]
11	4.17	0.82	4.749	.000***
12	4.10	0.97	3.893	.000***

Note. For all two-sample *t* tests, *df* = 212.

[†]*p* < .10. *** *p* < .001

Summary

This chapter presented descriptive statistics and the results of the hypotheses testing. The results of the data analyses revealed that students attending the AMSC courses perceive they are modeling competencies associated with building trust as required by Army doctrine. There was a statistically significant difference between female and male AMSC students' perceptions of the degree to which they model behaviors associated with the Army leadership competency builds trust, although scores for both genders were above the null value of 3. The results indicated no statistically significant differences among respondents based on the following factors: the course the student was attending, veteran status, length of Army civilian service, and generation

membership. The researcher observed the BTS mean score for question 8 was lower than the BTS scores for the other 11 questions. Additional analyses revealed responses to all questions except question 10 were significantly higher than the responses for question 8. The difference between the responses to question 10 and question 8 was not statistically significant. Chapter 5 is a summary of the study and the findings. Additionally, Chapter 5 presents findings associated with pertinent literature, and concludes with implications and recommendations for further action and research.

Chapter 5

Interpretation and Recommendations

This study examined AMSC students' perceptions that they meet the Army's requirement to build trust. The first purpose of this study was to investigate the extent AMSC resident courses students perceive they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust while attending one of the three resident AMSC courses. The second purpose was to examine any differences among Basic Course, Intermediate Course, and Advanced Course students' perceptions of meeting the Army's requirements for leaders to build trust. The third purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of prior military service on students' perception of building trust. A fourth purpose of the study examined whether length of ACC service impacted students' understanding of the requirement to build trust. The fifth purpose of the study investigated the impact of gender on students' understanding of a leader's requirement to build trust. The final purpose of the study examined whether or not generational membership impacted students' understanding of a leader's requirement to build trust. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the problem, purpose statement and research questions, overview of the methodology, and major findings. Additionally, the final chapter contains findings related to the literature, and provides conclusions which address implications for action, recommendations for future research, and concluding remarks.

Study Summary

The study focused on students attending one of the three resident AMSC courses and their perceptions on whether they meet the Army's requirement to build trust. The student perceptions were studied through the lens of the Army's 'builds trust' leadership

competency found in the Army's LRM (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). The 'builds trust' leadership competency consists of three components and nine subcomponents (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e).

Overview of the problem. Army doctrine, numerous theorists, and research and empirical-based literature have pointed to the necessity of creating trust and developing character qualities that convey trust in order for leaders to more effectively lead organizations. The 2016 FEVS (Office of Personnel Management, 2016) and 2016 CASAL survey (Center for Army Leadership, 2016) indicated that nearly one-third of Army leaders struggled with building trust within their organizations. The Army has recognized the importance of trust in leaders and adopted builds trust as a leadership competency in its leadership doctrine (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). At the time of the current research, the AMSC had not studied the Army's doctrinal leadership competency of builds trust for Army civilians attending resident courses.

Purpose statement and research questions. The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the extent AMSC resident course students perceive they meet the Army's requirement for leaders to build trust while attending one of the three resident AMSC courses. The Army's primary leadership manual, *ADRP 6-22* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e) summarized the leadership competency builds trust as, "Leaders build trust to mediate relationships and encourage commitment among followers. Trust starts with respect among people and grows from common experiences and shared understanding" (p. 6-8). The competency is divided into three components: "sets personal example for trust, takes direct actions to build trust, and sustains a climate of

trust” (p. 6-8). Six research questions guided the study and the development of a survey instrument, the Builds Trust Survey (BTS).

Review of the methodology. The current study used a quantitative research methodology. A survey instrument, the BTS, was developed to measure AMSC resident course student’s perceptions about how well they were meeting elements of the Army’s builds trust competency. The survey was emailed to 232 students attending one of the three AMSC resident courses. The data from 107 respondents were input into SPSS for data analyses. One and two-sample *t* tests, and one-factor ANOVAs were used to test the hypotheses.

Major findings. The study revealed that AMSC students perceive themselves as meeting the Army’s requirements for leaders to build trust. Additionally, the study indicated male AMSC students BTS scores were higher than female student’s scores. Although there was a difference in the scores, both male and female students indicated they perceive themselves as consistently modeling the builds trust leadership requirement. There were no differences among students attending AMSC resident courses (basic, intermediate, advanced), between students with military experience and students without military experience, between AMSC students with fewer than 10 years as an Army civilian and AMSC students with 10 or more years as an Army civilian, and among Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennial respondents’ perceptions about meeting the Army’s requirements for leaders to build trust.

The BTS score for Question 8 appeared to be unusually lower than the scores for the remaining 11 questions. Additional analysis indicated a slight difference between the Question 8 score and the scores for each of the other 11 BTS questions. AMSC students’

ratings for correcting teammates who undermine trust tended to ‘generally model the competency’ versus the ‘consistently model the competency’ ratings for the other 11 BTS questions.

Findings Related to the Literature

The results of the study support existing research and literature regarding trust as an essential component of leadership. AMSC students perceive themselves to consistently model the builds trust competency specifically in the components, “sets personal example for trust,” and “sustains a climate of trust” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e, p. 6-8). Participants indicated they generally model the leadership competency’s component, “takes direct actions to build trust” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e, p. 6-8). The student perceptions that they are building trust correlates to current leadership theory, Army leadership doctrine, and shows progress in the area of trust highlighted in the FEVS and CASAL studies.

Based on the results of the BTS, AMSC students appear to understand what Chamberlain (Weart, 2016) and Shackleton (as cited in Potier, 2004) both innately understood about the need to build trust as a leader. Likewise, the students’ self-perception that they are meeting the Army’s requirement to build trust aligns with what has been theorized about trust as an essential element of leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Greenleaf, 1970; House, 1976; Northouse, 2013; Weber, 1947; Yukl, 2006). The AMSC participants response to BTS Question 1, “To what level do you set the example for trust for your team,” suggests the respondents understand trust is an important component of leadership. Setting the example of trust may come at a high cost such as personal sacrifice or individual risk, characteristics of charismatic

leadership theory (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Yukl (2006) extended the discussion of the importance for charismatic leaders to build trust,

Leaders are more likely to be viewed as charismatic if they make self-sacrifices, take personal risk, and incur a high cost to achieve the vision they espouse. Trust appears to be an important component of charisma, and followers have more trust in a leader who seems less motivated by self-interest than by concerned for followers. (p. 250)

Servant leadership theory follows a similar path as the leader places serving the team over self (Greenleaf, 1970). The AMSC participants indicated they consistently model the builds trust competency in response to questions that focused on fostering positive relationships with team members to build trust, identifying areas of common interest to build trust, and engaging team members to build trust. AMSC participants affirmative responses to these three elements of trust also correlate with servant leadership theory. Greenleaf (1970) described servant leaders attributes as,

... focuses primarily on the growth and well-being of people... While traditional leadership generally involves the accumulation and exercise of power by one at the “top of the pyramid,” servant leadership is different. The servant-leader shares power, puts the needs of others first and helps people develop and perform as highly as possible. (p. 1)

Simmons (2011) stressed that servant leaders create affect-based trust or an emotional bond between the leader and follower. Hollis (2015) elaborated on this concept when he stated, “Gaining the trust of others comes from your personal character...” (p. 1).

AMSC students' responses to BTS questions 5, 6, and 7 also indicate participants perceive they consistently model the concepts which underpin the transformational leadership theory: character, fairness, and empowerment. Bass and Riggio (2006) stated these traits were fundamental for leaders to build trust. Simmons (2011) indicated, "Transformational leadership was found to affect cognition-based trust, which is trust based on the belief that the leader is competent, responsible, reliable, and dependable" (p. 2). Leaders who build trust gain "admiration, loyalty, and respect," and followers, "are motivated to do more than they were originally expected to do" (Yukl, 2006, p. 262).

Army leadership doctrine considers character as a fundamental leadership attribute. Character, competence, and commitment help create a trusted Army professional (Center for Army Profession and Ethic, 2018). *ADRP 6-22*, the Army's leadership doctrine manual, stated character, presence, and intellect are the primary leadership 'attributes' within the LRM (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). The LRM is comprised of attributes and competencies (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). The core leader competencies are leads, develops, and achieves, and Builds Trust is a subordinate competency of the core competency 'leads' (Department of the Army, 2012e). The BTS was designed around the three components and nine subcomponents of the builds trust competency (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e). Respondents perceive they consistently model leadership components and subcomponents included in the Army LRM builds trust leadership competency.

AMSC students perceive they consistently model the Army's requirement to build trust with teams. This is crucial to fulfilling the Army's accepted leadership philosophy and its command philosophy, Mission Command (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b).

A leader's ability to build trust within an organization provides a critical and necessary link to Mission Command. There are six components of the mission command philosophy: build cohesive teams through mutual trust, create shared understanding, provide a clear intent, exercise disciplined initiative, use mission orders, and accept prudent risk (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012a, p. iv). *FM 6-22* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015c), the Army's leadership development manual, links the leadership competency builds trust directly to 'build cohesive units through mutual trust' and 'create shared understanding' (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b). 'Build cohesive teams through mutual trust' ties directly to the leadership requirement to build trust, specifically in the areas of 'sets personal example' and 'sustains a climate of trust' (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b). When leaders 'create shared understanding' by using appropriate influence methods, they build trust within their teams (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b). Additionally, McLeod (2015) believed trust involves risk, which helps link builds trust to mission command's principle of 'accept prudent risk' (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012b). As students finish AMSC courses they perceive they consistently model behaviors associated with building trust.

As they continue to develop as leaders, AMSC students' perception that they consistently model competencies related to the Army's requirement to build trust could positively impact future FEVS and CASAL outcomes. The FEVS is designed to, "measure employees' perceptions of whether, and to what extent, conditions characteristic of successful organizations are present in their agencies" (Office of Personnel Management, 2018, p. 1) and provide insights into the federal government's civilian workforce (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2018). Army leaders use

these insights and information gathered from CASAL to inform personnel decisions (U.S. Department of the Army, 2016). Recent results of FEVS and CASAL surveys showed that the Army needs to continue to address trust within its organizations. A report from a recent CASAL stated, “Subordinates report low levels of trust in civilian leaders whom they perceive to demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors, and assess these leaders as less effective in trust-building behaviors” (Center for Army Leadership, 2016, p. vii). AMSC students returning to their organizations perceive they consistently model behaviors to build trust in their teams. These perceptions should help address the report’s concerns for the Army civilian workforce.

Analyses of BTS results identified a difference in how female and male AMSC students perceive they model behaviors related to the Army’s requirement to build trust. Female students’ BTS score for the 12 competencies related to building trust was lower than the BTS score for males. Despite a statistically significant difference in the scores, both genders indicated they perceive themselves as consistently modeling the builds trust leadership requirement.

A review of leadership literature revealed the need for research in the area of gender differences in building trust. Recent leadership literature revealed few differences between genders,

There was no significant difference between the men and women in our study regarding leadership skills or ability to handle management and business challenges. Yet, women remain underrepresented in higher levels of leadership....One of the few significant differences between the sexes was level of confidence. Men considered themselves more effective as leaders...This self-

confidence is reflected in how highly they rated their leadership skills....Women, on the other hand, were less likely to rate themselves as highly effective leaders compared to their peers.... (Development Dimensions International, 2014, p. 7)

The literature disclosed gender differences in leadership styles choices between women and men. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2007) found that female leaders prefer transformational leadership, which relies on building trust with subordinates (Avolio & Bass, 1991, Yukl, 2006, Bass, 2008, Simmons, 2011, Northouse, 2013). Male leaders preferred the transactional leadership style (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2007), which Bass (2008) advised, “Unless it can be tightly controlled by habit, contract, law, rules, norms, and regulations, such collaboration requires trusting relationships to be effective” (p. 258).

Army leadership doctrine generally makes no distinction between female and male civilians or soldiers. However, the Army does address a leader’s identity and an individual’s perception of themselves,

Effective leadership begins with developing and maintaining a leader identity.

Identity refers to one’s self-concept. People possess many self-definitions, such as female, strong, smart, or Soldier. Leader identity refers to an individual’s awareness of self as a leader. (U.S. Department of the Army, 2012e, p. 3-5)

Female and male Army civilians who understand their leader identity should continue to build trust whether it is an existing attribute or being developed as a competency.

AMSC students indicated they ‘generally model’ the competency to confront teammates who are undermining trust. *FM 6-22* (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015c)

revealed that the Army leader development doctrine addresses this issue. ‘Taking direct actions to build trust,’ a component of the builds trust competency, states,

Building trust is not a passive exercise. Leaders develop trust in their organizations by taking actions that promote trust. Developing others through mentoring, coaching, and counseling are actions that build trust. When a leader mentors effectively, that leader sends a clear message: I trust you.... Leaders build trust by developing positive relationships with peers, superiors, and subordinates...leaders do not tolerate misconduct or unfair treatment and they take appropriate action to correct unit dysfunction. (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b, p. 7-11)

The Army manual provides a metric to allow leaders to assess themselves and others. The metric presents strength and needs indicators, underlying causes of failure, ways to provide feedback and areas for further study and practice. The manual suggested that leaders who are hesitant to confront teammates who undermine trust should, “Take immediate action to correct the behavior. Provide clear feedback about why the actions or attitudes were contributing to a climate of distrust, and describe expectations for the future” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2015b, p. 7-11). AMSC course graduates returning to civilian employment roles can continue to develop the builds trust competency through self-study and applying the suggested practices found in *FM 6-22*.

Conclusions

This study reviewed how trust is an essential element of leadership and leadership theory. Additionally, it reviewed the Army’s doctrinal requirement for leaders, both military and civilian, to build subordinates’ trust in leaders and organizations. The results

of the study have implications for all Army leaders, especially leaders of Army civilians. The study's results laid a foundation for further research for those studying the perceptions of the necessity for leaders to build trust.

Implications for action. The results of the study may benefit leaders within the Army, Department of Defense, Office of Personnel Management, and leaders in the private sector as they approach building trust within their respective organizations. Survey instruments like the BTS could be used in leader development programs to measure participant perceptions related to trust building competencies. Army doctrine writers can use the results to inform future editions of leadership doctrine. The results of this study may be of interest to researchers studying trust building within teams and organizations, Army instructors and leadership course administrators, and most importantly, the individuals attending AMSC courses, as they continue to develop Army leaders who can build trust within their organizations.

Recommendations for future research. The doctrinally based BTS focused on the examination of the respondents' self-perceptions about modeling behaviors associated with building trust as required by Army doctrine. This study added to the existing leadership research on trust in leaders, specifically the Army leadership competency of building trust. Recommendations for future research include:

- 1) Replicate this study as a part of other Army leader development courses, both civilian and military.
- 2) Replicate this study within all Army organizations.
- 3) Conduct studies related to other Army core leadership competencies that examine gender differences related to building trust.

- 4) Examine how individuals in Army civilian leadership roles learn strategies related to how to correct team members who undermine trust.
- 5) Investigate the merits of using the BTS as a pre-post course measure of AMSC participants perceptions of how frequently they model competencies related to trust building in teams.

Concluding remarks. In Greek mythology, Pistis was the goddess of trust, good faith, and honesty (Atsma, 2017). In some English translations the word pistis can be interpreted as trust, but can also be translated as faith, belief, proof, confidence, fidelity, and faithfulness (Schoenheit, 2016). Faith, belief, confidence, fidelity, faithfulness, and trust are important components of the attributes and competencies found in leaders today.

The results of this study provide evidence that AMSC students finishing any of the three resident leadership courses perceive they are modeling behaviors that build trust as required by Army doctrine. Additionally, the results of this study affirm the Army's approach to leadership is consistent with the body of work associated with leadership, specifically building trust. Finally, the study expanded the current understanding of building trust as a leadership competency.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Builds Trust Survey (BTS)

Part 1. Builds Trust Competency (Adapted from ADRP 6-22 (2012), CH 6 Leads)

Answer Part 1 questions using the scale below. Select the level that best describes you.

- 1 = Low** – *Rarely model the competency*
2 = Moderately Low – *Inconsistently model the competency*
3 = Moderate – *Generally model the competency*
4 = Moderately High – *Consistently model the competency*
5 = High – *Role model the competency*

To what level:

1. Do you set the example for trust for your team?

01 02 03 04 05

2. Are you equitable (e.g. firm, fair, and respectful) to gain trust?

01 02 03 04 05

3. Do you assess your own trustworthiness?

01 02 03 04 05

4. Do you take direct actions to build trust?

01 02 03 04 05

5. Do you foster positive relationships with your team members to build trust?

01 02 03 04 05

6. Do you identify areas of common interest to build trust?

01 02 03 04 05

7. Do you engage team members to build trust?

01 02 03 04 05

8. Do you correct team members who undermine trust?

01 02 03 04 05

9. Do you sustain a climate of trust on your team?

01 02 03 04 05

10. Do you assess conditions that impact trust?

01 02 03 04 05

11. Do you keep team members informed to build trust?

01 02 03 04 05

12. Do you follow through on actions related to expectations of others to build trust?

01 02 03 04 05

Part 2. Demographics

13. Which course are you attending?

- Basic Course**
- Intermediate Course**
- Advanced Course**

14. Are you a military veteran?

- No**
- Yes**

15. What are your total years of Army Civilian service?

- Less than 10 years**
- 10 years or more**

16. What is your gender?

- Female**
- Male**

17. When were you born?

- prior to 1946**
- 1946-1964**
- 1965-1976**
- 1977-1992**
- after 1992**

Appendix B. Baker University Institutional Review Board Approval



Baker University Institutional Review Board

October 23rd, 2018

Dear Brian Blew and Tes Mehring,

The Baker University IRB has reviewed your project application and approved this project under Exempt Status Review. As described, the project complies with all the requirements and policies established by the University for protection of human subjects in research. Unless renewed, approval lapses one year after approval date.

Please be aware of the following:

1. Any significant change in the research protocol as described should be reviewed by this Committee prior to altering the project.
2. Notify the IRB about any new investigators not named in original application.
3. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents of the research activity.
4. If this is a funded project, keep a copy of this approval letter with your proposal/grant file.
5. If the results of the research are used to prepare papers for publication or oral presentation at professional conferences, manuscripts or abstracts are requested for IRB as part of the project record.

Please inform this Committee or myself when this project is terminated or completed. As noted above, you must also provide IRB with an annual status report and receive approval for maintaining your status. If you have any questions, please contact me at npoell@bakeru.edu or 785.594.4582.

Sincerely,

Nathan Poell, MA
Chair, Baker University IRB

Baker University IRB Committee
Scott Crenshaw
Erin Morris, PhD
Jamin Perry, PhD
Susan Rogers, PhD

**Appendix C. U.S. Army Command and General Staff College Institutional Review
Board Approval**

REPLY TO
ATTENTION OFDEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY
U.S. ARMY COMBINED ARMS CENTER
U.S. ARMY COMMAND AND GENERAL STAFF COLLEGE
100 STIMSON AVENUE
FORT LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS 66027-2301

ATZL-LSA-HPA

October 24, 2018

MEMORANDUM FOR: Mr. Brian Blew, Baker University, 618 Eighth St, Baldwin City,
KS 66006SUBJECT: DoD Institutional Administrative Review Approval to Conduct Human
Subjects Research

1. Your protocol to research *The Army's Requirement to Build Trust: Self-Perceptions of Army Civilians Attending Army Management Staff College Courses* dated October 22, 2018 was administratively reviewed on October 24, 2018 by the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College (CGSC) in accordance with DoDI 3216.02, *Protection of Human Subjects and Adherence to Ethical Standards in DoD-Supported Research*.
2. The Baker University Institutional Review Board (IRB) is the supervising IRB for your research study. Baker University does not have a federally assurance to conduct non-exempt research review. However, this administrative review concurred with the risk determination of the Baker University IRB and its determination that the study was exempt from IRB review. The administrative review also ensured you incorporated Department of Defense specific protections into your proposed study.
3. Your proposal is approved with no modifications.
4. You may begin data collection upon receipt of this letter.
5. As an exempt study, your approval to conduct research does not have an expiration date.
6. Notify your IRB and the CGSC Human Protections Administrator (HPA) immediately of any deviations to your study or unforeseen harms to subjects.
7. You are expected to comply with all conditions indicated in this memorandum and to follow your approved protocol. You are subject to monitoring by a member of the CGSC HPA to ensure compliance.
8. Any modifications to this study (including, but not limited to changes in recruitment materials or procedures, investigators, inclusion/exclusion criteria, interview/survey questions, or data collection procedures, or increases in the number of participants enrolled) must be submitted as a written amendment for review and approval by your IRB and the CGSC HPA prior to implementing the change.
9. Failure to follow these guidelines could result in the termination of the approval for your research.

ATZL-LSA-HPA
SUBJECT: DoD Institutional Administrative Review Approval to Conduct Human
Subjects Research

10. Please notify the CGSC HPA, Dr. Bobbie Murray, at bobbie.j.murray6.civ@mail.mil
upon completion of your study.

11. POC is the undersigned at dale.f.spurlin.civ@mail.mil.



DALE F. SPURLIN, PhD
Associate Professor
Exempt Determination Official

Appendix D. Invitation to Participate and Informed Consent

Dear AMSC student,

My name is Brian Blew, I am student working on a doctoral dissertation at Baker University. I am requesting your participation in a research study that is focused on AMSC students' perceptions of trust building in teams. Your role is to answer 12 questions using a 5-point Likert type survey and five demographic questions. The survey should take less than 10 minutes to complete.

Your participation is voluntary, your identity will remain anonymous, and your individual privacy is always protected. You may withdraw from the study at any time or refuse to answer any question. Your participation will have no bearing on your standing as an AMSC student. There is no risk involved in participating and there are no reimbursements or benefits for participating.

By clicking on the link below you acknowledge the information above and consent to voluntarily participate in the research survey.

(hyperlink to survey)

If you need to contact me directly regarding the research, please email me at bgblew@gmail.com or call me at 913.758.3089.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Respectfully,

Brian G. Blew